LCM
LINGUE CULTURE MEDIAZIONI
LANGUAGES CULTURES MEDIATION

http://www.ledonline.it/LCM-Journal

La Collana / The Series

Dipartimento di Scienze della Mediazione linguistica e di Studi interculturali
Università degli Studi di Milano

All works published in this series have undergone external peer review.

Tutti i lavori pubblicati nella presente Collana sono stati sottoposti a peer review
da parte di revisori esterni.

791-8
Garzone Giuliana - Heaney Dermot - Riboni Giorgia (cur.)
Focus on ESP teaching developments and issues

Come concordato, il servizio redazionale è limitato al controllo dell'uniformazione bibliografica. Non è stata pertanto effettuata una lettura puntuale per il controllo dei refusi. Si consiglia quindi una lettura accurata delle bozze.
Nelle bozze sono state inserite alcune note a margine con dubbi, quesiti e proposte.
Qualora non sia già stato fatto si prega di inviare, insieme alle bozze corrette, anche la scheda allegata, compilata e corredata del materiale richiesto per copertina e catalogo come descritto qui di seguito e nella scheda stessa.

Quando già non fosse stato fatto, si prega di consegnare, insieme alla copia controfirmata del contratto, il seguente materiale che verrà utilizzato per catalogo e copertina:
- Indice del volume in linea con inserimento di titoli numerati di capitolo e di paragrafo.
- Testo di presentazione dell'Opera per IV di copertina (massimo 2.000 battute compresi gli spazi).
- Dati su Autore/Autori per IV di copertina (massimo ¼ della lunghezza della presentazione del volume - essenziali materia e sede di insegnamento, facoltativa l'indicazione di campi di ricerca privilegiati e precedenti pubblicazioni).
- Traduzione del titolo in inglese (per inserimento in motori di ricerca).
- da 10 a 20 Keywords sia in italiano sia in inglese (sempre per inserimento in motori di ricerca).
- Figura per copertina ad alta definizione, libera da diritti di riproduzione oppure corredata da liberatoria per lo specifico volume.

AVVERTENZE PRIME BOZZE

– Si prega di verificare che l'uso dei 2 tipi di virgolette risponda a un criterio uniformemente adottato nel volume. Si ricorda la norma redazionale valida per la Rivista: (1) applicare le virgolette doppie ai casi di effettiva citazione (anche di una sola parola), caratterizzata o meno dal <u>preciso</u> riferimento bibliografico (fonte + <u>pagina</u>); (2) utilizzare le virgolette singole per il significato(/traduzione) di termini citati in lingua originale, espressioni da evidenziare, modi di dire ecc. È ammesso l'uso del corsivo per parole in lingua diversa da quella in cui è scritto il cap.

Si prega di verificare:
– La numerazione dei paragrafi in tutti i capitoli del vol.
– La presenza/assenza di cf./see prima dei riferimenti bibliografici che non rimandano a una citazione diretta.
– Che l'uso delle Maiuscole, della virgola (e/o punto) all'interno dei numeri, e del corsivo (es. titolo di Conferenze, documenti, Trattati, termini in lingua diversa dall'ingl. ecc.) sia uniforme in tutto il vol.
– Che la grafia on line / on-line sia uniforme in tutto il vol. o, almeno, nello stesso capitolo.
– L'uniformità (in tutto il vol.) della grafia quando si analizza una singola parola: 'tondo' opp. corsivo? Es.: ..... term 'distribution' oppure term *distribution*?
– La suddivisione delle righe nel Sommario e nei titoli di capitolo/paragrafo.

– Secondo le norme di Collana (vd. tabella abbreviazioni), è stata uniformata l'abbreviazione di numero: nr.
– et al., ibid./ibidem, versus, vs., e.g., i.e., corpus/corpora, ad vocem, a priori, ad hoc, curriculum/a, vice versa, sic, ecc.: queste parole sono scritte in tondo (non in corsivo). Si prega di confermare la scelta.
– Negli elenchi (per norma editoriale LED): se all'interno di un item è presente punto fermo, tutti gli items dell'elenco iniziano con Maiuscola e si concludono con punto fermo.
– Per norma editoriale LED, quando un trattino o la barra / separano espressioni costituite da più di una parola, trattino e barra vanno spaziati prima e dopo.
– Nelle citazioni in corpo minore il numero di nota (o la parentesi con la fonte) va inserito dopo la punteggiatura finale.
– Dal momento che figure e tabelle spesso non possono essere collocate nel punto esatto in cui sono state inserite nel file Word (per ragioni grafiche), è necessario inserire il relativo riferimento interno: si prega di verificarne il posizionamento.
– La risoluzione di alcune figure è molto bassa: si avverte che non è possibile migliorarne la qualità in fase di ritocco.
– Nel volume cartaceo le figure a colori andranno stampate a colori o bianco/nero?
– Nelle tabelle si consiglia di evitare il bold.
– Secondo le norme di Collana, i riferimenti bibliografici multipli sono stati ordinati secondo ordine cronologico. Si prega di segnalare eventuali eccezioni.
– Nelle Bibliografie dei diversi capp. talvolta lo stesso volume/articolo è citato con dati differenti (es. Bhatia, Vijay K. 1993): si prega di verificare e uniformare.
– Nei riferimenti bibliografici è stata applicata la norma redazionale relativa a In/Dans/En e and/e/und/et/y: si segue la lingua del titolo citato.
– Verificare sempre che tutti i riferimenti citati nel testo siano effettivamente presenti nella Bibliografia finale del relativo capitolo.
– Verificare sempre che la grafia (Maiuscole/minuscole, trattini, accenti ecc.) dei cognomi e dei titoli di opera sia uniforme nel testo e nelle diverse Bibliografie dei capitoli.

ISSN 2283-5628
ISBN 978-88-7916-791-8

LED Edizioni Universitarie di Lettere Economia Diritto
Via Cervignano 4 - 20137 Milano
www.lededizioni.com - www.ledonline.it - E-mail: led@lededizioni.com

Volume stampato con il contributo
del Dipartimento di Scienze della Mediazione linguistica e di Studi interculturali
Università degli Studi di Milano

meglio tradurre in ingl?

meglio tradurre in ingl.? inserire didascalia foto

Cover image:
....

Pagination and layout: Paola Mignanego
Printed by: Digital Print Service

Table of Contents

CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL)

Approaches to Teaching ESP: An Introduction

Giuliana Garzone - Dermot Heaney - Giorgia Riboni

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-garz

qui non vanno inserite keywords?

1. Introductory remarks

This volume is one of the end products of the project "Languages for special purposes: Research, teaching and translation" financed by the University of Milan in 2014, and conceived within the activities of the CLAVIER Research Centre, of which the English Linguistics researchers of the Department of Studies in Language Mediation and Intercultural Communication are members [1]. The project focused on Languages for Specific Purposes and set out to explore three different aspects: research, translation and teaching. The essays collected in this volume – all focusing on English – regard specifically the latter aspect, exploring various issues and trends in ESP pedagogy, while ESP research and translation will be tackled in another edited volume (Garzone, Heaney, and Riboni forthcoming).

This does not mean there is no room in this book for reports on research, given that – as Swales (1988) underlines – ESP research and pedagogy are closely interwoven. In actual fact, the need for practically-oriented language teaching to be supported by research was already advocated in the 1960's by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens:

> Every one of these specialized needs requires, before it can be met by appropriate teaching materials, detailed studies of restricted languages and special registers carried out on the basis of large samples of the language used by the particular persons concerned. (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens 1964, 189-190)

[1] Participants in the project: Giuliana Garzone (coordinator), Paola Catenaccio, Liana Goletiani, Kim Grego, Dermot Heaney, Giovanna Mapelli, Bettina Mottura, Maria Cristina Paganoni, Giorgia Riboni.

In time, the difference between the teaching of language for specific purposes and mainstream language teaching became taken-for-granted, and specific research and theorisations about specialised discourse pedagogy started to be produced extensively: in 1977 Strevens (1977, 146) emphasised the importance of "Special-purposed Language Learning" as a "major, world-wide educational tide of change".

As Starfield (2013, 466-467) highlights, the rising interest in LSPs contributed to increasing the relative attention for context and content beyond traditional grammar-focused teaching under the influence of communicative approaches, at a time of rapid technologisation and increasing internationalisation of the economy.

In the last few decades, progress in LSP pedagogy has been stimulated by a number of developments in research in various related fields, especially in linguistics, language acquisition and language pedagogy.

If in the early days of ESP research, terminology was at the centre of the stage, as its deployment was considered to be the only really distinctive trait of specialised communication, in the following phase attention widened to include recurrent syntactic features (e.g. the passive, nominalisation), while in more recent times a discursive approach that looks at text and language in use has prevailed. In this respect an important role has been played by genre analysis (Swales 1990, 2004; Bhatia 1993, 2004; Paltridge 2001; Hyland 2004) in its various periodically updated versions and applications, with increasing importance being attributed to the socially-situated character of genres, i.e. their social and pragmatic dimension [2], and this has eventually led to a more flexible approach, which Tardy (2011) has defined "multi-method". Also the rise of corpus linguistics and other technological advances in language analysis have been a very important factor in the evolution of ESP teaching methods, being useful – as Bloch points out (Bloch 2013, 385) – in two distinct ways, "first, as a tool for helping with traditional types of language learning and, second, as a space for creating new forms of communicating". In particular, recourse to corpus linguistics in ESP teaching has offered important opportunities for course and syllabus design, development of teaching materials, as well as for pedagogically-oriented ESP research, as all these activities can now be grounded in massive collections of data and supported by software for text analysis (Belcher, Johns, and Paltridge 2011, 3-4). In this way, as Paltridge (2013, 351) points out, teachers "are able to show how language is used in

2 On ESP genre-based teaching cf. also – among others – Flowerdew 2002; Johns 2002; Hyland 2011.

the context of particular academic genres", as for instance Hyland (2002) and Harwood (2005) have done for specific features of academic writing (the use of personal pronouns respectively in students' academic writing and in academic research articles) with a view to relying on research results as a basis for teaching.

As regards the choice of the language variety to be taught in the ESP classroom, which had always been oriented towards one of the national standards, with a preference for the English standard, a radical change of perspective has recently occurred as part of a more realistic approach taking account of the fact that in most cases the kind of language actually used in real-world exchanges by non-native speakers is English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF: cf. e.g. Nickerson 2005, 2013; Mauranen 2011). This has initiated an interesting line of research on the use of ELF in LSP contexts, whose results are of great interest both from the pedagogical and the linguistic research perspectives.

ok corsivo (per unif.)?

Another important development in ESP teaching is the introduction of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), thus defined by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, 1):

> [...] a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. That is, in the teaching and learning process, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language. Each is interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time. [3]

This teaching practice has been gaining ground in Europe, after the success of 'Immersion' in Canada, being strongly promoted by European institutions in furtherance of multilingualism. It is now practiced as part of mainstream education and in the form of pilot projects (Euridyce 2006, 33) for the teaching of several different subjects (cf. e.g. Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010). The development of CLIL-like curricula is much more demanding than traditional language teaching, above all in terms of appropriately qualified teachers and suitable teaching materials, and this remains a topic of animated discussion.

All the developments described so far would have been devoid of sense were it not for a tendency that cuts across all of them: the trend to lay ever greater emphasis on learner-centredness (cf. e.g. Hutchinson and Waters

[3] For other definitions of CLIL cf., among others, Dalton-Puffer 2007, 1-5; Marsh 2012, ii. For a definition distinguishing CLIL from other forms of EMI (English Medium Instruction) cf. Dearden 2014, 3.

1987; Johns and Price-Machado 2001), which is the magnification of a principle that – as Belcher (2004, 166) points out – has always been part of the ESP perspectives, as by definition ESP teaching has been aimed at catering to learners' needs in their own academic or occupational contexts.

This initial overview is necessarily general in nature, providing a theoretical vantage point from which to view the action of the current debate on LSP teaching unfold. Naturally, it does not do full justice to the kind of detailed stock-taking of the status of ESP and the methodologies for teaching analysed in the contributions that make up the volume. The following section, which offers a more detailed description of the contents, allows us to zoom in on the matter and reveals how much has changed, is changing and, in the view of some contributors, still needs to change in pursuit of more effective LSP instruction across a spectrum of didactic scenarios.

2. Contents of the volume

The first section of the volume contains various papers dealing with Teaching English for Specific Purposes (TESP) at higher education level across different academic disciplines. These studies delineate a variety of possible approaches. Some chapters are genre-based and aim at making students aware of the functional and discursive features of the materials proposed to them, focusing on how learners' transfer of genre knowledge for meaningful genre participation and production can be developed. Further perspectives on this teaching scenario are provided by a chapter that adopts a corpus-based approach and relies on the use of substantial data sets in order to demonstrate how monolingual and parallel corpora can be employed to train students in the development of advanced and LSP-specific linguistic and analytical skills, which may also be extended to translation issues.

In the first chapter in this section, Anna Francesca Plastina argues the case for a genre-activity based approach to English for Medical Purposes (MEP) to prompt learners' transfer of genre knowledge for meaningful participation and production. To this end, the author explores the as yet unresolved tension in tertiary didactic scenarios between the focus on genre as "a purposeful social activity" (Martin 1984, 25) and the growing need to foster greater "socio-cognitive genre knowledge", as advocated by Johns (2008) and as increasingly called for by the contemporary shift

cit.: " " verificare sempre

within EMP from doctor-centred to patient-centred encounters and their resulting generic requirements (Funnell and Anderson 2004). Taking her cue from Devitt's (2009, 338) contention that raising genre awareness in the classroom alone ultimately constrains students' socio-cognitive generic competence, and from Russell and Fishers's (2009, 165) observation that this tendency entails the risk of abstracting the genre from its real context, the author describes a pedagogical experiment in which EMP learners populated the activity space of the medical interview, producing computer-mediated simulations. With reference to Bhatia's (1997) framework of genre analysis, the resulting digital products are analysed both for learners' convergence towards generic conventions and for their creative divergence. The findings of this study highlight the appropriateness of learners' lexical choices, suggesting adequate transfer of their knowledge of the code, with anatomical and diagnostic terms used mainly to reconstruct doctor-led rather than patient-centred dialogues, thus reflecting the prevailing influence of the traditional disease-oriented model on learners. However, this bias is viewed as constraining learners' effective exploitation of rhetorical phases/moves in medical interviews and reducing sensitivity to cognitive structures, areas in which major weaknesses are identified. Nevertheless, such weaknesses are observed to be partially offset by individual creative choices, mainly made to personalise the simulated medical space, to introduce a range of medical props, and to create interrelations with other genres pertaining to bio-social contexts. In the view of the author, a pragmatic synergy between learners' own actions and the socially defined context of the medical interview is to a certain extent achieved, while the project as a whole maps out an area of research and teaching practices that have the potential to take genre-based approaches to EMP beyond the confines of the activity system of education in the direction of workplace genres (cf. Artmeva 2008).

In the following chapter Glenn Alessi presents the findings of a survey into the current practices of genre and or discourse-based approaches used in *Lingua Inglese* courses in the curriculum at Italian universities in various departments and degree programmes. The information on current practices has been garnered from questionnaires distributed to 25 academics that research, teach or supervise teaching of ESP in 14 Italian universities. Participants were approached on the basis of their long-term engagement with teaching and researching ESP in Italian higher education. Among the questions the author poses are: *What gets taught? How are course content and objectives related to degree programmes? Why is this approach used? And, how are genre and discourse-based approaches to ESP seen as being relevant and* *justified in terms of institutional practices, student needs and career pathways?* A second, but not secondary, motive for Alessi's study is to discuss the very rationale for including genre or discourse-informed ESP language awareness components in course content. The ensuing discussion takes the form of comments on survey findings based on the course descriptions and reviews the existing tension between theory versus practice, institutional offerings versus student needs, as well as the role of genre or discourse-based studies (under the category of 'Applied Linguistics') in the curriculum, and of higher education's role in identifying and teaching employable skills as a product of reflective learning. Taking into account possible student responses to the prevailing approaches to genre within LSP teaching at tertiary level, largely weighted in favour of the theoretical top-down approach as opposed to more practical bottom-up approaches (see Wilkins 1999), the author considers feasible adjustments to and refinements of the balance that could be achieved by shifting from more traditional transmission models aimed at increasing genre awareness to transformational approaches, whose relevance might be more immediately appreciable to students of LSPs.

This study is followed by Stefania Gandin's contribution which examines the potential of corpus-assisted approaches to LSP acquisition, placing particular emphasis on the role of translation in this process. With reference to Gotti (1991, 2003) and Dann (1996), the language of tourism is presented as a distinctive type of LSP, comprising a notable array of stylistic, pragmatic and lexical features, combining with and influenced by varying registers and different specialised languages. Therefore, as the author states, learning the language of tourism and acquiring the skills to translate it as an LSP require the development of specific linguistic and analytical competences, of which both learners and teachers need to be fully aware if they are to master it. To this end, Gandin sets out to present some corpus-based didactic proposals for the teaching and learning of English tourism discourse as LSP. Her primary aim is to demonstrate how monolingual and parallel corpora of tourist promotional texts – created for academic research reasons – can also be employed to train students in the development of advanced and LSP-specific language skills. Stressing the overall usefulness of corpora, her contribution describes three main corpus-based didactic approaches proposed to L2 learners of English at university level: the exploration of different aspects of the language of tourism in terms of its main linguistic, stylistic and pragmatic properties; the investigation of the main translational features employed in tourist texts, including the identification of translation universals and most/least

Therefore > . Therefore: ok?

successful translational strategies; and familiarisation with corpus linguistics methodologies, notions, design criteria, technical tools, resources and procedures for the interpretation of linguistic data.

The author argues that corpus linguistics can successfully integrate, innovate and strengthen language teaching methods, particularly in L2 and LSP learning contexts, through the use of authentic linguistic materials and up-to-date and stimulating tools of analysis. In so doing, she also makes a strong case for the place of corpus-assisted translation as a valuable resource for consolidating teaching and learning procedures of LSP in general.

The next chapter, authored by Roxanne Doerr, outlines new applications of IT and digital resources intended to transform the individual, asynchronous experience typical of blended or online university courses into a more collective and rewarding endeavor. Owing to the mobilisation, de-localisation and flexibility of today's job market, some universities have been tailoring the programmes, content and the conveyed skills of their ESP courses to a new sort of target student who cannot attend regular classes and seeks practical skills that may be immediately used in the current or desired work environment. The University of Padua's School of Psychology offers an online bachelor's degree course, *Scienze e Tecniche Psicologiche* ('Psychological Sciences and Techniques'), which promotes and provides a flexible program for this new category of learners. In particular, the 'Psychology in English' course activity appears to be specifically customised to cater to the needs of working students, as it mainly consists in task-based collaborative wiki texts, regarding specific branches or issues in Psychology, uploaded by groups of users/learners throughout the course. 'Psychology in English' therefore represents an interesting empirical case study which Doerr examines in order to investigate the potential of online (Psychology) ESP teaching as well as its limitations. In her chapter, she considers theories on and necessary changes in psychology ESP teaching and evaluation methods required by an online moodle context, and she reflects on possible tools and solutions to emerging problems. The analysis of the activities proposed within the course and of the final results obtained by the students enables her to conclude that, provided some technical and organisational issues are tackled, online courses such as 'Psychology in English' can indeed offer users/learners the problem solving skills and use of psychology ESP that is required by the current job market.

moodle; qui ok minusc.?

The section closes with a chapter by Cynthia Kellet Bidoli who shifts the attention to interpreter training, and proposes an approach that tries to strike the right balance between consolidated traditional teaching practices and the opportunities afforded by technological tools. The chapter begins with a review of some of the principal challenges entailed in teaching consecutive interpretation from the perspective of Language for Special Purposes (LSP), the type of discourse interpreters have to work with in the main. This overview spans both traditional terminological approaches, like manual research and memorisation techniques and more recent cognitive ones that accounts not only for individuals' perception of specialised terms, but also their note-taking of LSP. This is because, in the author's view, while "specialised vocabulary is the access key to specialised discourse" (Garzone 2006, 13), the skill of note taking is no less central to consecutive interpreting, as trainees must learn how to understand and memorise different generic usages of LSP in Italian and English, and have to be taught how to transform the Italian source language into notes and select correct or acceptable equivalents in the English target language in order to deliver consecutively an interpreted discourse at the required level of competence. In line with Costa et al.'s (2014, 32) call for a new phase in interpreting research to better understand 'technology awareness' among interpreters, with a view to assessing needs and developing appropriate tools, the author focuses on the potential of digital pen technology for note taking training. Description of the product's relevant features and the results achieved in the classroom are provided to back up the author's case for the incorporation of such technology into Consecutive Interpreting note taking instruction.

The second section of the book focuses on "English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)" and can be viewed against the underlying tension between the aims and requirements of traditional English language curricula in universities and the recognition that the language teaching orthodoxies that have a predominantly English or U.S. orientation (Mauranen 2012) are increasingly confronted with the need to adjust to a global trend in which, as Seidlhofer (2008) points out, near-native proficiency has ceased to be a priority for many learners and speakers who, nonetheless, require a working knowledge of the language in highly professional contexts. In their different ways, the two chapters in this section reflect the growing synergy between English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) and ESP teaching. **U.S. > US (per unif.)?**

Franca Poppi opens this section with a contribution where she offers a series of reflections on how a university-level language course can accommodate awareness of ELF, discussing the kinds of learning outcomes that can be achieved when such an approach is adopted. The traditional approach to English Language Teaching in Europe is described as predominantly EFL-based, in accordance with the generally held conviction that "the acquisition of an idealised rendition of a prestigious L1 variety is the given goal of institutionalised foreign-language education" (Modiano 2009, 208). However, this attitude is reviewed and assessed from the perspective of widely observable changes in the global uses of language, in which neither students' interlocutors nor the readers of the texts they produce are any longer necessarily confined to a single nationality or locality, a development which, Poppi argues, inevitably calls into question the installed reliance on the traditions of the British or US dialects for language instruction. Poppi proceeds to argue that the role and function of English needs to be integrated with insights from ELF, to better prepare the students for their future professional lives. Starting from an evaluation of student's attitudes to the acquisition or approximation of native-speaker levels of competence, the author describes the structure, method and outcomes of an ELF-oriented component introduced into a university language syllabus. In the author's view, the inclusion of ELF content is particularly conducive to fostering the levels of linguistic awareness and skills needed to use the language as an effective instrument of global communication rather than as a passport into the narrower ethnic and cultural identities tied up with native-like competence.

In the other chapter included in this section, Elisa Turra reports the findings of the most recent stage of ongoing research into role plays and simulations derived from company courses on business negotiation. The analysis focuses on the repertoire of discursive, rhetorical and interactional strategies employed by Italian speaking participants to manage conflict and find an agreement using English as a *Lingua Franca*. Grounded on the one hand in interactional sociolinguistics, conversation analysis (Sacks, Schlegoff, and Jefferson 1974), and on the other in pragma-linguistic perspectives like face (Goffman 1959), politeness theory (Brown and Levinson 1987; Watts 2003), gossip (Eggins and Slade 1997) and humour theory (Holmes 2000; Harris 2003; Norrick 2009), the analysis reveals that the interactants are highly cooperative, making effective use of communication-enhancing pragmatic strategies, so that cases of failed comprehension are very limited. As such, these findings confirm and extend the results of the author's previous studies of ELF data, confirming its effectiveness and flexibility in business negotiations. Indeed, in this particular study, the author stresses how the participants' cooperative attitude is reflected in the interaction by the use of question-answer sequences aimed at sharing and exchanging information, as well as positive politeness strategies aimed at creating common ground. Interactants' social psychological needs, notably affiliation and appreciation, are also linguistically realised through the use of inclusive resources, such as a shared lexical repertoire, inclusive pronouns, shared irony, laughter and banter. Although it may be objected that the instances of disagreement and contradiction registered in the encounter may be the result of lower pragmatic competence by ELF speakers, it is suggested that, in line with Watt's (2003) concept of politic behaviour, such responses may be actually deemed eminently politic. Nevertheless, as the author makes clear, further study of fresh data is needed to shed light on ELF's potential in such business negotiations, in the light of participants' expectations, cultural and social norms and experience in management and leadership. It would also be interesting if the new data were to draw on a sample of NNS participants from a more varied L1 mix.

The remaining chapters, organised in a final section titled "Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)", discuss the CLIL pedagogical approach not only in tertiary education, but also looking beyond the horizons of the university to the world of the primary and secondary school, where it is used for subjects such as Science, History and Geography which are taught through a foreign language.

The first of the four studies in this final section, authored by Manuel Silva and Alexandra Albuquerque, approaches CLIL from the point of view of a university teaching scenario, with an accent on the acquisition of terminology. A terminological approach to CLIL – or TerminoCLIL – represents the link between concepts and expertise (terminology), on the one hand and discourse on knowledge (language) on the other. Taken together, these dimensions form the basis of non-ambiguous and more efficient communication about specialised knowledge. Drawing on the assumption that terminology is key as regards the development of communication processes as well as information and knowledge sharing, Silva and Albuquerque's contribution emphasises the need to create a methodology that specifically addresses its use in CLIL environments. The authors proceed to describe a Learning Activity Plan, based on a terminological approach to CLIL, which covers learning objectives, terminology acquisition tasks and related tools, developed to support teaching activities and help accomplish the objective of acquiring specialised knowledge. This Learning Activity Plan consists of three consecutive stages: (1) Knowledge retrieval/organisation, (2) Knowledge application and (3) Knowledge visualisation, and follows Bloom's (1956) taxonomy throughout a scaffolded learning process. Implemented in the wider context of Portuguese Higher Education, where CLIL is still in its infancy and little or no research has been carried out on it, this project and its outcomes are still being tested in training courses offered to domain-specific teachers.

The following contribution, authored by Paola Catenaccio and Cinzia Giglioni, also looks at university teaching, but the focus is on English language courses offered within the framework of MA primary language teaching training in Italian universities. Starting from the assumption that the teachers' language competences are a pivotal factor whatever the intensity, length of exposure and specific syllabus organisation chosen for a CLIL-based project, their chapter reports on a case study conducted at the University of Aosta, where the administration of an entry test to students enrolled in the Primary Education Degree revealed an uneven starting level of English among prospective teachers. The authors maintain that such a heterogeneous scenario makes it difficult to envision an exit level suited to the demands of CLIL-based teaching. In order to verify whether the results obtained in Aosta may possibly be representative of the rest of the country and to evaluate the adequacy of university programmes to meet the needs of CLIL instruction, the authors call for research into a wider range of Italian universities and for an extended language level assessment of primary education degree course students. It is Catenaccio and Giglioni's contention that a major rearrangement in primary education degree courses is necessary and they put forth a series of tentative proposals that illustrate what changes may be made not just to improve language level entry tests, but also to attach more importance to language certifications and attribute more university credits to language training as a whole. Finally the authors provide a detailed description of the specific characteristics that materials and university syllabi should possess if they are to fully meet the needs of prospective CLIL teachers.

At this point, the attention shifts to CLIL in primary and secondary education, as in the following chapter, Silvia Cavalieri and Anna Stermieri present a project carried out at elementary school level on the teaching of three subjects (i.e. Science, Geography, Art) to be delivered in English, also the language for class interaction, to provide a fully immersive educational environment. The project, called BEI-IBI (Bilingual Education Italy – Insegnamento Bilingue Italia), was developed by the Italian Ministry of Education, the British Council Italy and the USR Lombardia (the Regional Education Office of Lombardy) on the basis of a project implemented in Spain in 1996. Cavalieri and Stermieri's study provides the data collected during a monitoring activity on the project and reflects on the best practices for promoting bilingual education in the early stages of learning. The different actors of the teaching/learning process (primary school headmasters, teachers, parents and pupils) were all involved and underwent focus group interviews so that their level of motivation and satisfaction with the project could be assessed. Focus group questioning also proved strategic in order to generate debate among the participants. As regards the teaching end of the process, much attention is devoted in the chapter to the examination of teachers' instructional design and mode of implementation. Teachers' training in BEI-IBI teaching methodologies also plays a significant role in the presentation of the pilot project. At the learning end of the process, pupils' results are reported on and appear to indicate that the activities proposed within the project can enable students to achieve a satisfactory knowledge both of the taught subjects and of L2.

The CLIL section and the entire volume is brought to an end by Annarita Tavani's contribution which describes a corpus-assisted study which examines materials used in Italian secondary schools for CLIL projects in Physics, with a view to identifying specificities in the didactic strategies developed in an EFL country for the teaching of a non-linguistic subject in a vehicular language other than the majority one. The author contends that of the non-linguistic school subjects the physical are typically considered as suitable disciplines for CLIL projects in Italy: this is probably due to the fact that scientific discourse is usually regarded as an LSP with fixed lexical, morpho-syntactic and textual conventions. Relying on the methodological tools provided by discourse analysis, Tavani adopts a qualitative close reading procedure and carries out a multi-level analysis focusing on lexis, syntax and textual organisation of six physics coursebooks. Four of these are specifically designed to be used for the teaching of CLIL Physics in Italian secondary schools and represent the main corpus under investigation. The analysis of these CLIL materials reveals an effort to conform to the grammatical and textual standards of specialised discourse as well as a lack of consistency in the application of strategies that integrate acquisition of language and subject content. A comparison between the CLIL corpus and a control corpus made up of two Physics coursebooks published in English-speaking countries highlights that the latter display a more accurate use of specialised lexis, as well as an attempt to make the discourse of scientific instruction – in terms of both syntactic features and overall cognitive-textual organisation – more accessible to students.

The picture of LSP teaching that emerges from this volume as a whole is, then, a complex, evolving, and fluid one. It is composed of descriptions of experiences, illustrations of problems, and outlines of possible solutions, the latter, in the view of the proponents themselves, requiring still further research in order to be fully and convincingly fleshed out. It is a picture marked by the tension between consolidated practices, fresh perspectives, and the need to strike the right balance between them to further enhance LSP instruction. It is the hope of the editors that these chapters will convey the state of play in LSP instruction and help focus attention on the key issues and challenges within this dynamic sphere, be it to meet the more immediate needs of teaching or to channel the longer term efforts of research.

References

Artemeva, Natasha. 2008. "Approaches to Learning Genres: A Bibliographical Essay". In *Rhetorical Genre Studies and Beyond*, edited by Natasha Artemeva and Aviva Freedman, 9-99. Manitoba: Inkshed Publications.

Belcher, Diane. 2004. "Trends in Teaching English for Specific Purposes". *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 24. doi: 10.1017/S026719050400008X1658.

Belcher, Diane, Ann M. Johns, and Brian Paltridge, eds. 2011. *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes Research*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 1993. *Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings*. London: Longman.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 1997. "Applied Genre Analysis and ESP". In *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*, edited by Tom Miller, 134-149. Washington (DC): US Information Agency.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 2004. *Worlds of Written Discourse: A Genre-based View*. London: Continuum.

Bloch, Joel. 2013. "Technology and ESP". In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. 1st ed., edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 385-401. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

Bloom, Benjamin Samuel. 1956. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay Co. Inc.

Brown, Penelope, and Stephen C. Levinson. 1978/1987. *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Costa, Hernani, Gloria Corpas Pastor, and Isabel Durán-Muñoz. 2014. "Technology-assisted Interpreting". *Multilingual* 25 (3): 27-32.

Coyle, Do, Philip Hood, and David Marsh. 2010. *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane. 2007. *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam - Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

uniformare dati nel vol.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane, Tarja Nikula, and Ute Smit, eds. 2010. *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dann, Graham. 1996. *The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Dearden, Julie. 2014. *English as a Medium of Instruction – A Growing Global Phenomenon*. London: British Council.

Devitt, Amy. 2009. "Teaching Critical Genre Awareness". In *Genre in a Changing World*, edited by Charles Bazerman, Adair Bonini, and Débora Figueiredo, 337-351. Boulder (CO): Parlor Press.

Eggins, Susanne, and Diana Slade. 1997. *Analysing Casual Conversation*. London: Cassell.

Eurydice. 2006. *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*. Bruxelles: EU Publications Office.

Flowerdew, John. 2002. "Genre in the Classroom: A Linguistic Approach". In *Genre in the Classroom: Multiple Perspectives*, edited by Ann M. Johns, 91-102. Mahwah (NJ): Lawrence Erlbaum.

Funnell, Martha, and Robert Anderson. 2004. "Empowerment and Self-management of Diabetes". *Clinical Diabetes* 22 (3): 123-127.

Garzone, Giuliana. 2006. *Perspectives on ESP and Popularization*. Milano: CUEM.

Garzone, Giuliana, Dermot Heaney, and Giorgia Riboni. Forthcoming. *LSP Research and Translation across Languages and Modes*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Goffman, Erving. 1959. *Forms of Talk*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Gotti, Maurizio. 1991. *I Linguaggi Specialistici. Caratteristiche linguistiche e criteri pragmatici*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2003. *Specialized Discourse: Linguistic Features and Changing Conventions*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Halliday, Michael A.K., Angus McIntosh, and Peter Strevens. 1964. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. Bloomington (IN): Indiana University Press.

Harris, Susan. 2003 "Politeness and Power: Making and Responding to 'Requests' in Institutional Settings". *Text* 23 (1): 27-52.

Harwood, Nigel. 2005. "'We do not seem to have a theory… the theory I present here attempts to full this gap': Inclusive and Exclusive Pronouns in Academic Writing". *Applied Linguistics* 26: 343-375.

Holmes, Janet. 2000. "Doing Collegiality and Keeping Control at Work: Small Talk in Government Departments". In *Small Talk*, edited by Justine Coupland, 32-61. Essex: Pearson Education.

Hutchinson, Tom, and Alan Waters. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, Ken. 2002. "Authority and Invisibility: Authorial Identity in Academic Writing". *Journal of Pragmatics* 34 (8): 1091-1112.

Hyland, Ken. 2004. *Genre and Second Language Writing*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, Ken. 2011. "Disciplinary Specificity: Discourse, Context and ESP". In *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Diane Belcher, Ann M. Johns, and Brian Paltridge, 6-24. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Johns, Ann M., ed. 2002. *Genre in the Classroom: Multiple Perspectives*. Mahwah (NJ): Lawrence Erlbaum.

Johns, Ann M., and Donna Price-Machado. 2001. "English for Specific Purposes (ESP): Tailoring Courses to Student Needs – and to the Outside World". In *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, edited by Marianne Celce-Murcia, 43-54. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Johns, Ann M., and Donna Price-Machado. 2014. "English for Specific Purposes: International in Scope, Specific in Purpose". In *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign language*. 4th ed., edited by Marianne Celce-Murcia, Donna Brinton, and Marguerite Snow, 471-487. Boston: National Geographic Learning.

Marsh, David. 2012. *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). A Development Trajectory*. Córdoba: EDITA – Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad de Córdoba.

Martin, James R. 1984. "Language, Register and Genre". In *Deakin University Children Course Reader*, edited by Frances Christie, 21-30. Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Mauranen, Anna. 2011. "English as the Lingua Franca of the Academic World". In *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Diane Belcher, Ann M. Johns, and Brian Paltridge, 94-117. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Mauranen, Anna. 2012. *Exploring ELF: Academic English Shaped by Non-native Speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Modiano, Marko. 2009. EIL Native-speakerism and the Failure of European ELT. In *English as an, International Language: Perspectives and Pedagogical Issues*, edited by Sharifian Farzad, 58-78. Bristol: Multilingual Matter.

Nickerson, Catherine. 2005. "English as a Lingua Franca in International Business Contexts". *English for Specific Purposes* 24: 367-380.

Nickerson, Catherine. 2013. "English for Specific Purposes and English as a Lingua Franca". In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. 1st ed., edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 445-460. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

Norrick, Neal. 2009. "A Theory of Humor in Interaction". *JLT Articles* 3 (2): 261-284.

Paltridge, Brian. 2001. *Genre and the Language Learning Classroom*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Paltridge, Brian. 2013. "Genre and English fo Specific Purposes". In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. 1st ed., edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 347-364. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

Russell, David, and David Fisher. 2009. "Online, Multimedia Case Studies for Professional Education: Revisioning Concepts of Genre Recognition". In *Genres in the Internet: Issues in the Theory of Genre*, edited by Janet Giltrow and Dieter Stein, 163-192. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sacks, Harvey, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson. 1974. "A Simple Systematics for the Organisation of Turn-taking for Conversation". *Language* 50: 696-735.

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2008. "Standard Feature or Half-baked Quackery? Description and Pedagogic Bearings on the Globalisation of English". In *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*, edited by Claus Gnutzmann and Frauke Intemann, 159-173. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Starfield, Sue. 2013. "Critical Perspectives on ESP". In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purpose*. 1st ed., edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 461-480. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

Strevens, Peter. 1977. "Special-purposed Language Learning: A Perspective". *Language Teaching* 10 (3): 145-163.

Swales, John. 1988. *Episodes in ESP*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Swales, John. 1990. *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, John. 1996. "Occluded Genres in the Academy". In *Academic Writing: Intercultural and Textual Issues*, edited by Eija Ventola and Anna Mauranen, 45-58. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Swales, John. 2004. *Research Genres: Explorations and Applications*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tardy, Christina M. 2011. "ESP and Multi-method Approaches to Genre-analysis". In *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes Research*, edited by Diane Belcher, Ann M. Johns, and Brian Paltridge, 145-173. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

Watts, Richard. 2003. *Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wilkins, David. 1999. "Applied Linguistics". In *Concise Encyclopedia of Educational Linguistics*. 1st ed., vol. 21, edited by Bernard Spolsky, 3-25 Amsterdam: Elsevier.

LSP AT HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL

Genre-knowledge Transfer in English for Medical Purposes: A Genre Activity-based Research Study

Anna Franca Plastina

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-plas

Keywords: applied genre analysis, EMP, genre-activity based approach, genre-knowledge transfer, learners' genre participation.

1. Introduction

Since the late 1980s, genre studies have informed practitioners of LSP teaching that genres are "[...] keys to understanding how to participate in the actions of a community" (Miller 1984, 165), and that the specialist informant should "be a competent and trained specialist member of the disciplinary culture in which the genre under study is routinely used" (Bhatia 1993, 35). LSP genre studies have been profoundly influenced by Swales' pivotal concept of *discourse community*, which "[...] utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims" (Swales 1990, 26). Drawing on Swales' interrelated concepts of discourse community, communicative purpose and genre, LSP genre studies have fine-tuned their foci on analysing the social and contextual features of genres, thus moving beyond the sole linguistic analysis of texts.

In the LSP classroom, genre-based pedagogy has traditionally concentrated on developing *genre acquisition* by teaching learners to reproduce text types as "a staged, goal-orientated, and purposeful social activity" (Martin 1984, 25). Johns (2008, 238) argues, however, that genre acquisition activities are designed "[...] often from a template, that is organized, or 'staged' in a predictable way [...]". In other words, the rehearsed reproduction of text types in the classroom context has often missed "the purposeful social activity", suggesting that staged learning alone cannot fully enhance genre acquisition to cope with new contexts of use. Teaching *genre awareness* has also been underestimated in the LSP classroom, as shown by the case made for its importance. For example, Johns (2008, 238) points out that genre awareness is "[...] necessary for adapting [learners'] socio-cognitive genre knowledge to ever-evolving contexts". Devitt (2009, 337) further emphasises that "teaching critical genre awareness will help students [...] make deliberate generic choices". Hence, raising learners' genre awareness only in the classroom environment constrains their exploitation of "socio-cognitive genre knowledge". Developing genre awareness does not only require cognitive learning in the classroom, but essentially presumes that learners ought to be given the opportunity to develop their socialisation within their discipline so they "[...] can act, can participate in those genres" (ibid., 338).

This chapter argues for a genre-activity based approach to English for Medical Purposes (EMP) which enables learners to actively participate in the creative exploitation and communicative use of the medical interview as a key genre in their discourse community. It further advocates that adopting a genre-activity based approach can grant teachers the opportunity of conducting genre analysis on learner products which are generated following genre-activity processes. The first part of the chapter covers the pedagogical experiment in which the genre-activity based approach was adopted with a group of EMP learners. The approach is theoretically framed by two main assumptions. First, it is grounded in the principle that "[...] acquiring a genre means acquiring an activity, learning to do the activity in its context" (Russell and Fisher 2009, 164); second, its application implies that "[...] genre knowledge is reconstituted and reinvented within the context of genre production" (Devitt and Reiff 2014, 274). In this respect, the experiment aimed at engaging EMP learners in populating the activity space of social action (cf. Bazerman et al. 2003) of the medical interview, and in creating their own digital artefacts as one form of genre production. In the second part, the focuses is on the research study which was conducted to investigate how EMP learners transfer their genre knowledge to process and produce their artefacts. "Genre-knowledge transfer skills can be seen as a crucial way of appropriating genres as they refer to the [...] ability to adapt previously-learned skills to apparently new future tasks and contexts" (Johns and Pric 2014, 477). They thus build on learners' generic competence, which Bhatia (2004, 144) defines as: **ok virgolette?**

> [...] the ability to respond to recurrent and novel rhetorical situations by constructing, interpreting, using and often exploiting generic conventions embedded in specific disciplinary cultures and practices to achieve professional ends.

The research study further draws on Devitt's (2004, 31) recommendation:

> [...] that genre be seen not as a response to recurring situations but as a nexus between an individual's actions and a socially defined context. [...] genre exists through people's individual rhetorical actions at the nexus of the contexts of situation, culture and genres.

In this sense, applied genre analysis was carried out on learners' products to shed light on their individual communicative usage and appropriation of the genre of the medical interview.

2. The genre-activity based approach: genre-knowledge transfer

According to the activity-based view, "genres are forms of life, ways of being. They are frames for social action. They are environments for learning. They are locations within which meaning is constructed" (Bazerman 1997, 19). Genres as mediating socially organised activities are understood to operationalise *activity systems* (cf. Russell 1997). Informed by activity theory, these systems are considered as basic units of analysis of social processes, which include a subject (person), an object (goal or common task) and tools that mediate interaction (cf. Engeström 1987). Within these systems, which are not permanently fixed, each genre has its own activity space of social action "[...] that prompts the production of particular kinds of information to populate that space", where "texts [...] are seen as language in use" (Bazerman et al. 2003, 455-456). As a result of repeated rhetorical goal-directed actions performed by subjects, genres become typified and their activity systems stabilised. Thus, a genre-activity based approach enables LSP learners to create activity systems operationalised by professional genres of interest, and to populate genred activity spaces for use and not just for study purposes (cf. Russell and Fisher 2009). In this perspective, Dressen-Hammouda (2003, 80) suggests that:

> [...] we can engage students in 'hands on' activities, whereby professional ways of thinking and using language can be cultivated using genre. Such purposeful language learning engages students in meaningful activities where genres are integral to the task at hand, as 'tools-in-use' rather than as mere ends.

Hence, allowing learners to engage in 'hands on' activities may facilitate their active participation in disciplinary genres. When activities are, how- **qui bene virgolette singole?**

ever, carried out only in the classroom environment, it may be difficult to involve learners in the active practice of genre participation and use. This is mainly because learners are usually immersed only in *the activity system* of education, and are given few opportunities to operate also in their professional activity systems. As Russell and Fisher (2009, 165) point out, if "the activity system remains that of the classroom, [...] the genre is abstracted from its context of use in professional work and is recognized as operating in the activity system of education".

EMP learners should, then, be given the chance to move between the activity system of the classroom and that of the medical profession so as to experience the genre of the medical interview as a mediational means for *learning*, as well as for *doing*. This move between the two activity systems facilitates learners' development of *genre-knowledge transfer* through their engagement in "[...] patterns of participatory processes as part of the social and material contexts" (Russell and Fisher 2009, 166). This process cannot be seen, however, simplistically as a matter of transferring genre knowledge from one context to another: "transfer is not only mere application; it is also an act of reconstruction" (Nowacek 2011, 25). However, the act of reconstructing activity systems outside the classroom presents its own problems. As EMP learners are not yet fully fledged members of their disciplinary community, they cannot transfer genre knowledge to authentic professional activity systems. To overcome this problem, Russell and Fisher (2009, 166) suggest using computer software programmes, which "dynamically simulate the systems of activities that the genre systems mediate".

As the use of information technology is not new to LSP teaching and research (cf. Arnó et al. 2006; Bárcena et al. 2014), this study is specifically aided by the use of web authoring tools. Pedagogically, these tools effectively support genre-based activities, allowing EMP learners to design the simulated activity system in which the medical interview operates. Moreover, web authoring prompts learners to engage in decision-making processes on the genre knowledge they are striving to transfer and adapt to the simulated activity system. Learners may also find the multimodal affordances offered by web authoring tools more motivating as they can creatively populate activity spaces and customise their genre production. In practical terms, the tools are simple to use, as well as cost-effective. Ultimately, web authoring tools allow learners to store and submit their digital artefacts for research.

3. The pedagogical experiment

3.1. *Aim*

The broad aim of the experimental study presented in this chapter was to engage EMP learners in active participation in genre-based activities with the objective of developing their genre-knowledge transfer skills. In particular, the pedagogical objectives of the study were set to:

- Engage learners in genre use as the mediational means for *doing* and *learning*, based on the principles of socio-constructivism.
- Develop learners' skill in reconstructing the specific activity system of the *problem-oriented* medical interview, which reflects the patient's request for help with specific health problems. The choice of this professional genre was made for two particular reasons. First, as learners need to be well-versed in their future profession, it was crucial to develop their *genre depth* (cf. Russell 2002) in one in the most salient genres in the field. Second, both EMP and genre-based pedagogies have traditionally assigned priority to reading and writing skills, underestimating the importance of oral interaction. In this respect, Roter and Hall (2006, 4) point out that "talk is certainly the fundamental instrument by which the doctor-patient relationship is crafted and by which therapeutic goals are achieved".
- Allow learners to populate the genred activity space of problem-oriented medical interviews by personalising information in computer-mediated simulations.
- Enable learners to transfer their genre-knowledge between formal educational and professional contexts.
- Encourage learners to showcase their genre-knowledge transfer processes through the production of digital artefacts.

3.2. *Participants*

Sixteen Italian postgraduate students (4 males; 12 females) at the University of Calabria agreed to participate in the experimental study. All participants were enrolled in their first year at the School of Specialisation in Clinical Pathology on the 5-year curriculum course offered by the same university. A preliminary questionnaire was administered to gather information on participants' language proficiency and digital literacy levels. All participants' English language proficiency was found to be at the CEF B2 level, while their digital literacy fell within Martin and Grudziecki's (2006, 257) range of Level II - Digital Usage, whereby "users draw upon relevant digital competences and elements specific to the profession, domain or other life-context".

3.3. *Procedure*

Participants were first instructed on the genre-based activity they were expected to engage in, and were told they could personalise their reconstruction of the activity system, freely populate the multimodal activity space of the problem-oriented medical interview and exploit generic conventions appropriately. This procedure was grounded in the belief that genres "[...] are ways of seeing what acts are available that are appropriate to the moment as you see it – what you can do, what you might want to do" (Bazerman 2006, 221).

In the second step, participants were instructed on the use of the web authoring tool and on its multimedia affordances. GoAnimate.com was chosen as it is an easy, cost-effective tool with simple drag and drop, point and click, lip synchronisation functionalities which allow users to design animated characters, backgrounds and props in dialogue-based scenes.

The core part of the experiment consisted in allowing participants to draft and redraft multimodal texts in order "[...] to sense from the inside the nature of the social action entailed by [the professional genre]" as "none of this know-how will have been made available through [classroom] simulations [...]" (Freedman et al. 1994, 221). After two weeks of autonomous practice, participants were asked to produce their personal genre-based digital artefacts, which were then subjected to genre research.

4. The research study

4.1. *Aim*

Research was conducted on participants' digital artefacts with the aim of analysing how genre knowledge was transferred and represented. To this end, two research questions were addressed: (1) Which generic competence do EMP learners transfer for the purpose of populating the activity space of problem-oriented medical interviews? (2) What liberties do EMP learners take with specialist discourse in computer-mediated simulations?

4.2. *Corpus*

Sixteen dynamic multimodal texts were the materials used for analysis. The corpus was made up of 4,395 words with dynamic dialogue-based scenes for a total duration of 102 minutes (*M* = 6.38 mins.) While the corpus may seem somewhat small-scaled, the complexity of the different aspects of genre-knowledge transfer and representation in multimodal texts required in-depth analysis.

numeri + virgola?

numeri + punto?

verificare sempre

4.3. *Method*

Drawing on Bhatia (1997), the research method was based on applied genre analysis. This was performed by relying on the four categories included in the Bhatian analytical framework in order to analyse the essential variables involved in genre-knowledge transfer. In detail, the four categories include:

1. *Knowledge of the code*: "[…] the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in specialist […] discourse" (ibid., 136). In the present study, knowledge of the code was analysed in terms of the type of terminology used and its frequency of occurrence.
2. *Genre knowledge*: the use of "[…] appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community [learners] aspire to join" (ibid., 137). Three factors were analysed within this category, namely rhetorical phases and moves (linear vs. flexible), dialogic roles (constrained vs. unconstrained), and agency (acknowledged vs. unacknowledged). The first two factors were taken into account, as rhetorical phases and moves "[…] are interactionally produced and thus not necessarily linear nor constrained by role" (Jones and Beach 2005, 104). As for the third factor, "a rhetoric of agency must be legitimated and practiced by all the interlocutors in a rhetorical situation, which in health care means the patient and his or her providers" (Young and Flower 2001, 72).
3. *Sensitivity to cognitive structures*: the ways in which learners decided to "[…] exploit conventions in response to changing socio-cognitive demands in specific professional contexts […]" (ibid., 137). In this

regard, two current demands were considered: patient vs. doctor-centredness, and narrative-based vs. evidence-based medicine.
4. *Exploitation of generic knowledge*: "[...] exploiting and taking liberties with conventions to achieve pragmatic success in specified professional contexts" (ibid., 138).

These categories were introduced as dependent variables in terms of learners' convergence towards and divergence from the generic conventions of the medical interview. Devitt (2004, 156) emphasises the importance of both convergence and divergence in genre learning: "students need to learn how to make their texts fit within the patternings of converging situations and texts; they also need to learn how to diverge from those patternings in order to say what they want to say". Thus, the first three variables were used to discover how EMP learners conformed to the conventions of the genre, whereas the fourth for the purpose of highlighting the creative choices they made.

5. Findings

5.1. *Knowledge of the code*

The learner corpus consisted of of 4,395 tokens (*types* = 950; *TTR* = 21.61%) with 1,042 domain-specific terms (23.71%; *types* = 352; *TTR* = 33.78%). Domain-specific terminology was classified into two categories: (1) *general domain terms* (*tokens* = 648; *types* = 114; *TTR* = 17.59%) referring to the genre of the medical interview and to health problems; (2) *specialist domain terms* (*tokens* = 394; *types* = 89; *TTR* = 22.58%) related to diagnoses and drug treatments. Results for these categories show that general domain terms (62.19%) outweighed specialist domain terms (37.81%), suggesting participants' awareness of the importance of avoiding an excessive use of specialist terms when communicating with the lay patient. General domain terms were further analysed for their frequency of occurrence in order to shed light on possible medical models underlying the lexical choices made. Frequency ranking of the top ten general domain terms are presented in *Table 1*.

Table 1. – Frequency ranking (%) of the general domain terminology used by participants.

Ranking	Frequency of Occurrence
1. doctor	31.1%
2. prescription	14.3%
3. pain	11.6%
4. symptoms	10.4%
5. pill(s)	10.3%
6. medicine	9.1%
7. test	7.4%
8. antibiotic	4.3%
9. fever	0.9%
10. side effects	0.6 %

Results indicate that the dialogues analysed were lexically reconstructed with a traditional approach to the medical interview. In other words, dialogic interactions were embedded in a doctor-led frame, rather than in a patient-centred one, and were thus found to be grounded in the so-called *disease-oriented* model. This suggests that participants mainly reconstructed the pathophysiologic process, rather than privileging each patient's unique experience of illness. In this respect, all dialogues were found to source lexical repertoires of anatomical and diagnostic terms to convey symptoms and drug treatments as shown in *Table 2*.

The findings first reveal the wide variety of lexical choices made by participants, clearly highlighting their good knowledge of the code. As in *Table 2*, most participants chose to use plain terms in the reconstruction of health symptoms. Only two occurrences of scientific terms were, in fact, found: *phlegm* (participant # 4) and *gastro-intestinal* (participant # 8). Conversely, the lexical items mostly selected to express diagnoses were found to belong to the repertoire of specialised terms. This showed that participants had "[…] acquired some specific lexis […] using highly technical terminology as in medical communities" (Swales 1990, 26). On the other hand, the preference for the lay term *food poisoning*, rather than its equivalent medical term, *campylobacteriosis*, suggests that participant # 2 was aware that the use of the latter would have most probably led to communication breakdown with the patient.

inserito sempre spazio dopo #: ok?

Table 2. – The lexical reconstruction of the medical interview.

Participant #	Symptoms	Diagnoses	Drug Treatments
1.	stomach ache, spastic pain diarrhea, vomiting	helicobacter infection indigestion	Plasil injection, Lactical (Enterogermina), Imotil, Spasmex
2.	stomach ache, nausea vomiting, cramps	food poisoning	antibiotic, antiemetic
3.	swollen knee	contusion bone fracture	anti-inflammatory therapy, topical cream (Voltaren Gel)
4.	cough, headache, diarrhea, phlegm	flu	antiviral
5.	stomach ache, acidity	dyspepsia gastric acid production	proton-pump inhibitor (Protonix), Maalox, Pantoprazole, benzimidazole medications
6.	sore throat, cough	tracheitis bacterial infection	antibiotic cough syrup
7.	swollen ankle leg pain, bruise	ankle sprain hematoma	pain-killer anti-inflammatory
8.	the runs gastro-intestinal problems	gastro-enteritis	antimotility medicine
9.	backache, leg pain	inflammation of sciatic nerve	pain-killer, anti-inflammatory
10.	urinating problems	cystitis bladder infection	antibiotic (Ciprofloxacin)
11.	sore throat, difficulty in swallowing	tonsillitis	antibiotics, inflammatory pills
12.	sore chest, headache, chills, sneezing, cough, muscle aches	flu	pain-killer, anti-inflammatory
13.	red neck and shoulders sneezing, runny nose	allergy	anti-histamine (Zotac)
14.	itchy eyes	allergic rhinitis	antihistamine, eye drops
15.	difficulty in swallowing	tracheitis	antibiotic, cough syrup
16.	stomach ache, nausea, vomiting	gastro-enteritis	antibiotic

In this sense, two participants decided to overcome this issue by proposing both plain and specialist terms: *dyspepsia / gastric acid production* (participant # 5); *cystitis / bladder infection* (participant # 10).

Specialist terms were also mainly used to express drug treatments, although some participants decided to use more common terms, such as *cough syrup* instead of *antitussive* (participants # 6, 15), *pain-killer* for *analgesic* (participants # 7, 9, 12). Five participants (# 1, 3, 5, 10, 13) further decided to specify brand names (e.g. *Enterogermina*, *Imotil*, *Spasmex*), as well as drug ingredients when dealing with pain management. Both these cases suggest that these learners wanted to provide evidence of their sound scientific knowledge of the code and of their communicative expertise.

On the whole, findings regarding this specific aspect suggest that they transferred adequate domain-specific knowledge in order to make appropriate lexical choices which characterised the register of their medical-based dialogues.

5.2. *Genre knowledge*

The artefacts were mainly found to follow the structure of linear rhetorical phases and moves typical of the genre of medical interviews: opening, data-gathering or question-answer, physical examination, diagnosis and treatment, and closing. While this shows that all participants had basic knowledge of the specific genre format, only 5 learners showed major flexibility in developing rhetorical phases as in examples (1)-(3):

(1) DOCTOR: I think the best thing is to have an MRI scan done so that I can evaluate the possible damage better. Let's go Mrs. Humphrey…
(Later on)
Now judging from the results, I need to bandage your ankle. [Participant # 7]

In example (1), the basic linear sequence of the medical interview is interrupted by the flexible introduction of another rhetorical phase in which a new dialogue-based scene related to the initial one is represented to contextualise the performance of the MRI scan.

(2) PATIENT: Oh nooo!! I just can't do that… please… I'm afraid of needles… [Participant # 1]

In example (2), the patient manifests an emotional reaction in the rhetorical phase of diagnosis and treatment when prescribed intravenous medication. The patient thus enacts a dialogic role which is unconstrained by the formal setting. The emotional move created by the participant further reflects her skill in flexibly transferring genre knowledge for authentic purposes.

(3) Doctor: Good morning. Please do come in. I only have to wear my coat and I'll be ready in a minute. [Participant # 10]

Similarly, example (3) suggests a degree of flexibility in the opening rhetorical phase, where the doctor decides to allow the patient into his office before completely enacting his professional role constrained by wearing a white coat.

Compared to the low level of flexibility transferred by participants in the rhetorical phases and moves of their dialogues, all artefacts presented instances of genre knowledge of the rhetorical conventions of agency as shown in examples (4)-(7):

(4) Patient: Good morning, I have an appointment with Doctor Hubert.
Receptionist: Have a seat, please. [Participant # 5]

Example (4) is a typical instance of the most recurring rhetorical convention of agency found in the corpus. Specifically, it refers to the opening rhetorical phase in which the receptionist legitimates the patient's agency by inviting her to take a seat.

Example (5), instead, indicates how the doctor's agency is legitimated in the rhetorical phase of physical examination by the patient the moment the requested act is performed:

(5) Doctor: Now Mr. Taylor, could you please open your mouth and say "Ah"?
Patient: Aaahhh. [Participant # 8]

Similarly, in the closing rhetorical phase the doctor's agency is legitimated by the patient in example (6) by deciding to book an appointment:

(6) Doctor: You'll have to come back again next week, I'm afraid.
Patient: Ok, I'll book an appointment then. [Participant # 11]

A rhetoric of agency was additionally acknowledged by "using a first-person grammatical subject, active voice, active (as opposed to stative) verbs, and 'I' statements" (Young and Flower 2001, 73) as shown in example (7):

(7) Patient: Can I go to work tomorrow? [Participant # 1]

Besides the use of the first-person subject and the active verb *go*, example (7) also shows how a rhetoric of agency was created by "identifying short-term goals in the context of [the patient's] current medical problem [...]" (Young and Flower 2001, 73).

On the whole, participants' genre knowledge reflected the fact that "in certain [...] medical, and scientific contexts, constraints are so tight that there is no room for personal expression, variation, experimentation, or dissent [...]", and that participants viewed "[...] agency not as freedom from regulation, but as the ability to act effectively and collaboratively within the structures of a community" (Paré 2014, A90).

5.3. *Sensitivity to cognitive structures*

Genre conventions were found to be exploited in response to two main socio-cognitive changes which should occur in medical interviews as the result of current debates in the field. The first social demand refers to the advocated need to shift from minimal communication to open communication which fosters increased patient-centredness. This change was reflected in 50% of the artefacts analysed as shown in example (8):

(8) PATIENT: Sorry Doctor, I'm not really sure I understand. What do you mean by gastro-enteritis?
DOCTOR: It's a viral disease that affects the intestine.
PATIENT: Is it an infectious disease?
DOCTOR: Yes, but don't worry… we'll get rid of it with an antibiotic to fight lactic acid bacteria. [Participant # 16]

The example first suggests that the learner is sensitive towards the socio-cognitive need to establish better communicative relationships between doctors and patients. It also indicates in detail how patient empowerment, which requires patients to be well-informed active partners (Funnell and Anderson 2004), can be facilitated. In this specific instance, in fact, patient empowerment is mediated through the agency of the 'I' statement (*I'm not really sure I understand*) and through active participation, denoted by two direct questions (*what do you mean by…?*, *is it…?*). In turn, the doctor negotiates more open communication through the use of a plain-language definition (*It's a viral disease that affects the intestine*) (cf. Plastina forthcoming). Moreover, textual forms are used to convey the doctor's empathy towards the patient, both through back-channelling (*yes*) (cf. Fairclough 1995) and active co-participation (*don't worry*, *we'll get rid of it…*).

Thus, the eight participants who showed genre sensitivity to cognitive structures in the creation of their dialogues first indirectly acknowledged that "a communicative turn in medical care and healthcare is a recognition of the limitations of a biomedical model of disease and health" (Sarangi 2004, 3). The frequent use of direct questions (e.g. *what is…?*, *what do you mean by…?*, *is it…?*) formulated by patient characters further revealed participants' sensitivity to the increasing demand for patient empowerment, considered a prerequisite for health by the World Health Organisation.

The second socio-cognitive demand identified in the artefacts refers to the need to move beyond the concept of Evidence-based Medicine (EbM) towards Narrative-based Medicine (NbM). On the issue, Kalitzkus and Matthiessen (2009, 56) point out that "with the rise of 'modern medicine', narratives were increasingly neglected in favour of 'facts and findings' regarded as more objective and scientific", although "[...] by no means is [narrative] meant to devalue medical knowledge" (ibid., 61). Based on Kalitzkus and Matthiessen's (2009) classification of the different genres of narratives in the medical context, only six mini-narratives were identified in the 16 multimodal texts. All narratives belonged to the category of *patient stories*. Instances are provided in examples (9) and (10):

(9) I was out last night with some friends and I had a large portion of fish and chips at a new restaurant. [Participant # 2 on food poisoning]

(10) Yesterday l did some fixing at home. The kitchen sink was leaking and I was bent down under it for a couple of hours at least. [Participant # 9 on inflammation of the sciatic nerve]

Both examples suggest that a personal social context of the illness experience (NbM) is offered to support the application of EbM knowledge to single cases. As learners also blended patient stories with medical knowledge, they indirectly showed sensitivity towards the recent attempts made in the field to integrate NbM and EbM into what has been defined as Narrative Evidence-based Medicine (NEbM), which "recognises the narrative features of *all* data and the evidentiary status of *all* clinical text" (Chadron and Wyer 2008, 297; original emphasis). The mini-narratives introduced by the six participants further highlight the skill of supplementing medical expertise with patients' socio-cognitive experience.

Overall, EMP learners transferred their generic competence in a range of different ways in order to populate the activity space of problem-oriented medical interviews. Their production suggests that all learners *converged* towards the conventions of the genre as reported in *Table 3*.

Table 3. – Analytical findings on EMP students' genre-knowledge transfer.

Transfer	*S1*	*S2*	*S3*	*S4*	*S5*	*S6*	*S7*	*S8*	*S9*	*S10*	*S11*	*S12*	*S13*	*S14*	*S15*	*S16*
Knowledge of code Domain-specific lexis	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Genre knowledge																
- Flexible rhetorical phases/moves	√			√			√			√		√				
- Rhetorical conventions of agency	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Sensitivity to cognitive structures		√														
- Patient-centredness		√		√		√	√			√			√	√		√
- Patient narratives	√			√			√		√	√						

However, data show that only 3 students (# 4, 7, 10) fully transferred all the different aspects of genre-knowledge; the other 13 participants presented individual weaknesses indicated by the blank spaces in *Table 3*. Thus, the applied genre analysis shed light on otherwise hidden pedagogical understandings of learners' different needs when only LSP genre typification is practised in the traditional classroom.

5.4. *Exploitation of generic knowledge*

Participants' exploitation of generic knowledge was also analysed to seek the ways in which learners took liberties with specialist discourse. All participants personalised the medical activity space, suggesting they had learned "how to diverge from […] patternings in order to say what they want to say" (Devitt 2004, 156), as shown in the three sample snapshots in *Figure 1*.

The character panel afforded by the web authoring tool enabled participants to create their characters, animate their actions and give voice to their dialogues. Moreover, the prop panel allowed them to personally choose which objects to include in the medical space and to decide on their various arrangements. This kind of exploitation was found to develop participants' awareness of the different ways in which the activity space could be authentically populated. According to Fairclough (2001, 49-50):

> [...] the [...] 'medical space' [...] implies the presence of a whole range of medical paraphernalia which help to legitimize the encounter [...] there is a restricted set of legitimate subject positions, those of the doctor, the nurse and the patient [...] There are requirements for modes of dress which reinforce properties of the setting in defining the encounter as medical [...].

Besides customising the main activity space, all participants further took liberties in reconstructing and representing meaning semiotically as shown in the sample snapshots in *Figure 2*.

In the first image on the left, the doctor's act of making a diagnosis is visually represented by the hand gesture of racking his brain, while the patient's heartburn pain is pictured as a flame on her body. In the second image, a group of patients are represented in the waiting room as they gaze at the nurse expecting to be called next. In the last image, the doctor's folded arms suggest he is listening attentively to his patient, whose pain is visualised in his knitted eyebrows and through his posture in the wheelchair. This kind of freedom taken by learners appears to be in line with the claim that "speech, gesture, posture, and other acts jointly produce meaning in medical interaction" (Wilce 2009, 200).

The third and final type of exploitation concerned the reconstruction of the bio-social context of the illness experience. This particularly reflected participants' social constructionist stance to health issues: "from a social constructionist perspective the meaning of health is created (constructed) through the way that we, as social beings, interact and the language that we use" (Warwick-Booth et al. 2012, 17). In detail, 4 students engaged in the activity of interrelating the medical activity system with other systems. This further indicates that they were, at least implicitly, aware that a genre does not function in isolation. As highlighted by Cohen (1986, 207):

> [...] a genre, therefore, is to be understood in relation to other genres, so that its aims and purposes at a particular time are defined by its interrelation with and differentiation from others genres.

The sample snapshots in *Figure 3* show three different types of genre interrelation with the medical activity system.

The domestic activity system in the first image on the left is interrelated with the medical system through the illness experience of a backache; in the second image through a stomach ache and nausea after a flight, and in the third image through a sprained ankle in the activity system of everyday street routines. Although these interrelations vary in terms of illness, place and time, they share the common meaning that illness originated within the bio-social contexts.



Figure 1. – Exploitation of generic knowledge: personalisation of the medical space.



Figure 2. – Exploitation of Generic knowledge: semiotic representation of meaning.

Figure 3. – Exploitation of generic knowledge: the bio-social context of the Illness experience.

As an additional value of exploiting generic knowledge, all participants moved up to Level III of digital literacy, namely, to the level of digital transformation, which "[…] is achieved when the digital usages which have been developed enable innovation and creativity, and stimulate significant change within the professional or knowledge domain" (Martin and Grudziecki 2006, 260).

In pedagogical terms, individual exploitation of digital activity systems may further help shed light on LSP students' motivational drive and personal learning styles, which is, however, beyond the scope of the present study.

On the whole, the liberties taken by EMP learners with specialist discourse in the computer-mediated simulations were of three main types: (1) personalisation of the medical space; (2) choice and range of medical paraphernalia; (3) genre interrelation. In all cases, learners transferred genre knowledge using different sources of creativity, choice and individual action, achieving a pragmatic nexus between their own actions and the socially defined context of the medical interview (cf. Devitt 2004).

6. Concluding remarks

Over the last few decades, genre-based pedagogy has moved beyond the traditional practice of focussing on surface linguistic forms to develop LSP learners' genre acquisition and awareness. However, pedagogical activities have often been mostly geared to the rehearsed acquisition of genres (cf. Johns 2008) within the activity system of the classroom alone (cf. Russell and Fisher 2009). This chapter has argued for a genre-activity based approach to EMP as "[…] a form of acculturation, an attempt to help learners understand the social and cultural context in which the genres operate […]" (Basturkmen and Elder 2004, 678). The pedagogical experiment encouraged EMP learners to transfer their knowledge of the medical interview and use the genre as the mediational means for doing and learning through creative computer-mediated simulations. Genre analysis of learner artefacts provided valuable insights into EMP students' transfer of their knowledge of the code, genre knowledge and sensitivity to cognitive structures. Flexibility of rhetorical phases/moves in medical interviews and sensitivity to cognitive structures were found to be the areas in which EMP learners presented major weaknesses. On the other hand, learners showed active engagement in exploiting generic knowledge by personalising the medical space, making consistent choices of paraphernalia, constructing semiotic representations of meaning, and by interrelating the genre of medical interviews to other genres pertaining to bio-social contexts. The research results, although small-scaled, highlight the benefits of genre-activity based LSP which moves beyond the activity system of education, given that "[learners] typically go through a fairly slow process of organizational acculturation before they acquire and can successfully use workplace genres" (Artemeva 2008, 9). Further research on the effects of the genre-activity based approach is necessary to gain deeper insights into its potential for a more professional application of LSP pedagogy. This also entails evaluating the effectiveness of new technological environments in facilitating tertiary learners' training as specialist members of their disciplinary culture, and in supporting the transition from classroom genre-based pedagogy to professional contexts of use.

References

Arnó Macià, Elisabet, Antonia Soler Cervera, and Carmen Rueda Ramos, eds. 2006. *Information Technology in Languages for Specific Purposes: Issues and Prospects*. New York: Springer.

Artemeva, Natasha. 2008. "Approaches to Learning Genres: A Bibliographical Essay". In *Rhetorical Genre Studies and Beyond*, edited by Natasha Artemeva and Aviva Freedman, 9-99. Manitoba: Inkshed Publications.

Bárcena, Elena, Timothy Read, and Jorge Arus, eds. 2014. *Languages for Specific Purposes in the Digital Era*. Berlin: Springer.

Basturkmen, Helen, and Catherine Elder. 2004. "The Practice of LSP". In *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, edited by Alan Davies and Catherine Elder, 672-694. Malden (MA): Blackwell.

Bazerman, Charles. 1997. "The Life of Genre, the Life in the Classroom". In *Genre and Writing: Issues, Arguments, Alternatives*, edited by Wendy Bishop and Hans Ostrom, 19-26. Portsmouth (NH): Boynton - Cook-Heinemann.

Bazerman, Charles. 2006. "The Writing of Social Organization and the Literate Situating of Cognition: Extending Goody's Social Implications of Writing". In *Technology, Literacy and the Evolution of Society: Implications of the Work of Jack Goody*, edited by David R. Olson and Michael Cole, 215-240. Mawah (NJ): Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bazerman, Charles, Joseph Little, and Teri Chavin. 2003. "The Production of Information for Genred Activity Spaces". *Written Communication* 20 (4): 455-477.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 1993. *Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings*. London - New York: Longman.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 1997. "Applied Genre Analysis and ESP". In *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*, edited by Tom Miller, 134-149. Washington (DC): US Information Agency.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 2004. *Worlds of Written Discourse: A Genre-based View*. London: Continuum.

Chadron, Rita, and Peter Wyer. 2008. "The Art of Medicine. Narrative Evidence Based Medicine". *The Lancet* 371: 296-297.

Cohen, Ralph. 1986. "History and Genre". *New Literary History* 17 (2): 203-218.

Devitt, Amy. 2004. *Writing Genres*. Carbondale (IL): Southern Illinois University Press.

Devitt, Amy. 2009. "Teaching Critical Genre Awareness". In *Genre in a Changing World*, edited by Charles Bazerman, Adair Bonini, and Débora Figueiredo, 337-351. Boulder (CO): Parlor Press.

Devitt, Amy, and Jo Reiff. 2014. "Reproducing Genres: Pattern-related Writing". In *Handbook of Writing and Text Production*, edited by Eva-Maria Jakobs and Daniel Perrin, 263-284. Berlin - Boston: Walter De Gruyter.

Dressen-Hammouda, Dacia. 2003. "Contributions of an Integrated Genre Theory of Text and Context to Teaching LSP". *ASp* 39-40: 73-90.

Engeström, Yrjö. 1987. *Learning by Expanding: An Activity Theoretical Approach to Developmental Research*. Helsinki: Orienta-Konsultit Oy.

Fairclough, Norman. 1995. *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. London: Longman.

Fairclough, Norman. 2001. *Language and Power*. 2nd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Freedman, Aviva, Christine Adam, and Graham Smart. 1994. "Wearing Suits to Class: Simulating Genres and Simulations as Genre". *Written Communication* 11 (2): 193-226.

Funnell, Martha, and Robert Anderson. 2004. "Empowerment and Self-management of Diabetes". *Clinical Diabetes* 22 (3): 123-127.

Johns, Ann M. 2008. "Genre Awareness for the Novice Academic Student: An Ongoing Quest". *Language Teaching* 41 (2): 237-252.

Johns, Ann M., and Donna Pric. 2014. "English for Specific Purposes: International in Scope, Specific in Purpose". In *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign language*. 4th ed., edited by Marianne Celce-Murcia, Donna Brinton, and Marguerite Snow, 471-487. Boston: National Geographic Learning.

Jones, Charlotte, and Wayne Beach. 2005. "'I just wanna know why': Patients' Attempts and Physicians' Responses to Premature Solicitation of Diagnostic Information". In *Diagnosis as Cultural Practice*, edited by Judith Duchan Felson and Dana Kovarsky, 103-136. Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.

Kalitzkus, Vera, and Peter Matthiessen. 2009. "Narrative-based Medicine: Potential, Pitfalls, and Practice". *The International Journal of Narrative Practice* 1 (1): 56-64.

Martin, Allan, and Jan Grudziecki. 2006. "DigEuLit: Concepts and Tools for Digital Literacy Development". *Innovation in Teaching and Learning in Information and Computer Sciences* 5 (4): 249-267.

Martin, James R. 1984. "Language, Register and Genre". In *Deakin University Children Course Reader*, edited by Frances Christie, 21-30. Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Miller, Carolyn R. 1984. "Genre as Social Action". *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 70: 151-167.

Nowacek, Rebecca. 2011. *Agents of Integration: Understanding Transfer as a Rhetorical Act*. Carbondale (IL): Southern Illinois University Press.

Paré, Anthony. 2014. "Rhetorical Genre Theory and Academic Literacy". *Journal of Academic Language & Learning* 8 (1): A83-A94.

Plastina, Anna Franca. Forthcoming. "Putting the Plain into Pain Language in English for Medical Purposes: Learner Inquiry into Patients' Online Descriptive Accounts". In *Teaching Medical Discourse in Higher Education* (Special Issue). *Language Learning in Higher Education* 6.

Roter, Debra, and Judith A. Hall. 2006. *Doctors Talking with Patients, Patients Talking with Doctors*. Westport (CT): Praeger Publishers.

Russell, David. 1997. "Rethinking Genre in School and Society: An Activity Theory Analysis". *Written Communication* 14: 504-554.

Russell, David. 2002. "The Kind-ness of Genre: An Activity Theory Analysis of High School Teachers' Perception of Genre in Portfolio Assessment across the Curriculum". In *The Rhetoric and Ideology of Genre: Strategies for Stability and Change*, edited by Richard Coe, Lorelei Lingard, and Tatiana Teslenko, 225-242. Cresskill (NJ): Hampton.

Russell, David, and David Fisher. 2009. "Online, Multimedia Case Studies for Professional Education: Revisioning Concepts of Genre Recognition". In *Genres in the Internet: Issues in the Theory of Genre*, edited by Janet Giltrow and Dieter Stein, 163-192. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sarangi, Srikant. 2004. "Towards a Communicative Mentality in Medical and Healthcare Practice". *Communication & Medicine* 1 (1): 1-11.

Swales, John. 1990. *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Warwick-Booth, Louise, Ruth Cross, and Diane Lowcock. 2012. *Contemporary Health Studies: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Wilce, James M. 2009. "Medical Discourse". *Annual Review of Anthropology* 38: 199-215.

Young, Amanda, and Linda Flower. 2001. "Patients as Partners, Patients as Problem-solvers". *Health Communication* 14 (1): 69-97.

Genre and Discourse-based Approaches to ESP Teaching in Italian *Lingua Inglese* Courses: A Survey and Discussion

Glen Michael Alessi

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-ales

Keywords: analysis, discourse, ESP teaching, genre.

1. Introduction

The main concern of this chapter is to gather insights and to survey the current practices of genre and or discourse-based approaches used in *Lingua Inglese* Courses in the curriculum at Italian universities in various departments and degree programmes. It considers questions of: *What gets taught? How are Course content and objectives related to degree programmes? Why is this approach used? And, how are genre and discourse-based approaches to ESP seen as being relevant and justified in terms of institutional practices, student needs and career pathways?*

verificare sempre l'uniformità nell'uso delle Maiuscole e del corsivo (es. *Course*)

The information on current practices was gathered from questionnaires distributed to 25 academics that research, teach or supervise teaching of ESP in 14 Italian universities. Ten of these participant-colleagues generously agreed to furnish input relevant to their teaching and programme. Participants were approached based on their long-term engagement with teaching and researching professional discourse in Italian higher education

A second motive for this study was to discuss the rationale for including genre or discourse-informed ESP language awareness components in Course content. The discussion includes comments on survey findings based on the Course descriptions, views regarding theory versus practice, institutional offerings versus student needs, as well as the role of genre or discourse-based studies (under the category of 'Applied Linguistics') in the curriculum, and of higher education's role in identifying and teaching employable skills as a product of reflective learning.

nei titoli in corsivo non è ammesso tondo

1.1. *Definitional issues: Lettorato (EFL/ESP) vs. Corso (Course)*

In scope, this study does not take into consideration the teaching and testing of EFL/ESP communicative skills as found in the *Lettorato* – which is part of each department's defined EFL/ESP language teaching programme – instead, it focuses exclusively on the theory-driven *Corso*, which as a subject heading, is generally referred to in Italian as *Lingua Inglese* or *English Language* (herein referred to as the 'Course').

In many Italian university curriculums, the Course content, which usually varies between three and nine credits towards degree completion, typically covers theoretical foundations based on linguistic theories that are meant to encourage reflection on and awareness of communicative practices in professional and institutional discourse, while, at the same time, they strive to promote generic and pragmatic awareness of language choices, as might be seen in degree Courses labelled 'Applied Linguistics' or 'Communication in Professions and Organisations' in non-Italian universities. The texts, dialogues, theories and types of specialized discourse studied vary to suit the degree programme teaching as well as the research interests of the professor and the department. These official credit Courses deal primarily with ESP language analysis and evaluation in terms of genre or discourse features, rather than teaching purely testable ESP language proficiency skills presented in the *Lettorato*.

ESP is here regarded as an umbrella term for subcategories of EFL teaching and learning, which, more narrowly defined, orients the teaching and testing activities to reflect language performances specifially needed or thought to be relevant by a defined occupational context or role; some examples include: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) covering study skills, Business English (BE), English for Science or for Engineering, English for Nursing or Tourism, etc. When discussing ESP in Italian universities, a distinction has to be made between the status and role of the *Lettorato* and of the credit Course.

The *Lettorato*, which deals in teaching and testing language prerequisites, is ideally aimed at developing this command of sector-specific vocabulary as well as reading, writing, listening or speaking skills which are tied to the perceived communicative competencies and performances come abbreviare? in testatina non è ammesso corsivo

thought essential for successful engagement in a particular role, occupation or profession. The *Lettorato* content, in terms of language and skills taught, is often related to or formally integrated with the *Lingua Inglese* Course content and objectives. For example, a CEFR B1 level *Lettorato* aimed at future primary school teachers, might focus on learning and using classroom language, or reading textbook activity instruction, then subsequently test reading, speaking and vocabulary skills that were taught. The Course content might follow by concentrating on theory-informed teaching methodologies, activity types, lesson planning, and evaluation, relating the language performance, or bottom up approach of the *Lettorato*, to the theory-driven or top-down approach that the Course takes.

The *Lettorato* teaching and testing at Italian universities, however, are not in all cases designed to specifically address the perceived language needs of the particular Course of study or career orientation. The extent to which the *Lettorato* does account for specific language purposes depends on the policies, which are often administered by a *Centro Linguistico di Ateneo* or an intra-university language-learning centre. Whether the teaching addresses general EFL or specific ESP orientation often depends on the status given to English in that degree programme's curriculum. The *Lettorato* in degree programmes where English is an auxiliary subject, may rank as a low credit EFL pass/fail exam which measures exit level performance closely benchmarked to Common European Framework (CEFR) exit levels (B1, B2, C1), and requires no further Course work. In other departments, where English is given greater academic importance, as for example in applied economics, communications or foreign languages degree Course, the ESP *Lettorato* is a non-credit pre-exam test, which when passed, allows access to the theory-based ESP Course (*Lingua Inglese*) for graded evaluation and for higher number of credits.

With this distinction made between related yet separate functions and identities of the *Lettorato* and Course modules, the remainder of this chapter will address exclusively the Course part of the curriculum.

2. The survey

Seven open-ended questions were addressed to 25 participants who held Courses in *Lingua Inglese* at 14 Italian universities, of which 10 responses are considered here. Those solicited were Tenured Researchers, Associate or Full Professors who supervised the *Lettorato* and whose Course teaching and research reflected genre or discourse-related approaches. This survey does not claim to be a comprehensive, nor even statistically representative list of those engaged in this kind of teaching – but for the purposes of initial engagement – was considered valuable in revealing a variety of current practices as outlined in Course descriptions and teaching objectives.

Listed below are the survey questions:

1. Describe briefly any ESP oriented Courses/teaching, which engage(s) Genre Theory (including Discourse Analysis Applied Linguistics, Critical Genre Analysis and Corpus-assisted Discourse Analysis) including learning objectives and outcomes. A sample of the Course Syllabus would be appreciated, if possible.

*2. Provide examples of teaching/learning: materials and methods used (e.g. lecture, lettorato, blended, etc.); explain how lessons are organized (e.g. lecture, slides, assigned readings, task learning, blended learning, distance learning, etc.).

*3. Explain testing and evaluation methods (including times allowed). A sample exam would be appreciated.

4. Provide personal perspectives or rationale for this genre or discourse-based approach (e.g. how relevant to student needs, etc.).
5. Comment on how you would improve or change current practice.
6. Provide titles of genre-related theses you have supervised.

*7. List suggested/essential/important genre-based reading you would recommend to colleagues or students and which inform your perspectives and teaching.

The responses to question 1 (listed below) are general Course descriptions of current practices and have been paraphrased, summarized or edited for space and relevancy purposes. They represent nine distinct Course sub-titles (labelled 1.1-1.9). Responses to questions 2*, 3* and 7* were not included due to space restrictions or incompleteness. The responses to questions 4, 5 and 6 are summarized collectively.

2.1. *Survey responses*

Question 1. Describe briefly any ESP Courses, which are informed by Genre Theory, or Genre or Discourse related perspectives. Include Course objectives and a sample syllabus if possible.

1.1. Web-mediated Communication (*C1 level, upper division, degree in Language*)

uniformità della grafia (Maiuscole, virgole, trattini ecc.): ok così? verificare sempre

This Course addresses the two main properties that directly affect the nature of genres on the web: *multi-medianess* and *hypertext/hyper-reading*. It also examines a two-dimensional genre model revision of Swales's (1990) concept of genre, where communicative purpose is realised by move structures from Askehave and Nielsen (2005). Attention is given to Crowston and Williams' (2000) proposed classification of web-genres including: reproduced genres, adapted genres and novel genres (which are exclusive to the web), and unclassified genres, which are still emerging and not fully formed. Also studied is Shepherd and Watters' (1998) model for web-genres classification (extant, replicated and variant) or novel (emergent and spontaneous).

1.2. Language and Professional Communication (*C1 level, upper division, degree in Communications Management*)

The programme topics include the areas of textuality, language and culture, features of spoken discourse, conversation analysis and pragmatics. The notions of genre, and of context of situation (field, tenor and mode) are used to describe the text types. Genre is introduced with reference to Bhatia's (1993) sales promotion letters and job application letters. The concepts are then applied to the study of FYI letters; meetings, negotiations, business telephone calls and websites.

1.3. Discourse Analysis (*B2+ level, upper division, degree in Modern Languages*)

The Course includes work with genre theory, argumentation in editorials, academic essays and political speeches. The Course encourages genre awareness by introducing basic notions of genre analysis and provides elementary tools for the analysis of moves and evaluation in primarily argumentative texts. The exploration, however, of more conventionalized genres is a necessary step in constituting a more effective introduction to the dynamics of genre development and use.

1.4. Workshops on English for Research Purposes (*all level Phd students, interdepartmental*)

This Course in EAP speaking and writing skills, provides no theoretical input nor expects analytical output, but is thought to be a useful approach which goes beyond the grammar and vocabulary of the *Lettorato*. Workshop 3 in particular touches on genre-sensitive macrostructural elements, not presented as 'moves' but as sections. The approach draws from Swales and Feak (2000, 2004) and mirrors the American college composition or college rhetoric tradition.

Workshop 1 – *General Introduction to Academic English*: Writing Abstracts, Oral Presentations (slide preparation, delivery), Oral Presentations by participants with feedback from workshop tutor.

Workshop 2 – *Writing Skills*: Word Order, Sentence and Paragraph Structure, Strategies for Clear and Effective Writing.

Workshop 3 – *The Research Paper in English*: Parts of the Research Paper, Introduction and Method Sections, Results and Discussion Sections.

1.5. English for Tourism / Tourism Management (*B2-C1 level, upper division, business students*)

This ESP Course is aimed to provide students with a basic knowledge of the main linguistic features of tourist brochures, tourist guides, websites, etc. which they, in turn apply to materials of the same genres. In terms of theoretical issues, the Course draws extensively from the work of Cappelli (2006) and Dann (1996) and makes reference to Fairclough (2001). It critically examines the discourse of tourism from pre-trip promotional material in advertising, brochures, websites and travel articles, as well as post-trip informational materials.

1.6. English for Political Science / International Relations / International Development (*B1-B2 level, graduate political science students*)

This undergraduate Course is based loosely on the textbook "Persuasion in Politics" (Partington and Taylor 2010). It covers introduction to evaluation, persuasion strategies and the structure of argumentative texts. There is no explicit inclusion of genre theory, since this post-graduate Course is mostly topic-based for political science students – who are not specializing in languages. Set readings, lectures on topical issues, and TED talks are used, from which oblique reference to languages can be made (e.g. EU debates, Scottish referendum, etc.).

1.7. English for Law (*B2-C1 level, under and post-graduate Law students using English for study in both academic and legal contexts*)

This Course combines the traditional approach to formulaic legal English patterns with genre-based English legal language learning. The purpose is to enable students to appreciate the generic conventions and rhetorical strategies in specific texts while also giving information about the necessary linguistic resources available and how they are appropriated in context. Reading legal judgments or statutes, writing lawyer-client letters or legal problem question-answers, are presented as productive areas of genre learning where the typical organizational structure of the genre serves a particular 'communicative purpose'. The genre-based view of teaching and learning provides a link between the concerns about text and discourse analysis and ESP needs.

1.8. English Legal Writing in Academic and Professional Settings (*Law Department graduates and researchers*)

The Course is designed to provide students with the tools to make a critical analysis of legal texts used in academic and professional settings, to create an awareness in assessing their own writing strengths and weaknesses, and to build up an array of technical devices to successfully negotiate the highly competitive world of academic/professional legal writing in English. Seminars and workshops focus on several aspects of disciplinary writing, including discourse and genre, degree of formality and complexity, cohesion and coherence, hedging, analysing data and trends, summarising and paraphrasing, citing sources and plagiarism.

1.9. English for Business Sciences (Applied Economics) (*Business Sciences or Business Studies undergraduates*)

The Course is based on an assigned Coursebook, *English in Context: Explorations in a Grammar of Dis Course* (Salvi 2004) containing a wide range of texts and text types in four key fields in the Social Sciences, Economics, Business, Technology and Media Studies, and European Studies, the generic features and pragmatic patterns are presented as consciousness-raising tasks and activities. The discourse and genre focus, then, goes beyond any explicit academic exposition and are instead task-based language activities. Students are helped to discover the linguistic resources at work and how texts achieve their meaning and fulfil their communicative purposes. Narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive texts are treated in the various topic fields and over a variety of genres (articles from the popular press, the specialist media and journals, online texts, academic textbook extracts, legislation and legal documents at various levels of specialization, financial reporting and other reporting genres, political speeches and interviews). Reading strategies central to EAP and ESP are developed through the skills of deduction, connection, synthesis, comparison and hypothesis. The design of the materials and the implications for an ESP methodology, then, incorporate theoretical insights which derive from the salient work done in genre and discourse analysis: the textual structuring and rhetorical functioning of specific genres of Swales (1990) and Bhatia

(1993); the interactional and meta-linguistic features intrinsic to academic (and not only) texts of Hyland (2002), and much more. The Course, which integrates EAP and ESP skills work moves from text-based teaching to practice and from terminology-based teaching to communication, where pedagogic concerns dictate much of what goes on in the classroom in ESP teaching.

Question 4. Provide personal perspectives or rationale for this genre-based approach (e.g. how relevant to student needs, etc.).

In departments with curricula that deal specifically with languages, communications or the humanities, it appeared to be taken for granted that students would benefit from analytical, evaluative or reflective study 'about' language in addition to studying productive skills of the language itself. However, in responses from Business, Economics, Political Science departments, it was felt that the content emphasis should perhaps be less theory-orientated and focus less on discourse or genre analysis. Instead, these respondents propose including more engaging, student-friendly topics to present relevant and useful language and skills practice. For students in these departments there was no vested interest seen in studying 'about' language for its own sake. At the same time, genre and discourse approaches by some were considered useful in going beyond the usual treatment of vocabulary and grammar and valuable in themselves.

A major factor in justifying choice of Course content was determining whether it can become operative in work contexts, and whether it addresses identifiable language needs for specific situations. For example, *hybridization of genres* (where genres coalesce over time) and *language variation* within a particular subject (genre uses which renew over time) were considered valid areas of the reflective processes which influence editing, revision and language choices in general. An example adjusting Course content might be addressed in exploring how professional or formal writing registers – routinely taught in ESP business emails – may be discouraged, and that these e-mail registers undergo 'unpacking', which adjusts writing to a more semi-formal or even informal register. Students would be required to recognize and perform shifts from using a formal register between expert-to-expert, to registers reflecting peer-to-peer features of social chat, and vice versa, depending on context, audience and purpose.

A common impression found throughout the survey was that structural elements (the textual ingredients) are overlooked in the general ESP *Lettorato*, while an introduction to new genres, to the regularities that can be predicted, and the recognition of how genres vary across cultures was thought to be an excellent rationale for genre or discourse-based studies, and justifies their inclusion in the curriculum.

Question 5. Comment on how you would improve or change current practice.

Several comments addressed changing classroom practices to encourage more group-work, to eliminate lecture-only formatted lessons, and to provide exercises, which require less theory and are more task-based to address realistic communicative situations and needs. A suggestion was made to look at more *conventionalized* genres (e.g. curriculum vitae, menu, 'About us' sections of homepages, etc.). Comments suggest updating materials and testing methods, given the ongoing and rapid changes taking place in scientific and professional practices as seen in the rise in new modes of communication, new technologies and newly introduced conventions found in social media use and collaborative writing. This would require using texts taken directly from the community of practice, where at the moment, a wide gap is perceived between how linguists see and analyse professional discourse and how practitioners produce and use texts.

Corrective measures were provided and suggested using more contemporary technology, which could meet student expectations and increase participation, in a move to supplement or replace the *PowerPoint*-slide lecture format, which was considered over-used. Another suggestion was to share best practices from subject specialists (who lecture in English) and to aim teaching more towards an international student audience, rather than as a homogenous group of Italian speakers. Finally, more sharing of experiments and projects with other EU universities was thought to be needed, along with the promotion of task-based activities and study of real life case studies, in order to learn to make sense of non-prototypical cases and genres. A unanimously held opinion was to renovate and vary current teaching methodologies.

Question 6. Titles of genre related theses you have supervised.

A representative selection of paraphrased theses titles is listed below; chosen on the basis of those that included the most obvious references to and incorporation of genre or discourse frameworks. The titles reflect the degree programme orientation, but they also reveal the jointly decided area of interest between the student and the thesis advisor, which should be assumed to reflect in some way the Course content or methodologies studied along with the material on which the students were examined. What has to be assumed is that each thesis incorporates an acquired working-knowledge of patterns, descriptions, conventions, communicative purposes and readership of the genre or text-type involved, which goes beyond the kind of teaching which addresses reading for topic-interest or to test comprehension as practiced in the *Lettorato*. Here, the student has become researcher, and the resulting argumentation is thought to provide analytical expertise, both academic and field-operative, for decision taking regarding language choices. Some thesis titles (listed below 6.1- 6.6) are vaguely worded while others take on a specifically task-orientated evaluative and critical approach to solving textual problems through learned textual insights.

6.1. Websites as a communication strategy: the case of organic food producers.
6.2. "Dear shareholders and stakeholders…": a linguistic analysis of CEO's letters.
6.3. Package leaflets and EU norms: a comparative analysis.
6.4. The press release as genre: international corporate vs. Italian versions.
6.5. Communication problems in public sector: the case of mediating medical information for the immigrant community.
6.6. Web-based communicative strategies: a comparison between the municipalities.
6.7. Genre and discourse analysis of journalist-friendly webpages.

3. Findings

Three generalized categories emerge as classifications for the described Courses: Group A: Theory based or driven; Group B: Skills or topic based; and Group C: A hybrid of the first two approaches.

Courses 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, and 1.7 belong to Group A, and introduce students to criteria for classifying, analysing and evaluating situated professional discourse in linguistic terms, such as looking at generic moves or lexico-grammatical features, while commenting on producers, receivers and communicative purpose. These theory-driven descriptions focus on identifying linguistic usage in terms of theory, as contributing to formative knowledge about future language choices. Other Courses, which are in Group B, such as 1.4, 1.5, 1.6 and 1.8, distance themselves somewhat from purely linguistic analysis and focus on reading or writing strategies or specific ESP skills such as presentation. These descriptions build on previously acquired language abilities and direct them towards more specific contexts and purposes, focussing on skills practice and performance, and not depending entirely on introducing meta-language or analyses. This approach extends EFL/ESP insights about formulaic use of language and skills to a discourse level. The third category, Group C, which includes Course 1.9, appears to be more a hybrid of genre theory incorporated into an ESP methodology, mixing skills practice with theory-informed language awareness exercises.

Many of the choices made about Course content and learning objectives in the descriptions have been influenced by institutional limitations or contextual impositions (e.g. student numbers, credits, degree programme, the professor, etc.), while other choices might appear to align within a spectrum of enquiry, theory and practice outlined in Cook and Seidlhofer's (1995, 1) discussion of disciplinary separatism, where, for example, *Course* content in the first group may "kowtow to an all-encompassing theory… often associated with an individual name". As can be seen, the first group Courses largely accommodate the genre or critical frameworks of enquiry of well-known linguists, such as Bhatia (1993) Swales (1990) or Fairclough (2001). Here, the study of these all-encompassing theoretical frameworks is seen as educationally valuable in itself by accounting for language choices in professional communication practices. These investigative frameworks are considered worth studying on their own, even when operating within a vaguely or non-defined context of application. This top-down/theory-driven approach, where a widely-accepted theory and its formulae are studied, was generally used in Group A, but used less or perhaps differently in Group B Courses, where a more bottom-up approach was considered, moving from skills practice or topics to theory, and where explicit recourse to theory is made only if relevant to departmental and student needs.

Other questions, which surfaced from the survey, included how best to address perceived student needs and expectations and how best to identify and cultivate abilities that prove useful and applicable in future work contexts in order to engage employable skills. In Group B, Course contents and objectives appear more student-driven, market-driven or career-driven, with students' language needs defining what is studied. In all cases, Course content choices appear to reflect the professor's research interests, the degree programme's orientations as well as limitations of space, student numbers and more. A final reflection was the desire to provide a more student-centred learning environment, using more modern teaching methods and addressing career pathways more specifically and effectively.

3.1. *Discussion*

The two dominant approaches found in the Course descriptions, whether theory-driven (by abstractions) or skills-based (as reflected in real world needs), appear to lie within a larger problematic discussion and ongoing debate common to defining the inclusion of Applied Linguistics (AL) in interdepartmental curriculums (Murray and Crichton 2010). The Course descriptions mirror the objectives of Applied Linguistics as both problem solving and as mediating between theory as can be seen in this oft-quoted definition proposed in Kaplan and Widdowson (1992, 76).

qui no virgolette? indicare qui la sigla AL o alla prima occorrenza (p. 48)? nel testo uniformato con espressione estesa (uso prevalente nel cap.): ok

Whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language-related problem, one may say that Applied Linguistics is being practised. Applied Linguistics is a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world; it mediates between theory and practice.

Relevant also to the *Course* descriptions is Wilkin's *principles* versus *practice* view on the goal of Applied Linguistics:

> Increasing understanding of the role of language in human affairs and thereby with providing the knowledge necessary for those who are responsible for taking language-related decisions, whether the need for these arises in the classroom, the workplace, the law court, or the laboratory. (Wilkins 1999, 6)

The Courses from both groupings reflect similar elements of polarity as were seen in these Applied Linguistics definitions. Discourse-based analyses in Courses also attempt to mediate between theory and practice. Like Applied Linguistics, groupings closely observe specific discursive practices and provide descriptive classifications on which to model or evaluate other examples, and in that sense are both prescriptive and normative, tending to judge whether use is in conformance to pre-established norms, or resolving discrepancies in terms of these norms. In case of the two *Course* description groupings, perhaps this unanswered question still remains (where genre or discourse-based approaches can easily substitute the reference to Applied Linguistics):

> Whether applied linguistics should be viewed as serving the particular theoretical interests of linguistics, or those practical, real-world applications for which it has relevance and on which insights from the discipline can be brought to bear?(Murray and Crichton 2010, 15.1)

In considering both of these definitions of Applied Linguistics as relevant to the Course descriptions, it remains problematic as to whether Courses should start by illustrating and explaining theoretical concepts belonging to established schools of thought for their own sake (e.g. studying Bhatia's move structure in sales letters or curriculum vitaes to compare with other examples), or whether they should rather start by recognizing practical communication problems, specific to the discursive practices and mutually agreed needs of the professional community; to which suggested solutions can be cherry-picked from existing theories to provide insights and operative solutions (e.g. recognizing elements of Bhatia's, Swales' and of other intercultural perspectives that are relevant and which might provide corrective measures to editing company homepages in English from two different countries, in order to reflect localized generic norms). In the second case, by recognizing, addressing and correcting ESP communication problems, and extending to EFL/ESP language issues addressed in the *Lettorato* with choices that are required by real world performance, theory can become operative, if even at only a reflective level, and contribute to develop useable skills that may help pave career pathways and employability.

3.2. *Problems and suggestions*

The current Course content and teaching, as described, may lead to two considerations: The first is whether the first grouping of Courses, where theory-based teaching and testing prevail, may potentially be considered by students as being less relevant to their degree programme, career pathways, and foreign to their preconceived ideas and expectations of studying English. Studying 'about' ESP communications, especially with students who have had little or no work experience, can make little sense and can appear discouraging and off-topic. Instead, students' primary goal, it seems, is to earn the highest language performance possible measured in CEF levels (a task usually dealt with in the *Lettorato*) – equating the role of university teaching with that of private language schools, namely, to validate previously acquired and newly learnt skills according to external, internationally recognized standards. The Course may often be mistakenly interpreted by students as an "outdated 'corso monografico', consisting of a set-piece representative of no particular genre other than professor-constructed information" (Bowker 2010, 83), following a 'transmission' model of learning instead of a transformational methodological model (ibidem). This in turn creates a second potential confusion, in the second category of descriptions, in differentiating the Course from the accompanying non-credit *Lettorato* itself.

ok virgolette singole? (no cit.)

A more incisive and relevant Course in *Lingua Inglese* in any department or degree programme engaging in genre or discourse-based ESP Courses will need to better identify the specific contexts of application in targeted professional communities, medical, legal, business or other, with the help of practicing professionals. The Course should also clearly reflect researched ESP practitioner communication problems, while at the same time address the needs of students who read Course descriptions, follow Courses, sit examinations, and who expect *Course* content to be transparent and perceptively relevant to their career pathways. Practical suggestions should consider basing *Course* content on promoting reflective learning, and professional communication as situated problem-solving, relying on theory as found in applied linguistics, intercultural communications, contrastive rhetorics, genre and register analysis as well as including new modes, technologies and conventions in digital discourse (Darics 2015), to inform practice and language choices. What is meant by reflective learning here is echoed by Bazerman (2002, 80):

> We think about what we write and speak; we think about our situations, goals, audiences and available means of expression. Such thought is the foundation of rhetoric, which provides tools for examining communicative situations, for making choices about what we speak and write for making deeper sense of what others speak and write.

ok cit. in corpo minore?

In a practical sense, what reflective learning suggests is starting with communication problems from the practitioner's context of application (e.g. miscommunication, non-communication, editing cognitively challenging wordy presentation slides; editing webpages that contain information which is considered irrelevant to the target readership or target culture; editing e-mail correspondence written in an overly-formal register; editing or adapting voice-over scripts or instructions which are intended to be listened to and read aloud, but which were copied and pasted from sources written to be read silently; editing public health notices which are lost in literal translations since they were written to satisfy legal obligations only and not to serve patient-readership, etc.).

These situations can be described as faulty, or failing to effectively communicate and are and can rely on a combination of professional expertise, input from theoretical frameworks, acquired and learned language skills, combined with reflective editing to adjust and improve communications. A combination of evaluative reading exercises, lectures outlining genre or discourse-based approaches to analysis, coupled with problem-solving and task-based corrective measures will help translate the outdated top-down transmission model of teaching into a transformational model of learning, where skills for communication problem-solving compliment institutional goals and compliment career pathways for students.

4. Conclusion

An overview of the Course descriptions places the rationale of ESP-linked *Courses* as attempting to build genre knowledge of the professional sector in which the degree programme is situated. Cultivating reflective knowledge approaches can prove to be important in developing professional, institutional and critical literacies. Acquiring these analytical and evaluative skills about purposes, contexts, readership, along with macrostructural and lexico-grammatical insights, are thought to encourage successful participation in discursive practices across professional disciplines. The formal study of textuality, register and genre, and pragmatic implications will cultivate awareness and the necessary reflective skills to gain needed insights into communicative processes and remedy communication problems faced by practitioners. Existing practices of simply identifiying genre moves or lexico-grammatical features, perhaps need further extending to real-world contexts which call for applying genre knowledge to solve problems in text-production or editing (e.g. writing for the web, translation, or public service notices).

Finally, Course teaching at Italian universities might benefit from being categorized under the umbrella term of *Applied Linguistics in English*, regardless of department, degree programme or career orientation. As discussed, Courses are subject to the same debates surrounding the definition of and the application of Applied Linguistics in academic programmes, including the relationship between theory and practice. Questions regarding relevance of theory to ESP student needs and job market language needs, and the role of higher education as introducing notions, culture and critical methods, in addition to furnishing students with employable, applicable skills all remain part of an ongoing debate.

A second part to this study is planned which will investigate concrete applications for curriculum design and classroom use. It will hope to take genres, defined as "abstract, socially recognised ways of using language" (Hyland 2002, 114) and to explore how that definition can be made "operational in ESP lecturing, learning and teaching contexts" (Nesi and Gardner 2012, 21) and more importantly how they become operational, on the job, with better defined communicative contexts of professional practice.

References

Askehave, Inger, and Anne Ellerup Nielsen. 2005. "Digital Genres: A Challenge to Traditional Genre Theory". *Information Technology & People* 18 (2): 120-141.

Bazerman, Charles. 2002. "Rhetorical Research for Reflective Practice: A Multi-Layered Narrative". In *Research and Practice in Professional Discourse*, edited by Christopher N. Candlin, 79-93. Hong Kong: City University of Hong Kong.

Bhatia, Vijay K. 1993. *Genre Analysis: Theory, Practice and Applications*. Harlow: Longman.

Bowker, Janet. 2010. "Preparing the Italian University Student of Economics for the Workplace: Academic and Professional Perspectives on English Language Education". In *Le lingue-culture straniere. Quale impatto professionale? Atti del Convegno*, edited by Brigitte Battel, 79-109. Roma: Aracne.

senza citare luogo e data convegno?

verificare dati

Cappelli, Gloria. 2006. *Sun, Sea, Sex and the Unspoilt Countryside: How the English Language Makes Tourists out of Readers*. Pari (GR): Pari Pub.

Cook, Guy, and Barbara Seidlhofer. 1995. *Principle & Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H.G. Widdowson*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crowston, Kevin, and Marie Williams. 2000. "Reproduced and Emergent Genres of Communication on the World-Wide Web". *The Information Society* 16 (3): 201-216. doi: 10.1080/01972240050133652.

Darics, Erika, ed. 2015. *Digital Business Discourse*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Fairclough, Norman. 2001. *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. Harlow: Longman.

Hyland, Ken. 2002. "Genre: Language, Context, and Literacy". *APL Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 22: 113-135.

Kaplan, Robert B., and Henry G. Widdowson. 1992. "Applied Linguistics". In *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*, vol. 1, edited by William Bright, 76-80. New York: Oxford University Press.

Murray, Neil, and Jonathan Crichton. 2010. "What's in a Name? Degree Programs and What They Tell Us about 'Applied Linguistics' in Australia". *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics* 33 (2): 15.1-15.16. doi: 10.2104/ara1015.

Nesi, Hilary, and Sheena Gardner. 2012. *Genres across the Disciplines: Student Writing in Higher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Partington, Alan, and Charlotte Taylor. 2010. *Persuasion in Politics: A Textbook*. Milano: LED.

Salvi, Rita. 2004. *English in Context: Explorations in a Grammar of Discourse*. Milano: LED.

Shepherd, Michael, and Carolyn Watters. 1998. "The Evolution of Cybergenres". *Proceedings of the Thirty-first Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences* 2: 97. doi: 10.1109/HICSS. 1998.651688.

Swales, John M. 1990. *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, John M., and Christine B. Feak. 2000. *English in Today's Research World: A Writing Guide*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan.

Swales, John M., and Christine B. Feak. 2004. *Academic Writing for Graduate Students: Essential Tasks and Skills*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan.

Wilkins, David. 1999. "Applied Linguistics". In *Concise Encyclopedia of Educational Linguistics*. 1st ed., vol. 21, edited by Bernard Spolsky, 3-25. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

I am especially grateful to the following colleagues for their generous collaboration and constructive input: Janet Bowker, UNIRO1; Costanza Cucchi, UCSC; Stefania Maci, UNIPD; Amanda Murphy, UCSC; Giuseppe Palumbo, UNITS; Alan Partington, UNIBO; Franca Poppi, UNIMORE; Christina Samson, UNIFI; Jerome Tessuto, UNINA; Judith Turnbull, UNIRO1.

Translating and Learning the Language of Tourism as LSP: Corpus-based Approaches

Stefania Gandin

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-gand

Keywords: corpus linguistics, language of tourism, LSP teaching and LSP translation.

1. Corpus linguistics, translation and LSP teaching: a general introduction

The application of corpus linguistics to descriptive and applied translation studies represents nowadays a consolidated – but still evolving – research trend. Before the nineties but also afterwards, the vast majority of stylistics and corpus linguistics studies excluded translations from the material to be analysed, since translated texts were merely considered as alternative versions of original texts written in other languages. To date, the application of corpus linguistics methodologies to the study of translation has mainly addressed the study of different textual genres translated into and from English, through research projects aimed at identifying practices and universal norms characterising the translation of general language (cf. Baker 1993, 1995, 1996 and 2000; Laviosa 1998, 2002; Tymoczko 1998; Olohan and Baker 2000; Zanettin 2000 and 2012; Johansson 2003; Mauranen and Kuyamaki 2004; Olohan 2004), the translation of LSPs [1] and even the stylistic features of individual translators (cf. Hermans 1996; Baker 2000; Kenny 2001; Bosseaux 2004). However, the amount and size

[1] Amongst the largest and most important translational corpus-based projects we can recall the CEXI, the COMPARA (which are parallel corpora dedicated mainly or exclusively to fictional texts) or the ENPC, the MLCC, the TEC, and the TRANSEARCH (parallel, monolingual or comparable translational corpora containing a larger variety of textual typologies, including fictional and LSP texts).

of corpora dedicated to the translation of LSPs are still rather limited, particularly when considering the didactic potential offered by corpus-based methodologies to the study and teaching of LSP as L2 and the relating translational methods. As defined by Gotti (1991, 2003) and other scholars (cf. Balboni 2000; Bowker and Pearson 2002; Calvi 2003; Scarpa 2007), an LSP represents a language used to discuss any type of specialist field of knowledge, ranging from professional activities to recreational hobbies. LSPs are characterised by highly specific lexical, syntactic, morphological, stylistic and pragmatic features that are used mostly (or almost exclusively) in specialist communicative situations, such as experts-to-experts interactions, experts-to-semi-experts interactions, or experts-to-non-experts interactions. LSP teaching requires different approaches with respect to general language teaching, particularly in contexts of L2 learners. The development of the four basic skills of language competence (i.e. reading, listening, speaking and writing) outlined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR) needs the be achieved not only focusing on a proficient lexical acquisition, but also providing students with the ability to access, understand and employ the cultural concepts and sociolinguistic features shared by a specialist discourse community, thus including the intercultural, stylistics and pragmatic conventions characterising the discursive patterns of any LSP (Calvi 2003). Another important issue to be taken into account when teaching an LSP as a foreign language relates to the fact that students cannot be considered as real members of the specialist discourse community they plan to join, since they do not share the same status of the professionals already composing that community. Therefore, the choice of materials to be employed in class needs to be undertaken on the basis of their "pedagogical suitability" (Denti e Fodde 2012, 39) and linguistic databases represent valid didactic tools to reach this goal, since they can provide authentic materials for the analysis of real linguistic scenarios in terms of genres, registers, stylistic conventions, concurrently with accurate and contextualised terminological resources, thus supporting teachers in the development of intercultural mediation skills, which represent an essential requirement for anyone willing to learn how to communicate within a specific field of knowledge in a foreign language. As pointed out by Calvi (2003), intercultural mediation skills applied to the teaching and learning of LSP as a foreign language can successfully be achieved through translation. Lately, in fact, language teaching researches have started to re-evaluate translation as a didactic method, considering it as a fifth ability to be developed in L2 learning contexts, besides the four basic skills outlined in the CEFR. However, translation has long been considered as a mistaken and highly suspect teaching method, particularly by the exponents of the natural/communicative methods of language learning and teaching: this perspective rests on the idea of languages as independent, separate systems, and the presupposition that only by being fully immersed in a particular language system without any L1 (translational) interference, will the student be able to learn, comprehend and master the structures of a foreign language. Nevertheless, translation is an unavoidable process in the teaching and learning of any foreign language and LSP, if only for the cerebral effort involved on the part of the student, who mediates through mental translations all the new linguistic and cultural information embedded in the process of learning a new language. Recent research approaches (cf. Calvi 2003; Scarpa 2007; Balboni 2010; Cook 2010; Randaccio 2012; Pym et al. 2013) have demonstrated that translation can actually be a useful and effective teaching method that allows students a better understanding and development of the intercultural, pragmatic and conceptual knowledge of any foreign language and any LSP. The recognition of the pedagogical value of translation is stated also in the CEFR that, indeed, repeatedly mentions translation as one of the main methods to be developed when teaching and learning a foreign language, with the aim of enabling students to fully become "plurilingual and intercultural, in the sense of being able to mediate between different languages and cultures" (Pym, Malmkjær, and Del Mar Gutiérrez-Colón Plana 2013, 28), as stated in the following passages:

> The language learner/user's *communicative language competence is activated in the performance of the various language activities, involving* reception, production, interaction or *mediation (in particular interpreting or translating)*. (CEFR 2001, 14; my emphasis)

> *The learner does not simply acquire two distinct, unrelated ways of acting and communicating. The language learner becomes plurilingual and develops interculturality*. The linguistic and cultural competences in respect of each language are modified by knowledge of the other and contribute to intercultural awareness, skills and know-how. They enable the individual to develop an enriched, more complex personality and *an enhanced capacity for further language learning* and greater openness to new cultural experiences. *Learners are also enabled to mediate, through interpretation and translation, between speakers of the two languages concerned who cannot communicate directly*. (CEFR 2001, 43; my emphasis)

> [...] *the main objective of teaching a foreign language* (even though not made apparent) *was refinement of knowledge and mastery of the native language (e.g. by resorting to translation, work on registers and the appropriateness of vocabulary in*

translating into the native language, forms of comparative stylistics and semantics). (CEFR 2001, 136; my emphasis)

The use of translation in the fostering of intercultural mediation skills is particularly relevant when teaching and learning tourism discourse as LSP. In particular, at higher levels of education, such as university language degree courses and translation studies curricula, the development of advanced and accurate linguistic skills in tourism discourse as L2 necessitates tools that can provide up-to-date and authentic linguistic data, and in this perspective corpus linguistics methods may represent a valid and fairly easyily accessible didactic resource.

2. Teaching the language of tourism and its translation: corpus-based didactic proposals

On the basis of these theoretical premises, the following sections will present some corpus-based didactic proposals aimed at intermediate and advanced learners of English tourism discourse as LSP (B2/C1 level) involving 3 specific didactic scenarios:

1. *teaching English tourism discourse*, its features and properties, by using authentic materials coming from monolingual specialised corpora with the aim of exploring the different aspects of the language of tourism in terms of its main linguistic, stylistic and pragmatic properties, such as specific verbal techniques, communicative functions, etc.;
2. *teaching how to translate English tourist texts*, by employing parallel or even monolingual translational corpora in order to identify the main translational features and/or the most/least successful translational strategies used in tourist texts, through comparative analyses of specific concordances and collocations and other corpus-based parameters (e.g. lexical density, type-token ratios, etc.);
3. *teaching corpus linguistics methodologies* and, in particular, *corpus linguistics applied to translation studies*, by using monolingual (including monolingual translational corpora) and parallel corpora of tourist texts, in order to make learners familiar with corpus linguistics methodologies, notions, design criteria, technical tools, resources and procedures for the interpretation of data.

To demonstrate the potential application of these activities, the study will focus on a selection of concordances and collocates of a specific key-lemma [i.e. *landscape(s)*] related to one of the most important semantic areas of tourist discourse: the description of tourism settings. It will be outlined how this kind of corpus-based materials, if used as a pedagogical resource, allow language learners to observe in context and learn some of the main properties, most and least successful translational strategies and universals of translation characterising the language of tourism as LSP.

2.1. *Teaching English tourism discourse*

As previously mentioned, the language of tourism represents a multi-dimensional LSP with its own pragmatic, lexical and syntactic features, linked to and influenced by other specialist languages. In educational contexts in which the learning of English tourism discourse as LSP represents a primary teaching objective, monolingual specialised corpora may be utilized as a valid resource to explore the different aspects of the language of tourism in terms of its linguistic, stylistic and pragmatic properties. By exploiting the authentic data included in this type of corpora, a teacher can effectively explain and show in context the typical characteristics of the language of tourism, such as those outlined by Dann (1996) or Gotti (2006) in the models below (*Tabs. 1* and *2*).

By means of corpus linguistics software (such as Wordsmith or AntConc etc.) a teacher – and even students themselves – could explore and collect a large amount of textual data to be presented and analysed in class as valid and authentic references for the acquisition of the typical linguistic structures that any (prospective) expert in tourism communication should be able to master. A teacher could focus, for instance, on the description of tourist landscape by retrieving the most relevant collocates and collocations of relating key lemmas [i.e. *landscape(s), scenery(ies)* and so on]. In this way, students will be given the opportunity to analyse contextualised sentences in which the main properties of the language of tourism are at work, such as those outlined in the following examples taken from a monolingual corpus of promotional tourism texts written originally in English (namely the TourEC – *Tourism English Corpus*[2]) and the English

la sigla è sciolta nel testo. è possibile non ripeterla in nota?

[2] TourEC is a monolingual corpus of tourist texts originally written in English. It was compiled between 2011 and 2012 as part of a multilingual research project carried out at the Department of Humanities and Social Studies of the University of Sassari (Italy), focusing on the concept of authentic communication in tourism. TourEC comprises 468,254 tokens and 36,498 types (type/token ratio: 7.79), with over 500 travel articles downloaded from the web, written in English by a variety of authors and dealing with a vast array of typical tourist topics and locations worldwide (Gandin 2013).

numeri + virgola?

numeri + punto?

verificare sempre

Table 1. – Dann's model (adapted): properties and techniques of the language of tourism.

Convergent properties		Divergent properties	
Functions (Jacobsonian classification)		Lack of sender identification	
Structure: combination of text/image or textual functions in order for the product to be purchased + use of a binary language of opposites		Monologue	
Tense: binary opposition btw present and future		Euphoria: use of hyperbolic language	
Magic: misrepresenting time and nature through language and images		Tautology: stereotypes, pre-packaged expectations about the destination	
Verbal techniques		Visual techniques	
comparison	humour	colour	visual cliché
key words and keying	languaging	format	connotation procedures
testimony	ego-targeting		
Verbal and visual techniques combined			
puzzles		ousting the competition	
temporal contrast		infraction of taboo	
collage		significant omission	

btw: ok (per unif.)?

qui bene iniziali minuscole?

qui bene iniziali minuscole?

Table 2. – Gotti's classification (adapted): features of the language of tourism as LSP.

Lexis				
Monoreferentiality	Lexical conciseness	Standard terms used in the specialist context of tourism	Specialised terms borrowed from other LSPs	Empathic language
Syntax				
Expressive conciseness				
Genres				
Tourist guides, brochures and leaflets	Tourist articles in specialised magazines/ web sites	Tourist articles in non-specialised magazines/ web sites	Itineraries, professional correspondence	Other

è possibile non utilizzare le Maiusc. inserendo virgola?

qui bene trattini bassI? verificare sempre tipo di trattini nelle sigle (brevi, medi, spaziati e non)

source texts[3] sub-section of a bidirectional parallel corpus (ParTourE/I-C – *Parallel Tourism Corpus ENG_ITA_ENG*)[4]. In particular, examples (1) and (2) below represent perfect instances of the use of emphatic language or euphoria[5] in tourist texts (see my emphasis in italics), combined with the property of keywords and keying[6] (through the presence of adjectives such as *natural*, *extreme*, *desert* – see my emphasis in italics).

rif. a examples + parentesi del numero: uniformato a Plastina: ok?

(1) There are other countries in the world that enjoy *divinely inspired natural landscapes*, but Costa Rica boasts a higher biodiversity than Europe and the United States combined. (TourEC)

(2) Another *incredible desert landscape* spreads out before you in Joshua Tree National Park, named after the soaring yuccas that create a surreal forest in this *extreme landscape*. Walk to peaks for nonstop vistas, or try your hand at rock climbing. (ParTourE/I-C - ENG ST)

Example (3) could be presented as an interesting instance of creative monoreferentiality (Gotti 2006) through the morphological derivation of the term *landscape* in a new verbal form (i.e. *landscaped* – see also the OED definition[7]):

---

[3] From now onwards: ST.

[4] ParTourE/I-C is a bidirectional parallel corpus of original tourist web articles in English and Italian with their relating translations. The corpus was compiled between 2013 and 2014 as part of an on-going research project developed at the Department of Humanities and Social Studies of the University of Sassari (Italy) and dedicated to the study of the translational features of the language of tourism. ParTourE/I-C comprises 320,854 tokens (ENG-ITA subsection: 115,671 tokens / ITA-ENG subsection: 205,183 tokens). Its texts describe some of the most popular tourist attractions in Australia Canada, Italy, Great Britain and USA.

[5] The use of empathic language is defined by Gotti (2006, 26-29) as a distinctive feature in tourism discourse compared with other LSPs, characterised by a predominantly persuasive function that resorts to the use of nouns, adjectives, expressions capable of conveying an hyperbolic, positive image of the destinations/services described in tourist texts. This notion corresponds to the property of euphoria, that is the tendency of the language of tourism "to speak only in positive and glowing terms of the service and attractions it seeks to promote" (Dann 1996, 65) by means of superlatives, hyperbole and other linguistic devices able to emphasise the uniqueness of the attraction/place to be promoted.

[6] The property of keywords and keying is defined by Dann (1996, 174-175) as "a series of attributes of the destination […] which correspond to the requirements of the potential tourist" through the use of "appropriate language able to give an aura of genuineness and authenticity to the destination promoted" (i.e. through the use of words such as *away*, *adventure*, *escape*, *dream*, *imagination*, *pleasure*, *unique*, *exotic*, *romantic*, *happy*, *authentic*, *genuine* and so on).

[7] "*To landscape*: 1. *trans.* To represent as a landscape; to picture, depict. / 2. To lay out (a garden, etc.) as a landscape; to conceal or embellish (a building, road, etc.) by

(3) About 40 minutes outside of Dubai, the Bab Al Shams Desert Resort and Spa presents a panorama reminiscent of David Lean's Lawrence of Arabia. Its tiered pools, shady niches and traditional Arabic-style, low-rise buildings *landscaped* with palm trees, cascading fountains and wide, white umbrellas provide plentiful space to relax. (TourEC)

Finally, example (4) could be used to explain the use of standard terms in the specialist context of tourism through a process of metaphorisation (Gotti 2006 – see my emphasis in italics):

(4) INSPIRE! Toronto International Book Fair reinvents the culture of reading over three and a half dynamic days this November, featuring the largest gathering of programmed authors in Canada. Through the diversity of the local and *international publishing landscapes*, the fair will appeal to all book lovers and readers. (ParTourE/I-C - ENG ST)

Such corpus-based examples could be easily employed by both language teachers and students in order to analyse the main properties of English tourism discourse, find valid linguistic references to learn the right collocational patterns, phraseology, terminology and stylistics features of English tourist texts and develop familiarity with corpus linguistics research tools and methodologies.

2.2. *Teaching how to translate English tourism discourse*

Similar corpus-based approaches can also be applied when teaching how to translate tourist texts, in order to outline the features of tourism discourse and relating translational strategies by means of authentic linguistic materials. As affirmed by Durán Muñoz (2011, 31) translators of tourist texts "must transfer information that may not exist in the target culture in a very attractive way, so as to attract tourists to the target destination". In this way "translators become intercultural mediators" and "must keep the essence of the source text, its content, its function, its cultural references, and at the same time they must approach the translation to the target audience, by making the content comprehensive, promoting the destination and making it closer to them". Parallel corpora can offer endless examples to explain in class the general norms and the most (and even least) effective strategies characterising the translation of tourism discourse. In classroom

making it part of a continuous and harmonious landscape" (OED online, ad vocem – last accessed: November 2014).

contexts aimed at learning how to translate the language of tourism and at creating professionals able to write target texts [8] with equivalent persuasive effects, even a short example like the one below could be exploited to explain the various translational strategies available, along with specific properties of the language of tourism (in this case: euphoria, key words and keying, languaging [9], the use of the conative function and ego-targeting devices [10], etc. – see my emphasis in italics).

(5) ST: Scotland travel guide
From *deserted glens* to Edinburgh's *stylish streets, discover Scotland*, a land of *startling variety*.
Learn everything about Scotland from its *historic natural landmarks* like Loch Ness and Neolithic Orkney to its *unique* blend of *traditional and modern culture. Start your* journey now. (ParTourE/I-C - ENG ST)

TT: Guida della Scozia
Dalle vallate deserte alle eleganti vie di Edimburgo: scoprite la Scozia, una terra di sorprendenti contrasti.
Scoprite tutto sulla Scozia: dai siti storici naturali come Loch Ness e le neolitiche Orcadi al suo mix unico di cultura moderna e tradizionale. Inizia il tuo viaggio! (ParTourE/I-C - ITA TT)

Through this specific example, a teacher could outline the presence of specific translational phenomena, explaining for instance direct and oblique translation methods according to Vinay and Daberlnet's model (1958), or the concept of translation shift according to Catford's model (1965), focusing on the notions of:

- Literal translations, in the strict correspondence between ST and TT syntactic structures and terminologies.
- Borrowings (i.e. *Loch Ness*).
- Modulation, in the choice of terms such as *contrasti* for *variety*, or *scoprite* for both *discover* and *learn*, which attain an equivalent and effective persuasive function in the TL, slightly changing however the point of view embedded in the ST.

---

8 From now onwards: TT.

9 Languaging is a very common linguistic strategy in tourist texts, which is defined by Dann (1996, 183-185) as "the use of real or fictitious foreign words" or "a manipulation of the vernacular" with the aim of providing local colour to the text.

10 The technique of ego-targeting employs "lexical devices typical of a conversational style" (Dann 1996, 185-188), such as the use of first and second person (plural and singular) pronouns, possessive adjectives and pronouns, interjections through which readers of tourist texts can be directly addressed and be "linguistically transposed into the tourist experience to be sold".

- Adaptation, in the translation of the term *glens* into a generic *vallate* (*wide valleys*).
- Unit shift, referring to the different punctuation system used in the TT, which modifies the hierarchical clause order of the ST.
- Intra-system shifts, in the translation of the final imperative *Start your journey* into *Inizia il tuo viaggio*, which uses a second person singular rather than a second person plural as in the previous translations of the imperatives *Discover Scotland* → *Scoprite la Scozia* and *Learn everything about Scotland* → *Scoprite tutto sulla Scozia*.

Parallel corpora could also be used to demonstrate inadequate translational practices, unfortunately still to be found even in professional settings such as translated materials of official tourism boards. In example (6) below, for instance, rather than seeing the conscious application of borrowing strategies linked to the property of languaging, the sentence *Suoni di Great Britain* represents the evident result of an automatic translation, which leaves unaltered the reference to Great Britain and mistakenly reports the preposition *of/di* in capital letters (grammatically incorrect in Italian).

qui no corsivo?

(6) ST: Sounds of Great Britain. See your perfect day in Britain come alive in our new video. (ParTourE/I-C - ENG ST)

TT: Suoni *di Great Britain*. Organizzate la vostra giornata perfetta in Gran Bretagna prendendo spunto dal nostro nuovo video. (ParTourE/I-C - ITA TT)

2.3. *Teaching corpus linguistics methodologies and its applications to the study of translation universals*

At a more advanced level of linguistic competence, this type of corpus based didactic approach could also be drawn on to make learners familiar with corpus linguistics methodologies and procedures for the interpretation of data, by explaining in particular the concept of universals of translation and how these phenomena can potentially affect the properties of the language of tourism in translated texts. The application of corpus linguistics to the study of translation universals developed from the need to define with empirical data the blurred concept of translationese, a term used to indicate (often in pejorative sense) how "the language of translated texts may differ from that of other texts produced in the same language" (Zanettin 2012, 12). Research in the field of translation universals resulted in the determination of the following linguistic phenomena:

meglio utilizzare elenco con pallino (per unif.): ok?

- explicitation, represented by all those devices used to "spell things out rather than leave them implicit in translation" (Baker 1996, 180), including for instance "the use or overuse of explanatory vocabulary and conjunctions, or any supplementary information added to the text (e.g. the translator's forewords at the beginning of a text), […] the higher presence of the reporting that […] and the addition of grammatical and/or lexical items in the specification of terms";

- simplification, expressed through the use of simplified language resulting in a lower degree of lexical density and a narrower range of type-token ratios, or by means of shorter sentences, alteration of the punctuation from weaker to stronger marks, omission of redundant or repeated information and shortening of complex collocations;
- normalization represented by "the tendency to exaggerate the features of the target language and to conform to its grammatical and collocational patterns" (ibid., 183), through the normalization of grammatical structures, punctuation collocational patterns and lexical creativity in terms of suffixes and ST unique words;
- levelling out, which "concerns the tendency of translated texts to gravitate towards a centre of a continuum […]" (ibid., 184), so that the text moves away from any extreme of oral or literate markedness involved both in the source and target language;
- unique items, which entails the investigation of unusual TL specific lexical items which are not common in the standard TL and may turn out to be even less frequent in translated texts (Zanettin 2012, 20); qui no virgolette? 2x
- untypical collocations, which, although possible in the TL, are rare or absent in standard TL texts (ibidem);
- interference, which refers to "features of the SL that get transferred in target texts during the process of translation" (ibid., 21).

To explain universals of translation though corpus-based didactic activities, it would be advisable to use two monolingual corpora of translated and non-translated texts, in order to compare relating data and thus identify the linguistic and stylistic differences characterising translated language with respect to texts originally written in a specific source language. For instance, through this comparative-corpus perspective, a teacher could focus again on the description of tourist landscapes by letting students retrieve the related concordances in both corpora in terms of adjectives, common nouns and verbs (excluding therefore functional words such as articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.) and normalise all data in order to compare the results. The following *Tables 3* and *4*[11] represent an example

[11] Key to acronyms: ADJ = adjectives; NN = common nouns; VB = verbs; PoS = Parts of speech; PoS (#) = Parts of speech frequency rate; NRM = normalized datum.

of this kind of activity: they report the results of the collocational patterns (adjectives, common nouns and verbs) for the lemma *landscape(s)* taken from two monolingual corpora of English translated and non-translated texts, namely the T-TourEC (*Translational Tourism English Corpus*)[12] and the TourEC (see previous note 9). These data have been generated by means of the Wordsmith 6.0 tools suite and normalised on a base of a desired corpus size of 500,000 tokens (Tour-EC normalisation ratio: 1.07; T-TourEC normalisation ratio: 1.38): they comprise the three most left and three most right collocates of the node word, with a minimum frequency rate of 2.

These data could be presented and explained to students at different levels of analysis. Firstly, just by considering the frequency of the lemma *landscape* in both corpora, learners will notice a much higher rate in translated tourist texts: this will lead a teacher to explain the notion of lexical variation showing how, in this case, the higher frequency of the lemma *landscape(s)* generates far more variants in translational tourism discourse with respect to tourist texts originally written in English: 70 collocates (NRM 96.6) against 27 (NRM 28.89), therefore more than doubling the amount of lexical words accompanying the collocational pattern of the term *landscape(s)*. These results could be further compared in terms of PoS frequency and interpreted as data that indicate the presence of different translation universals since the larger range of different collocates used in the lexical patterning of the term *landscape(s)* in T-TourEC can be explained in terms of explicitation phenomena, while the wide variety of adjectives in the T-TourEC is linked to the universal of normalisation due to the fact that the higher proportions of evaluative and non-evaluative adjectives outlines the strong tendency of translated texts to conform to and over-use some of the most typical stylistic properties of tourism discourse, such as:

[12] T-TourEC was created in 2013 and comprises 361,198 tokens and 23,144 types (type/token ratio: 6.41), with over 800 texts divided in a set of three source-languages related sub-corpora exclusively dedicated to travel texts translated into English from Italian, Norwegian and Japanese. These language combinations were chosen because of their distant and different linguistic origins, in order to avoid biased data deriving from the potential repetition of linguistic and translational patterns implied in source languages coming from the same or a similar language family. Texts were downloaded from the institutional web sites of the national Japanese, Italian and Norwegian tourist boards, and describe the typical tourist attractions of the countries taken into consideration, with specific sub-topics corresponding to those included in the TourEC, so as to avoid potential topical bias in the comparison of the two corpora.

Table 3. – TourEC - collocates of landscape(s).

N.	*TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 92 (NRM → 98]	PoS	PoS #	N.	*TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 92 (NRM → 98]	PoS	PoS #
1	BIG	ADJ	2	*15*	HILLS	NN	3
2	CHANGING	ADJ	3	*16*	HISTORY	NN	2
3	CIRCULAR	ADJ	2	*17*	MIX	NN	2
4	CULTURAL	ADJ	3	*18*	MUSEUM	NN	3
5	DIFFERENT	ADJ	2	*19*	PEOPLE	NN	2
6	DRAMATIC	ADJ	4	*20*	VINEYARDS	NN	2
7	EPIC	ADJ	3	*21*	ARE	VB	2
8	GREEN	ADJ	2	*22*	IS	VB	4
9	HARSH	ADJ	2	*23*	MADE	VB	2
10	NEOLITHIC	ADJ	2	*24*	SEE	VB	3
11	REMARKABLE	ADJ	2	*25*	SEEMS	VB	2
12	SURREAL	ADJ	3	*26*	SET	VB	2
13	THEIR	ADJ	2	*27*	TAKE	VB	2
14	BEAUTY	NN	2				

Table 4. – T-TourEC - collocates of landscape(s).

N.	*T-TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 177 NRM → 244]	PoS	PoS #	N.	*T-TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 177 NRM → 244]	PoS	PoS #
1	ALPINE	ADJ	4	*36*	CLIFFS	NN	2
2	ARCTIC	ADJ	2	*37*	DOLOMITES	NN	2
3	BEAUTIFUL	ADJ	9	*38*	EXPERIENCE	NN	2
4	BREATHTAKING	ADJ	2	*39*	FJORD	NN	11
5	CHANGING	ADJ	2	*40*	GARDEN	NN	4
6	CHARACTERISTIC	ADJ	2	*41*	GLACIER	NN	2
7	CHARMING	ADJ	3	*42*	HISTORY	NN	3
8	COASTAL	ADJ	6	*43*	HOTEL	NN	9
9	CULTURAL	ADJ	15	*44*	MOUNTAIN	NN	3

Continue ☞

è possibile/corretto segnalare il seguito?

N.	*T-TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 177 NRM → 244]	PoS	PoS #	N.	*T-TourEC - landscape(s)* [TOTAL node word frequency: 177 NRM → 244]	PoS	PoS #
10	DRAMATIC	ADJ	3	*45*	MOUNTAINS	NN	4
11	FANTASTIC	ADJ	3	*46*	NATURE	NN	3
12	FASCINATING	ADJ	2	*47*	OPENNESS	NN	2
13	HISTORICAL	ADJ	2	*48*	PART	NN	2
14	IMPORTANT	ADJ	2	*49*	ROAD	NN	2
15	JAGGED	ADJ	2	*50*	SCENERY	NN	2
16	JAPANESE	ADJ	3	*51*	SEA	NN	2
17	LUCANIAN	ADJ	2	*52*	SNOW	NN	2
18	LUNAR	ADJ	3	*53*	STYLES	NN	2
19	MOUNTAINOUS	ADJ	2	*54*	WILDLIFE	NN	2
20	NATURAL	ADJ	5	*55*	WINTER	NN	4
21	NEWEST	ADJ	2	*56*	ARE	VB	4
22	NORTHERN	ADJ	2	*57*	CAN	VB	4
23	NORWEGIAN	ADJ	6	*58*	DOMINATED	VB	2
24	OPEN	ADJ	2	*59*	EXPERIENCE	VB	2
25	PICTURESQUE	ADJ	5	*60*	EXPLORE	VB	2
26	RICH	ADJ	4	*61*	FEATURES	VB	2
27	SPECTACULAR	ADJ	3	*62*	FIND	VB	3
28	SPLENDID	ADJ	2	*63*	HAS	VB	4
29	STEEP	ADJ	2	*64*	HAVE	VB	2
30	UNIQUE	ADJ	4	*65*	IS	VB	14
31	VARIED	ADJ	6	*66*	KEPT	VB	2
32	VOLCANIC	ADJ	2	*67*	MADE	VB	2
33	AREA	NN	3	*68*	OPENS	VB	3
34	AREAS	NN	2	*69*	SHAPED	VB	2
35	BUILDINGS	NN	2	*70*	WAS	VB	3

- Euphoria (see the following examples and all the superlatives and hyperbolic adjectives reported in *Table 4*).

  (7) Sicily, too, is covered in natural reserves and *breathtaking landscapes*. (T-TourEC)

  (8) Located on the Tyrrhenian coastline, Maratea is a jewel in the region's crown. The *landscape is dramatic*, with plunging cliffs leading to a network of beautiful sandy coves hidden amongst the rocks. (T-TourEC)

- Keywords and keying (see the following examples and words such as *culture/cultural*, *history/historical*, *nature/natural*, *unique*, *wildlife*, *explore*, etc. reported in *Table 4*).

  (9) The Heathland Centre is an information and knowledge centre about the *cultural landscape*. Here, you can follow trails through the *historical landscape* that have existed along the coast for 5,000 years. (T-TourEC)

  (10) The journey from Narvik to Stetind is a fantastic way to experience Ofoten and enjoy the *unique landscape* and peaceful surroundings. (T-TourEC)

- The concurrent attainment of the conative function, in order to attract the potential tourist's attention by means of persuasive language, such as positive evaluative adjectives, but also with peculiar verbal forms such as imperatives, the use of past participle in thematic position, etc.: see example (11).

  (11) Take part in a trip and *experience spectacular landscape*, nature and birdlife, a fantastic bluish light, and the possibilities to watch the orcas in the Vestfjord. (T-TourEC)

- The achievement of the referential function, through the use of non-evaluative adjectives and also common nouns: see example (12).

  (12) Sea kayaking trips provide a different view of the *Northern Norwegian coastal landscape*. (T-TourEC)

3. Conclusions

Corpus-based didactic approaches can represent a valid didactic tool able to offer endless resources in terms of teaching materials, creative teaching and (self-)learning methods. The corpus-based activities described in this chapter are aimed at demonstrating how the teaching of any LSP needs to take into account multileveled and dynamic perspectives, able to develop the lexical, intercultural and technical skills that are required to achieve an appropriate linguistic competence in specialised communicative contexts. The results of this study confirm how translation should be considered a key aspect to be re-evaluated and included in the teaching of any LSP as foreign language, particularly for the language of tourism, and how parallel, monolingual and monolingual-translational corpora can be effectively employed in contexts of L2 learners of English at university level in order to:

- explore and learn the different linguistic, stylistic and pragmatic properties of the language of tourism by means of authentic linguistic materials;
- recognise and understand the most/least successful strategies characterising the translation of tourist texts;
- discover corpus linguistics methodologies, notions, design criteria, technical tools and procedures for the collection, analysis and interpretation of complex linguistic phenomena, particularly when applied to the study of translation universals.

Corpus linguistics and its application to the study of translation represent therefore precious didactic resources to consolidate and innovate the teaching and learning procedures of any LSP as foreign language, and their various didactic scenarios are worthy of further investigations in the future, in order to identify other new, dynamic and up-to-date language-teaching methods.

References

Baker, Mona. 1993. "Corpus Linguistics and Translation Studies: Implications and Applications". In *Text and Technology: In honour of John Sinclair*, edited by Mona Baker, Gill Francis, and Elena Tognini-Bonelli, 233-250. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Baker, Mona. 1995. "Corpora in Translation Studies: An Overview and Some Suggestions for Future Research". *Target* 7 (2): 223-243.

Baker, Mona. 1996. "Corpus-based Translation Studies: The Challenges that Lie Ahead". In *Terminology, LSP and Translation*, edited by Harold Somers, 175-186. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Baker, Mona. 2000. "Towards a Methodology for Investigating the Style of a Literary Translator". *Target* 12 (2): 241-266.

Balboni, Paolo. 2000. *Le microlingue scientifico-professionali: natura e insegnamento*. Torino: UTET.

Balboni, Paolo. 2010. "La traduzione nell'insegnamento delle lingue: dall'ostracismo alla riscoperta". In *Tradurre in pratica. Riflessioni, esperienze, testimonianze*, a cura di Flora De Giovanni e Bruna Di Sabato, 179-200. Napoli: Edizioni Scientifiche Italiane.

Bosseaux, Charlotte. 2004. "Translating Point of View: A Corpus-based Study". *Language Matters* 35 (1): 259-274.

Bowker, Lynne, and Jennifer Pearson. 2002. *Working with Specialized Languages: A Practical Guide to Using Corpora*. London: Routledge.

Calvi, Maria Vittoria. 2003. "La traduzione nell'insegnamento della lingua e nello studio dei linguaggi specialistici". In *Tradurre dallo spagnolo. Giornata di Studio, Milano, 28 febbraio 2003*, 7-14. Milano: LED. [01/10/2014]. http://www.ledonline.it/ledonline/index.html?/e-seminars/tradurredallospagnolo.html.

Catford, John C. 1965. *A Linguistic Theory of Translation: An Essay on Applied Linguistics*. London: Oxford University Press.

Cook, Guy. 2010. *Translation in Language Teaching: An Argument for Reassessment*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

meglio inserire anche la sigla?

Council of Europe – CEFR. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. [01/10/2014]. http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/elp/elpreg/Source/key_reference/CEFR_EN.pdf.

Dann, Graham. 1996. *The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Denti, Olga, e Luisanna Fodde. 2012. "Il discorso turistico: peculiarità linguistico-comunicative nella didattica dell'inglese specialistico". In *Prospettive linguistiche e traduttologiche negli studi sul turismo*, a cura di Mirella Agorni, 23-46. Milano: FrancoAngeli.

Durán Muñoz, Isabel. 2011. "Tourist Translations as a Mediation Tool: Misunderstandings and Difficulties". *Cadernos de Tradução* 1 (27): 29-49.

Gotti, Maurizio. 1991. *I Linguaggi Specialistici. Caratteristiche linguistiche e criteri pragmatici*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2003. *Specialized Discourse: Linguistic Features and Changing Conventions*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2006. "The Language of Tourism as Specialized Discourse". In *Translating Tourism: Linguistic/Cultural Representations*, edited by Oriana Palusci and Sabrina Francesconi, 15-34. Trento: Università di Trento, Dipartimento di Studi letterari, linguistici e filologici.

Hermans, Theo. 1996. "The Translator's Voice in Translated Narrative". *Target* 8 (1): 23-48.

Johansson, Stig. 2003. "Reflections on Corpora and Their Uses in Cross-linguistic Research". In *Corpora in Translator Education*, edited by Federico Zanettin, Silvia Bernardini, and Dominic Stewart, 135-144. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Kenny, Dorothy. 2001. *Lexis and Creativity in Translation: A Corpus-based Study*. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Laviosa, Sara. 1998. "The English Comparable Corpus: A Resource and a Methodology". In *Unity in Diversity? Current Trends in Translation Studies*, edited by Lynn Bowker, Michael Cronin, Dorothy Kenny, and Jennifer Pearson, 101-112. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Laviosa, Sara. 2002. *Corpus-based Translation Studies: Theories, Findings, Applications*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Mauranen, Anna, and Kuyamaki Pekka, eds. 2004. *Translation Universals: Do They Exist?*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Olohan, Maeve. 2004. *Introducing Corpora in Translation Studies*. London - New York: Routledge.

Olohan, Maeve, and Mona Baker. 2000. "Reporting That in Translated English: Evidence for Subconscious Processes of Explicitation?". *Across Languages and Cultures* 1: 141-172.

Pym, Anthony, Kirsten Malmkjær, and María Del Mar Gutiérrez-Colón Plana. 2013. *Translation and Language Learning: The Role of Translation in the Teaching of Languages in the European Union: A Study*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Randaccio, Monica. 2012. "Translation and Language Teaching: Translation as a Useful Teaching Resource". In *Aspetti della didattica e dell'apprendimento delle lingue straniere*, vol. 2, a cura di Federica Gori e Christopher Taylor, 78-91. Trieste: EUT.

Scarpa, Federica. 2007. "Lingue speciali e didattica della traduzione". In *Linguistica, linguaggi specialistici, didattica delle lingue. Studi in onore di Leo Schena*, a cura di Giuliana Garzone e Rita Salvi, 255-267. Roma: CISU.

Tymoczko, Maria. 1998. "Computerized Corpora and the Future of Translation Studies". *Meta. Translator's Journal* 43: 652-659.

Vinay, Jean-Paul, et Jean Darbelnet. 1958. *Stylistique comparée de l'anglais et du français*. Paris: Didier.

Zanettin, Federico. 2000. "Parallel Corpora in Translation Studies: Issues in Corpus Design and Analysis". In *Intercultural Faultlines. Research Models in Translation Studies I: Textual and Cognitive Aspects*, edited by Maeve Olohan, 105-118. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Zanettin, Federico. 2012. *Translation-Driven Corpora – Corpus Resources for Descriptive and Applied Translation Studies*. Manchester: St. Jerome.

bene
suddivisione
righe?

Turning Asynchronous, Individual Learning into a Constructive Online Community of Practice: A Case Study of the 'L5' Psychology ESP Moodle University Course

Roxanne Doerr

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-doer

Keywords: distance learning, higher education, online foreign language course, Moodle, psychology ESP.

1. Introduction

Today's job market is characterised by a great degree of mobilization, de-localization and flexibility in many specialised sectors. Moreover, more and more workers feel the need to satisfy its demands by completing higher education courses, making the students attending university courses increasingly heterogeneous in age, competence and professional requirements. Their approach to their studies therefore changes based on the extent and nature of their previous education and professional experience, as well as on their intent to maintain their position of employment, improve it or find a new one in the same or a different field. Such needs may be provided for by blended or online university courses which allow aspiring students to benefit from higher education and its conveyed skills while managing their professional and personal responsibilities (White 2003; Osipov et al. 2015). Among these skills, foreign language proficiency both in general and for specialised written and spoken communication has emerged, leading to necessary considerations on how to adjust ESP teaching to new online affordances and instruments and introduce students into their "chosen discourse community" (Cheng 2010). Therefore, universities must – and in some cases have already started to – tailor the teaching media, programs, content and objectives of their ESP courses to a new kind of virtual target class and encourage a social constructivist approach to learning (Robinson 1980, 13; Dalsgaard and Godsk 2007; Rogerson-Revell 2007; Stickler and Hampel 2010). Due to their full-time professional commitments and distant physical location in fact, these 'new' learners cannot attend face-to-face lessons but still need to be guided in mastering both conceptual and practical content during their study time. This lack of physical presence often leads students to feel disconnected from their teachers and peers and unable to follow the rhythm of the course. Furthermore, because these students already work, they seek practical skills and terminology that may be immediately applied in their current or desired work environment, as opposed to theoretical notions like in a traditional syllabus. Distance learning has therefore been considered a valid way to promote and provide flexible and collaborative courses for this new category of learners. A significant example of this type of course is represented by the bachelor's degree course in *Scienze e Tecniche Psicologiche* ('Psychological Sciences and Techniques') – hereinafter 'L5 course' – offered by the University of Padua's School of Psychology, which will also be the setting of the present study.

One of the main challenges – which however could be converted into a source of potential in online ESP teaching and must be factored into the course's planning and execution – consists in the type of ESP in question. Psychology ESP is a hybrid and evolving form, traditionally considered part of the 'English for Social Sciences' (Hutchinson and Waters 1987) branch and remains so in many fields of psychology (e.g. social, school, work and political psychology). At the same time however, certain fields of psychology are evolving similarly to highly scientific areas (e.g. psychobiology, neuropsychology, memory psychology, psychiatry). The multiplicity of fields, participants, forms and roles of interaction that psychology involves, as well as its continuously updated material and knowledge sharing, has led to a great variety of genres, registers and lexical-grammatical choices within the discipline and its discourse community. From a communicative perspective, psychology encompasses many environments and tasks (schools, rehabilitation and correction centers, organizations) and different skills (listening, understanding, suggesting, guiding, counselling) that must be included in ESP teaching. Moreover, scholars in Psychology ESP have become increasingly aware of the importance of academic English and its developing genres since they are also found in the work environment come abbreviare?

(team presentations, case presentations, reports, conferences, meetings) and are essential for knowledge sharing, negotiation and the acquisition of "academic literacy in the discourse community" (Cheng 2010, 80). This range entails different lines of reasoning and writing: in fact, while scientific communities accept new knowledge through a clearly formulated hypothesis that aims to fill a perceived gap in knowledge by relating supporting scientific evidence and data, sectors that are closely connected to the humanities rely on descriptions of case studies and detailed narrations and examples in order to back up the writer's argument (Hyland in Belcher et al. 2011, 12). The significant of Psychology ESP lead to necessary considerations and selections regarding lesson and course activity topics, as well as the threads of the course's asynchronous forum discussions. It also reflected students' personal and professional interests, thus considering both external and internal motivation, which is "one of the main factors influencing the pace and success of the foreign language learning process" (Kudryavtseva 2014, 1215). This, in turn, triggers 'deep approaches' to learning, which foster the students' interest and sense of ownership of the subject matter (Mauffette et al. 2004).

The present study will focus on the L5's *Lingua Inglese* course as an empirical case study and a starting point in considering necessary changes in the planning, teaching and evaluation of online ESP courses, as well as its potential and limitations. The 'Psychology in English' course activity, consisting in task-based collaborative wiki texts regarding specific branches or issues in psychology written by groups of students throughout the course, will be analyzed and proposed as a promising site of encounter that combines collaborative learning (Donnelly 2004) and problem-based learning (Mauffette et al. 2004; Lekalakala-Mokgele 2010) strategies with focused work-related aspects of Psychology ESP. Furthermore, by analyzing the course and the course activity, the study will question many common preconceptions on the limitations of online participation and scaffolding distance learning in higher education.

2. Distance learning

Distance learning is a branch of 'distance education' that emerged in the 1970's and has evolved in accordance with the development and employment of increasingly fast and elaborate media. Its initial intent was to provide lesson content and material that was as close to face-to-face teaching as possible (Williams et al. 1999). Following experiments to "investigate the possibility of collaborative learning and teaching using new technology" (Richardson 2000, 3) in the 1980's, distance learning was also perceived as an innovative way to convey knowledge. One of the first definitions refers to it as a form of education characterised by:

- the quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learner throughout the whole learning process;
- the influence of an educational organization both in the planning and preparation of learning materials and in the provision of student support services;
- the use of technical media – print, audio, video or computer – to carry the content of the course and connect teacher and learner;
- a two-way communication flow so that the student may benefit from the dialogue or even initiate it; and
- the quasi-permanent absence of the learning group for the whole duration of the learning process so that people are usually taught as individuals rather than in groups, with the possibility of meeting, either face-to-face or by electronic means, for both didactic and socialization purposes (Keegan 1996, 50).

This form of "mediated teaching and learning" (Williams et al. 1999, 2) has often been undermined by the preconception that online university courses are "easier" or "less qualifying" and that working students are less dedicated or persistent in their studies compared to full time ones. A possible explanation for this could be the confusion between 'distance learning' and 'open learning': while the latter provides free online lessons and material to all, the former is linked to a medium or long-term commitment that is available only to those who officially enroll in a course. Moreover, this form of teaching has often been considered limited in content and lacking in student participation and interaction. On the contrary, the following has been verified:

- quality of learning is 'as good or better' than face-to-face learning;
- students are highly motivated (appreciate opportunity/convenience);
- instructors are better prepared and organised;
- instructional resources are enhanced;
- collaborative teaching is encouraged;
- "it has *not* resulted in the replacing of teachers" (Williams et al. 1999, 10; emphasis in the original).

inserite virgolette: ok?

Another important aspect of distance learning outlined by Moore (1972, 1973) is the close and essential positive connection between separation and student autonomy. Schuemer (1993) goes a step further, claiming that student autonomy is both a prerequisite and a goal or ideal for distance learning as well as students' acquisition of the course's content, which is also encouraged by the development of online platforms which have also become a "comprehensive retrieval system" of material that is "highly directed, focused, and, quite often, limited in scope" (Hill and Hannafin 2001, 39). Because of this physical and/or temporal detachment from the classroom, students are compelled to develop and hone their sense of responsibility and learning management while teachers are responsible for providing clear material and lessons on time and being available to answer any questions and extra requirements based on the individual student's needs and situation. The curriculum of such a course should therefore contain both a general part for the exam and a flexible, 'customised' section based on the class to make the student feel like a relevant subject in a virtual classroom.

3. The L5 bachelor's degree

3.1. *Setting*

A promising solution uniting the fulfilment of the job market's demands with the unique nature of distance learning may be represented by the bachelor's degree course in *Scienze e Tecniche Psicologiche* ('Psychological Sciences and Techniques'), previously named 'Discipline of Psychological and Social Research', and now known as the 'L5 course', offered by the School of Psychology of the University of Padua. This three-year course is specifically aimed at working students and its importance is enahanced by the fact that there are only two official schools of psychology in Italy (Padua and Rome). In 2009, the University of Padua moved from the Uninettuno methodology to the Department of Developmental Psychology and Socialisation's (*Dipartimento di Psicologia di Sviluppo e della Socializzazione*) Psynet Moodle platform. The L5 degree has the same requirements – and therefore the same validity – as the School of Psychology's other bachelor courses upon graduation, contrary to common assumptions that "it may be difficult for the institution to attain parity of status and to demonstrate the parity of academic standards with other, campus-based institutions of higher education" (Richardson 2000, 6).

3.2. *Participants*

The content of all courses is online but still follows the School of Psychology's curricula, thus requiring a multimodal 'translation' of traditional course contents into new formats of communication and new media tools. Students carry out offline university activity during exams, internships and the preparation of their thesis. The choice to use Moodle necessarily entails a change in the view, planning and delivery of course content in order to promote social constructivism and connected knowledge, with a consequent change in the roles and perception of learning by students and teachers alike (Dougiamas and Taylor 2003; Donnelly 2004; Brandl 2005; Cheng 2010; Gorenc Zoran 2010; Stickler and Hampel 2010). As a result, L5 *Lingua Inglese* course has implemented both a course-based approach and a student-based approach, especially in light of their noticeable variety in initial linguistic competence, subfield of psychology and professional figures and skills. Such a hybrid position reflects and encompasses respectively the extrinsic and intrinsic deep-level active approaches to distance learning described by Richardson (2000, 31).

Like in other distant education courses, L5 students are characterised by certain distinguishing features:

- Age: on average, higher (Robinson 1980, 9) than that of students enrolled in traditional bachelor's degree courses, although it has been gradually decreasing.
- Social, education and professional background (Kember 1989; Richardson 2000): different in connection with the varied age and consequent diverse level of education and/or work experience including travelling experience, learning and study opportunities abroad and communication/interaction with foreigners.
- Physical, geographical and temporal separation (Keegan 1996; Richardson 2000): L5 students often live in other regions and even foreign countries, leading to socio-geographical diversity.
- Identities: students presented themselves as students, professionals, graduates seeking to enhance their academic and professional competences or through other individual roles (e.g. parents, athletes).
- Pre-course levels: the restricted number of places and the mandatory entry exam (like the other bachelor's degrees offered by the university's School of Psychology), as well as the obligation to cover any deficiencies in training credits (OFA credits) in students' first year, debunk the misconception that students who attend distance learning courses are not at the same level as those who follow traditional academic studies

(Richardson 2000) because the standards are different. On the contrary, L5 students often already have a degree, and sometimes even a PhD, from another field and/or university, making them even more qualified than many 'traditional' students.

- Goals and approaches to learning and applying acquired skills and material: many L5 students already work and often have been working for many years. Therefore they need to acquire and hone practical skills connected to their specific field of work that take different professional backgrounds and approaches into account, in accordance with the "just-in-time/just-enough training mentality" (Williams et al. 1999, 6). They also tend to apply the skills they acquire in classes in a more immediate and concrete manner.
- Aims: full-time working students either desire to maintain their current job position or progress in their field or another one. Some students have held their position for many years, so they wish to advance in the final years of their career or enroll for the simple joy of learning (Taylor et al. 1983).
- Interest: these students focus on different fields of psychology and different professional figures (clinicians, researchers, consultants, volunteers, educators, specialised employees in companies), which translates into different communication requirements and expectations.
- Attendance and participation: flexible and often irregular, based on their work and personal schedules and deadlines.
- Relationship with teacher and colleagues: the creation of an online profile with an avatar or a picture allows the teacher and peers to directly connect the student's name and face. Moreover, L5 students tend to remain in contact with their colleagues (online or through face-to-face meetings) much more compared to attending students.

3.3. *Development in the online course*

Because of the bachelor degree's multimodality and virtual target class, many necessary changes were made to the course's structure in order to create a "holistic educational experience" (Raţă 2013). **qui senza indicare la pagina della cit.?**

The course content was translated based on the new media (Robinson 1980; Donnelly 2004; Dalsgaard and Godsk 2007; Rogerson-Revell 2007) and increased affordances offered by the Moodle platform (Brandl 2005; Tardy in Belcher et al. 2011, 151). Therefore, along with the textbook, extra material was selected and proposed based on the topic of the week and the **qui ok ordine cronol. rif. bibliogr.?**

students' voiced interests, including videos from a variety of sources such as online open university courses, TED.com and Youtube, short articles in PDF format or from websites based on popular psychology magazines and databases with articles on psychology. The video-lessons lasted up to 30-40 minutes so they could be easily viewed, while extra videos lasted up to 15-20 minutes to make it easier for students to watch and focus on them.

The lessons were prepared, registered and posted for a general audience who would watch it asynchronously. As a result, it was impossible for the teacher to see the students' immediate reaction or any non-verbal signs (e.g. nodding, skepticism, perplexity, enthusiasm) and the only way to gather feedback consisted in the official evaluation method and questionnaires written by the teacher. Because of the students' relevant gap in linguistic competence, the language used in the video-lessons (featuring the teacher delivering the lesson and a built-in side screen with the lesson's PowerPoint presentation) fluctuated between a B1 and B2 level, with explanations and examples of main concepts and the rephrasing and repetition of key concepts.

There was more focus on practical and immediately 'spendable' goals and skills (Widdowson 1998, 10, 13) in accordance with the students' needs. In fact, as Hyland (in Belcher et al. 2011) pointed out, it is not necessarily true that all students must go through all of the phases of a traditional language course in order to use a language productively, for learners "acquire features of the language as they need them, rather than in the order that teachers present them" (Hyland in Belcher et al. 2011, 9).

Deep-level and holistic (based on inferring, meaning and active understanding) rather than surface-level or atomistic (memorising, reproduction) learning processing (Richardson 2000, 20). In fact, "students adopting a holistic approach to their normal studies related new material to their own knowledge and experience, stressing the importance of reorganising new information in terms of existing knowledge structures" (Svensson 1977, 240). It is also best suited for older and experienced students, who tend to perform better when actively intervening on the material rather than passively memorising content (Richardson 2000, 179-180). The readings and videos were therefore problem-based or topic-based and followed by discussions asking students about the contents, opinions, previous experiences, comparisons or analyses. The students' grammar was not corrected in the discussion forum in order to encourage students to write freely, although the teacher's answers purposefully presented the correct wording and/or vocabulary.

Table 1. – Outline of the 2014/2015 L5 Lingua Inglese course.

Weekly topic	Lesson content	Language skills
1. Branches of psychology	Words pertaining to Psychology in General English and Psychology ESP	Prefixes/suffixes, understanding and translating noun phrases
2. Psychology in practice and mental disorders in popular culture	Vocabulary on clinical and occupational psychology and mental disorders	Word stresses, types of essays, beginning research
3. Psychology and computers	Computer jargon and research on the internet, abbreviations and acronyms	Developing ideas in a text, discourse and stance markers
4. Dreams and personality	Vocabulary on Freudian and Jungian theories	Word/vocabulary sets, understanding new words, describing trends and processes
5. Vygotsky and Piaget	Vocabulary on Vygostky and Piaget's theories	Compiling a bibliography, quoting, introductory verbs and expressions, paraphrasing
6. Memory	Vocabulary on memory and different types of memory	Fixed written and lecture language, providing 'given' and 'new' information
7. Personality	Vocabulary on personality theories	Opening and closing digressions, lecture language and giving references during presentations
8. Modern addictions	Vocabulary on modern addictions and their effects	Neutral and marked words and expressions, understanding and using long academic sentences
9. Parapsychology	Vocabulary on parapsychology and alternative therapy	Connecting words and phrases, speaking to a patient about mental conditions

For all students, and in particular those who did not participate in the course activity and the forum discussions and those who needed to practice more for the final exam, traditional exercises based on the video lessons were provided on the platform; the answers to the exercises were provided the following week.

New forms of participation, materials and social interaction (Rogerson-Revell 2007) and feedback with teachers and peers through various means (forums, the mid-course workshop, the course activity) were implemented. Constant interaction with students throughout the course had the twofold advantage of allowing the teacher to verify the students' online presence and participation and of enabling students to practice their writing and argumentation skills while gradually learning from the material. They also built a positive and collaborative "collective scaffolding" (Cheng 2010, 76) relationship with colleagues and the teacher thanks to their feedback and comments.

The order and content of the lessons were based on two criteria: the topic of the week (indicated as the 'lesson content') involving one branch of psychology, and specific language skills. The latter represented steps that followed the students' course activity work (i.e. recognising and choosing among different types of essays, conducting research, developing, connecting and presenting ideas, quoting, using fixed academic language) and aimed at helping students complete tasks and write the course activity assignment. The way the skills were presented and taught changed according to their importance for everyday use (reading, television, formal and informal conversation, social media). Accordingly, lifelong learning, which focused on strategies that will be employed and developed after the course, was proposed as the course's ideal objective (*Tab. 1*).

per posizionare la tab. prima della fine del paragrafo (senza spezzarla), è necessario impaginarla nella pagina prec. Il riferimento interno alla tab. può essere anticipato nella pag. prec.?

3.4. *Data collection and analysis*

As emerged from their initial self-evaluation, most students felt they were between an intermediate and upper-intermediate level (B1-B2 of the CEFR) when it came to 'General English' but unprepared in relation to specific terminology in Psychology, with the exception of those who were already working in the field. The *Lingua Inglese* course involved the vocabulary and description of both sociological branches (occupational psychology, development psychology, social psychology and popular culture) and medical-scientific subfields (memory psychology, addictions and relative neuropsychological consequences) to stimulate students' interest and introduce them to an array of disciplines that could relate to their current or future field of interest. It was also seen as an opportunity for students to interact by sharing their professional experience and learning about their colleagues' different connections with various subjects and institutions (e.g. interacting with a patient or with a colleague, giving oral presentations, preparing reports and informative material).

Academic English was included to introduce and prepare students to read, understand and elaborate scientific material and write a scientific text resembling their future thesis with colleagues in a professional context. This fostered both writing skills and what Rui Cheng termed "two-way collective scaffolding" (2010, 74) as well as more traditional forms of scaffolding among students and with the teacher. Moreover, recently re-evaluated oral communication contexts, such as signpost language and Q&A sessions during lessons and conferences or dealing with a patient, were included in the lessons and reinforced through extra material such as online video-lessons from other universities and conference videos.

The material, as is typical of ESP courses, was updated and authentic (Robinson 1980; Hutchinson and Waters 1987) but had to be limited in quantity or quality because of the students' limited amount of time (usually at night or at weekends). It not only had to be pertinent and relevant but also fairly short, graphically easy to read on a screen and to understand from a linguistic point of view. The articles were therefore extracted from popularising psychology magazines and journals and from recent studies that were aimed at a general public and not only the scientific community. Other sources were represented by online versions of the journals, blogs and online communities, forums, social media pages and apps that could be read on a daily basis. In this way it was also possible to expose L5 students to current linguistic trends in online professional communication and discourse (Robinson 1980, 20; Barton and Lee 2013).

A crucial and much appreciated part of the course was the variety of forums that were accessible on the course platform:

- Discussion forum: three or four discussion threads with an online article or website or a video on the week's topic were presented each week, with a question or series of questions on a specific issue. The teacher would answer the comments individually to further the discussion, add extra points of reflection or material and indirectly correct common mistakes by rewriting the sentence correctly and explaining appropriate terms and expressions.
- Grammar and language forum: for questions and threads regarding some of the most difficult and common grammatical issues for students

(using and distinguishing between verb tenses, modal verbs, enhancing vocabulary, etc.) written by the teacher using approachable language and examples.
- Extra material forum: a space where extra material found by the teacher and students could be posted and made available for all. It was not strictly connected to the course content but promoted as extra research and reading, leading to an increased presence of resource-based learning that support varied learning needs (Hill and Hannafin 2001; Dalsgaard and Godsk 2007).
- Course activity forums: both for the activity in general and one for each group to allow students to ask questions and to provide a space for group members to freely discuss and develop their assignment and organise their work.

Such an approach was very productive for such a diversified class, especially because the course took place in the first semester of what was – for almost every student – the first year of their studies. It allowed them to become familiar with the platform's functions and to know and interact with their colleagues. Furthermore, it included all five of the conceptions of learning found and defined by Eklund-Myrskog (in Richardson 2000, 40):
- learning in terms of remembering and keeping something in mind;
- learning in terms of understanding;
- learning in terms of applying knowledge, based on understanding;
- learning in terms of getting a new perspective;
- learning in terms of forming a conception of one's own.

While the first type of learning – present when it came to learning vocabulary – was passive and prevailed in students with a lower level of linguistic competence and/or lower confidence in their communication skills, the other four required students' active intervention on and elaboration of the material content based on their knowledge and experience. This was also fostered by teaching students how to understand and remember new words and expressions.

3.5. *The 'Psychology in English' course activity: analysis and findings*

In the light of an ongoing interest in collaborative learning and working (Gotti 2014), the most important part of the L5 *Lingua Inglese* course consisted in the elective 'course activity', which focused on online communication and academic writing in English as the exclusive working language and aimed at preparing students to collaboratively work on a specialised text using psychology ESP and practice related communication skills (Kankaaranta and Louhiala-Saminen 2013, 27, 31). More specifically, it consisted in a group assignment, in the form of a scientific text written by a group (400-600 words per member), that involved almost all of the interactive actions of the learning process that are typical of participative lectures, i.e. talking, writing, 'Watching for', thinking, and doing (Williams et al. 1999, 125).

In order to encourage students with less experience to participate, extra credit was awarded to group members: 10/100 (students must attain at least 60/100 to pass the test) and 15/100 in case(s) of excellent assignments were accredited upon participation in the discussion and group forums and the completion of all tasks.

Before creating the groups that would work on the single group assignments, the students had to complete a self-evaluation questionnaire to reflect on and evaluate their initial linguistic competences [1] (with reference to the levels and official assessment grids of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages – CEFR). They were also asked to answer a few open questions [2] on themselves and their goals (Belcher and Lukkarila in Belcher et al. 2011, 3, 73-77). This facilitated the organization of materials and activities according to students' real needs and interests, fostering a learning-centered approach and making students feel like an important part of the process (*Tabs. 2* and *3*).

Table 2. – Initial self-evaluation: (40 answers total).
Source: author's elaboration.

	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Listening comprehension	5	7	16	11	1
Reading comprehension	2	4	17	15	2
Spoken interaction	3	5	20	12	0
Spoken production	2	6	25	7	0
Written production	2	7	21	8	2

[1] The criteria were the following: listening comprehension, reading comprehension, spoken interaction, spoken production, written production.

[2] The questions were the following: (1) What are your strengths in general and in your profession? (2) What are your weaknesses in general and in your profession? (3) What are your strengths in communication? (4) What are your weaknesses in communication? (5) What would you like to improve by doing this activity?

Table 3. – Goals expressed by students (40 answers total, more than one answer per student). Source: author's elaboration.

Students' goals	Number of answers
Improving English (in general)	12
Psychology ESP	8
Teamwork and collaboration	7
Spoken English and fluency	5
Communication	5
Written English	5
Learning more about oneself and gain confidence (in general)	4
Vocabulary	3
Listening comprehension	3
Reading comprehension	2
Overall improvement	2
Learning academic English	1

At this point, 38 students (excluding later dropouts) had adhered to the project, so the teacher formed 9 groups of 4 or 5 students (except in one case where there were three members), based on the students' feedback. The created groups included students with various level of linguistic competence in order to recreate a realistic teamwork situation among non-native speakers who must understand and communicate while negotiating and helping one another in order to reach a common goal. Each group was given a topic to write about, based on one of the lesson topics, by the teacher. This compelled students to either work outside of their comfort zone or, in certain cases, allowed an 'expert' student on a certain matter to share his or her experience and knowledge with his or her peers.

After the groups were formed, the most important phase of the course activity, divided into *tasks*, took place. This phase lasted from 2-3 weeks into the course (first year students could only access the platform a week after second and third grade students) to 2-3 weeks after the end of the lessons. The tasks (executed in each group's activity forum exclusively in English) followed a specific order:

Task 1 (1 week): decision of group roles to be discussed among group members, based on self-introduction and presentation of competence, desire to try something new and/or conviction of one's strengths and weaknesses:

- Manager: point of reference both within the group and with the teacher; he or she had to supervise the presence and work of each member, solve any problems that might arise and submit the group's assignments by the appointed deadlines.
- Grammarian: responsible for checking and correcting the grammar and sentence style of his or her part as well as that of all other group members to the most of his or her level and ability.
- Researcher: this person had to do research on the topic based on the approach and type of the essay that the group chose while ensuring that the material was credible and up-to-date and managing the bibliography section.
- Coherence checker: his or her role was to make sure that the entire text made extensive, appropriate and consistent use of the content of the course content (discourse markers, structure, phraseology, etc.) and that it was all well-structured and readable.
- Fact and reference checker: responsible for verifying the validity and accuracy of all facts, material, data and references to the text.

In groups composed by four members, one of the roles could be shared among all members or taken on by one of the members. In the former case, surprisingly the role that students wanted to share the most was that of the 'manager' so all members could have a say. Other solutions included the coherence checker also being the fact and reference checker or each member doing his or her own research. The least sought after role, except in the case of particularly confident or precise students, was that of the grammarian.

Task 2 (1 week): discussion and agreement on the type of essay (descriptive, analytical, argumentative, comparative/evaluative, research report); division of the assignment's structure and work load among members (400-600 words for each member).

Task 3 (5-6 weeks): collaboration and discussion among group members while writing the assignment; the teacher regularly intervened to confirm students' presence and to help out by answering questions, making suggestions and encouraging students; submission of final group assignment as a wiki created by the students in the Moodle platform.

Task 4 (2 weeks): exchanged peer evaluation of another anonymous group's final assignment (each member commented according to his or her role) and teacher's corrections, feedback and evaluation of all final assignments based on the group's use of Psychology ESP, quality and use of reference material, application of course content, consistent structure throughout the entire text, as well as the members' conduct and collaboration during the group work; final self-evaluation by indicating one's CEFR levels after the course and answering different questions [3]; students' evaluation of the course in the platform and the anonymous official course evaluation.

4. Discussion and conclusions

The L5 *Lingua Inglese* course here presented as a case study sought in general, and its course activity in particular, to establish interaction and negotiation and sharing within the course activity group and the community (represented by the virtual class) and with the teacher. This diversity encouraged students to deal with different registers, styles and boundaries of negotiation. Interaction and collaboration were also prompted by the circular feedback that students and the teacher exchanged. In particular, it was essential for the teacher to be present and active throughout the course with different forms of feedback: answers to posts, intervention in the group forums, feedback in the mid-course workshop on definitions and corrections and feedback on the final team assignment. This is important in promoting students' linguistic and personal awareness and development (Belenky et al. 1986) because it allows them to incorporate corrections and teachings into future work (see also Williams et al. 1999, 78-79). It is just as important, if not even more so, in the case of distance learning, since these students have no way of receiving it in person. The importance of feedback was mentioned at the final self-evaluation stage and was greatly appreciated and perceived as constructive criticism both there and in the official course evaluation (*Tab. 4*).

[3] These questions were more focused on the students' approach to the course and course activity: (1) Do you feel you have improved compared to when you started the course? (2) If yes, where do you feel you have improved? (3) If no, why do you think this was the case? (4) What were your favourite and least favourite parts/activities of the course? (5) Did you enjoy and/or learn from the course activity (if you participated in it)? (6) Did you find the homework exercises and/or workshop useful? (7) Did you find my and/or your colleague's feedback useful? (8) Do you have any comments and/or suggestions for the future?

Table 4. – Comparison of CEFR levels in initial and final self-evaluation (before/after; 11 answers total). Source: author's elaboration.

	A1	A2	B1	+B1/B2	B2	B2/C1	C1
Listening comprehension	2/0	0/1	5/2	1/0	3/6	0/1	0/1
Reading comprehension	2/0	0/1	4/3	0/0	3/5	1/1	1/1
Spoken interaction	2/2	1/2	6/3	0/0	2/4	0/0	0/0
Spoken production	2/2	1/2	5/3	1/0	2/3	0/1	0/0
Written production	2/0	1/0	3/3	0/0	4/6	1/0	0/2

Another relevant result consisted in students' markedly increased tendency to share videos, essays, ideas, suggestions and websites compared to previous years. The forums were considered very useful and positive because they gave students an opportunity to interact and practice their English in a gradually yet constant manner while learning more about the topic of the week and other related issues; the course activity was seen as productive because students did their own research and presentation of data. Knowledge was therefore constructed within the group, which fostered active learning within the group and further discussion on new topics or ideas that emerged. The correctness and confidence of many students improved during the course, as observed in the forum posts of attending students' that increased in fluidity and use of specific vocabulary throughout the weeks and mistakes that had been pointed out during the course by the teacher decreased. Significantly, all the attending students managed to pass the official *Lingua Inglese* exam on their first try, demonstrating that they had mastered the content of the course while expanding further knowledge on their professional field and ESP during their exchanges in the forum discussions and course activity.

The main limitation of the course consisted in the impossibility to include direct spoken interaction or production, which could explain the irregular 'after' values for these two skills. This is due to both technical aspects (the number of participating students would have been too great to sustain a group chat or conference call) and organization (the asynchronicity of the course and the students' different schedules and logon times would have made it extremely difficult to agree on a common time and date for real time interaction), as pointed out by students in the questionnaire. Such needs could be addressed by organising group chats or online conferences, although this would probably have to occur outside of the Moodle platform and therefore in an administrative 'gray area'. Another complicating factor mentioned by some students was the great amount of work entailed by the course activity because of organizational difficulties in the group, such as coordination with other courses' assignments, current and unforeseen personal and professional commitments and dropout students.

In conclusion, the intent and structure of the 2014/2015 *Lingua Inglese* course could be a starting point for further improvement in the planning of Psychology ESP and ESP in general in relation to distance learning, seen here as a resource rather than an impediment (Rogerson-Revell 2007) to lifelong language learning as had been feared in the past. By addressing and refining some technical and organizational details, such online courses could further satisfy distance learning students' need for scaffolded but flexible learning that is aimed towards that skills and problem solving based construction of specialised learning and use of psychology ESP that is required by the current job market.

References

Barton, David, and Carmen Lee. 2013. *Language Online: Investigating Digital Texts and Practices*. London - New York: Routledge.

Belcher, Diane, Ann M. Johns, and Brian Paltridge. 2011. *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes Research*. Ann Arbor (MI): University of Michigan Press.

uniformato luogo: ok?

Belenky, Mary Field, Blythe M. Clinchy, Nancy Rule Goldberger, and Jill Mattuck Tarule. 1986. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind*. New York: Basic Books.

Brandl, Klaus. 2005. "Are You Ready to 'Moodle'?". *Language Learning & Technology* 9 (2): 16-23.

Cheng, Rui. 2010. "Computer-mediated Scaffolding in L2 Students' Academic Learning Development". *CALICO Journal* 28 (1): 74-98.

Dalsgaard, Christian, and Mikkel Godsk. 2007. "Transforming Traditional Lectures into Problem-based Blending Learning: Challenges and Experiences". *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning* 22 (1): 29-42.

Donnelly, Roisin. 2004. "Investigating the Effectiveness of Teaching 'On-line Learning' in a Problem-based Learning On-line Environment". In *Challenging Research in Problem-based Learning*, edited by Maggi Savin-Baden and Kay Wilkie, 50-64. Glasgow: Open University Press.

Dougiamas, Martin, and Peter Taylor. 2003. "Moodle: Using Learning Communities to Create an Open Source Course Management System". Paper presented at the *World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia and*

Telecommunications (EDMEDIA), Chesapeake (VA). [25/05/2016]. https://dougiamas.com/archives/edmedia2003/.

Dudley-Evans, Tony, and Maggie St. John. 1998. *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A Multi-disciplinary Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University ELT.

Gorenc Zoran, Annmarie G. 2010. "Students Perceptions of Using Moodle". In *4th International Conference Proceedings of "Moodle.si 2010" Conference*, Koper, May 21, 2010. [25/05/2016]. http://www.fm.upr.si/zalozba/ISBN/978-961-266-066-6/prispevki/gorenc-rozman.pdf.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2014. "Cooperative Meaning-making Strategies in ELF University Courses". *Textus* 1: 17-33.

Hill, Janette R., and Michael J. Hannafin. 2001. "Teaching and Learning in Digital Environments: The Resurgence of Resource-based Learning". *ETR&D* 49 (3): 37-52.

Hutchinson, Tom, and Alan Waters. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kankaanranta, Anne, and Leena Louhiala-Salminen. 2013. "What Language Does Global Business Speak? The Concept and Development of BELF". *Ibérica: Journal of the European Association of Languages for Specific Purposes* 26: 17-34.

Keegan, Desmond. 1996. *Foundations of Distance Education*. 3rd ed. London: Routledge.

Kember, David. 1989. "A Longitudinal-process Model of Drop-out from Distance Education". *Journal of Higher Education* 10: 196-211.

Kudryavtseva, Marina G. 2014. "Possibilities of Distance Learning as a Means of Foreign Language Learning Motivation among Students of Economics". *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* 152: 1214-1218.

Lekalakala-Mokgele, Eucebious. 2010. "Facilitation in Problem-based Learning: Experiencing the Locus of Control". *Nurse Education Today* 30: 638-642.

Mauffette Yves, Peter Kandlbinder, and Alexandre Soucisse. 2004. "The Problem in Problem-based Learning is the Problems: But Do They Motivate Students?". In *Challenging Research in Problem-based Learning*, edited by Maggi Savin-Baden and Kay Wilkie, 11-25. Glasgow: Open University Press.

Moore, Michael G. 1972. "Learner Autonomy: The Second Dimension of Independent Learning". *Convergence* 5: 76-88.

Moore, Micheal G. 1973. "Toward a Theory of Independent Learning and Teaching". *Journal of Higher Education* 44: 661-679.

Osipov, Ilya, Anna Prasikova, and Alex Volinsky. 2015. "Participant Behavior and Content of the Online Foreign Languages Learning and Teaching Platform". *Computers in Human Behavior* 50: 476-488.

Raţă, Georgeta. 2013. "Distance Learning Materials for the Teaching of English as a Language for Specific Purposes". *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* 83: 190-195.

Richardson, John T.E. 2000. *Researching Student Learning: Approaches to Studying in Campus-based and Distance Education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Robinson, Pauline. 1980. *English for Specific Purposes: The Present Position*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Rogerson-Revell, Pamela. 2007. "Directions in e-Learning Tools and Technologies and Their Relevance to Online Distance Language Education". *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning* 22 (1): 57-74.

Schuemer, Rudolf. 1993. *Some Psychological Aspects of Distance Education*. Hagen: FernUniversität, Zentrales Institut für Fernstudienforschung.

Stickler, Ursula, and Regine Hampel. 2010. "CyberDeutsch: Language Production and User Preferences in a Moodle Virtual Learning Environment". *CALICO Journal* 28 (1): 49-73.

Svensson, Lennart. 1977. "On Qualitative Differences in Learning: III. Study Skill and Learning". *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 47: 233-243.

Taylor, Elizabeth, Alastair Morgan, and Graham Gibbs. 1983. "Students' Perceptions of Gains from Studying D101". *Institutional Research Review* 2: 133-147.

White, Cynthia. 2003. *Language Learning in Distance Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Widdowson, Henry G. 1998. "Communication and Community: The Pragmatics of ESP". *English for Specific Purposes* 17 (1): 3-14.

Williams, Marcia L., Kenneth Paprock, and Barbara G. Covington. 1999. *Distance Learning: The Essential Guide*. Thousand Oaks (CA): Sage Publications Inc.

My heartfelt thanks go to Prof. Luigi Alessandro Castelli, the head of the L5 course, for his dedication to the course and his support of this chapter, Prof. Constance Elizabeth Kampf of Aarhus University for her insightful suggestions regarding some complicated parts of the course activity, Cinzia Ferranti for her help with the functions of the Moodle platform, the impressive scientific and organising committee of the Clavier conference and, last but least, the L5 students who were not only learners but teachers themselves.

Traditional and Technological Approaches to Learning LSP in Italian to English Consecutive Interpreter Training

bene suddivisione righe?

Cynthia Jane Kellett Bidoli

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-kell

Keywords: consecutive interpreting, digital pens, ICT, LSP, note-taking.

1. Introduction

Interpreters have had to deal with multilingual and multicultural encounters since the dawn of time. Long before the rapid spread of globalisation in today's modern world, interpreters already worked in a wide range of settings (cf. Kellett Bidoli 1999). Yet, since the mid-twentieth century, these have expanded to include the translation of diverse conference or community interpreting genres ranging from political discourse to medical, scientific to artistic, legal to educational and many more (Kellett Bidoli 2012). Each of these genres contains its own specific Language for Special Purposes (LSP). Interpreters' constant close encounters with LSPs in real life situations implies that, in interpreter training programmes, there must always be a strong LSP component. Over two years of training at the SSLMIT [1] at the University of Trieste, novices learn to cope with whatever is discursively and lexically 'thrown at them'.

This chapter will firstly offer a short description of what the consecutive interpreting mode entails. This will be followed by discussion of some

[1] The former Advanced School of Modern Languages for Interpreters and Translators – *Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori*, now the Section of Studies in Modern Languages, Interpreting and Translation – *Sezione di Studi di Lingue Moderne, Interpretazione e Traduzione*, of the Department of Legal, Language, Interpreting and Translation Studies – *Dipartimento di Scienze Giuridiche, del Linguaggio, dell'Interpretazione e della Traduzione*, of the University of Trieste.

of the challenges encountered in teaching consecutive interpretation from the perspective of introducing students to LSP. Not only will traditional terminological approaches to learning specialised terminology (e.g. manual search and memorisation) and the use of recent Information and Communication Technologies be covered (cf. Sandrelli and de Manuel Jerez 2007; Berber 2008; Orlando 2010; Tripepi Winteringham 2010; Sandrelli 2011; Costa et al. 2014a, 2014b), but also the cognitive aspect related to individuals' perception of specialised terms and the note-taking techniques they adopt with regard to them. The digital pen, in particular, is a new tool now available which can be used to overcome some of the challenges of teaching consecutive in the traditional classroom, as well as offer new research horizons regarding this particular mode of interpreting.

2. Consecutive interpreter training

Interrupting the interpreting process in order to search for a term or expression in a dictionary or glossary is impossible, therefore, terminological preparation in some form has to be undertaken with care prior to interpreting. Interpreters may hesitate or pause for split seconds to think of an appropriate term, to look at reference material (if provided by the conference organisers) or to receive spontaneous or glossary-aided prompts from booth mates in simultaneous interpreting settings. However, as Jiang (2013, 78) points out, "the consecutive interpreter's eye and hands are largely engaged in taking or reading notes – a difference which surely limits scope for using a glossary during consecutive interpreting in most settings". Prior preparation is of the utmost importance and training students about how to approach it entails building up general knowledge about a particular topic and its related LSP, as well as encouraging them to practise with a wide range of real life conference papers or videos.

During distinct stages of their instruction, Consecutive Interpreting (CI) trainees must learn: how to listen to a Source Language (SL) discourse; comprehend it sufficiently to be able to extract its essential meaning; take down key words and points in note form; mentally reformulate the SL discourse in order to translate it into a Target Language (TL), respecting that language's linguistic and cultural norms with the sole aid of their notes and memory; and lastly, learn the fundamentals of public-speaking skills to provide future clients with a professional interpretation of up to five or six minutes. Interpreting is a formidable, stressful translacome abbreviare?

tion task under a time constraint and it must be learnt in gradual stages. It is not a task everyone with two or more languages can accomplish. It requires enormous cognitive exertion which Daniel Gile (1995, 178-179) describes through his Effort Model for CI as composed of two phases: a listening and note-taking phase, followed by a speech production phase. In the former phase, efforts involve listening and analysis, note-taking and short-term memory. In the latter phase, it calls for an effort to recall SL information and world knowledge, note-reading and speech production into the TL. An additional effort of coordination of the phases is also involved. Each phase requires effort, "some sort of mental "energy" that is only available in limited supply" (ibid., 161). Thus, keeping a good balance between the efforts should produce a good interpretation. An imbalance may occur, for example, with constant recall of complex LSP (e.g. medical terms) into the TL in the reformulation phase. This may cause cognitive stress owing to the need for increased processing capacity that may end up saturating the overall processing capacity of the interpreter, thus leading to TL omissions, hesitations, misinterpretation or even a loss of linguistic control if the interpretation is into an L2.

Notes are an essential part of working in the consecutive mode, helping students and professionals to follow discourses of varying length and complexity from beginning to end. Rudimentary consecutive note-taking developed after the First World War at the *Paris Peace Conference* from 1919-20 out of sheer necessity. Delegates from the numerous Allied Powers gathered for many months to set out peace terms regarding the defeated Central Powers of Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria. Many delegates knew no French (hitherto considered the language of diplomacy) and thus 'interpreters' including Jean Herbert were hurriedly sought and compelled to work with several new language combinations. It was not long before they devised individual systems of notes to help them through the long sessions of negotiation. In order to aid their memory in interpreting portions of speech consecutively, CI was born (Herbert 1978, 6), and later adopted by the League of Nations and other emerging international organisations. CI was introduced at the first school for interpreters founded in Geneva in 1941 and a few general principles on note-taking were published in volumes by Herbert (1952) and Rozan (1956), classics of early CI literature. These works laid the foundations for future considerations for or against the use of a systematic notation system (cf. Thiéry 1981; Ilg 1980, 1982). Herbert saw notes as being essential to compliment memory but necessarily of individual character (Herbert 1952, 33), but in the '70s and '80s attempts were made to find some form of systematic CI technique based on the cognitive processes involved in interpretation, more in line with Rozan's method. Seleskovich (1975), Director of ESIT in Paris, began to look at 'intangible' aspects of CI, such as non-verbal transfer of meaning (*vouloir dire*), with memory playing a major role over systematic note-taking. Kirchhoff (1979) and Allioni (1989, 1998) explored notation as a parallel language offering notation systems with their own rules that interact with the interpreter's memory. Matyssek's (1989) approach, on the other hand, turned towards language-neutrality, i.e. the interpreter transferring a message with the aid of a cognitive system of graphics based on neither of the two languages involved in the interpretation. No matter which notation systems are used "they should be maximally suited for fast, economical and effective note-taking, easy to learn, and in compliance with the preferences and strengths of the individual interpreter" (Kohn and Albl-Mikasa 2002, 3).

verificare simboli

Notation at the SSLMIT may be composed of a mixture of:

- abbreviations (e.g. committee – C^{ee}, fishing – F^{g}, finance – fin, research and development – r&d);
- the use of conventional symbols (e.g. at – @, dollars – $; woman/female – ♀, divided – ÷, carbon – C);
- invented symbols (e.g. country – □; dead/deaths/victims – †, building/home – ⌂);
- arrows (e.g. increase/boom/soar/escalate – ↑);
- acronyms (e.g. EU, OECD, UNHCR);
- time indicators (e.g. yesterday – ⁄̇, tomorrow –⁄̇, last year – y⁄);
- capital or small letters in any alphabet students know (Cyrillic, Hellenic or Arabic etc.), or simple Chinese characters to represent a term or concept (e.g. future – F, *Benvenuti*/welcome – ß, delegate/delegation – Δ, *accordo*/agreement – α, with – ب, big, huge, large – 大, person, people – 人, factory, yard, depot, plant – 厂);
- the use of simple emoticons [e.g. pleased/glad – :-)];
- short two to three letter words in any language of their choice if students so wish, independent of the TL [e.g. but, however – *ma* (Italian), considering how – *ut* (Latin), there – *da* (German), where – *ou* (French)].

Students learn to take notes in either English or Italian depending on directionality and the mode they feel most comfortable with (sometimes a mixture, cf. Szabó 2006). Notes are taken vertically down the page, divided into two columns, leaving out superfluous words such as articles, modals, prepositions and the like. In time, they must also develop spontaneity of terminological translation into the TL or speedy retrieval of acceptable equivalents, while delivering an interpreted speech consecutively at the required level of competence.

Because of the wide range of genres encountered by interpreters at conferences and other settings, containing specialised terminology, specific morpho-syntactic forms and generically differing usages of LSP, students have to practise interpreting a wide range of topics, and become aware of situations and linguistic difficulties they may encounter in the real workplace. They need to be confronted with different types of specialised language, learn to recognise and memorise LSP through specific preparation from the start of their courses so as to permit them to think of meaningful abbreviations, symbols or other graphic solutions for their notes. CI notes are essential for highly technical discourses, as explained by Darò (1999, 291), more so than for less specialised, argumentative or humorous ones, where memory can be relied upon to a greater extent. The amount of note-taking varies from text to text:

> In cases where the source discourse has a clear macrostructure, strong cohesive ties and an unambiguous linguistic representation, a few well-chosen notes may be sufficient as retrieval cues to reactivate a complex frame, schema or scenario; in instances of poor macrostructure and weak cohesion, however, very precise note taking will be necessary. The noting of details will also be of particular relevance in connection with such things as enumerations, figures, or names. (Kohn and Kalina 1996, 128)

3. Traditional approaches to teaching LSP in the consecutive classroom

At the University of Trieste, Italian to English interpreting courses offer two modules of consecutive in the first and second year respectively (as well as two of Simultaneous Interpreting – SI). In the first year students receive 30 or more hours of CI class contact structured in three parts:

1. *Listening skills* – Students undertake listening exercises to learn how to listen, memorise, extract and reformulate essential information from short oral discourses, at first English-to-English and gradually from Italian-to-English. Reformulation is initially from memory alone and later accompanied by notes.
2. *Note-taking technique* – Students are instructed on the basics of consecutive note-taking (graphic annotations, symbols and abbreviations, etc.) and guided to formulate their own individual note-taking systems.

3. *Italian-to-English consecutive interpreting exercises* – The topics covered in class are on current affairs of an economic or socio-political nature to introduce current Italian and English language usage, LSP and appropriate register. Starting from short chunks of discourse, speeches are lengthened to a maximum of five minutes by the end of the course. At the time of writing, the focus of this academic year is on Italian agricultural production and humanitarian aid from an Italian and international perspective.

Students are expected to work some 100 extra hours during the year, singly or in pairs/groups, practising note-taking technique, working on discourse delivery, building up English vocabulary and working on English language skills with a native English lector [2].

In the second year the module likewise offers students 30 or more hours that cover a wider range of topics which vary from year to year. These include more technical language, (e.g. medical, science and technology texts). Particular attention is paid not only to TL linguistic accuracy and semantic/pragmatic transfer but also to pronunciation, prosody, and overall performance to attain the level of competence expected in professional settings. Students continue to work many hours outside class to perfect their CI, as well as take part in a full day mock conference organised by the students themselves (in multilingual CI and SI modes). They also take virtual classes in video conference with the Directorate General for Interpretation (ex-SCIC) of the European Commission in Brussels, where professional interpreters give live speeches and then comment on student performance in real time. This academic year, my second year students were presented with speeches on the production of wine and olive oil (typical Italian products that frequently emerge as topics in conference and business settings), fashion and counterfeiting, EU fishing policy, water management, as well as nuclear and renewable energy sources. These all included much technical LSP, as illustrated in the example in *Table 1*. All class texts and more are put on Moodle a virtual learning platform as course support material for practice.

[2] In the Italian university system, they are called CEL (*Collaboratore Esperto Linguistico*) and are native speakers of a foreign language, assigned a set number of hours for students to practise oral and written skills in parallel with their curricular foreign language courses.

Table 1. – Example of specialised terminology in olive oil production.

Acido grasso saturo	Saturated acid fat
Acido monoinsaturo	Monounsaturated
Acido polinsaturo	Polyunsaturated
Antiossidante	Antioxidant
Antiparassitari	Pesticides
Cultivar (varietà di oliva)	Cultivar (olive variety)
Decantazione	Settling
DOP	PDO, Protected Designation of Origin
Drupa	Drupe
Estrazione	Extraction
Estrazione per centrifugazione	Extraction by centrifugation
Estrazione a freddo	Cold extraction
Estrazione chimica	Chemical extraction
Fenoli	Phenols
Fiscolo	Pressing mat
Fito ormone	Plant hormone
Frangitore a martelli	Hammer crusher
Frangitura	Crushing
Frantoio a molazza	Stone crusher
Gramolatrice	Mixer
Macinare	To grind

It is important that students learn to build up vocabulary from the very first lesson. They have to widen their general knowledge base but also learn how to go about further developing their language skills and understanding of different topics and genres, so that for a real life assignment they know how to prepare and what to expect. Traditional approaches to learning specialised terminology include telling them to begin a manual search in newspapers or online news, alternating between English and Italian sources. They should start by underlining SL economic and socio-political key words (i.e. high frequency terms) and phraseology, checking they know their TL equivalents. They are then encouraged to write them down on paper and as they learn to take notes, associate them with abbreviations, conventional signs and symbols or create personal mnemonic graphics that must in a short time become as immediately decipherable as their native language alphabet. Paper lists are essential at this early stage because there is no ready-made consecutive note system online as yet, although advances in mobile phone technology have led to the development of emoticons and emojis; a wide range of 'smileys' or ideograms first developed for Japanese electronic messaging and web pages, and now spreading elsewhere. In future they may evolve to the extent of including technical terms/concepts which interpreters using tablets or smartphones could use to take notes (see section 5), but I doubt the effort to remember and select an emoji in split seconds while listening to oral discourse will ever compete with traditional note-taking technique, I think it would saturate the efforts involved.

In 2014 I undertook a short survey in class to check my students' preparation with regard to LSP acquisition. I simply gave them an open-ended question on their methodological approach to learning terminology. Of the 11 students (8 female and 3 male, all at the end of their first year of study, mean age 24), traditional methods mentioned were:

- reading specialised texts (volumes and journals in English or Italian) on specific topics to understand processes and learn the related terminology (3 students);
- reading lots of newspaper articles (2 students);
- listening to radio programmes to build up vocabulary (2 students);
- watching television programmes to build up vocabulary (1 student);
- creating lists of terms (without specifying if on paper or electronic) (3 students);
- creating lists of terms on paper in two or more languages according to topic (5 students) (three students specified that the lists also included invented symbols, abbreviations, etc.; another specified she had a different notebook for each topic; yet another specified he makes monolingual lists in order to rely solely on memory during translation);
- use of traditional paper-based dictionaries (1 student).

evitare punto fermo per mantenere minusc. iniziale e punto e virgola finale negli items (vd. Avvertenze): ok?

Despite their living in the age of mobile phones and Internet, their resort to pen and paper lists rather than electronic ones is probably dictated by the need, in the first year, to create and write down many invented symbols and abbreviations for memorisation which are impossible to devise otherwise.

4. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in interpreter training

Pen and paper are shunned by most young people today in favour of digital communication through text messaging and social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.). Traditional letter writing is a thing of the past. The only practice in traditional writing (outside the education system) is through the use of word processing tools on computers or tablets. The results of my first year class survey also revealed the use of digital instruments for terminology acquisition once note-taking technique is ingrained:

- creation of electronic lists in two or more languages in Excel or Word, separated according to topic (3 students);
- creation of a complex personal electronic data base to collect LSP (it was abandoned as found too difficult to handle!) (1 student);
- use of translation memory software (1 student);
- use of Internet sites like Wikipedia where texts are available in different languages enabling the comparison of LSP in Italian and English for a wide range of topics (6 students);
- use of online dictionaries/glossaries (e.g. Oxford Dictionary of Collocations on-line) (5 students);
- use of the Interactive Terminology for Europe termbase at iate.europa.eu (1 student).

The use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) is a recent development among interpreters, unlike translators who have long become accustomed to it since the 1980s. That decade brought word processing and a plethora of Computer Assisted Translation (CAT) tools such as translation memory systems, word banks, electronic dictionaries, terminology databases (cf. Berber 2008, 3-4), incremented in their usefulness by today's machine translation systems and cloud sharing which for many are still futuristic. Costa et al. (2014b) state that "as far as terminology is concerned, interpreters continue to store information on scraps of paper or excel spreadsheets while the use of technologies and terminology management tools is still very low". Interpreters I know, whether working in the simultaneous or consecutive mode, still continue to rely on traditional glossaries, dictionaries, terminology memorisation, pre-assignment preparation, conference documentation (when provided) and experience gained (e.g. recall of LSP through constituted knowledge). Although technology entered the interpreting profession in the 1920s when new discoveries in electronics made it possible to transmit the human voice through the The Filene-Finlay IBM System and thus open the way to simultaneous interpreting with headphones and microphone (Delisle and Woodsworth 1995, 250), few technological advances were made in the profession over the following eighty years (Berber 2008, 5).

It is only little over a decade that research on ICTs in interpretation has gained a foothold in interpreting studies and interpreter training (cf. Berber 2008, 7-9; Tripepi Winteringham 2010, 89). In the late '90s and early noughties, Gran, Carabelli and Merlini (2002), interpreter trainers at the University of Trieste, researched CAIT (Computer Assisted Interpreter Training). Of specific relevance to CI was the development of InterprIT by Merlini (1996), a digital didactic tool, the first of its kind to aid students with consecutive note-taking technique by training them to pick out key words and learn to arrange them on the screen to pin point concepts in texts. Sandrelli, a former SSLMIT student, was involved in the development of *Interpretations* and *Black Box* for autonomous simultaneous interpreting practice (cf. Sandrelli 2003, 2005).

CI students and professionals are now able to use CAI (Computer Assisted Interpreting) via access to sophisticated software on computers, smartphones or tablets, providing them with terminology databases, translation memory systems, electronic dictionaries, digital pen technology, video-conferencing / remote interpreting capability, personal corpus collection of speeches (script or video), as well as unlimited Internet resources (cf. Costa et al. 2014a). There is the danger however, of information overload, searching through swathes of data. ICT is beginning to enter the profession through younger generations but "there are very few case studies about ICT that encompass their usage in the different conference interpreting settings, both professional and educational" (Berber 2008, 2). Despite the rapid introduction of ICTs in interpreter training, Berber, after conducting two pilot surveys on their use, firstly among professional conference interpreters and secondly among conference interpreter trainers, found:

> There still seems to be a certain resistance to technologies in conference interpreting, as seen in the replies to the surveys […] perhaps because some feel it might pose a threat to their status, not because they want to be on the speaker's dais, but because they feel memory is more important, while others might feel a natural opposition to technological innovation. And of course there are the economic factors and lack of time on the training side. (Berber 2008, 19)

Despite our living in an era of more advanced ICTs since Berber's surveys were undertaken, recent research on SI by Díaz-Galaz, Padilla and Bajo (2015, 80) found that 68.8% of the 18 professional interpreters they surveyed after a United Nations conference "include loose" paper as one of **ok virgolette?** the media and 31.3% use a paper note book. Less than half the sample (43.3%) use MS Word, and a quarter use MS Excel. A small percentage (12.5%) use online applications. The authors conclude that "Despite the increasing importance of computers, 'paperless' remains a scenario of the future for interpreters. The importance of having glossary items on a loose sheet may be explained by the requirement for their practically instant accessibility in SI" (ibid., 90).

4.1. *Research on terminology and knowledge acquisition*

Little research has been done on how interpreters cognitively and practically deal with terminology acquisition. "Only recently [...] have there been tendencies to also describe detailed structural processes within the organisation of terminology work for interpreters, but these efforts have not led to the development of a specific model nor method for interpreting" (Will 2007, 3).

Gile (1995, 131) dedicated a chapter to knowledge acquisition in interpreting and translation, highlighting the essential part it plays in building up an interpreter's knowledge base but stating it is among "[...] the most time-consuming and difficult tasks in translation, while it is probably also the intellectually least gratifying to most people", mentioning advance preparation, last-minute preparation and in-conference preparation in some detail (ibid., 147-148). As to advance preparation, he included reading conference documents (if available), taking notes, preparing glossaries, writing comments and explanations. He discussed the debate between the focus on terminology rather than extra-linguistic knowledge and vice versa (ibid., 148-149). Regarding glossary preparation, he called for some sort of organisation, pointing out that most interpreters jot down terms on paper having little time for sorting, which in the '90s was predominantly manual as few interpreters had access to or familiarity with computer technology. It is not easy to estimate how much has changed today with a lack of research in the area of conference preparation and terminology acquisition. The few investigations focus predominantly on SI.

Some insight is gleaned from Choi's (2005) survey through a questionnaire approach on 69 professional interpreters (of SI and CI) with various language combinations with Korean. She found that the Internet was an essential tool with the majority of interpreters using it after prior access to conference documents in their search for both thematic information and terminology, especially with regard to science and technology. They spent from three to five days on preparation depending on the difficulty of the topic.

Baselli and Pignataro (2012) investigated the strategies adopted by different groups of interpreters in coping with segments containing Premodified Noun Phrases (PNPs) in medical discourse in the English-Italian language combination in SI. Six interpreters divided into three groups of two (novices, new graduates and professionals) took part in the study. The complexity of PNPs in translation generated ambiguities in the SI and it was clear from the study that both coping strategies and specialist knowledge have to be acquired over time: "the correctly translated PNPs were those already familiar to the students, new graduates or professionals" (ibid., 334).

Scaglioni (2013) examined to what extent preparation influences the SI of speeches from German into Italian with a high density of culture-specific items which, "like technical terms are not always easily inferred based on the context alone, thereby leading to disruptions in the interpreter's output during SI" (ibid., 82). Participants in the study, eight SSLMIT students and two AIIC interpreters, were divided into two groups, one allowed preparation, the other not, before interpreting two speeches in SI. Findings showed that the cultural items were indeed potential obstacles to fluent delivery, often requiring additional mental effort. The students who were given preparation agreed on its usefulness and "that preparation helps activate correct mental frames relevant to the topic of the speech, thus enabling anticipation and correct translation of cultural items. Moreover, [results] revealed a similar trend in the use of a number of strategies by SI students with preparation and by professional interpreters with no preparation" (ibid., 101).

Biagini (2014-2015) undertook a comparative analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of electronic versus paper-based glossaries for his Master's thesis. His sample comprised SSLMIT students at the beginning and at the end of their second year in the SI modules. He created a glossary through automated terminology extraction from a corpus he collected containing highly specialised LSP in the domain of engineering (hydraulic turbines). He then selected discourses for the students to interpret that were not too difficult conceptually but which contained sufficient unfamiliar terminology to force them to use his glossaries during two SI sessions: one group used InterpretBank; the other group was provided with a paper glossary. Among several interesting findings (for example, the effect of using glossaries in the booth on omissions or décalage), it emerged that more real-time terminology searches where done with InterpretBank and translated correctly, compared to those with the paper glossary. The majority of students found InterpretBank easier to use in the booth than the paper-based glossary.

Díaz-Galaz, Padilla and Bajo (2015) report on an experimental study to assess the effect of preparation on the SI of specialised speeches by professionals and interpreting trainees in the English Spanish language combination. Unsurprisingly, advance preparation provided better interpretation. An English Spanish glossary of 30 specialised terms was provided, but the authors also focussed on the provision of materials such as a 250-word summary of speeches, biosketches of speakers and 9 slides based on each speech "to recreate the type of research and reading done by a professional interpreter before an actual conference" (ibid., 20).

Although some research on terminology and knowledge acquisition has been undertaken, it remains an underexplored area. How do interpreters use glossaries on the job (in SI and CI)? How many effectively use technological devices? How useful are they? Costa et al. (2014a, 32) are right to call for a new phase of research in this direction, i.e. "gathering detailed information to better ascertain interpreters' technology awareness and real needs in order to design new tools and improve existing ones".

5. CI note acquisition and digital pen technology

"Specialized vocabulary is the access key to specialized discourse [...]" (Garzone 2006, 13) – the type of discourse interpreters have to work with. However, in order to interpret specialised discourse consecutively, much prior preparation of LSP and a good note-taking technique are fundamental requirements for students of CI.

In § 4 mention was made of traditional methods of CI preparation and ICTs now adopted, but once students have memorised bilingual terms and expressions, how do they convert them into consecutive notes? At the SSLMIT students have always been encouraged to develop their own personal system with only a few guidelines provided (Gran 1981; Falbo, Russo, e Straniero-Sergio 1999). Students thus develop their own cognitively perceived note-taking system, are given advice on how to arrange notes on the page and more importantly, how to represent the logical links between meaningful chunks of information they hear in the ST. The semantic representation of discourse via a structured graphic means creates a conceptual linguistic code that allows trainers to analyse the procedure. It is possible to trace and identify errors of comprehension, translation and TL reconstruction but, because the notes are so individual and largely non-verbal, it is also possible to trace the students' mental linguistic processes: e.g. logical links of cohesion, speed of translation, chronology of information heard, or memory lapses (terminology or chunks of information).

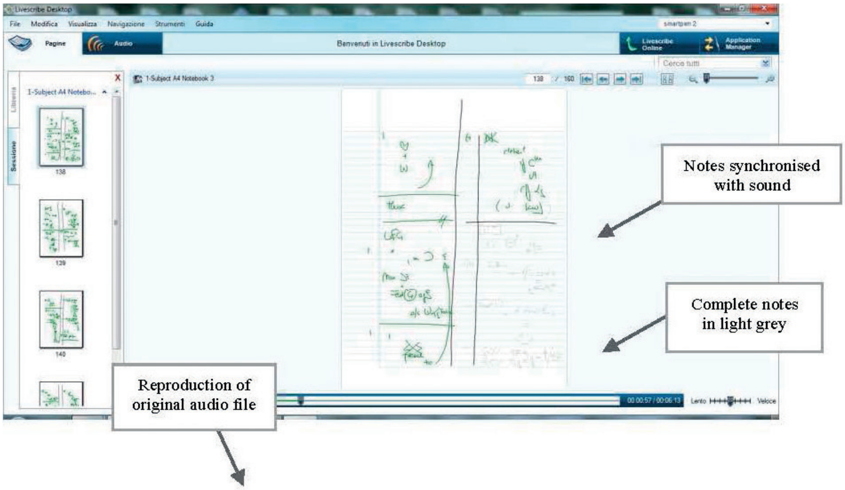
Straniero-Sergio: uniformato sempre con trattino: ok?

As students acquire a note system and begin to deliver short chunks of interpreted discourse, trainers provide some form of critique of their interpretation, commenting on points of syntax, lexis, comprehension of the source text, semantic reconstruction of the target text, etc. In the early stages of note-taking acquisition, I also walk around the class and comment on individual graphic layout and solutions. I often ask a student to write his/her notes on the whiteboard for everyone to see. This gives other students the chance to learn new ways of representing terms and concepts. However, as the discourses become longer, copying them from a note pad is time-consuming, so the class just listens to one student's TL delivery and my subsequent oral critique. This unfortunately leaves the other students present in class trying to compare their own personal notes with what is being said about notes they cannot see. With 20 or more students in a CI class, it is impossible for me to look at all their individual reams of notes for every exercise to point out individual terminological and note-taking problems. Until recently, a more efficient system to evaluate the progressive acquisition of note-taking technique by students had not been developed. However, with modern technology in the form of digital pens, trainers have new innovative tools to teach with and evaluate consecutive in class.

There are several digital pens on the market aimed principally at the business world [3] but adaptable to educational purposes and CI (Orlando 2010). Some work directly on tablets, others on paper and here lies the link with traditional CI classroom note-taking with pen and note pad. The use of digital pens has caught on especially with the introduction of high-tech tablets and the development of digital pen technology Apps like, for example: *TopNotes*, *Paper Desk Lite*, *Idea Sketch*, *ABC Notes*, *Penultimate*, *Note Taker HD* and *Notes Plus*. The tablet serves the consecutive interpreter both as note pad and source of information (e-dictionaries, on-line glossaries, internet connections, etc.). Depending on the type of smartpen chosen for tablet or smartphone, the interpreter can change the colour and width of the 'ink', the size of characters (fonts), highlight, cut, copy, paste, and see several pages at a time and even save notes in a cloud. I have encouraged my students to start experimenting with this technology, as it will catch on in the future workplace (Ferrari 2011). However, in class, I have chosen to use the Livescribe™ Smartpen which for the purpose of classroom CI I find very versatile with first year students and which is paper-based. Hence, they practise with the traditional pen and paper method, yet benefit from technology.

The Livescribe™ Smartpen combines the video recording of CI notes as a student writes them with the synchronised sound input of the SL. It works with special paper covered by microdots forming patterns so that the pen 'knows' exactly where it is on the page and records its every movement.

3 For digital pen reviews see: http://digital-pen-review.toptenreviews.com/.



la risoluzione della fig. è molto bassa: non è possibile migliorare l'immagine in fase di ritocco

ok posizione della freccia?

Figure 1. – A consecutive notes screenshot using Livescribe™ Desktop (Kellett Bidoli and Vardé forthcoming).

The graphics and sound are memorised and can be transferred digitally from the pen to any computer that has the Livescribe™ Desktop software installed. *Figure 1* shows a screenshot of consecutive notes in grey. By clicking on any part of the notes they turn green and scroll down as you see them being written in the TL. One can hear the original SL at the same time.

This way a single student's notes can be shown to the whole class after they have been quickly uploaded and all the students present can follow my observations and add their own. Thus, it is possible to discuss the notes (the choice of abbreviations, symbols, etc.) and students can quickly pick up new solutions and dispel any doubts. Discussion may ensue as to ways of depicting, for example, agricultural terminology: various crops and animals, agricultural equipment, farming methods, harvesting, processing, retail, etc.

Research is possible with Livescribe as files of notation can be collected to form corpora. Sonia Vardé (2012-2013), a master's student of mine, collected 60 consecutive interpretations of rhetorical and technical speeches[4]

[4] Two rhetorical speeches: David Cameron's *First Speech as Prime Minister of Great Britain*, Downing Street, 11/05/2010; Giorgio Napolitano, President of the Republic of Italy, *Messaggio di fine anno* ('End of Year Speech to the Nation'), Quirinale Palace, 31/12/2012. Two technical speeches: Janez Potočnik, European Commissioner for Environment, *Planet, People and Profits: How to Deliver a Sustainable Exit from the Crisis*,

from first- and second-year students and from professional interpreters: two speeches each from English to Italian and two from Italian to English. Notes are often indecipherable because of different handwriting and personal technique, so it is necessary to record the interpreted TL rendition and transcribe it in order to check the notes. Transcription presents a major challenge to compiling CI notational corpora. It is time consuming and probably a major reason why there is much less research done on CI than on SI (cf. Kellett Bidoli 2016). To overcome this problem, Marc Orlando (2010, 81) suggests that digital pen technology and ELAN software (Eudico Linguistic Annotator), that creates annotations on video and audio resources, could be used in combination: digital pen for SL interpreter's and CI notes, ELAN for assessor's comments and video of the performance and TL.

Vardé investigated what she labelled as 'problems' in CI during the reception stage, which could trigger a deficiency both in the interpreting process and in the TL. She also talked about 'strategy' as the procedure followed to solve or to minimise the effect of 'problems', according to Abuín González's (2007, 32) definitions. She analysed the notation of each participant searching for objective problems (expected difficulties which she identified in the speeches a priori). This included terminology, or subjective problems (unanticipated problems which emerged during note-taking) and she then attempted a classification of the relative 'strategies' adopted to overcome 'problems' in the corpus. This was done by painstaking scrutiny of the CI notes and sound input on the Livescribe™ Desktop files, as well as the TL recordings and transcriptions. Analysis took into account text typology, language directionality and level of training and experience.

For the purpose of this chapter on LSP in CI, the first set of results concerning note-taking methodology is of interest as it was found that there was greater accuracy:

- during rendition of the technical texts;
- when the source text was delivered in the mother tongue;
- and, as expected, in the renditions of the more experienced interpreters.

Technical texts tend to contain more LSP which one would expect to cause greater problems for interpreters, such as inaccuracy rather than greater accuracy. Vardé's finding might be explained because, while listening to technical discourses, the interpreters took down more notes (Kohn and Kalina 1996, 128; Darò 1999, 291), or paid more attention in

---

Berlin, 13/11/2012; Antonio Tajani, Vice president of the European Commission, *Presentazione del piano d'azione Imprenditoria 2020* ('Presentation of the Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan'), Berlaymont (Bruxelles), 09/01/2013.

the expectation of hearing specialised terminology. More accurate reformulation from the L1 is logical as comprehension of technical terms and concepts is easier in one's mother tongue. Equally logical is that the more experienced the interpreter the better the rendition. Albl-Mikasa's study on developing and cultivating interpreter competence reflects:

> […] a transitional process from novice to expert, in which regular and targeted efforts and measures (in the sense of deliberate practice) are confined to the competence *development* stages and are then superseded, in the competence *cultivation* phase, by mostly intuitive and experience-enhanced, and to some extent meta-reflective and self-regulatory activity, which is predominantly on-the-job and assignment-based. (Albl-Mikasa 2013, 33; original italics)

Vardé (2012-2013) confirmed that with note/sound synchronisation it is possible to observe, trace and count features of the interpreted text which, during normal oral critique sessions in class, are inaccessible to such a high degree of accuracy. The correct use of LSP terminology can be investigated among other features like ear-voice span, additions, corrections, hesitations, false starts, repetitions, figures of speech, names, facts and figures.

CAI tools available to simultaneous interpreters are extendable termbases, or terminology management systems (Tripepi Winteringham 2010, 93; Costa et al. 2014a) which allow interpreters 'hidden away' in the interpreting booth to retrieve a term quickly on-screen at the push of a button. This is not possible in a CI situation, but an alternative now exists in the form of digital interactive glossaries with Livescribe. Such glossaries have to be compiled manually in a Livescribe Notebook by the SI or CI interpreter before meetings or conferences. Michael Ferrari illustrates an example of fishing terminology (2011, 5). Fish species or other terms related to fishing are written manually in the SL in an alphabetically ordered list with a smartpen and their translation in the other working languages is pre-recorded by the pen. While taking notes during a meeting, the interpreter can tap on a dot next to the term in the TL language required, and hear it through headphones attached to the pen.

6. Concluding remarks

Interpreting as a profession thrives on globalisation which is generating a multitude of multilingual and multicultural encounters throughout the world. As these encounters increase, so too do the numerous occasions in which Languages for Special Purposes in institutional, scientific, academic, business and other professional settings become incorporated in discourse. This chapter has focused on CI, a very specialised though little researched form of translation, taught in interpreter trainer institutions worldwide and has outlined some of the challenges encountered in teaching CI trainees how to acquire LSP and translate it adequately.

At the SSLMIT in Trieste, as mentioned, students develop their own personal CI note-taking system with only a few guidelines provided (Gran 1981; Falbo, Russo, e Straniero-Sergio 1999). The semantic representation of discourse via a structured graphic creates a conceptual linguistic code that allows trainers to analyse a one-off-event: the finished product, i.e. the consecutively interpreted text which according to the genre and topic of the discourse will contain different types of LSP. Students are taught traditional methods of handling LSP in CI as well as an introduction to modern technologies available for terminology management and specialised knowledge acquisition. An innovative technological tool can aid trainers of CI. With digital pen technology it is now possible to record notes as they are written, upload the notation and observe it on-screen and thus follow the cognitive process. One can go back innumerable times to trace and identify errors of comprehension, translation and TL reformulation, for example specialised terminology. Because the notes are so individual and largely non-verbal, it is now possible to trace the students' mental linguistic processes not only in LSP translation, but also in logical links of cohesion, speed of translation, chronology of information heard, memory lapses (of terminology or chunks of information) and décalage (ear-voice span), etc.

The principle aim of this chapter has been to introduce linguists to some of the practicalities of teaching CI, explaining how interpreters learn to cope with LSP acquisition in a university environment from a pedagogical and translational point of view. A second aim has been to illustrate how technology is playing an ever increasing role that can be useful both in the classroom and in academically researching the linguistic challenges posed by LSP contained in consecutively interpreted discourses.

References

Abuín González, Marta. 2007. *El proceso de interpretación en consecutiva. Un estudio del binomio problema/estrategia*. Granada: Editorial Comares.

Albl-Mikasa, Michaela. 2013. "Developing and Cultivating Expert Interpreter Competence". *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 18: 17-34.

Allioni, Sergio. 1989. "Towards a Grammar of Consecutive Interpretation". In *The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpreting. Proceedings of the Trieste Symposium, 1989*, edited by Laura Gran and John Dodds, 191-197. Udine: Campanotto.

Allioni, Sergio. 1998. *Elementi di grammatica per l'interpretazione consecutiva*, Trieste: Università degli Studi di Trieste (SERT, 10).

Baselli, Valentina, and Clara Pignataro. 2012. "Ambiguity Resolution in LSP English-Italian Simultaneous Interpreting". In *Translationswissenschaft. Alte und neue Arten der Translation in Theorie und Praxis*, herausgegeben von Lew Zybatow, Michael Ustaszewski, und Alena Petrova, 329-334. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. [09/02/2015]. https://apeiron.iulm.it/retrieve/handle/10808/4989/9708/ PignataroBaselli_FTW16%20copia.pdf.

aggiunto am Main: ok?

Berber, Diana. 2008. *ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) in Conference Interpreting: A Survey of Their Usage in Professional and Educational Settings"* [01/10/2014]. http://isg.urv.es/cetra/article_CETRA2007_berber.pdf.

Biagini, Giulio. 2014-2015. *Glossario cartaceo e glossario elettronico durante l'interpretazione simultanea: uno studio comparativo*. Tesi di Master inedita (relatore: Prof. Alessandra Riccardi). Trieste: Università degli Studi di Trieste, SSLMIT.

ok relatore in it.?

Unpublished MA Thesis: è possibile tradurre in it.? come?

Choi, Jungwha. 2005. "Quality and Preparation of Interpretation: Changing Patterns of Preparation and the Role of the Internet". *Meta: Translators' Journal* 50 (4): 1492-1421. [09/02/2015 in French]. http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2005/v50/n4/019862ar.pdf.

Costa, Hernani, Gloria Corpas Pastor, and Isabel Durán-Muñoz. 2014a. "Technology-assisted Interpreting". *Multilingual* 25 (3): 27-32.

Costa, Hernani, Gloria, Corpas Pastor, and Isabel, Durán-Muñoz. 2014b. "A Comparative User Evaluation of Terminology Management Tools for Interpreters". In *Proceedings of the 4th International Workshop on Computational Terminology, Dublin, Ireland, August 23, 2014*, 68-76. [15/03/2016]. http://www.academia.edu/8647940/Costa_H._Corpas_Pastor_G._and_Dur%C3%A1n-Mu%C3%B1oz_Isabel._2014._A_comparative_User_Evaluation_of_Terminology_Management_Tools_for_Interpreters.

Darò, Valeria. 1999. "Aspetti procedurali dell'annotazione grafica". In *Interpretazione simultanea e consecutiva. Problemi teorici e metodologie didattiche*, a cura di Caterina Falbo, Mariachiara Russo, e Francesco Straniero-Sergio, 289-298. Milano: Hoepli.

Delisle, Jean, and Judith Woodsworth, eds. 1995. *Translators through History*. Amsterdam - Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Díaz-Galaz, Stephanie, Presentación Padilla, and Maria Teresa Bajo. 2015. "The Role of Advance Preparation in Simultaneous Interpreting: A Comparison of Professional Interpreters and Interpreting Students". *Interpreting* 17 (1): 1-25.

Falbo, Caterina, Mariachiara Russo, e Francesco Straniero-Sergio, a cura di. 1999. *Interpretazione simultanea e consecutiva. Problemi teorici e metodologie didattiche*. Milano: Hoepli.

Ferrari, Michele. 2011. *Practical Application of the SmartPen in the Working Life of an Interpreter.* [29/12/2014]. http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/scic/cooperation-with-universities/universities-conferences/15th_dg_interpretationuniversities_conference/docs/2011_ferrari-notes.pdf.

Garzone, Giuliana. 2006. *Perspectives on ESP and Popularization*. Milano: CUEM.

Gile, Daniel. 1995. *Basic Concepts and Models for Translator and Interpreter Training.* Amsterdam - Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Gran, Laura. 1981. *L'annotazione grafica nell'interpretazione consecutiva*. Trieste: Università degli Studi di Trieste, SSLMIT (Strumenti Didattici e di Ricerca, 3).

Gran, Laura, Angela Carabelli, and Raffaela, Merlini. 2002. "Computer-assisted Interpreting Training". In *Interpreting in the 21st Century: Challenges and Opportunities. Selected Papers from the 1st Forlì Conference on Interpreting Studies, November 9-11, 2000*, edited by Giuliana Garzone and Maurizio Viezzi, 277-294. Amsterdam - Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Herbert, Jean. 1952. *Manuel de l'interprète*. Genève: Georg.

Herbert, Jean. 1978. "How Conference Interpretation Grew". In *Language Interpretation and Communication*, edited by David Gerver and Wallace H. Sinaiko, 5-10. New York: Plenum Press.

Ilg, Gérard. 1980. "L'interprétation consécutive: les fondements". *Parallèles* 3: 109-136.

Ilg, Gérard. 1982. "L'interprétation consécutive: la pratique". *Parallèles* 5: 91-109.

Jiang, Hong. 2013. "The Interpreter's Glossary in Simultaneous Interpreting: A Survey". *Interpreting* 15 (1): 74-93.

Kellett Bidoli, Cynthia J. 1999. "Aspetti storici dell'interpretazione". In *Interpretazione simultanea e consecutiva. Problemi teorici e metodologie didattiche*, a cura di Caterina Falbo, Mariachiara Russo, e Francesco Straniero-Sergio, 3-25. Milano: Hoepli.

Kellett Bidoli, Cynthia J., ed. 2012. *Interpreting across Genres: Multiple Research Perspectives*. Trieste: E.U.T.

Kellett Bidoli, Cynthia J. 2016. Methodological Challenges in Consecutive Interpreting Research: Corpus Analysis of Notes. In *Addressing Methodological Challenges in Interpreting Studies Research*, edited by Claudia Monacelli and Claudio Bendazzoli, 141-169. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Kirchhoff, Hella. 1979. Die Notationssprache als Hilfsmittel des Konferenzdolmetschers im Konsekutivvorgang. In *Sprachtheorie und Sprachenpraxis*, herausgegeben von Walter Mair und Edgar Sallager, 121-133. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Kohn, Kurt, and Michaela Albl-Mikasa. 2002. "Note-taking in Consecutive Interpreting. On the Reconstruction of an Individualised Language". *Linguistica*

Antverpienistica 1: 257-268. [04/03/2016]. https://lans.ua.ac.be/index.php/LANS-TTS/article/view/19/18.

Kohn, Kurt, and Sylvia Kalina. 1996. "The Strategic Dimension of Interpreting". *Meta: Translator's Journal* 40 (1): 118-138.

Matyssek, Heinz. 1989. *Handbuch der Notizentechnik für Dolmetscher: ein Weg zur sprachunabhängigen Notation*, Teil I-II. Heidelberg: Julius Groos.

Merlini, Raffaela. 1996. "InterprIT – Consecutive Interpretation Module". *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 7: 34-41.

Orlando, Marc. 2010. "Digital Pen Technology and Consecutive Interpreting: Another Dimension in Note-taking Training and Assessment". *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 15: 71-86.

Rozan, Jean Francois. 1956. *La prise de notes en interprétation consécutive*. Genéve: Georg.

Sandrelli, Annalisa. 2003. "Herramientas informáticas para la formación de intérpretes: Interpretations y The Black Box". In *Nuevas tecnologías y formación de intérpretes*, coordinado por Jesús De Manuel Jerez, 67-112. Granada: Editorial Atrio. **editor > coordinado por: ok?**

MuTra: dati uniformi rispetto a Will?

Sandrelli, Annalisa. 2005. "Designing CAIT (Computer Assisted Interpreter Training) Tools: BlackBox". In *MuTra – Challenges of Multidimensional Translation, Saarbrücken, May 2-6, 2005. Conference Proceedings – EU High Level Scientific Conference Series. Proceedings of the Marie Curie Euroconferences.* [11/02/2015]. www.euroconferences.info/proceedings/ 2005_Proceedings/ 2005_Sandrelli_Annalisa.pdf.

Sandrelli, Annalisa. 2011. "Training in Business Interpreting and the Role of Technology". In *Interpretazione e mediazione*, a cura di José F. Medina e Sarah Tripepi Winteringham, 209-233. Roma: Aracne.

Sandrelli, Annalisa, and Jesús de Manuel Jerez. 2007. "The Impact of Information and Communication Technology on Interpreter Training: State-of-the-art and Future Prospects". *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* 1 (2): 269-303.

Scaglioni, Giulia. 2013. "Simultaneous Interpreting from German into Italian: The Importance of Preparation on a Selection of Cultural Items". *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 18: 81-103.

Seleskovitch, Danica. 1975. *Langage, langue, et mémoire. Étude de la prise de notes en interpétation consécutive*. Paris: Minard.

Szabó, Csilla. 2006. "Language Choice in Note-taking for Consecutive Interpreting: A Topic Revisited". *Interpreting* 8 (2): 129-147.

Thiéry, Christopher. 1981. "L'enseignement de la prise de notes en interprétation consécutive: un faux problème?". Dans *L'enseignement de l'interprétation et de la traduction. De la teorie à la pédagogie*, édité par Jean Delisle, 99-105. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Tripepi Winteringham, Sarah. 2010. "The Usefulness of ITCs in Interpreting Practice". *The Interpreters' Newsletter* 15: 87-99.

ok relatore in it.?

Mutra: dati uniformi rispetto a Sandrelli?

Vardé, Sonia. 2012-2013. *La smartpen per la didattica dell'interpretazione consecutiva*. Tesi di Master inedita (relatore: Prof Maurizio Viezzi). Trieste: Università degli Studi di Trieste, SSLMIT.

Will, Martin. 2007. "Terminology Work for Simultaneous Interpreters". In *LSP Conferences: Model and Method. MuTra 2007 – LSP Translation Scenarios. Conference Proceedings*. [01/10/2014]. http://www.euroconferences.info/proceedings/2007_Proceedings/ 2007_Will_Martin.pdf.

Unpublished MA Thesis: è possibile tradurre in it.? come?

ESP AND ENGLISH
AS A LINGUA FRANCA (ELF)

Enriching the University ELT Curriculum with Insights from ELF

Franca Poppi

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-popp

Keywords: ELT, English as a Lingua Franca, language pedagogy.

1. Introduction

The worldwide spread of English is one of the many different developments closely connected with the phenomenon of globalisation. This term, which is now recurrent in contemporary rhetoric and is a keyword in both academic and popular discourse on the economy, society, technology and culture "[…] can be taken to refer to those spatio-temporal processes of change which underpin a transformation in the organization of human affairs by linking together and expanding human activity across regions and continents" (Held and McGrew 2007, 15).

The intensification of worldwide relations inevitably calls to the fore the question of the choice of the language to be used for contacts among people living in widely different places in the world. Lingua francas, that is "contact languages used among people who do not share a first language" (Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey 2011, 281) have been in use for a long time and Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and other languages were once used for this function. In present times, the task of being a *Lingua Franca* to be used universally has fallen upon English. **ok corsivo (per unif.)?**

English has therefore become the dominant language in the higher education sector in Europe, as can be seen from objective indicators such as the growing number of degree programmes which use English as a medium of instruction (Gotti 2014; Dearden 2015). In this way it is easier to attract foreign students. But equally important is the wish to prepare students for the global workplace.

As a consequence of observable changes in global language use, in ELT (English Language Teaching) it is not possible to fall back on the traditions of British or US orientation (Mauranen 2015, 48), as the interlocutors that we meet and the target audience of our texts are not confined to any nationality or locality any longer. Indeed, it is necessary to promote the development of a capability in learners, which will allow them to become aware of "how English can be used as a communicative resource like their L1" (Seidlhofer 2015, 26). Hence, teachers should help students to become ELF (English as a *Lingua Franca*) [1] users, raising their critical awareness, cultivating their positive attitudes to communication across linguistic differences and developing their communicative skills for border-crossing communication.

To date, systematic attention has been paid to the underlying reasons and processes that are shaping ELF and to how they can act as a springboard for reflecting on the pedagogic aims of teaching English (Vettorel 2015, 4). Accordingly, a large body of ELF studies have focused on its implications on ELT (Alsagoff et al. 2012; Matsuda and Friedrich 2012; Vettorel and Lopriore 2013; Bayyurt and Akcan 2014; Lopriore 2014; Sifakis 2014; Ehrenreich and Pitzl 2015; Vettorel 2015 [2]). Teacher education has become one of the main interests for ELF research, as it is generally agreed that the process of introducing (or not introducing) ELF into ELT begins with teachers and therefore with teachers' education (Dewey 2012).

This chapter also explores the implications of ELF research on ELT practices. However, its focus is on the addressees' of the teaching practices, i.e. students. In particular, this contribution explores the integration of some general ELF-oriented principles into the syllabus of a course attended by students studying languages for communication in international enterprises and organizations at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia.

From a contextual point of view, after surveying the students' attitudes to 'English', the following sections will show how, thanks to the adoption of a transformative framework (Mezirow 2000) the students were involved in several tasks, in accordance with the principles of Task Based Language Learning and Teaching (TBLT) (Ellis 2003) and *authentic learning* (Herrington et al. 2003). The common aim of the proposed activities and

[1] The definition adopted in the present analysis is the one provided by Seidlhofer (2011, 7), according to which English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) refers to: "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option".

[2] For the sake of brevity, only some of the latest publications can be mentioned here.

tasks was to encourage students to develop a capability for using linguistic resources strategically and knowingly, aware of "*how* meaning potential encoded in English can be realized as a communicative resource" (Widdowson 2003, 177) for interacting across linguistic borders, without having necessarily to comply with ENL (English as a Native Language) norms.

2. Course development and implementation

The role of education has greatly contributed to the spread of English in European countries. Historically speaking, Europeans have had the possibility of learning foreign languages at school since the 1950s and today the foreign language most frequently included in curricula is English. According to the 2012 research on *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe*, the proportion of pupils learning English as a second or foreign language in lower secondary and general upper secondary education in Europe is about 90% (EACEA 2012, 11). In Italy ratios are even higher- 100% for lower secondary and 96% for upper secondary (EACEA 2012, 11).

Until now mainland European English Language Teaching (ELT) has been based "on the mastering of an exonormative variety (in most instances standard British English (BrE), but increasingly standard American English (AmE)" (Modiano 2009, 208). Moreover, requirements in both academic and other professional circles still consider international certifications such as the ESOL examinations[3] and TOEFL that attest the non-native speaker's ability to produce native speaker-like language, as a kind of valid visiting card or key qualification on a CV.

However, surveys carried out among students of different ages seem to indicate that things are slowly changing. In fact, Adolphs (2008, 130) has shown that as students progress in their acculturation process, they become critical of the value of conforming to native-speaker norms, to the extent that a neutral variety is at times considered to be more 'open' or 'flexible', in that it allows for a "higher potential of communication in every English-speaking part of the world" (Erling 2008, 218).

[3] *First Certificate in English*, *Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English* and *Certificate of Proficiency in English*.

2.1. *Methodology*

Sifakis (2007) adopts the transformative approach originally devised by adult education theorist Jack Mezirow (1991), in order to transform ESOL teachers' views about English language pedagogy. A similar framework was adopted for the course described here, in order to help students realise that in our globalised world, they will have to use their multilingual and multicultural competences in order to adapt their language production to their interlocutors and achieve the common goal of mutual intelligibility.

By prompting participants to engage in critical examination of their assumptions, Mezirow's approach guides them to deal with issues which have proven to be resistant to change [4]. In adopting this approach, Sifakis (2007) applies a five-phase model which he summarizes as follows:

- Phase 1: Preparation.
- Phase 2: Identifying the primary issues of ELF discourse.
- Phase 3: Raising awareness of secondary issues in ELF discourse.
- Phase 4: ELF and pedagogy.
- Phase 5: Formulating an ELF action plan.

For the purpose of the course under scrutiny here it was decided to devise a three-phase framework which entails activities and tasks:

1. Awareness raising.
   i. Surveying students' beliefs.
   ii. Discovering usages of English.
2. Knowledge development.
   i. Coping with communication across linguistic barriers.
3. Skills deployment.
   i. Developing communicative skills for border-crossing communication.

It is widely acknowledged that in order for students to develop a more comprehensive view of the English language it may be useful to adopt an approach oriented towards the integration of theory and practice, which emphasizes the value of direct experience for effective learning (cf. Matsuda and Friedrich 2012). Therefore, as the students' formative journey unfolded, they had at first to become aware of their deeply entrenched beliefs (awareness raising), then they had to be gradually prompted to develop their understanding of communication across linguistic barriers (knowledge development) and finally they had to put to a test the competences acquired during the course, by tackling a task they were likely to encounter in their future professional lives.

[4] Like, for instance, peacemaking, AIDS, education, social justice and spiritual justice (see Mezirow 2000; Sifakis 2014).

2.2. *Aims and learning outcomes*

This contribution reports on a course which is still taught at the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia. The activities described here refer, however, to the academic year 2012/2013, when the course was first implemented. The students involved were enrolled in the master's degree programme in 'Languages for Communication in International Enterprises and Organizations'. The class consisted of about 80 students (mostly females) with a C1-like level of competence [5]. The course is called 'Intercultural Communication and Language Variety' [6] and includes 60 contact hours [7].

The overall aim of the course is to help the students realize that rather than calling up elements of a foreign language and pressing them into service as "correctly" as possible" (Seidlhofer 2009, 242), they should learn to exploit the full potential of the language, adapting to variability and different English lects [8]. After attending the course students are expected to be able to interact in international contexts, and by adapting their language production to their interlocutors, to deal with the cultural differences that may inevitably emerge in multicultural contexts.

2.3. *Awareness raising*

During week 1 the students were sensitised towards the worldwide spread of English [9]. The use of the term 'spread' was of the utmost significance and was used in contrast to the potentially synonymous term 'distribution', in accordance with Widdowson's claim, that "[D]istribution denies spread" (1997, 140). In fact, English is not so much distributed as a set of established encoded forms, unchanged in different domains of use, but rather is spread as a virtual

verificare sempre l'uniformità della grafia quando si analizza una singola parola: 'tondo' opp. *corsivo*? cfr. p. 140 (note)

[5] The entry requirement for admission to the course is a Common European Framework of Reference C1-like level of competence in the English language.

[6] In addition the students are also streamed into smaller groups for language tuition classes taught by native-speaker teachers.

[7] For obvious reasons of brevity, only a brief description of the learning aims and outcomes, as well as a selection of some of the activities proposed during the course will be provided here.

[8] Mauranen explains that she uses the terms 'lects' or 'similects' for lack of a better word, to refer to the varieties which carry along some characteristics of their native language and take shape when different speakers' communities use English as a *Lingua Franca* to talk to people outside their own language community (2015a, 38).

[9] To such an end, the students were shown Kachru's 1985 and 1992 models for mapping the spread of the English language worldwide.

language. The two processes are quite different, as distribution implies adoption and conformity, while spread implies adaptation and non-conformity.

2.3.1. Surveying students' beliefs

Surveys on students' attitudes have revealed that even though there seems to be little evidence that they consider native-speaker norms to be irrelevant either in the local or in a more global context, exposure to native-speaker English makes learners more critical of this variety and leads them to re-define their language learning goals with a greater focus on mutual intelligibility in an international context (Adolphs 2008, 131). Therefore, as part of the *Awareness Raising* phase of the course, it was decided to make students reflect on their own beliefs towards English and non-native usages of the language. Accordingly, they were asked to comment upon some statements adapted from a questionnaire devised by the Swiss Association of Applied Linguistics (Murray 2003). At first they had to read a short introductory text and then express their opinions by using a five-point scale of responses: (1) strongly agree; (2) mostly agree; (3) don't know; (4) mostly disagree; (5) strongly disagree (*Figs. 1* and *2*). **verificare rif. int. alle figure**

Statement nr. 1 aimed at investigating the students' attitude towards the so-called native speakers' 'supremacy'. A comfortable majority (49%) in addition to a good 22% of the students thought that non-native speaker English usage deserves more respect. This is not surprising as non-native students themselves might have felt looked down upon because of their of ENL competence (*Fig. 3*).

This statement required students to state whether or not they were willing to conform to ENL norms. A narrow majority (53%) seemed to be in favour of the adoption of a less prescriptive approach, while 22% was still doubtful (*Fig. 4*).

> [A]lthough English is globally considered as an international language and as a tool to be used in cross-cultural communication with people having various first languages from different parts of the world, native-speakers' norms and cultures still dominate the language materials that are developed to be globally used. In fact, English language coursebooks insist on bombarding the ELT world with culturally-loaded native-speaker themes, such as actors in Hollywood, the history of Coca-Cola, the life of Lady Diana, and what American do on Halloween. (Andarab 2014, 282)

The majority of the students (72%) agreed that ELT materials should be adjusted in order to include situations in which non-native speakers communicate with each other (*Fig. 5*).

What kind of English would you like to learn?

English is being learned and used around the world by more and more people. What this means is that a high percentage of communication in English (up to 80%) takes place, not between a native speaker and a non-native speaker, but between two or more non-native speakers. In Europe, as in other countries, English is becoming a lingua franca – a language that people often fall back on when they have different first languages.
When Spanish and France and German and Italian people communicate with each other in English, they use pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar that is somewhat different from what British or American native speakers might use. However, they understand each other very well and, in time, tend to use some of the non-native like forms over and over.
How do you feel about this development?
How does it affect you?
Please give your opinion on the following statements. Indicate whether you: (1) strongly agree, (2) mostly agree, (3) don't know, (4) mostly disagree, (5) strongly disagree.

1. Native speakers should respect the English usage of non-native speakers more.
2. Learners should have more say in whether they imitate native or non-native speakers
3. Most of the situations in course books assume that learners will later be speaking English with native speakers; but there should be more situations showing non-native speakers communicating with each other.
4. Course books convey the notion that English is either British or American, but there are actually many different possible models for English in the world and these should appear in course books in the future.

More time should be spent on getting students to communicate in English instead of spending hours trying to correct deviant forms that are typically made by non-native speakers when they communicate with each other.

è necessario numerare anche questa figura

Figure 1.

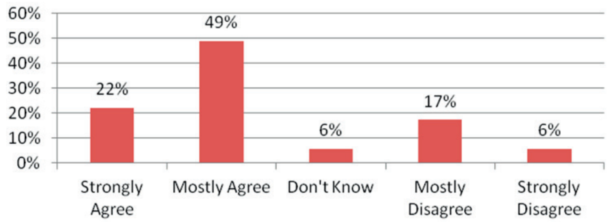


Figure 2. – Native speakers should respect the English usage of non-native speakers more.

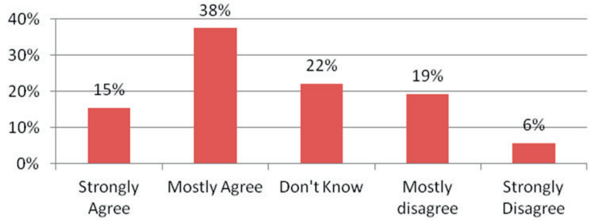


Figure 3. – Learners should have more say in whether they imitate native or non-native speakers.

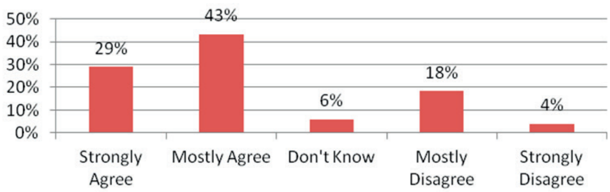


Figure 4. – Most of the situations in course books assume that learners will later be speaking English with native speakers; but there should be more situations showing non-native speakers communicating with each other.

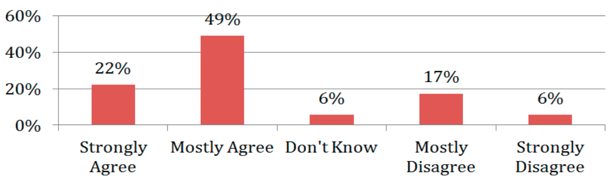


Figure 5. – Course books convey the notion that English is either British or American, but there are actually many different possible models for English in the world and these should appear in course books in the future.

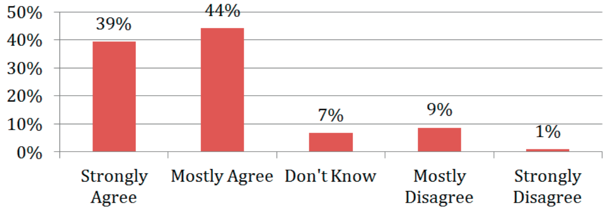


Figure 6. – More time should be spent on getting students to communicate in English instead of spending hours trying to correct deviant forms that are typically made by non-native speakers when they communicate with each other.

This statement, which is related to the previous one, shows that a high proportion of respondents agreed that "even if one variety is selected as a dominant target model, an awareness of different varieties would help [...] develop a more comprehensive view of the English language" (Matsuda and Friedrich 2012, 20). Nonetheless, as in statement nr. 3, 17% of the respondents mostly disagreed on this issue, possibly believing that exposure to different forms and functions of English detracts from full competence as English speakers (*Fig. 6*).

nr. per unif. delle abbreviazioni

This statement aimed at investigating the students' attitudes to deviant forms, with a view to paving the way for establishing the distinction between deviant forms which create intelligibility problems and those which only engender negative attitudes. A substantial majority of the students stated that their main task was to effectively communicate in English rather than spend time being corrected.

According to the survey results, the students showed respect for less mainstream usages of English and were in favour of including non-native communication situations in coursebooks. Hence, they seemed to be somewhat open to changes and prepared to value correctness less than intelligibility and comprehension. However, each statement (except for statement nr. 5), received more than 15% of "mostly disagree" responses (between 17% and 26%). This highlights the fact that some students were not yet inclined to accept a model different from ENL, "probably due to the fact that they had invested heavily themselves in near-native speaker competence and did not wish to see their achievement devalued" (Mansfield and Poppi 2012, 167). This is confirmed by the answers the students provided to one final question (*Fig. 7*).

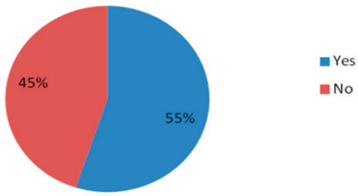


Figure 7. – Do you think that grammatical mistakes (e.g. dropping the 3rd person 's' morpheme or confusing the pronouns 'who' and 'which') could hamper intelligibility in international interactions?

55% of respondents agreed that deviant forms, typical of ELF interactions, may represent an obstacle to mutual intelligibility, rather than an opportunity for further development of the language, as stated by Seidlhofer, who argues that ELF is "a different but not a deficient way of realizing the virtual language, or playing the English language game" (Seidlhofer 2011, 120).

Altogether, the results of the survey seem to indicate that

> [A]bandoning the native speaker totally may be unrealistic since the stereotype is so entrenched in teachers' and students' minds. (Cook 1999, 192)

Nonetheless, teaching can at least take some steps towards integrating the curriculum with insights from ELF, to better prepare the students for their future, professional lives. In fact, in "meetings at the United Nations headquarters in New York, tourist cruises around Sydney harbour, or academic conferences in Hyderabad" (Seidlhofer 2011, 7) it is ELF which is used as a contact language.

2.3.2. Discovering usages of English

At this stage the students were sensitised towards different usages of English through exposure to instances of authentic and situated discourse in the written form [10]. The materials were distributed to groups of students, who had to read them and were asked to write down their reflections and thoughts. Notes were then collected and discussed in groups. In this first stage four texts, as instances of different communicative exchanges in a variety of international settings were handed out to the students.

[10] The activities described here are limited to instances of written discourse, while during the course students were also confronted with instances of spoken discourse.

(1) Guests should announce **the abandonment of their rooms** before 12 o'clock, emptying the room **at the latest until 14 o'clock**, for the use of the room before 5 at the arrival or **after the 16 o'clock at the departure**, will be billed as one night more. (Bryson 1990, 173)

(2) The integrity and thus the vitality of Urbino is no chance, but a conservation due the factors constituted in all probability by the approximate framework of the unity of the country, the difficulty **od** communications, the very concentric pattern of hill **siystems** or the remoteness from highly developed areas, the force of the original design proposed in construction, with the means at the disposal of the new science of the Renaissance, as an ideal city even. (Bryson 1990, 175)

(3) Mr. Poppi,
This is a very serious **manner** that has happened. Because your friend made a mistake in booking those two extra rooms for the evening of the 10th of June and you are just now contacting us, they were not cancelled and your friend has been charged as a no-show. We were completely booked on Friday night and so we were not able to **sell you friends rooms** because she did not contact us to cancel these rooms. I am sorry that she did not understand how to book a room correctly on our website, **but she sould have contacted** us as soon as she saw there was a problem, not 3 or 4 days later. Would she like to keep her reservation for **august**? [...] I am sorry about this, but we will not be able to refund the money charged for the two mistake reservations, as we **fill** your friend did not do enough to mitigate the situation.
[...] The problem with the bookings on June 10th is that even thought they were for one room a piece, they were still for June 10th and **they new** that and they didn't cancel the rooms.
xxx
Manager
Ruby's Inn
[personal data]

(4) M Can I ask you a question?
EA Yes, of course.
M Do you know what time it is?
E Yes, it's two o' clock.
M Might you have a little soup left in the pot?
EA What? I don't understand. (Lustig and Koestner 2006, 112-113)

The following questions were then asked:
1. Can you make out what kind of information each text is meant to provide?
2. Which features, in your opinion, could aid/hinder comprehension?

3. Do you think text nr. 4 could be considered a successful instance of communication? Yes/No? Why?
4. Do you think the texts involve native speakers (NSs) or non-native speakers (NNSs)?

After reading the texts, the students were told that

- text nr. 1 is a notice which was hanging on the doors of a hotel in Sarajevo;
- text nr. 2 is an excerpt from a brochure describing Urbino;
- text nr. 3 is an e-mail written by an American native speaker;
- text nr. 4 is a short conversation between a Malaysian and an American NS, who are both teaching at a community college in the United States.

From their remarks it emerged that:

- notwithstanding its non-standard quality, as highlighted by the presence of a few "unusual" forms (*abandonment*, *at the latest until 14 o' clock*, *after the 16 o' clock*) text nr. 1 can be understood and considered functional to conveying its meaning;
- text nr. 2 contains a few misspellings (*od*, *siystems*). It is somewhat more difficult to understand it than text nr. 1, because of the presence of long, tortuous syntax;
- text nr. 3 contains a few misspellings (*manner* instead of *matter*; *your friends rooms*; *but she sould have contacted*; *august*, *fill* instead of *feel*; *they new* rather than *they knew*), some of which could actually impede the correct understanding of the message;
- text nr. 4 is perfectly phrased as regards the lexico-grammatical features of the language. However, the Malaysian does not succeed in making his NS colleague understand what his real intent is. This clearly shows that even when accuracy is present, misunderstandings may arise. This is due to the fact that different people have different visions of reality, different "softwares of the mind" (Hofstede 2001), which make them phrase information in different ways. As a consequence, any interaction and therefore also international interactions may be unsuccessful, even when accuracy is not an issue.

By engaging in the above activities and tasks the students were expected to realize that in international settings, NS English correctness is not the only requirement, as what really matters is mutual intelligibility. Intelligibility is an interactional phenomenon depending on both writer and reader (speaker and listener). Meanwhile they should develop inference skills (Nelson 2011) and acknowledge that "those changes that do not impede intelligibility should be recognized as one of the natural consequences of the use of English as an international language" (McKay 2002, 127).

In addition, it was also believed that the proposed activities could contribute to introducing elements of Intercultural Awareness (ICA) (Baker 2011, 2012). In fact, by showing the relationship between language and culture in situated and emergent situations (Baker 2015b, 9)[11] students could be sensitized towards intercultural communication and made to realize that it requires:

(a) knowledge of different communicative practices in different socio-cultural settings;
(b) the skills to be able to employ this knowledge appropriately and flexibly; and
(c) attitudes towards communication that involve the ability to de-centre and relativize one's own values, beliefs and expectations. (Baker 2015a, 132)

2.4. *Knowledge development*

To make students realize that mastery of the language alone is not enough, and that it is necessary to try and phrase one's message in such a way that it can be as easily understood as possible also by members of different linguacultures, they were shown the continuation of the conversation between the Malaysian and the American native speaker:

M (Becoming more explicit since the colleague is not getting the point) I will be on campus teaching until nine o'clock tonight, a very long day for any person, let alone a hungry one! **verif. Maiuscole e punteggiatura**
EA (Finally getting the point) Would you like me to drive you to a restaurant off campus so you can have lunch?
M What a very good idea you have! (Lustig and Koestner 2006, 112-113)

In this way it was clear to both interlocutors that in order for the American colleague to understand what he really meant, it was necessary for the Malaysian to be even more explicit. In other words, he had to clearly spell out the request which had not previously been understood by his colleague, not because he lacked the necessary language competence, but because it was formulated in a way that did not make the intention clear enough.

[11] In Baker's words, this approach "involves a move away from cross-cultural comparisons, where cultures are treated as discrete entities that can be compared with each other, e.g. 'in British culture people do… but in Italian culture people do'…" (2015, 131).

2.4.1. Coping with communication across linguistic barriers

Later on, with a view to providing exposure to a wider selection of English lects, like the ones that might be encountered during their professional lives, students were shown some extracts taken from the on-line version of *The Hindustan Times*, a leading newspaper in India written in English, published since 1924, with roots in the independence movement, which enjoys a nation-wide circulation.

(5) So, who's to blame? It needs an empathetic senior to bring a celebrity to task, says Bureau of Police Research and Development chief Kiran Bedi. "A junior colleague will have the courage to take on the powerful only if his superiors back him", she says, pointing out that none of the **challans** [12] issued between 1982 and 1983, when she was in charge of Delhi's traffic, were cancelled due to political pressure.

(6) The carefully slung **anga vastra** [13] and the frequent **Nataraja** [14] **mudras** [15] while speaking may have been something Modi picked up from the Washington-based image consulting firm, Apco Worldwide, that the Gujarat BJP hired. But the totally alive and crackling speeches were pure **Om Shanti Om** [16] moments plucked out of **Karz** [17]. And if you want a vital clue, both Karz and **Farah Khan's** [18] Om Shanti Om are based on the theme of reincarnation. Now, you don't have to be an **L.K. Advani** [19] to figure out who wants to be reincarnated in the nation's political firmament these days. Just buy the DVD – of Karz, not the **Modi** [20] rallies – for confirmation.

After asking the students to read the above excerpts, they were made aware that despite the native-like quality of the text, comprehension might be seriously impeded by the presence of words deriving from the Hindi

---

12 The word *challan* refers to an official form, or another kind of document.

13 The term *anga vastra* refers to a cotton cloth.

14 *Nataraja* is a word usually associated with Shiva, when the deity is represented as a cosmic dancer.

15 The word *mudras* refers to the position of a person's hands, when the thumb and the index of each hand are united, to form two small circles.

16 This is the title of a Bollywood film released in 2007.

17 This is the title of a film released in 1980.

18 This is the name of a famous Bollywood choreographer.

19 L.K. Advani is an Indian politician, well known for his persistence.

20 Narendra Damodardas Modi is the 15th and current Prime Minister of India, in office since 26 May 2014. Modi, a leader of the *Bharatiya Janata Party* (BJP), was the Chief Minister of Gujarat from 2001 to 2014 and is the Member of Parliament (MP) for Varanasi.

language (*challans*), referring to India's religious heritage (*anga vastra*, *Nataraja mudras*), to its political context (*L.K. Advani*, *Modi*), or to Bollywood, (*Om Shanti Om*, *Farah Khan*, *Karz*). In fact, no explanation or translation is provided for the Hindi words in the newspaper, and no background information is added. However, this attitude became more easily understandable once the students were told that the expected readership of *The Hindustan Times* is restricted to "the global Indian reader" and does not, therefore, include international readers.

After looking at the articles of *The Hindustan Times*, the students were shown some more articles taken from two different newspapers published in English in China and in the Baltic Republics: *The China Daily* and *The Baltic Times*.

The *China Daily's* domestic readers "mainly include foreigners and high-end nationals, for example, diplomats and governmental policy makers. Overseas subscribers are mostly government officials, members of parliament, staff members of international organizations and multinationals, professors, researchers and students in universities and institutes, one-third of which is abroad in more than 150 countries and regions" [21].

(7) The existing **hukou**, or household registration system, appears to be too rigid to accommodate the new situation. (*China Daily*)

(8) More than 60 per cent of families in cities in Sichuan Province are moderately well-off – a standard of living known as **xiaokang** – but more should be done to help those on lower income, a survey by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) showed over the weekend. (*China Daily*)

(9) Textbooks on history and literature have been found with fabricated stories on real figures such as Hans Christian Andersen, the Danish writer noted for his children's stories and **Chen Yi**, a Chinese politician and military commander. History textbooks have also been criticized for their portrayals of famous Chinese historical personages including **Ying Zheng** (259-210 BC), the first emperor of the Qin Dynasty (221-206 BC), Emperor **Wudi** of the Han AD), and **Zhuge Liang** (AD 181-234), statesman and strategist in the State of Chu during the period of the Three Kingdoms (AD 220-280). (*China Daily*)

(10) The march in the mountains is only part of the curriculum at the official-training facility in **Jinggang**, a revolutionary base where the CPC-led Red Army began its own march toward national leadership. (*China Daily*)

[21] http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/.

The Baltic Times[22] is the only pan-Baltic English language newspaper which covers political, economic, business and cultural events in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. Born of a merger between *The Baltic Independent* and *The Baltic Observer* in 1996, *The Baltic Times* continues to bring objective, comprehensive, and timely information to those with an interest in this rapidly developing region.

(11) New Democrats argued that the People's Party and the Latvia's First Party / Latvia's Way bloc had used two legal entities – the non-governmental organizations **Sabiedriba Par Varda Brivibu (Society For Freedom of Speech)** and **Pa Saulei (For the World)** – whose participants and organizers were also members of the aforementioned political parties, to earn campaign donations and boost party popularity during the pre-elections.

(12) RIGA – As one of their last acts in power, the ministers of Latvia's outgoing Cabinet secretly voted to pay themselves a bonus on Oct. 10. The decision, which was only last week revealed by journalists, spurred **Latvia's Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau (KNAB)** to launch an investigation into whether the Cabinet vote violates the nation's conflict of interest law.[23]

By comparing the articles, the students were made to realize that a different attitude is adopted in the three newspapers. In fact, differently from what happens with *The Hindustan Times*, every time a term in the local language is mentioned, its translation into English or some background information in English is soon provided, both in *The China Daily* and in *The Baltic Times*.

It was therefore possible to state that only the English used in *The China Daily* and in *The Baltic Times* is suitable for international exchanges on the grounds of its features, which makes it possible to focus on the negotiation of cultures and meaning. The first logical consequence of the above arguments was the acknowledgement that

> there is no such thing as 'neutral' communication […]. All communication involves participants, settings, purposes, linguistic and other communicative medium choices, none of which are culturally neutral: Even in the most apparently functional of social practices, such as buying a cup of coffee, there will be culturally influenced expectations and scripts or schemata for such interactions. (Baker 2015b, 12)

---

22 http://www.baltictimes.com/news_latvia/.

23 These examples have been taken from a larger corpus of articles from *The Baltic Times*, which have been examined in Poppi 2011.

In this way, and as suggested by Baker (2015a, 135), recognition of the variations inherent in the usages of English was promoted thanks to the focus on situated and emergent situations, without trying to simplify and essentialise 'other' cultures, people and places.

2.5. *Skills deployment*

After engaging in the tasks described in the previous sections, the students were expected to have become aware of the need to "adapt to variability, [and] live with a more varied selection of English lects than has been customary for second-language users" (Mauranen 2012, 143). Therefore they were ready to put their knowledge into practice by designing, implementing and evaluating an ELF communication. The students were therefore shown a short text taken from an Italian website:

> (13) Welcome to Lombardia. The official Region site. A Region to act.
> In the files here attached you can find figures of our Region; economic and territorial data, history, political guidelines divided in themes, Presidentship's activities, useful addresses, values and the mission of Regione Lombardia.

Once again they were asked to comment on its communicative efficiency.

The analysis of the text revealed:

- a deviant form (*divided in*) which does not, nonetheless, compromise the correct understanding of the information conveyed;
- phrases which reproduce the typical structural patterns of the Italian language (*a region to act*);
- terms translated from the Italian language into English, without any explanation provided (*region*, *Presidentship*);
- expressions typically associated with letter or email writing rather than with documents posted on the web (*in the files here attached*);
- the lengthy articulation of the text, which does not, however, contribute to its clarity;
- the textual structure which results in language inappropriate for Computer-Mediated-Communication (CMC) [24] (cf. Poppi 2010, 131).

[24] This issue was dealt with in class with the students. However, since it is beyond the scope of this contribution, it is only briefly referred to here.

2.5.1. Developing communicative skills for border-crossing communication

Later, the students themselves were asked to develop their own versions of the original text:

(14) Welcome to the official site of the Italian Regione Lombardia [25].
Come and visit us!
Find out about our region:
• economy
• territory
• history
• political issues
• regional government activities

qui ok iniziali minuscole?

(15) Regione Lombardia: come and visit us!
• Looking for more information on Regione Lombardia?
• Browse our web site and find out more about:
• Facts and figures
• History
• Mission and values
• Policies
• Projects promoted by our Presidenza Regionale [26]
• Useful addresses

qui ok iniziali Maiuscole?

Finally, some of the students even created a new website, in which they tried to exploit the additional affordances of the web.

(16) (*Fig. 8*)

Obviously, the new versions prepared by the students were not flawless or unproblematic. However, they all revealed an increased awareness about the need to make the original text more suitable for an international audience accessing it via CMC. This is why in some cases the word 'Region' was replaced with the Italian word *Regione*, to highlight the different sociocultural contexts which lie behind these two words. The initial long main clause was broken up into shorter chunks of language and in general, a new layout was adopted, more appropriate for computer-mediated communication.

[25] The *regione* is the first-level administrative division of the state.

[26] Each *regione* has an elective parliament called *Consiglio regionale* and a regional government called *Giunta regionale*, which is headed by a regional president. Every region is divided into *province* (provinces) and each *provincia* is divided into *comuni* (municipalities).

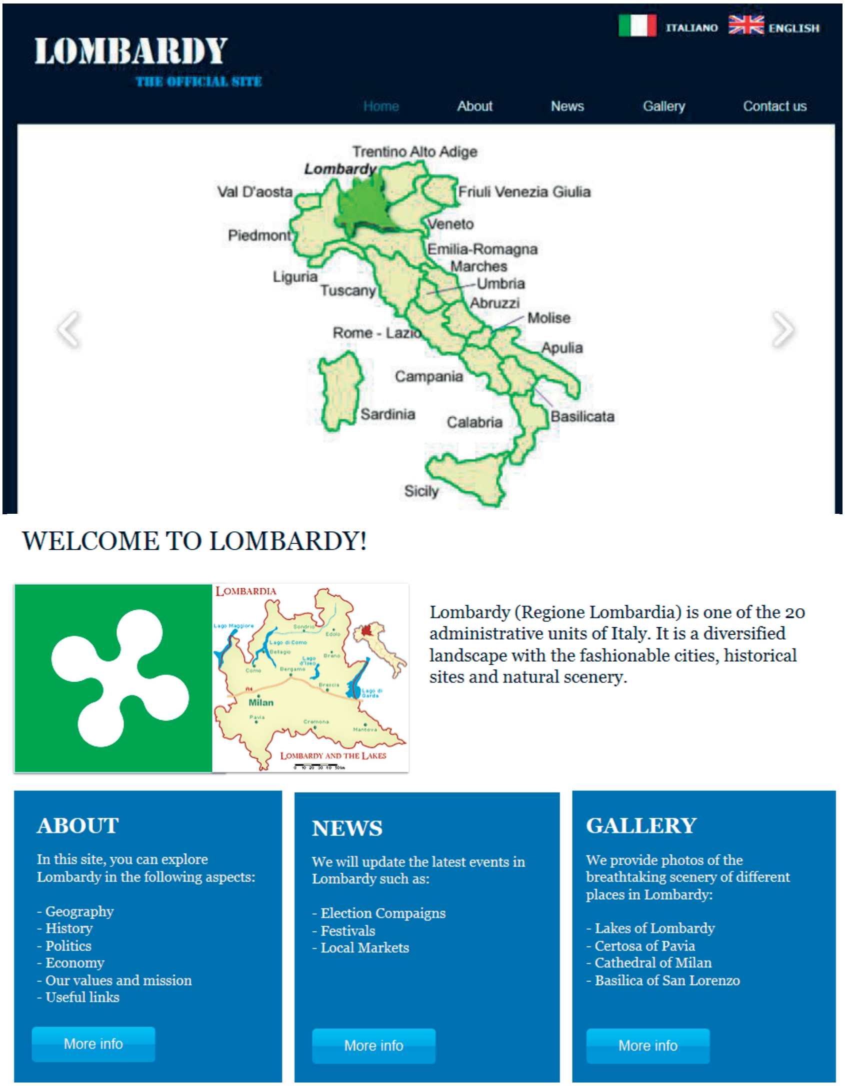

LOMBARDY
THE OFFICIAL SITE
ITALIANO
ENGLISH
Home
About
News
Gallery
Contact us
Trentino Alto Adige
Lombardy
Val D'aosta
Friuli Venezia Giulia
Piedmont
Veneto
Emilia-Romagna
Marches
Liguria
Umbria
Tuscany
Abruzzi
Molise
Rome - Lazio
Apulia
Campania
Sardinia
Calabria
Basilicata
Sicily
WELCOME TO LOMBARDY!
LOMBARDIA
Milan
LOMBARDY AND THE LAKES
Lombardy (Regione Lombardia) is one of the 20 administrative units of Italy. It is a diversified landscape with the fashionable cities, historical sites and natural scenery.
ABOUT
In this site, you can explore Lombardy in the following aspects:
- Geography
- History
- Politics
- Economy
- Our values and mission
- Useful links
More info
NEWS
We will update the latest events in Lombardy such as:
- Election Compaigns
- Festivals
- Local Markets
More info
GALLERY
We provide photos of the breathtaking scenery of different places in Lombardy:
- Lakes of Lombardy
- Certosa of Pavia
- Cathedral of Milan
- Basilica of San Lorenzo
More info

Figure 8.

3. Outcomes of the project

As Mckay (2002) explains, the spread of English has undoubtedly brought with it language change and variation. Thus a first teaching goal should be that of developing in the learners a special kind of textual competence which allows them to accept as a natural consequence of the use of English in international contexts, those changes which do not impede intelligibility (see § 2.3.2). A second teaching goal should be that of ensuring intelligibility among English speakers, as correctness and mere compliance with Ns norms may not be enough (see § 2.4). Thirdly, a final goal should be that of helping learners develop interaction strategies that promote friendly relations when English is used with speakers of other cultures. These strategies may include ways to establish rapport, accommodation, code-switching, negotiation and linguistic and cultural awareness in order to mediate between different cultural norms (see § 2.4.1).

In the case of *The Hindustan Times*, since the newspaper addresses the 'global Indian reader', the presence of Hindi words is legitimized by the assumption that the people who live in the Dravidian-speaking areas in the south of the country would normally prefer English to Hindi as a *Lingua Franca*. In addition, they are also familiar with Hindi words and names of places and personalities. This is why, no further explanations are provided whenever Hindi words are mentioned. At the same time, however, these articles are not easily intelligible for an international audience, which might lack the cultural background needed to make sense of what is written; and this is so because the language used in *The Hindustan Times* is highly localised.

On the contrary, in *The Baltic Times* and *The China Daily*, a greater effort is made to provide an English-language 'window' into Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania as well as China, as proved by the choice of a language which is particularly attentive to the needs of an international audience that has to understand the information provided. This kind of language is of a more globalised nature than the one of *The Hindustan Times* and it is therefore more in line with the tenets of ELF.

As a consequence, when the students were asked to modify the English version of the excerpt taken from the website of Regione Lombardia, they tried to make the text more accessible and easily understandable for speakers coming from different cultural contexts. They clarified possible language problems, because of the need to ensure that the text produced could be understood by all possible users, many of whom are not native speakers. So, while preserving some Italian terms, they also tended to provide a clear reference to the local socio-cultural identity, and their national affiliation, as well as a paraphrase in English. In addition, they tried to adopt particular rhetorical strategies designed to make the reading and understanding of the text easier, breaking up, for example, the information into shorter chunks more suitable for CMC.

4. Conclusion

Globalisation has changed the requirements that language teaching and learning have to address. In this sphere, as in others, some of the most significant changes are economic. Therefore, some commentators have even suggested that languages tend to be treated as economic commodities, and that this will result in the disappearance of traditional ideologies in which languages were primarily symbols of ethnic or national identity. Even without going so far as to claim that languages are nothing but commodities, it is clear, however, that

> [B]esides the English – or rather 'Englishes' – we traditionally know, used as a mother tongue and a national language in a number of countries, we are also seeing the emergence of a new form of English – English as a lingua franca or Global English – which is appropriated by, and belongs to, all its speakers, native and non-native alike. In this new perspective, English is proposed as a hybrid and fluid tool which – like the lingua franca of the Mediterranean – should not be seen as an instrument of imperialism, or as being associated with the culture of the countries originally speaking it. Its supporters' objective is not to replace local languages through this new English, but to reserve it for specific situations and enrich it through the native languages and cultures of all its speakers. (European Commission 2010, 47)

In the light of the present globalisation trends through English and of English, the insistence on a monochrome native-speaker standard may inevitably lead to a number of contradictions and discrepancies. This is for instance what happens in many English Departments in universities. While in cultural and literary studies language variation and change and pluri-and-multilingualism are highly acclaimed and celebrated, in language classes, the ideal, as far as language proficiency goes, is very much that of a usually monolingual native speaker of Standard English. In actual fact, what is emerging with some clarity is that near-nativeness is no longer a goal for many speakers (Seidlhofer 2008, 169).

The present contribution has shown that it is possible to enrich the ELT university curriculum with insights from ELF. The diversity of the English language calls for new aims in ELT. Apart from good linguistic skills, learners need to develop the necessary competences for successful communication in an international context, relying on the foreign language with the aim of establishing and maintaining relationships, rather than just exchanging information.

It stands to reason that teaching always requires the definition of goals and objectives, i.e. something that the teaching and learning is directed at. And learning outcomes in language teaching have traditionally been formulated with reference to a standard language. As Widdowson puts it: "linguistic description cannot automatically meet pedagogic requirement and it would therefore be wrong to assume that findings should directly and uniquely inform what is included in a language course" (2003, 106). Therefore, what is being argued for here is not a rejection of all norms and standards, but a reappraisal of their justification (see Seidlhofer 2008, 168). Indeed, some scholars claim that native speakers themselves will have to make allowance for the pragmatic level of communication, by adjusting their grammar and lexis as well as refraining from local idioms and colloquial expressions in ELF communication in order to ensure communicative success (Gnutzmann and Intemann 2008, 15).

References

Adolphs, Svenja. 2008. "'I don't think I should learn all this' – A longitudinal View of Attitudes Towards 'Native Speaker' English". In *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*, edited by Claus Gnutzmann and Frauke Intemann, 119-131. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Alsagoff, Lubna, Sandra Lee McKay, Guangwei Hu, and Willy A. Renandya, eds. 2012. "Perspectives and Practices for Teaching English as an International Language". New York: Routledge. doi: 10.1111/modl.12165.

Andarab, Mehdi Solhi. 2014. "Calling for English for Specific Cultures-based Coursebooks in English as an International Language". *International Journal of English Language Education* 2 (2): 279-294.

Baker, Will. 2011. "Intercultural Awareness: Modelling an Understanding of Cultures in Intercultural Communication through English as a Lingua Franca". *Language and Intercultural Communication* 11 (3): 197-214. doi: 10.1080/14708477.2011.577779.

Baker, Will. 2012. "From Cultural Awareness to Intercultural Awareness: Culture in ELT". *ELT Journal* 66 (1): 62-70. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccr017.

Baker, Will. 2015a. "Research into Practice: Cultural and Intercultural Awareness". *Language Teaching* 48 (1): 130-141. doi: 10.1017/S0261444814000287.

Baker, Will. 2015b. "Culture and Complexity through English as a Lingua Franca: Rethinking Competences and Pedagogy in ELT". *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 4 (1): 9-30. doi: 10.1515/jelf-2015-0005.

Bayyurt, Yasmine, and Sumru Akcan, eds. 2014. *Current Perspectives on Pedagogy for English as a Lingua Franca*. Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.

Bryson, Bill. 1990. *The Mother Tongue*. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Cook, Vivian. 1999. "Going beyond the Native Speaker in Language Teaching". *TESOL Quarterly* 33 (2): 185-209. doi: 10.2307/3587717.

Dearden, Julie. 2015. *English as a Medium of Instruction – A Growing Global Phenomenon*. [10/03/2016]. http://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/englishlanguage-higher-education/report-english-medium-instruction.

Dewey, Martin. 2012. "Towards a Post-normative Approach: Learning the Pedagogy of ELF". *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 1 (1): 141-170. doi: 10.1515/jelf-2012-0007.

Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency – EACEA (Eurydice/Eurostat). 2012. *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe – 2012 Edition*. Bruxelles: Eurydice. [10/03/2016]. http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/143EN.pdf.

Ehrenreich, Susanne, and Marie-Luise Pitzl, eds. 2015. *Teaching ELF, BELF, and/or Intercultural Communication?* (Special Issue). *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 4 (1).

Ellis, Rod. 2003. *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Erling, Elizabeth J. 2008. "Who Is the 'Global English' Speaker? A Profile of Students of English at the Freie Universität Berlin". In *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*, edited by Claus Gnutzmann and Frauke Intemann, 215-229. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

European Commission, Directorate General for Translation. 2010. *Lingua Franca: Chimera or Reality?* Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. [10/03/2016]. http://www.termcoord.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/Lingua_franca.pdf.

Gnutzmann, Claus, and Frauke Intemann. 2008. "Introduction: The Globalisation of English. Language, Politics, and the English Language Classroom". In *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*, edited by Claus Gnutzmann and Frauke Intemann, 9-21. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2014. "Explanatory Strategies in University Courses Taught in ELF". *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 3 (2): 337-361. doi: 10.1515/jelf-2014-0020.

Held, David, and Anthony McGrew. 2007. *Globalization/Anti-globalization: Beyond the Great Divide*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Herrinton, Jan, Ron Oliver, and Thomas C. Reeves. 2003. "Patterns of Engagement in Authentic Online Learning Environments". *Australian Journal of Educational Technology* 19 (1): 59-71. doi: 10.1.1.87.971.

Hofstede, Geert. 1985. "The Interaction between National and Organizational Value Systems". *Journal of Management Studies* 22 (4): 347-357. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6486.

http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/ [10/03/2016].

http://www.baltictimes.com/news_latvia/ [10/03/2016].

Jenkins, Jennifer, Alessia Cogo, and Martin Dewey. 2011. "Review of Developments in Research into English as a Lingua Franca". *Language Teaching* 44 (3): 281-315. doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000115.

Kachru, Braj B. 1985. "Standards, Codification and Sociolinguistic Realism: The 'English' Language in the Outer Circle". In *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures*, edited by Quirk Randolph and Henry G. Widdowson, 11-36. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kachru, Braj B., ed. 1992. *The Other Tongue*. Urbana (IL): University of Illinois Press.

Lopriore, Lucilla. 2014. "English as a Lingua Franca in the Primary Classroom". In *Perspectives on English as a Lingua Franca* (Special Issue), edited by Maria Grazia Guido and Barbara Seidlhofer. *Textus* 1: 119-136. doi: 10.7370/77482.

Lustig, Myron W., and Jolene Koester. 2006. *Intercultural Competence. Interpersonal Communication across Cultures*. Boston - New York: Pearson Education.

Mansfield, Gillian, and Franca Poppi. 2012. "The English as a Foreign Language / Lingua Franca Debate: Sensitizing Teachers towards Teaching English as a Lingua Franca". *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development* 14 (1): 159-172.

Matsuda, Aya, and Patricia Friedrich. 2012. "Selecting an Instructional Variety for an EIL Curriculum". In *Principles and Practices of Teaching English as an International Language*, edited by Aya Matsuda. Bristol - Bufalo - Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Mauranen, Anna. 2012. *Exploring ELF: Academic English Shaped by Non-native Speakers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mauranen, Anna. 2015. "What is Going on in Academic ELF?". In *New Frontiers in Teaching and Learning English*, edited by Paola Vettorel, 31-52. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

McKay, Sandra Lee. 2002. *Teaching English as an International Language: Rethinking Goals and Approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mezirow, John. 1991. *Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, John. 2000. "Learning to Think Like an Adult: Core Concepts of Transformation Theory". In *Learning as Transformation*, edited by John Mezirow et al., 3-34. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Modiano, Marko. 2009. "EIL Native-speakerism and the Failure of European ELT". In *English as an International Language: Perspectives and Pedagogical Issues*, edited by Farzad Sharifian, 58-78. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Murray, Heather. 2003. "Swiss English Teachers and Euro-English: Attitudes to a Non-native Variety". *Swiss Association for Applied Linguistics* 77: 147-165.

Nelson, Cecil L. 2011. *Intelligibility in World Englishes – Theory and Application*. Oxford: Routledge.

Poppi, Franca. 2010. "Il curricolo di lingua inglese nell'Università italiana: lingua straniera oppure lingua franca?". *Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata* 1-2: 125-137.

Poppi, Franca. 2011. "Localised and Globalised Forms in the Discourse of the News in English(es)". In *Challenges for the 21st Century. Dilemmas, Ambiguities, Directions*, vol. 2, edited by Gabriella Di Martino, Linda Lombardo, and Stefania Nuccorini, 457-464. Roma: Edizioni Q.

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2008. "Standard Feature or Half-baked Quackery? Description and Pedagogic Bearings on the Globalisation of English". In *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*, edited by Claus Gnutzmann and Frauke Intemann, 159-173. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2009. "Common Ground and Different Realities. World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca". *World Englishes* 28 (2): 236-245. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2009.01592.x.

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2011. *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2011.00305.x.

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2015. "ELF-informed Pedagogy: From Code-fixation towards Communicative Awareness". In *New Frontiers in Teaching and Learning English*, edited by Paola Vettorel, 19-30. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Sifakis, Nicos C. 2007. "The Education of Teachers of English as a Lingua Franca: A Transformative Perspective". *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 17 (3): 355-375.

Sifakis, Nicos C. 2014. "ELF Awareness as an Opportunity for Change: A Transformative Perspective for ESOL Teacher Education". *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 3 (2): 317-335. doi: 10.1515/jelf-2014-0019.

Vettorel, Paola. 2015. "Introduction". In *New Frontiers in Teaching and Learning English*, edited by Paola Vettorel, 1-16. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Vettorel, Paola, and Lucilla Lopriore. 2013. "Is There ELF in ELT Coursebooks?". *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* 3 (4): 483-504. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2013.3.4.3.

Widdowson, Henry G. 1997. "EIL, ESL, EFL: Global Issues and Local Interests". *World Englishes* 16 (1): 135-146. doi: 10.1111/1467-971X.00054.

Widdowson, Henry G. 2003. *Defining Issues in English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pragmatic and Rhetorical Strategies in ELF Courses of Business Negotiation: An Interdisciplinary Approach

Elisa Turra

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-turr

Keywords: business negotiations, conversation analysis, ELF.

1. Background and aim

In the process of internationalization and globalization, many Italian companies are exposed to an increasing number of contacts and interactions across different countries, languages and cultures. This is a typical English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) situation in which participants use the language as a common means of communication. In order to prepare managers and employees to deal with their counterparts in international negotiations, develop their business and make global joint ventures work, universities offer courses of intercultural communication, negotiation and public speaking in English. Lecturers can be native or non-native speakers and are either chosen specifically according to their expertise in the subject or for their language competence. These courses offer an overview of current theories on negotiation according to multiple perspectives and a number of role plays, business cases and simulations, that are often video-recorded and transcribed for research or pedagogic purposes. The analysis and discussion of these role plays is a precious tool that enables researchers to monitor the evolution of negotiation theories and practices. In Bülow's terms, "Owing to the strategic nature of negotiation discourse, the scholarly approach is often transdisciplinary" (Bülow 2009, 144). However, as many scholars have pointed out (Bülow 2009; Schoop et al. 2010) negotiation studies have mainly focused on efficiency and effectiveness (Raiff 1982) and on the repertoire of macro-strategies (information sharing, sequence of offers, concessions, rejections) used to achieve economic outcomes and

ok corsivo per unif.?

goals, often disregarding the communication process. The approach used in this chapter aims at combining analysis and micro-linguistic analysis with a more recent strand of interdisciplinary research inspired by social psychology, which places more emphasis on the communicative nature of negotiation (Muller 2004; Schoop et al. 2010) as a new construct for analysing the negotiation process and the nature of business relationships.

Based on the above considerations, this article aims to start from the analysis of micro-linguistic and discursive features, in order to identify whether interactants are oriented to a competitive style based on maximizing individual gains, or to a more cooperative and relationship-centred style.

2. Methodological and analytical framework: negotiation studies and social psychology perspectives

The multi-dimensional nature of interests and relationships, generate two main approaches to any negotiation situation: distributive and integrative strategies. (Fisher and Ury 2011; Lewicki at al. 2011).

> Distributive bargaining is sometimes called competitive, or win-lose. In a distributive bargaining situation, the goals of one party are usually in fundamental and direct conflict with the goals of the other party. Resources are fixed and limited, and both parties want to maximize their share […]. (Lewicki et al. 2011, 18)

A distributive approach tends to be used when negotiators are not interested in establishing a long-term relationship with the other party. Often this approach tends to cause the negotiating parties to "focus on their differences" and "not to disclose information which could improve the other party's negotiation power" (Lewicki et al. 2011). On the other hand, an integrative negotiation approach is used when the parties aim at establishing or maintaining a long-term relationship and when there are multiple issues and interests to discuss. In integrative negotiations "negotiators work hard to search for common ground […], to create a free flow of information, understand the other negotiator's real needs and objectives and to redefine individual goals through collaborative efforts directed toward a collective goal" (Lewicki et al. 2011, 45-46). Therefore, integrative negotiations, place greater emphasis on cooperation and flexibility and tend to occur when people meet on a regular basis and are constantly involved in relational work. This approach is also used when there are more than two counterparts (multilateral agreement as opposed to bilateral agreement). Integrative negotiations are also called 'interest based', as in order to find an agreement, interactants need to uncover the counterparts' basic interests underlying a declared position. Drawing on social psychology, Fisher and Ury (2011, 32) provide a list of five basic "core concerns" that may emerge during a negotiation:

> Many emotions in negotiation are driven by a core set of five interests: autonomy, the desire to make your own choices and control your own fate; appreciation, the desire to be recognized and valued; affiliation, the desire to have a meaningful purpose; and status, the desire to feel fairly seen and acknowledged.

In this perspective, negotiators should consider these five dimensions with a view to managing conflicts and negative emotions and to creating a positive climate and a long-term relationship with the counterpart.

The following chapter will examine how these approaches and dimensions are linguistically realized and the repertoire of micro-linguistic strategies used to detect interactants'orientation in the different phases of the negotiation process.

2.1. *Interactional perspectives*

In order to analyse the interplay between interaction and organisational practices, a discourse analytical study was carried out, drawing on a range of analytical tools such as interactional sociolinguistics and conversation analysis.

Ethnomethodological conversation analysis, as practised by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), has provided the analytical tools to account for the structure or orderliness of talk-in-interaction, focusing in particular on how turns are accomplished, questions are answered and speakers selected. The main tenets of the conversation analytical approach, are that analysis should be based on recorded, naturally occurring talk in interaction, and that conversation is fundamentally a turn-taking activity. Turn taking refers to "the orderly distribution of opportunities to participate in social interaction" (Schegloff 2000, 1). Participants have to be able to work out when it is appropriate to transfer the role of speaker, and to select who the next speaker is to be. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) propose that speakers recognize points of potential speaker change because speakers talk in units called Turn Constructional Units. Thus, the units of analysis are conceived as sequences of activities that are made up of turns. A turn constructional unit is defined as a complete unit of language such as a sentence, a clause or a phrase, the end of which represents to the interactants a point where a speaker transfer is possible. The organization of turn taking is a local management system, which works according to the following rules:

1. the current speaker may select the next speaker;
2. if the current speaker does not select the next speaker, then any other party self-selects, first speaker gaining right to the next turn;
3. if the current speaker has not selected next speaker and no other party self-selects, then the current speaker may (but need not) continue.

A turn is therefore an utterance made of one or more words, including non-linguistic vocalisations, such as laughter and back-channelling, by which a speaker holds the floor and a new turn starts when there is a speaker change.

Conversation analysts introduced other important features, which contribute to shaping conversational organization. These are:

1. adjacency pairs;
2. the preference structure.

Adjacency pairs (i.e. question-answer, greeting-greeting, offer-acceptance), are fundamental units of conversational organization. They are constituted by a first pair part and a second pair part where a particular first part requires a particular second part. For example, a question produced by one speaker requires an answer from another. The requirement that a first part is followed by a particular second part is not seen as a rule, but as specific expectations participants normally have. Not all first parts immediately receive their second parts. It may happen that a question-answer sequence will be delayed by another pair, called 'insertion sequence', which can structure longer stretches of conversation. Second pair parts are divided into 'preferreds' (the structurally expected next act) and 'dispreferreds' (the structurally unexpected next act). For example, if the first part is a request, the preferred second part is acceptance, while the dispreferred second part is refusal. According to Sacks (1995, 685-693), adjacency pairs can be preceded by pre-sequences, which prepare the ground for certain actions, such as pre-invitations or pre-requests. For example, before asking a question, the speaker can pre-signal the question to come by saying "let me ask you a question" (Schegloff 1980). Pre-sequences extend beyond invitations and requests and may be treated as preliminaries to prepare the grounds for further actions, which can last several turns.

Atkinson and Drew's (1979) notion of "turn-type pre-allocation" was used to examine participants' interactional behaviour in the negotiation. The role assigned to the participants in the negotiation, as well as their background knowledge and implicit norms, may determine their expectations and what are considered allowable contributions.

2.2. *Pragma-linguistic perspectives*

"Constructing agreement on common ground is a central feature in negotiation" (Bülow 2009, 144). Therefore Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies for creating common ground and mitigating face-threatening acts were combined with Locher and Watts' notion of politeness as a discursive and norm-oriented concept (Locher and Watts 2008).

Politeness theory is rooted in Goffman's concept of face, which is defined as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (Goffman 1959, 21). The central role of face in interaction reflects Goffman's notion of individuals as social actors who perform or present a public self in order to create certain social impressions in others. In institutional settings the notion of face is more complex and is the result of the interplay between individual and institutional face wants, as the individual is seen as a representative of broader entities such as the company or the team.

Brown and Levinson (1987) developed Goffman's theory of face, defining two complementary sides of face: positive and negative face. In Brown and Levinson's terms:

> Negative face: [is] the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others; positive face: [is] the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others. (Brown and Levinson 1987, 62)

In particular, the notion of positive face is seen as reflecting the desire of an individual for social consensus and approval, which are in turn built upon social solidarity.

Speakers can make use of various linguistic strategies, which reflect the extent to which they respect (or disrespect) the hearers' positive or negative face wants. The choice of different strategies depends on sociological variables like power, social distance and ranking of imposition. When speakers disagree, criticize, ask favours or give directives, they perform face-threatening acts. Face-threatening acts are utterances that may threaten either the positive or negative face of an individual. When asking a favour, for example, a speaker can decide to reduce the degree of imposition by expressing solidarity and involvement or suggesting that the speaker wants the same as the hearer. Positive politeness strategies, in particular, entail participants mutually attending to their positive face needs, their desire to feel valued and appreciated both for their special skills or distinctive expertise and for their contribution as team members.

In Brown and Levinson's terms, positive politeness "anoints the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, the speaker (S) wants what the hearer (H) wants (e.g. by treating him as a member of an in-group, a friend, a person whose wants and personality traits are known and liked)" (1987, 70). As Brown and Levinson suggest, linguistic realizations of positive politeness are used as a social accelerator to extend intimacy, to imply common ground or sharing of goals even between people who do not know one another well, but who perceive themselves as somehow similar for the purpose of the interaction. Fifteen positive politeness strategies are listed, which can be used to presuppose, raise or assert common ground. Small talk, for example, belongs to this set of strategies. The notion of small talk was first introduced in 1923 by Malinowski, who defined "phatic communion as language used in free, aimless, social intercourse" (1923, 149). Several discourse analytic studies have pointed out how institutional discourse often involves a dialectic between institutional frames and socio-relational frames and have examined the interplay between social and transactional goals. According to Coupland (2000, 6), for example, "in professional and commercial domains, small talk needs to be interpreted not only in terms of its relational function, but in terms of how that rapport furthers or contests the instrumental and transactional goals of the institutions". Other studies (Giddens 1991; Fairclough 1995; Sarangi and Slembrouck 1996; Holmes 2000) have underlined "the new and heightened significance of intimate relationships in late modern societies, which lack the stability previously associated with predictable lifespan positions and roles" (Coupland 2000, 11) as well as the blurring of traditional life worlds, e.g. the world of work versus the world of leisure. In Janet Holmes' (2000, 34) terms, "small talk is one means by which we negotiate interpersonal relationships, a crucial function of talk with significant implications for on-going and future interactions". Small talk can therefore either be work-related or focused on personal and social topics and is considered a social glue and a way of building consensus and team spirit.

Gossip is another strategy used to raise common ground. According to Eggins and Slade (1997, 276) "gossip is a form of talk through which interactants can construct solidarity as they explore shared normative judgements about culturally significant behavioural domains". The primary function of gossip is "to establish and maintain relationships" (Eggins and Slade 1997, 276) as "it functions to establish and reinforce group membership and provides a means of exploring similarity and shared values; this exploration being the mechanism by which people develop social bonds" (ibid., 283). According to these authors the secondary function of gossip is to exert social control (ibidem) as it enables big groups to cohere and control the behaviour of their members.

A further strategy exploited to create common ground within negotiations is humour. As Holmes (2000) and Harris (2003) point out, the role of humour in relation to politeness, particularly in power-laden situations is a complex one, which goes beyond the mere claiming of common ground. According to Norrick (2009, 261), banter, teasing, irony and sarcasm are multi-faceted features of interaction:

> Research has shown how joking can work as a strategy for enhancing intimacy, but also for controlling a conversation; an account of humour in conversation highlights the interactional achievement of puns, irony and sarcasm along with personal anecdotes and joke-telling between participants and the mutual construction of identity they accomplish in the process. Conversational joking – especially teasing and sarcasm – has a dual force: because it plays on relational identity, teasing directed at intimates can have the potential to hurt, even as it ratifies the bond between interactants. Still, generally, humour facilitates friendly interaction and helps participants negotiate identity.

The multi-faceted and complex forms and functions of humour are also described by Eggins and Slade (1997, 156-157), who agree on the fact that humour involves at least a duality of meaning, polysemy and often a multiplicity of opposing meanings, being made available within the same text: "Humour functions to expose social differences and conflicts and enacts contradictions and conflicts in the social relations between interactants". In this perspective, humour is a precious analytical tool that can be used to identify a cooperative attitude based on common ground and to uncover conflict sequences, ambiguities and the nature of relational work in the course of interaction.

Holmes's definition of supportive, critical or antagonistic elicitations were of interest to analyse the way question and answer sequences reflect role relations and instances of conflict. Unlike supportive elicitations, critical elicitations "are aimed at clarification though often containing a hint of criticism" (2000, 45). Antagonistic elicitations are even more face threatening as they "generally involve challenging, aggressively critical assertions, whose function is to attack the speaker position and demonstrate it is wrong" (ibidem).

The notion of boosters was also used to analyse instances of conflict, as they can increase the force of utterances and fuel conflicts:

> Boosters do not in themselves express positive politeness and solidarity. Rather they intensify the illocutionary force of any utterance in which they are used. […] When they are used to intensify a face-threatening act, the result will usually be an increase in social distance and may contribute to the degree of face threat expressed by a disagreement, a criticism or an insult. (Holmes 1995, 77)

As different studies have pointed out (Bargiela-Chiappini and Harris 1997; Poncini 2004; Bargiela and Turra 2007), pronominal choices can be indicators of conflict. Bargiela-Chiappini and Turra (2007, 194), for example, carried out a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the occurrences of both lexicalised and non-lexicalised pronominal forms in business meetings. They found the existence of two dominant clusters: the "I/ you" and the "we/us" pronominal clusters, as "[t]he personalised nature of many exchanges, culminating with what sounds very much like an altercation, is reflected in the consistent pronominal preference for 'self' and 'you' singular". Brown and Levinson (1987, 204) also listed the pluralization of the "you" and "I" pronouns as a negative politeness strategy:

> In kinship-based societies in particular, but in all societies where a person's social status is fundamentally linked to membership in a group, to treat persons as representatives of a group rather than as relatively powerless individuals would be to refer to their social standing and the backing that they derive from their group. […] In such social settings, persons are always representatives, and the motivation for a plural 'you' of deference or distance would be the same as for the plural of the 'we' of corporations.

Pronominal choices are therefore one of the keys to interpreting the dynamics of multi-party interaction such as negotiations and corporate meetings. Linguistic choices operated consistently by speakers are tools for identifying the membership or exclusion of a participant in a particular group, the construction and negotiation of relations and instances of conflict.

Although Brown and Levinson consider disagreement as a dispreferred act and list a series of strategies aimed at mitigating its impact (e.g. indirectness, hedges, apologies, impersonal forms, implicatures, proverbs, understatement, pluralizations, nominalizations, rhetorical questions, hints, ellipsis, irony and metaphors), in some contexts disagreement has been viewed as a preferred act (Tannen 2002). This is the case of situations involving problem-solving and highly task-oriented situations. Locher and Watts (2006, 256) reinforce this view by introducing the notion of politic behaviour, which "is equaled with appropriateness in lay people's perception. It indexes a wide variety of forms of social behavior that include both non-polite and polite behavior". This revisited version of politeness has been used to show that relational work goes beyond the mitigation of FTAs and that direct speech acts may be interpreted as appropriate (politic) behaviour which is context-based and depends on the on the judgements, norms and expectations of interactants.

2.3. *ELF perspectives*

Finally, the literature on the use of ELF for international communication in domain-specific contexts was also examined, drawing on diverse theoretical and practical perspectives. A specific strand of research identified more than one ELF (Candlin and Gotti 2004; Cortese and Duszak 2005) and was based on the tenet that the features of ELF differ from Standard English norms of usage and grammar, therefore accounting for register deviations and interlanguage errors. According to Guido and Seidlhofer (2014, II):

> ENL cannot represent the parameter against which the cognitive-semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and generic variations used by non-native speakers have to be assessed insofar as the acknowledged tenet is that ELF variations develop from L1-L2 transfer processes.

In this perspective, ELF is not to be considered a 'defective version' of the native language and ELF speakers can interact effectively without necessarily adhering to the forms of Standard English and its norms of usage.

The study described here embraces Guido and Seidlhofer's approach, according to which ELF speakers bring to the interaction assumptions based on the norms of usage and communicative behaviour of their L1 and exploit all the resources available to get their ideas across and strategically resolve potential communicative problems. These strategies include the use of direct disagreement, often attributed to the lower competence of ELF speakers, utterance completion, self-repetition and "let it pass" strategies (Firth 1996) which are aimed at reducing unnecessary interruptions and facilitating the interaction flow. In order to identify the wide array of strategies used by ELF speakers, the analysis also draws on Gotti's (2014) study on cooperative meaning making strategies in ELF courses. In the analysis, attention will therefore be devoted to aspects related to facilitating strategies aimed at checking comprehension (i.e. direct questions and non-verbal features), explaining concepts (rephrasing, code-switching) and self-repair, "which occurs when words or expressions previously formulated are proposed in a different way by the same person to facilitate the listener's comprehension" (Gotti 2014, 18).

3. Dataset, company and participants

The research findings refer to a single simulation, which was selected from a corpus of 40 role plays and negotiations simulated during the courses, on the basis of its representative nature in terms of size, participants' experience in international business negotiations and linguistic strategies deployed. The role play under analysis was video-recorded during a course of business negotiation taught by the author in 2011 at *Fine Tools*[1], a company based in Northern Italy. The company was founded in 1929 and is now considered a well-known manufacturer and supplier of mechanical products for the metal cutting industry, pumps, cutting tools and associated equipment used in different sectors such as aerospace, oil&gas, energy, automotive, general engineering and medical industry. The products are supported by a range of complementary services that help customers optimise their manufacturing processes and improve cost-efficiency. *Fine Tools* has a total of 4,500 employees, 40 wholly-owned subsidiaries and a large number of agents and distributors with operations in more than 50 countries around the world. Course participants are seven top managers with considerable language and communicative competence in English. They know each other well and are used to working together on a regular basis (*Tab. 1*).

Participants were randomly assigned a role in the simulated negotiation. Their common goal was to find the best strategy to raise the public awareness of a British brand of water pumps for cars. Each participant also had an individual goal and had to consider and choose a given form of investment (sponsorship, ads, etc.) on the basis of a separate set of instructions (*Fig. 1*).

[1] Names have been changed to protect individual and corporate identities as requested.

Table 1. – Profiles of the participants in the course and in the video-recorded negotiation.

	Position	Gender	Nationality	Assigned role in the negotiation
1	Managing Director	M	Italian	Communications Manager (CM)
2	Marketing Manager	M	Italian	Managing Director (MD)
3	Sales Manager	M	Italian	Financial Controller (FC)
4	Head of Logistics	M	Italian	Production Manager (PM)
5	Chief Technology Officer	M	Italian	Marketing Manager (MM)
6	Chief Operation Officer	M	Italian	Sales Manager (SM)
7	Production Manager	M	Italian	Human Resources (HR)

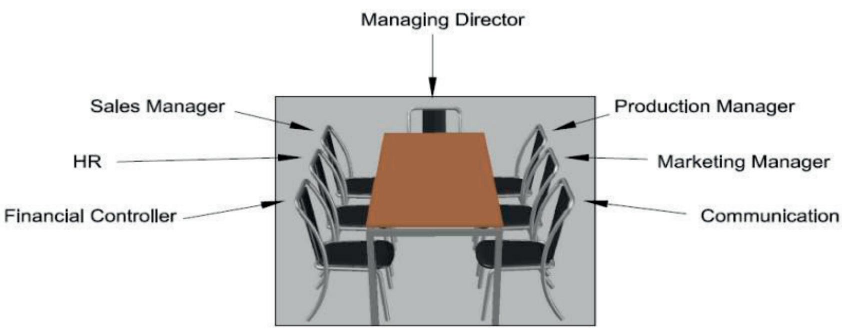


Figure 1. – Post and position at the table of participants in the negotiation.

3.1. *Opening*

The negotiation under analysis was chaired by the Managing Director, who started with a formal introduction:

Extract 1.

a causa della diversa larghezza della gabbia, gli a capo sono variati rispetto al file word: ok?

(...) > […] opp. va mantenuta la grafia dell'originale?

ok allineamento orizzontale?

1.	**MD:**	so we are here today in order to reinforce our image on the market and try to
2.		build a name on our XY pumps. The people must to recognize our name as a
3.		leader. (...) So we have to find out a good strategy er in order to achieve this. (...) So I would like to know your opinions about this topic. (...) So, let's start (...) ((the chair maintains eye contact with the other participants in order to encourage their participation))
4.	**FC:**	so what's the real target we should have?
5.	**MD:**	(...) er
6.	**FC:**	we need to reinforce the image in which areas?
7.	**MD:**	the real target is to reinforce the er you the er (.) we have a technical level which is very high,
8.		but we have to reinforce the name on the field, so we have maybe to do some marketing er
9.		work (...) strong (.) and why not to improve the production and the deliveries
10.	**PM:**	well, because we produce pumps, engine pumps, maybe we could sponsor some race cars er
11.		or power boat races
12.	**MD:**	interesting ((the chair writes the suggested idea on the flip chart))

ok mantenere 1 interlinea vuota? verificare sempre

The chair quickly explains the goal of the negotiation. No time is devoted to small talk at the beginning, although the choice of the inclusive pronoun "we" and adverbs (here, today) reflect his intention to create common ground and a sense of belonging. He ends his monologue by starting a round-the-table discussion in order to hear the other participants' opinions on the topic. In line 4, the Financial Controller asks a question aimed at clarification. The question, however, also contains a hint of criticism, which is reinforced by non-verbal features such as tone and facial expression. His critical elicitation (Holmes 2000, 45) is followed by a pause and hesitation on the part of MD in line 5. Consequently, FC employs the strategy of "self-repair" (Gotti 2014, 18) in order to facilitate the listener's comprehension by proposing previously formulated expressions in a different way. Even though the participants are aware of their lexical and grammatical inaccuracies, they adopt a very cooperative attitude without having to stop the flow of interaction. In line 8, the chair tries to make his concept clearer by means of self-repetition and reformulates what he has said earlier in lines 1-3. The Production Manager self-selects in line 10 to put forward his proposal of focusing on the sponsorship of car races or power boat races. The chair attends to the hearer's interests by means of the adjective "interesting" and writes the first proposal on the flip chart. The first proposal triggers a long conflict sequence, started by the Communication Manager in the following extract:

Extract 2.

13. CM: I do not agree with you because this remains a specific sector. If our target is to make our
14. name known we have to move a bit ahead of this concept in my opinion and we have to be
15. visible all around (...) with something that reaches all the people. Not only people who are
16. interested in this kind of field. ((the chair keeps writing on the flip chart))

17. PM: that's good, but you can sponsor the car race on the television, so that sounds good for me
18. because everyone can watch and see

19. FC: yes, but you are talking about a product which is not a consumer product (.) honestly. Because you know
20. we sell 50% of our turnover through OEM and the other 50% is done by sales shops.

21. HR: you cannot find it in a supermarket

22. FC: yes (.) so how does a housekeeper has the power to choose one of our products then?
23. just simply seeing it on TV or in soccer games?

24. PM: with soccer games ((he shakes his head signalling his dissent))
25. MM: it's so difficult

In line 13, CM voices his dissent without mitigation, with an on-record FTA and continues attempting to persuade the others that a new approach is needed to reach a wider public, explaining why he in favour of a massive advertising campaign. The chair tries not to take sides and keeps writing every single idea on the flip chart. The Production Manager supports CM's idea, so that an oppositional alliance is formed: CM and PM versus FC and HR. FC disagrees by means of two rhetorical questions that reinforce the disagreement with CM and obtain the consensus of PM and MM. At this point, CM is outnumbered, but does not give in and tries to form new alliances and build consensus for his ideas:

Extract 3.

26. CM: I do not agree with you (.) we have several examples of this situation (.) we have soccer
27. teams that are sponsored by insurances or er nothing to do with the soccer
28. FC: yes, but still these are consumer goods
29. CM: yes, but pumps are consumer goods if you look a little bit deeper into the thing. Everybody
30. has a pump on his car, the problem is that they don't see which is the name of the producer of
31. the pump. They only see the name of the car producer
32. HR: but the car user don't care about the pump
33. CM: and this is what we have to change. This is what we have to change.
34. SM: and why not going outside this scheme and link our product to something that has to do with
35. luxury or whatever it is like champagne or perfumes
36. CM: you are right. You are right!

The choice of direct disagreements "I do not agree" (lines 13, 26), "yes, but" (lines 19, 28, 29) or non-verbal features, may be due to their lower competence as ELF speakers who find them easier than indirect disagreement strategies. Moreover, in the negotiation under analysis participants use an integrative approach for a number of reasons: a multi-lateral agreement needs to be found in order to account for multiple interests, and the participants meet on a regular basis, so they need to maintain their relationship in a state of equilibrium. Therefore, given the context and the intimacy between participants, direct disagreement is seen as an effective and natural way of exploring different perspectives. CM's exclamation in line 36 is a positive politeness strategy that expresses approval with an exaggerated stress and intonation and signals the intention of finding a win-win solution, which reinforces participants' orientation to cooperation and the choice of a distributive approach to negotiation.

3.2. *Cooperative meaning making strategies: utterance completion, co-construction of sentences and echoing*

The analysis of the following extract focuses on the processes of pragmatic cooperation and meaning negotiation between the different participants in the simulated negotiation:

Extract 4.

1.	**CM:**	so it's also important that also the people who lives in this area where the factory, does
2.		know who produce our brand
3.	**SM:**	that is another reason why er to go to let's say media where our name or brand
4.		can be er
5.	**HR:**	visible
6.	**CM:**	fully visible. This is a switch we have to do from the old approach to the new one

ok alcuni numeri no bold? verificare sempre

In line 1 and 2, the HR Manager uses importance markers to build consensus round the type of investment oriented at the local area where the company is based, rather than on a national-scale investment. The Sales Manager seems to agree on the fact that it is necessary to raise public awareness of the company and its products, but he hesitates while searching for the right word. In line 4, the Communication Manager helps SM find the appropriate word by means of an utterance completion, a typical strategy used in the ELF context to facilitate understanding and pragmatically cooperate. At this point HR initiates a turn aimed at supporting CM in line 6, making use of a lexical repetition (echoing). This has the effect of signalling mutual agreement about their common goal. The group, however, still needs to decide the amount of investment, the target and the strategy. This is why HR exploits the moment of consensus to persuade the others about changing the strategy adopted in previous years. He does so by making use of contrasting pairs such as "from the old approach to the new one" and by choosing inclusive pronouns ("we") to reinforce the sense of belonging and affiliation with the use of in-group identity markers. inserite virgolette: ok?

In the following extract, participants attempt to build consensus round the concept that it is worth investing money in advertising pumps, even though the average customer rarely pays attention to the brand of pumps installed in the cars they buy. They therefore consider their target in relation to the initiative of sponsoring car races:

Extract 5.

1. **MM:** The people who use to watch the race cars are not all the people who use our
2. pumps

3. **SM:** No, I think there's a very limited number of people

4. **MM:** If you go to repair your car and if you knew the XXX pumps and you know that
5. this product is very good for you and also with a very good price and quality why not
6. ask to your (...) (?) garage man

7. **CM:** Garage man hhh

8. **All:** hhh hhh

The Marketing Manager and the Sales Manager in line 1-3 form an alliance, as they support each other on the argument for car races. In line 4-6, the Marketing Manager continues a line of reasoning aimed at persuading the group that it is possible to raise customers' awareness of pumps. In line 6, he hesitates and pauses while trying to find the right word. The videorecording makes it possible to capture visual cues such as facial expressions, and hand gestures. His pause and hesitation are followed by an interrogative look and typical Italian hand gestures that make it very clear he is in need of help. Nobody in the group seems to know the appropriate lexical item for this context; consequently a "let it pass" strategy (Firth 1996) is adopted by the Communication Manager in line 7. CM uses laughter to signal he understands his point, even though the lexical choice is not the appropriate one. This is echoed by the laughter of the other participants who are all ready to joke about their lack of accuracy, but at the same time determined not to create unnecessary breaks in the interaction flow. This laughter sequence has the effect of releasing tension and of maintaining common ground by reinforcing their sense of belonging.

The following extract was preceded by another conflict sequence, where participants all voiced their opinion together, generating confusion, interruptions and overlaps. For this reason the Marketing Manager temporarily took over the role of the chair:

Extract 6.

1. **MM:** I think we have to speak one by one and everybody for his own matter otherwise
2. it's it's a mess we still take out a lot of ideas and er but we have to analyse er in a good
3. way (...)

4. **PM:** Can I say two points (...) who normally bring the car in the garage? Man
5. or female?

6. **MM:** No again

7. **PM:** Just give me the answer

8. **SM:** You mean who destroys the car? hhh

9. **All:** hhh hhh

After this attempt to control the interaction, the Production Manager self-selects and exploits the moment of silence to prove his point, by means of rhetorical strategies. His line of reasoning is based on the evidence that men (not women) are their main target and it is therefore unnecessary to spend money on TV ads to reach a wider public. In his view it is more profitable to focus on men as they are the ones in charge of buying and repairing cars. In line 4, the question "who normally brings the car in the garage" obtains a dispreferred response, in the form of an FTA "no again", expressed with a very annoyed tone of voice and gaze. At this point PM raises his voice in the attempt to get the desired answer to his question. For some participants answering PM's question would mean supporting his line of reasoning. In line 8, SM resorts to joking and laughter as a negative politeness strategy to avoid an escalation sequence. His joke "who destroys the car" creates a playful moment, where the seven men are given the opportunity to make fun of women at the wheel. This is an effective way of reinforcing their affiliation. In line 9, the participants laugh together, which has the effect of creating common ground and of defusing tension.

4. Concluding remarks

The results of the macro and micro-analytical strategies converge to suggest that in the negotiation under analysis, interactants adopt a cooperative style and an integrative approach. This orientation is related to the nature of the negotiation, which involves multiple interests and issues. Although the managers involved in this negotiation are competing over the division of resources, the overriding goal is to create mutual understanding and maintain a positive relationship with their colleagues. Their cooperative attitude in the interaction is reflected in the use of question-answer sequences aimed at sharing and exchanging information, as well as positive politeness strategies aimed at creating common ground. The interactants' social and psychological needs (affiliation, appreciation) are linguistically realized through the use of inclusive resources such as a shared lexical repertoire, inclusive pronouns, shared irony, laughter and banter.

The analysis of the selected negotiation also confirms the results of previous studies of ELF data. The fact that the negotiation was carried out by non-native English speakers had an impact on the choice of discourse strategies and on the language used to realize them at a phonological, lexical and grammatical level. As a consequence, speakers were very cooperative and made use of communication-enhancing pragmatic strategies, so that cases of failed comprehension were very limited. In order not to stop the flow of interaction, speakers used utterance completion, "let it pass" strategies (Firth 1996), code-switching, joking and a range of non-verbal features including hand gestures.

ripetere fonte per giustificare le virgolette doppie = cit.: ok?

Paralinguistic features such as pauses, hesitations, intonation and visual cues played an important role in the analysis of specific question-answer sequences, offers and information sharing, as they made it possible to identify disagreement and anticipate conflict sequences. In the selected extracts, ELF speakers used a range of interactional, rhetorical and pragmatic strategies that are prototypical of authentic negotiations carried out by native speakers. Sentence co-construction and echoing were the interactional strategies used to form oppositional alliances and control the topic. Positive politeness strategies such as inclusive pronouns and lexis were used to claim common ground. Critical elicitation, joking and indirectness were used to mitigate disagreement and FTAs. In some cases, direct and "yes, but" disagreement were chosen instead of more complex and indirect strategies. The use of contradictory statements as direct disagreement may be due to the lower pragmatic competence of ELF speakers. Disagreement, however may not necessarily be negative, as it is an everyday

virgolette doppie (per unif.): ok?

speech act which is expected in some interactional practices, which may be the case of integrative negotiations. It is hoped that this initial study will be integrated with the analysis of a larger corpus and combined with interview data, which may shed light on participants' expectations, cultural and social norms as well as their education and training in management and leadership.

References

Atkinson, Maxwell, and Paul Drew. 1979. *Order in Court – The Organisation of Verbal Interaction in Judicial Settings*. London: Macmillan.

Bargiela-Chiappini, Francesca. 2009. *The Handbook of Business Discourse*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Bargiela-Chiappini, Francesca, and Elisa Turra. 2007. "Organizational Change from Old to New Economy". In *Discourse, Ideology and Specialised Communication*, edited by Giuliana Garzone and Srikant Sarangi, 181-205. Berlin: Peter Lang.

Brown, Penelope, and Stephen C. Levinson. 1978/1987. *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bülow, Anne Marie. 2009. "Negotiation Studies". In *The Handbook of Business Discourse*, edited by Francesca Bargiela-Chiappini, 142-154. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Candlin, Christopher, and Maurizio Gotti, eds. 2004. *Intercultural Aspects of Specialized Communication*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Cortese, Giuseppina, and Anna Duszak, eds. 2005. *Identity, Community, Discourse. English in Intercultural Settings*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Coupland, Justine, ed. 2000. *Small Talk*. Essex: Pearson Education.

Douglas, Mary. 1975. *Implicit Meanings*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Eggins, Susanne, and Diana Slade. 1997. *Analysing Casual Conversation*. London: Cassell.

Fairclough, Norman. 1995. *Critical Discourse Analysis*. London - New York: Longman.

Firth, Alan. 1996. "The Discursive Accomplishment of Normality: On Lingua Franca English and Conversation Analysis". *Journal of Pragmatics* 26: 237-259.

Giddens, Anthony. 1991. *Modernity and Self Identity: Self and Society and the Late Modern Age*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Goffman, Erving. 1959. *Forms of Talk*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2014. "Cooperative Meaning-making Strategies in ELF University Courses". *In Perspectives on English as a Lingua Franca*, edited by Maria Grazia Guido and Barbara Seidlhofer, 17-33. Roma: Carocci.

aggiunto curatore: ok?

Guido, Maria Grazia, and Barbara Seidlhofer. 2014. "Introduction. English as a Lingua Franca: Theory and Practice". In *Perspectives on English as a Lingua Franca* (Special Issue), edited by Maria Grazia Guido and Barbara Seidlhofer. *Textus* 1: 7-16. doi: 10.7370/77482.

Harris, Susan. 2003. "Politeness and Power: Making and Responding to 'Requests' in Institutional Settings". *Text* 23 (1): 27-52.

Holmes, Janet. 1995. *Women, Men and Politeness*. London: Longman.

Holmes, Janet. 2000. "Doing Collegiality and Keeping Control at Work: Small Talk in Government Departments". In *Small Talk*, edited by Justine Coupland, 163-182. Essex: Pearson Education.

Lewicki, Roy, Bruce Barry, David Saunders, and Kevin Tasa. 2011. *Essentials of Negotiation*. New York: McGraw-Hill - Ryerson.

Locher, Miriam, and Richard Watts. 2005. Politeness Theory and Relational Work. *Journal of Politeness Research* 1: 9-33.

Locher, Miriam, and Richard Watts. 2008. "Relational Work and Impoliteness: Negotiating Norms of Linguistic Behaviour". In *Impoliteness*, edited by Derek Bousfield and Miriam Locher, 77-99. Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.

Malinowski, Bronislaw. 1923. "Psychoanalysis and Anthropology". *Psyche* 4: 293-332. **verificare dati**

Malinowski, Bronislaw. 1972. "The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages". In *The Meaning of Meaning*, edited by Charles Kay Ogden and Ivor Armstrong Richards, 296-336. New York: Brace & World Inc.

Muller, Harald. 2004. "Arguing, Bargaining and All That: Communicative Action, Rationalist Theory and the Logic of Appropriateness". *European Journal of International Relations* 10 (3): 395-435.

Norrick, Neal. 2009. "A Theory of Humor in Interaction". *JLT Articles* 3 (2): 261-284.

Poncini, Gina. 2004. *Discursive Strategies in Multicultural Business Meetings*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Raiffa, Howard. 1982. *The Art and Science of Negotiation*. Cambridge (MA): Harvard University Press.

Sacks, Harvey. 1995. *Lectures on Conversation*, edited by Gail Jefferson. Oxford - Cambridge (MA): Blackwell.

Sacks, Harvey, Emmanuel A. Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson. 1974. "A Simple Systematics for the Organisation of Turn-taking for Conversation". *Language* 50: 696-735.

Sarangi, Srikant, and Stephen Slembrouk. 1996. *Language, Bureaucracy and Social Control*. London: Longman.

Schegloff, Emmanuel A. 1980. "Preliminaries to Preliminaries: 'Can I ask you a question?'". *Sociological Inquiry* 50 (3-4): 104-152.

Schegloff, Emmanuel A. 2000. "Overlapping Talk and the Organization of Turn-taking for Conversation". *Language in Society* 29: 1-63.

Schoop, Mareike, Frank Koehne, and Katja Ostertag. 2010. "Communication Quality in Business Negotiations". *Group Decision and Negotiation* 19 (2): 193-209. doi: 10.1007/s10726-008-9128-8.

Spender, John Christopher. 2014. *Managing Uncertainty, Opportunity and Enterprise*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tannen, Deborah. 2002. "Agonism in Academic Discourse". *Journal of Pragmatics* 34 (10-11): 1651-1669.

ok suddivisione
righe?

CONTENT
AND
LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING
(CLIL)

TerminoCLIL: A Terminology-based Approach to CLIL

Manuel Silva - Alexandra Albuquerque

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-silv

Keywords: CLIL, specialized knowledge, TerminoCLIL, terminology, terminology-based approach.

verificare sempre l'uniformità nell'uso delle Maiuscole

1. Introduction

Considering the new European educational context derived from the *Bologna Process*, the urgency of improving university students' Foreign Languages (FL) competences and the unsatisfactory results of present-day methodological approaches to FL teaching and learning, it seems that the ground is, as Morgado et al. (2012) state, ripe for new perspectives in this area.

CLIL appears as one of these approaches – more content oriented, more able to meaningfully integrate language and content and to lead to the desired FL proficiency and pluricultural learning outcomes. It is also based on a new paradigm: that of the language user, rather than the language learner (Moore and Dooly 2010).

In the context of higher education in Portugal, HEIs are still in the process of beginning the implementation of a CLIL approach. There is almost no experience with CLIL and little or no research has been developed to support its introduction, spread and use. The reason for this also lies in CLIL being an area that has only recently been more thoroughly explored for appropriate use at higher levels of education. To change this situation, ReCLes.pt (Network of Language Centers in Higher Education in Portugal) members are striving to make up for the paucity of research in this area. For this purpose ReCLes created a national program for training content teachers in Portuguese higher education to best learn and apply essential concepts of English-mediated instruction, integrating classroom management, scaffolding, learner autonomy, Web 2.0 tools and terminology-based learning activities.

Based on a national project promoted by ReCLes.pt, seven HEIs prepared the groundwork for subject classes to be taught in English. To carry out this innovative national project, a needs analysis of the higher education institutions in Portugal was first prepared for the ICLHE (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education) *2013 Conference* in Maastricht. These results, including quantitative data and interviews with administrators and subject teachers in the participating HEI, have corroborated the urgent call for CLIL in HEI and have led to the development of a training manual, written collaboratively by seven polytechnics, as part of the CLIL project (Morgado et al. 2015). This project is divided into three stages:

i. 1st Stage – Explored how foreign languages were taught within Portuguese HEIs and whether there was a linguistic policy, as well as the perceptions of governance and teaching staff on their foreign language skills needs and those of their students.
ii. 2nd Stage – Focused on creating a CLIL learning community in higher education institutions through the ReCLes network, and to collaboratively write a CLIL course manual for trainers, stating its philosophy, methods, skills, content-based approaches, genres, tools and implementation.
iii. 3rd Stage – Devoted to implementing the CLIL modules and courses in several HEIs, and to monitoring the experience through similar data collecting tools among all participating institutions (Morgado et al. 2012).

During the development of this project (from September 2012 to March 2015) and after a state of the art analysis, we felt the need to bring in new perspectives and approaches that would better fit the context and the needs of higher education teachers and students. One of the approaches that was thought to better suit these needs was the terminological approach, as terminology focuses on the collection, description, processing and systematic representation of concepts in a specialised domain. The use of terminology appeared, in our view, as a key construct in CLIL teaching, as it involves the search, production, use and dissemination of information. Bearing this in mind, it was decided to conceive a terminology-based approach to fit CLIL specific teaching and learning environments and workflows, which is now presented.

2. Some words about CLIL

CLIL may stem from LSP practices, but goes beyond it and raises awareness that language changes according to its contexts of use, i.e. it has specific communication purposes, making use of a domain-specific language. Moreover, successful CLIL requires teachers of different subject fields to engage in alternative ways of planning their teaching for effective learning, not only as far as the specific domain of knowledge is concerned, but also bearing in mind the best way to use language as a knowledge carrier.

A CLIL environment is flexible and there are many different strategies, models and approaches that can be depending on a range of contextual factors (Coyle 2008). Whatever the approach, it is however a major issue that the content on the topic or theme leads the way. In fact, it could be said that one of the critical features that differentiates CLIL from LSP is that, in the former, content is new, relevant and cognitively challenging. Thus, CLIL is not language teaching enhanced by a wider range of content (knowledge). Neither is it content teaching translated into a different language (code) from the mother tongue. These considerations constituted the ground for the development of the methodology proposed in this chapter.

3. An integrated terminology-based approach to CLIL

As suggested above, CLIL is an approach for learning content through an additional language (foreign or second) and terminology is dedicated to the scientific study of concepts and terms used in specialised languages and to their structuring in specialised knowledge representation systems. Thus, both subject and the language are important elements of the CLIL environment and of terminology.

Terminology plays a crucial role in the development of communication processes as well as in information and knowledge sharing, which has led us to consider the need to create a methodology that specifically addresses its use in CLIL environments. In fact, when a field is truly new to students, their first contact with this reality will be through terms, either when listening to the CLIL teacher or when reading class material on their own. They will then have to learn how to recognise terms related to the domain specific information and organise them in a meaningful way.

A terminological approach to CLIL – or TerminoCLIL – enhances the mutual beneficial dialogical relation between CLIL and terminology, which is the link between two crucial dimensions of both fields: (1) knowledge and competences (concepts and expertise) and (2) language (discourse on the knowledge). Together, these dimensions can result in non-ambiguous and more efficient communication about specialised knowledge since there is no term (language) without a concept (knowledge) and vice versa. Therefore, some of the aims of terminology are to organise, structure and classify discourse (linguist) and knowledge (expert).

Due to the extra-linguistic nature of knowledge, it is generally through discourse that knowledge and its representations are reached. Knowledge, which can be organised by both students and experts as they construct their own competences, is always transferred by a verbal or non-verbal text. Terms are, thus, the privileged means to represent knowledge and the relation between Concept, Text, and Term (see *Fig. 1*).

verificare sempre le Maiuscole rispetto alle figure e alle tabelle

nella figura solo Text è Maiuscolo: se possibile, si consiglia di correggere nell'originale e riconsegnare il file

The texts prepared by CLIL teachers are aimed at the transmission/acquisition of knowledge and competences. The new reality in a Foreign Language (FL) increases the need to anchor this knowledge in an organised discourse or text or a corpus of relevant texts. Terms can be extracted from texts and become those anchors.

The terminology-based approach to CLIL, whose high-level representation is displayed in the *Figure 2*, is divided into three stages: (1) Knowledge Retrieval / Organisation, (2) Knowledge Application and (3) Knowledge Visualisation, and follows Bloom's taxonomy, being based on a scaffolded learning process. The approach integrates contributions from Knowledge Management, Terminology Activity and Learning Objectives as defined by Bloom (1956).

It is our view that in the CLIL learning environment, with strong linguistic and extra-linguistic input, terms (at the discourse level) will allow students to more easily access and acquire knowledge and competences. These will then be further elaborated as they use that knowledge, through a scaffolded process of different, but connected stages and steps, which we have divided into four categories: Actions, Outcomes, Questions and Tools, as described in the following Learning Activity Plans (see *Tabs. 1*, *2* and *3*).

During the development of this Plan, we propose a set of defined learning objectives according to Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy. These objectives are defined taking into consideration the different activities and the communicative and cognitive skills to be developed or enhanced during the various stages, which are now described briefly.

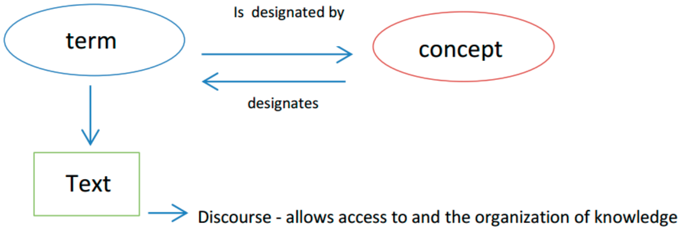


Figure 1. – Relation between Concept, Text, and Term.

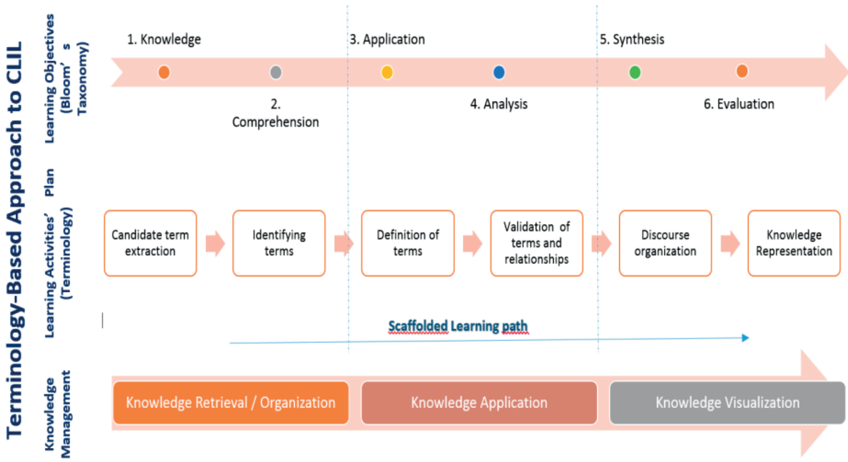


Figure 2. – Integrated terminology-based approach to CLIL high-level representation.

3.1. *Stage 1: Knowledge Retrieval / Organisation*

This stage involves recalling information, observing reality in the field of knowledge and finding/extracting information in/from texts. Teachers can develop their activity by following the Actions, Questions, Tools and Outcomes described in the Learning Activity Plan proposed for this stage, as described in *Table 1*. **tondo per unif.**

Table 1. – Learning Activity Plan based on Bloom's Taxonomy (stage 1).

Knowledge Retrieval / Organisation			
Knowledge		Comprehension	
Recall of information, observation		Finding information from the text	
Identifying terms		Textual match	
Actions	Outcomes	Actions	Outcomes
Identifying terms	List of (candidate) terms	Classifying	Collection
Finding terms	Quiz	Comparing	Explanation
Selecting terms		Exemplifying	List
Extracting terms		Inferring	Quiz
Questions?	Tools	Questions?	Tools
What is [term]?	http://taws.tilde.com/plaintext	How would you distinguish between a generic and a specific term?	Visual Thesaurus
What is the definition?	http://www.nactem.ac.uk/software/termine/	Can you establish a relation between some of the terms?	http://www.clres.com/semrels/umls_relation_list.html
Complementary information	http://termostat.ling.umontreal.ca/	Can you describe the connection between the terms?	
		Can you identify the concept?	
		Can you illustrate the terms?	
		Can you name synonyms/antonyms?	
		Can you find a definition?	
		Can you link concept/term?	

When given a specialised source text, students will try to recognise both known and new concepts to understand the new reality better. However, when the field is entirely new to them, their first contact with this reality will be through terms, either when listening to the CLIL teacher or when reading class material on their own. They will then have to learn how to recognise terms related to the domain specific information and organise them in a meaningful way. With the CLIL teacher, they can initially use an extraction tool and then refine the search and gather more information. By extracting and listing all possible terms, definitions and other relevant terminological information from the texts, students will find and establish relations between domain concepts and can begin to organise some of them in order to make sense out of the new domain and structure knowledge about it in a semi-formal manner.

3.2. *Stage 2: Knowledge Application*

At this stage, students will use knowledge in a new situation to be examined in detail in the following *Table 2*.

Table 2. – Learning Activity Plan based on Bloom's Taxonomy (stage 2).

Knowledge Application			
Application		Analysis	
To use in a new situation		To examine in detail	
Definition of terms		Validation of terms and their relationships	
Actions	Outcomes	Actions	Outcomes
Implementing	Demonstration	Integrating	Term base
Executing	Texts	Analysing	Glossary
Translating	Presentation	Structuring	Terminology file
Using	Simulation	Organising	
Questions?	Tools	Questions?	Tools
How would you use this terminology to describe graphs, images, or tables?	https://www.wordnik.com http://www.onelook.com/ http://www.wordsense.eu	Can you make a distinction between contexts/communication levels…?	Advanced search
Which context is the most suitable?		How would you… select relevant terms?	Textual corpus analysis Concordance analysis
Can you formulate a definition of a term?		…distinguish between domain (un)suitable terms?	http://www.webitext.com/bin/webitext.cgi
Can you find an equivalent in Portuguese?		…rate the exactness of the terms that designate the concept?	http://www.tradooit.com/
		…define the concept?	http://corpora.ids-mannheim.de/ccdb/ http://www.webitext.com/ http://www.termbases.eu/

Students are expected to be more aware of the knowledge field and to link (at least some of the) terms with concepts. They will also be more aware of synonyms, polysemy, and levels of language and probably begin to discover that the use of terms is context-linked: to issues of who is speaking or writing, to the level of knowledge involved, and to the purpose of the given communication. Moreover, since they are accessing knowledge in a foreign language, students will frequently be tempted to find equivalents in their mother language. This can be a challenging exercise because concepts and terms do not necessarily map easily across languages. The association of term meanings from different languages to corresponding concepts raises the problem that the terms used to designate a particular concept in the conceptual system may not have a match either in the textual representations of the domain or in the different classification systems and taxonomies.

CLIL teachers will have to provide language-independent frameworks of information (e.g. images), since differences in language, culture and conceptualisation must be explained, known, and understood before a multilingual term base/glossary can be built. This will help students not only organise their knowledge with cultural awareness, but also define terms and correctly present specialised information in multilingual contexts.

3.3. *Stage 3: Visualising Knowledge*

At this stage, students who organise discourse and represent their knowledge to acquire specialised knowledge are expected to understand reality from an expert point of view (*Tab. 3*).

Texts continue to be important, but they will be an outcome instead of being simply a starting point (as in stage 1) or a bottom-up method to access knowledge. Since most of the relations between concepts have been refined and validated with the CLIL teacher (expert), students will be able to represent domain knowledge (top-down) in at least two ways:

i. In a concept map (see *Fig. 3*) – for instance, domain knowledge can be represented by using electronic tools and the semantic relations previously studied.
ii. Building glossaries – an engaging but demanding task that provides an opportunity for students to better understand new concepts, the way they relate to each other and their position in the overall knowledge structure of the new domain.

Table 3. – Learning Activity Plan based on Bloom's Taxonomy (stage 3).

Knowledge Visualisation			
Synthesis		Evaluation	
To change or create something new		To make judgments according to standards	
Discourse organization and Knowledge representation		Specialised knowledge	
Actions	Outcomes	Actions	Outcomes
Designing	Visual Conceptual Map	Solving	Content acquisition through terminological units and semantic relations
Constructing	Multilingual maps and texts		Effective communication (context, level of language, knowledge transfer)
Planning			Cognition development (lower and higher order)
Making			Culture awareness (through language management and translation)
Questions about your glossary or database	Tools	Questions?	Tools
Which template/ model would you use to build it up?	http://cmap.ihmc.us/	Based on what you know, how would you explain …?	Surveys
Which levels and fields would you suggest?	http://www.mindmeister.com/pt	Has terminology helped you increase your knowledge of the field of studies?	Tests
Can you propose a (new) translation of the terms?		Do you agree with the actions/outcomes?	

Provided that the learning process was initiated as or has included a multilingual approach, these activities can be carried out both in a FL and in the mother tongue.

In the CLIL classroom, with a foreign language as the means of communication and the source of terminology, CLIL teachers and students need to understand the complexity of the field of study and the semantic diversity required for expression; then, they must find a method to represent the domain. Concept maps can thus be used for the analysis, structuring, and spread of specialised knowledge. As an effective means of representing and communicating knowledge, concept mapping is a process of visually linking concepts with propositions. The concepts constructed are enclosed in shapes and propositions of (semantic) relationships among the concepts are indicated by linking words. When concepts and linking words are carefully chosen, these maps can be useful classroom tools for observing nuances of meaning, helping students organise their thinking, and summarising subjects of study.

Concept maps support knowledge representation, both individually and collaboratively, and promote more efficient knowledge sharing. They help to visually and graphically access and represent domain-specific information, knowledge, and competences. They are the backbone of a discovery-learning environment, where students can first draw a concept map of the information they have learned or gathered on a specific topic, share their concept maps with the group, and finally consider other examples of peer work and suggestions for analysing them, offering constructive criticism, diagnosing misunderstandings and restructuring the information with the help/validation of the teacher.

In this way, these cognitive tools complement the learning process, as is illustrated in the following example, where a marketing plan is mapped out into its multiple concepts (*Fig. 3*) extracted from a text.

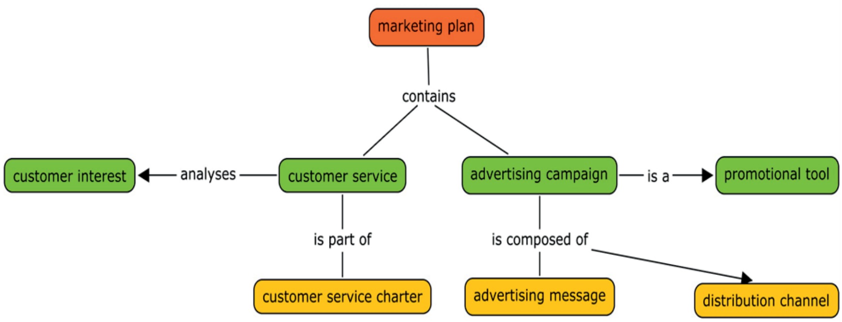


Figure 3. – Example of concept map elaborated upon text extraction.

Students' creation of concept maps provides effective feedback on the their understanding of domain knowledge and competences through semiformal knowledge representations. The degree of complexity increases when concept maps are used to develop a multilingual representation. To avoid any distraction from comprehension of the workflow and of the different tasks proposed, the different steps required must be clearly defined and explained. Monitoring of the students throughout the entire cycle of the process contributes to enhancing and supporting the scaffolded learning path.

The active participation of the expert (teacher) contributes to resolving problems that are:

i. conceptual – knowing the domain can help to avoid ambiguity and increase their semantic precision;
ii. linguistic – familiarity with the specialised language and recognition of most of the terms to be used in different languages will speed up the time needed to find the proper equivalent;
iii. pragmatic – awareness of the use of the term and its acceptance by peers can make it easy to understand and anticipate meaning based on the context.

The CLIL teacher can apply the terminology-based approach described and proposed here, but the starting point for the students will be the CLIL texts proposed within a bottom-up learning approach. Note that, in a contrasting top-down learning approach, the CLIL teacher (expert) must validate all knowledge acquisition at every stage. In order to accomplish the objectives of acquiring specialised knowledge, CLIL teachers can adapt and reorganise the Learning Activity Plans that cover learning objectives connected to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, terminology activities, and related tools as proposed in *Tables 1*, *2* and *3*. **qui taxonomy ok minuscolo?**

4. Concluding remarks

This terminology-based approach to CLIL, and the entire "theoretical and practical basis for the creation of a CLIL Learning Community of foreign language teachers and subject teachers" (Silva et al. 2015) were tested in training courses offered to domain-specific teachers in all the institutions involved in the project. Although no assessment tool has been applied as yet, feedback from those teacher involved is enthusiastic and motivating.

Revisiting terminology as a tool that promotes and supports CLIL learning environments is certainly uncovering new learning paths that have yet to sufficiently explored. Moreover, the flexibility of the model, allows teachers and students to use the Learning Activity Plan in a customised and adjusted manner that suits their own agendas, and contributes to the development and improvement of the approach. It is also important to stress that this learning path needs to be collaborative throughout the Plan, albeit to different degrees in the various stages. This collaborative work between the teacher (both expert and linguist) and the student can be either strictly personal or also technology-driven, supported by collaborative platforms, a good example of which is ConcepME, "a web-based platform for conceptual model development by group editing, discussion and negotiation. This platform allows the development of many actions proposed in the Plan, in order to accomplish domain visualisation and conceptualisation. It enables teams, including domain specialists, knowledge engineers and terminologists, to build together a conceptual representation of a domain". Since this platform is free for teaching and research purposes, it is hoped that it will improve cooperation and knowledge management and contribute to the development of TerminoCLIL environments.

senza citare qui la fonte della cit.?

At present, more research, training, and experiments are being developed in CLIL contexts in Portuguese HEIs to obtain data and feedback to further develop the method presented here and to obtain an in-depth analysis of the relation between terminology and CLIL and of the ways the former may support and enhance results and teachers' performance in CLIL environments.

References

Bloom, Benjamim Samuel. 1956. "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals". In *Handbook 1 – Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay Co. Inc.

Coyle, Do. 2008. "CLIL – A Pedagogical Approach". In *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. 2nd ed., edited by Nelleke Van Deusen-Scholl and Nancy Hornberger, 97-111. New York: Springer.

Moore, Emilee, and Melinda Dooly. 2010. "'How do apples reproduce (themselves)?' How Teacher Trainees Negotiate Language, Content, and Membership in a CLIL Science Education Classroom at a Multilingual University". *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education* 9: 58-79.

verificare virgolette e punteggiatura

Morgado, Margarida, and Margarida Coelho. 2012. "Higher Education Experiments with CLIL vs English as the Medium of Instruction: Differences, Similarities, and Lessons to Learn for the Portuguese Context". Paper presented at the IV Cercles Seminar *Five years of Bologna. Upgrading or Downsizing Multilingualism?*, Universidade do Minho (Braga, Portugal), April 26-28, 2012. [19/05/2016]. https://issuu.com/lgooliveira/docs/margaridamorgado.margaridacoelho_1a.

Morgado, Margarida, Manuel Silva, Alexandra Albuquerque, et al. 2015. "CLIL in Portuguese Higher Education – Building a Community of Practice and Learning". En *Experiências de inovação didática no Ensino Superior*, 65-79. Lisboa: Gabinete do Secretário de Estado do Ensino Superior, Ministério da Educação e Ciência.

Silva, Manuel, Alexandra Albuquerque, Margarida Morgado, Margarida Coelho, Maria del Carmen Arau Ribeiro, Graça Chorão, Suzana Cunha, Ana Gonçalves, Ana Isabel Carvalho, Mónica Régio, Sónia Faria, and Isabel Chumbo. 2015. *CLIL Training Guide – Creating a CLIL Learning Community in Higher Education*. Santo Tirso: De Facto Editores. [19/05/2016]. http://paol.iscap.ipp.pt/recles/index.php/publicacoes.

CLIL Teaching at Primary School Level and the Academia/Practice Interface: Some Preliminary Considerations

Paola Catenaccio - Cinzia Giglioni

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-cate

si prega di inserire almeno 2 keywords (per unif.)

Keywords: ....

1. Introduction

verificare sempre l'uniformità nell'uso delle Maiuscole

This chapter focuses on some key aspects of and enabling conditions for the introduction of CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning – in primary schools in Italy. Having been the object of highly successful pilot projects in the past, CLIL at primary school level is at the moment neither mandatory nor regulated, but debate around its potential benefits has been widespread for some years, and has recently been given renewed momentum in the wake of the launch of the latest school reform (*La Buona Scuola*, or 'The Good School') in 2014 (see below). Among the pledges made when presenting the reform, the improvement of foreign language (mostly English) competences of Italian students has been given particular emphasis, with CLIL being mentioned as a suitable methodology to achieve this aim. It may, therefore, be expected that in the next few years the demand for CLIL teaching in early education will increase substantially. For it to be met, it essential that suitably competent and trained teachers be available. As a result, an overview of existing and desirable teacher language competences (and of the means whereby such competences can be taught/acquired) is needed, particularly in view of the introduction of policy measures that involve a widespread introduction of CLIL at primary school level.

verificare sempre nelle traduzioni (ital:: corsivo; trad: ' ': ok?)

The interest in CLIL is indeed not new in Italy. In fact, over the last couple of decades, Italy (and more specifically Northern Italy) [1] has been at

[1] While CLIL projects have been implemented in various schools across the country, some of the most influential ones have been carried out in Northern regions. Examples

the forefront of a small but steadily growing movement for the introduction of Content and Language Integrated Learning at all levels of schooling. The recent introduction of new legislation mandating that CLIL be employed in teaching part of at least one curricular subject in the final year of all secondary schools (which has just started to be implemented) has thrust English-language medium instruction into the limelight, but projects involving CLIL-based instruction started in the 1990s, when two new types of high school, the *Liceo Linguistico Europeo* and the *Liceo Classico Europeo* were launched by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research [2]. EU funding and the substantial delegation of control from local education authorities to individual schools laid the foundations for new teaching practices (Langé 2014, 15). The regulatory framework upon which the new *Licei* were based – *Regolamento recante norme in materia di autonomia delle istituzioni scolastiche* (Presidential Decree nr. 275 of 08/03/1999) – has since supported further CLIL experimentation at both secondary and primary school level. In Lombardy, for instance, a widely publicized project was funded in 2000 (http://old.istruzione.lombardia.it/progetti/lingue/aliclil.htm), which involved the introduction of CLIL (also known in Italian as *ALI - Apprendimento Linguistico Integrato* – 'Integrated Language Learning') in both primary and secondary schools, with attendant training programmes and initiatives. In 2007, a report was published on the outcomes of the project (http://www.progettolingue.net/aliclil/wp-content/uploads/2008/07/rapporto-monitoraggio-clil-20075.pdf) highlighting its benefits and generalized appeal for all stakeholders involved.

uniformato grafia date: ok?

Despite these reportedly positive results, CLIL projects remained limited in scope and did not result in increased, albeit voluntary, implementation of CLIL methodology across the curriculum, let alone in the introduction of specific training programmes for teachers, especially for those working in primary and 'middle' (junior secondary) school. However, following the pilot projects, a number of elementary schools in Milan

of these are the ALI-CLIL project (Lombardy, 2001 onwards); *Lingua, Cultura e Scienze in lingua straniera* (Piedmont, 2001-2004); *Progetto Tutor Europeo* (Emilia Romagna, 2003 onwards; *Apprendo in Lingua 2* (Veneto, 2002-2004).

[2] The *Liceo Linguistico Europeo* was first established as a pilot project in 1992/1993 and was aimed at non-state language-focused high schools. The project involved the teaching of at least one curricular subject in a foreign language in the three final years. The *Liceo Classico Europeo* was also established in 1992 and implemented in 17 schools. The pilot added the teaching of two foreign languages throughout the entire curriculum of state classics-based high schools and involved, beside CLIL teaching, special residential programmes for students.

have continued to implement CLIL-based policies, spearheading a small but highly motivated group of teachers/headmasters favouring the early introduction of foreign-medium instruction in education.

The enthusiasm for CLIL notwithstanding (see Crandall 1998; Coonan 2005), teacher training remains an issue (Di Martino and Di Sabato 2012), especially at the lower levels of schooling (Loodbrooke 2008). Training programmes (to be delivered by universities) have been recently designed for high school teachers pursuant to DM 139/11, but all other orders of schooling have been left out, and even though research is starting to address the issue (Aiello, Di Martino, and Di Sabato 2015), it remains unclear what skills (language-related as well as methodology-based) teachers should possess to be put in charge of CLIL projects. In particular, primary education seems to have been especially neglected, not as regards CLIL, but more in general in respect of English teaching, which is no longer entrusted to 'specialised' teachers (i.e., teachers especially appointed to teach English) but rather to teachers of other subjects who have indeed received additional language training [3], thereby becoming qualified to teach English in addition to their regular specialties, but whose primary teaching subject is not English. Moreover, while English has indeed been included for a while among the subjects to be studied by all prospective primary school teachers as part of their academic curriculum, which would seem to offer a solution to the in the near future, not enough appears to be done to encourage the development of skills that can serve as a stepping stone for further more specific training.

In the face of budgetary constraints which cause institutional reluctance to provide suitable training for English teaching (particularly for English Medium Instruction – EMI), English remains a priority in education, at least ideally. But to what extent does this emphasis on English translate into practice – at the level of teacher education and training, and in terms of actual implementation? What competences in English are primary school teachers required to have, and how are they informed or alerted in any way about the challenges and opportunities of teaching in English as a medium of instruction? And where English Medium Instruction is implemented, what competences do teachers entrusted with it possess, and what kind of training do they receive?

inserito qui anche sigla: ok?

In light of the above, this chapter reports on the content and focus of English language courses offered within the framework of MA courses

[3] These additional qualifications are obtained through ad hoc training courses consisting of a limited number of hours of exposure to the language to be taught.

preparing for primary language teaching, with special attention paid to expected outcomes in view of further English teaching and possibly EMI specialisation. The findings are then compared with the results of interviews carried out with teachers involved in a CLIL project implemented in a primary school, with a view to identifying gaps in the academy-practice interface and putting forward tentative proposals to fill them.

2. CLIL in primary education – A growing area of research and implementation

The interest in CLIL has grown exponentially since the turn of the millennium, especially in Europe, where a number of actions were taken by the European Commission to promote multilingualism through a variety of means, which included (though were by no means limited to) CLIL (see Marsh 2012 for an overview). The attractiveness of the CLIL proposition is testified by the exponential increase, during the same years, in both teaching projects involving CLIL and in scholarly research on the topic. The latter has mainly focused on classroom observation, with the primary aim of clarifying the underlying principles of CLIL and identifying best practices; mostly, such research has insisted on the benefits of the approach, with criticisms having been few and far between, often (though not always) only passingly mentioned in broader, generally positive, accounts of CLIL practices (cf. Marsh et al. 2000; Dalton-Puffer 2007; Seikkula-Leino 2007; Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009; Bruton 2011).

Much CLIL-related literature, especially in the early days of CLIL, focused on high-school pupils, with considerably less attention devoted to pre-school and primary school teaching. Soon, however, the potential of CLIL for young learners started to be explored. An early example of research on CLIL in primary schools was reported in Crandall (1998), to be followed a few years later by Kaufman and Crandall (2005). Several other works followed suit (see, amongst others, Serra 2007; Dafouz and Guerrini 2009; Grieveson and Superfine 2012; Yamano 2013; Pladevall-Ballester 2015) as early language learning programmes became established in several countries. In Europe the ProCLIL project was launched in 2006 within the framework of the COMENIUS programme with the aim of investigating the implementation and effectiveness of CLIL as a pedagogical procedure in primary and pre-primary education, and to launch CLIL modules in four countries (Cyprus, Germany, Spain, and Turkey). A report was later published (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou 2011), which provides very interesting insights into the issue, complete with practical suggestions for both teaching and assessment methods.

In order to fully understand the implications of the introduction of CLIL from the early stages of education, it is worth reiterating its underlying principles, which have been variously defined in the literature, but upon which there is fairly widespread consensus. A frequently quoted definition is the following one by Marsh (1994):

senza indicare la pagina della cit.?

> CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focussed aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.

Empirical evidence from existing projects has shown that this ambitious aim is not easily achieved. Indeed, the tension underlying the endeavour is visible in the above-mentioned ProCLIL report (2011), where it is stated that

- educational achievement generally is better where instruction is in the first or stronger language of pupils;
- educational achievement in a second or foreign language is successful where there is well-resourced attention to curriculum structuring and children's development in two languages (L1 and L2) (Kiely 2011, 21).

As this excerpt highlights, choosing a CLIL approach entails potential drawbacks which must be carefully managed if the method is to be successfully implemented. More importantly, it dispels the idea that CLIL may be a solution to all language learning needs, while emphasizing the need for a holistic approach which takes into consideration multiple learning objectives. In the case of young learners (particularly primary school pupils), whose linguistic competences in their first language are still under development, and whose prior knowledge of the topics introduced may be very limited, the difficulties intrinsic to the implementation of CLIL approaches are compounded by the academic sophistication (in relation to the age of the learners) of the contents. Although there appears to be no evidence that CLIL instruction impedes subject-content learning, at least at primary level (cf. Van de Craen et al. 2007; Van de Craen, Ceuleers, and Mondt 2007, with reference to maths), nor that it slows language development in the learners' first language (cf. Bialystok 2004, with reference to bilingual children), the challenge of conveying both language and content instruction to very young learners is undoubtedly considerable and may be expected to require advanced teacher competences in foreign language teaching, besides the obvious subject competences and related language skills.

2.1. *CLIL teachers' competences: needs assessment and pilot training results*

In order to successfully implement CLIL methodologies, therefore, it is vital that suitable training programmes be in place so that prospective teachers are adequately instructed in all the necessary skills. This point is poignantly made by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009, 371) when commenting on the effort required to implement CLIL at primary school level in Spain, a country that invested considerable energy and resources in establishing viable CLIL projects. As the two scholars highlight,

> [i]t is […] necessary to provide future teachers with training not only in the specific subjects but also in the methodology that will allow them to teach these subjects effectively in a foreign language. The different regional educational authorities endeavour to make up for this lack of training among in-service teachers through specific measures, such as methodology courses, language courses in English-speaking countries, or seminars and conferences in which experts participate. However, the future needs of CLIL programmes demand a more planned course of action concerning both teacher formation and in-service teacher support.

This need is acknowledged in the *European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education* published by the European Centre for Modern Languages in 2011, where it is stated that

> teachers undertaking CLIL will need to be prepared to develop multiple types of expertise: among others, in the content subject; in a language; in best practice in teaching and learning; in the integration of the previous three; and, in the integration of CLIL within an educational institution. (Marsh et al. 2011, 5)

Obvious as these considerations may seem, they belie in fact the complexity of the tasks involved in CLIL teaching. The multiple types of expertise required are rarely all mastered by teachers, nor are they easily acquired (see Pavesi 2002; Serragiotto 2008). Moreover, if some demand specific negotiating abilities (see, for instance the last one mentioned in the quote above), or require considerable professional experience and metatheoretical awareness, others – namely, expertise in the content subject and in a language – are in fact essential pre-requisites. Nor is the language component limited to a working knowledge of the language itself. In fact, as Marsh et al. (2011, 221) highlight, CLIL teachers must be able to "support continuous language growth through a repertoire of didactic strategies (e.g., Zone of Proximal Development, error awareness and correction, first language transfer and interference, translanguaging, anti-plateauing strategies and modelling)" which go well beyond the average repertoires deployed in content teaching, and which must be developed with targeted training.

As CLIL approaches have become more popular worldwide, the number of CLIL teacher training courses has increased. In the Anglo-Saxon world, traditional providers of EFL teacher training – ranging from the British Council, which has been actively involved in a number of projects in different countries from their very onset, to many universities and colleges – have broadened their offer to include CLIL-specific options which have met with considerable success. Interestingly enough, existing training programmes differ widely as to the language competences required of the teacher wishing to specialise in CLIL. While advanced competences are often deemed necessary (and in some cases, a C1 certification is mandatory – cf. Schwab-Berger 2015, 12), it is not unusual for training centres to accept would-be CLIL teachers whose level of English is not above B1. There seems, in other words, to be a contradiction between the competences which are deemed desirable and those which are in fact deemed acceptable. This, as we shall see, has serious implications when approaching the implementation phase of CLIL projects.

Training programmes have also been established by educational authorities in several countries. So far, in many of them – Italy being a prime example – teacher training has been effected within the context of pilot studies or special projects, many of which have become models of best practice. Examples of this are the training programmes developed by Gisella Langé (Inspector for Language Teachers) and Lauretta d'Angelo from 2000 onwards in the Lombardy area in Italy. As part of the project, in-service training for teachers of various foreign languages both on site and on line was provided, and two large scale EC-funded projects were run which implemented the CLIL methodologies in a number of primary and lower secondary schools. The project started with face-to-face training, but it soon moved to a web-based platform. The ALI-Clilonline project was designed for both language teachers and subject teachers, and aimed to introduce in-service teachers to online resources suited to the creation of CLIL didactic modules. The first edition of the online course was so successful that two more were organized (with increasing levels of specialisation) at the teachers' request. Over the five-year period during which it was implemented, the project provided training for about 250 in-service teachers (MIUR 2005, 87-88).

ILT: ok Maiusc.?

With the institutionalization of CLIL practices in many countries, however, the need has arisen to move on from experimentation to more permanent forms of education. As a result, educational institutions in these countries are increasingly under pressure to provide prospective teachers with the skills required to carry out their ever more demanding jobs. As CLIL implementation moves from piloting to (ideally at least) mainstream, it becomes necessary to build CLIL education within national teacher training systems. At the forefront of this challenging task are the universities, which, as the main providers of teacher education, must design programmes aimed, in the short term, at teacher re-training and specialization, and, in the medium to long term, at building CLIL training directly into the curriculum – either as an option or as a mandatory component, depending on the extent to which CLIL methodologies are to be integrated in the national school curriculum.

3. Early foreign language education and CLIL in Italy

These issues have recently become particularly pressing in Italy, a country where foreign language proficiency (especially English) is notoriously low. As mentioned above, pilot studies centered on CLIL were implemented starting from the late 1990s, especially in Northern Italy, but previous experimentation can be dated back to 1975/1976 with the ILSSE project (*Insegnamento Lingue Straniere nella Scuola Elementare* – 'Foreign Language Teaching in Primary Schools'). Italy was the first among 'big' European countries to make foreign language education mandatory in primary school. The CLIL approach was given fresh momentum, albeit not in the sphere of early education, in 2010, when the Ministry for Education, University and Research mandated that as of the 2014/2015 school year CLIL-based approaches must be used to teach at least one the subjects in the last year of high school (see MIUR 2010). In 2014 a new initiative – *La Buona Scuola*, or 'The Good School' – was launched (see MIUR 2014a) in **2014a: ok?**
which CLIL was heralded as the harbinger of a new age of learning.

The emphasis on foreign language (especially English) learning as a pillar of modern education is not new. In fact, in Italy English was established as a compulsory subject from year 1 in primary school in 2003 (Law 53/2003). However, since then standard foreign-language teaching has not led, despite expectations, to major improvements in foreign language proficiency. It is probably also as a consequence of the less-than-exciting results of the introduction of early language teaching that new approaches have been sought, not least because of the promising outcomes of the

CLIL projects referred to above (see § 1), which were carried out mainly in Northern Italy starting from the 1990s (Langé 2011). The official website of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (http://www.labuonascuola.gov.it) enthuses about CLIL:

> It is essential that a part of what children learn is conveyed directly in foreign languages, enhancing their learning at primary school. There is a methodology that has been proven to be successful (CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning). Its implementation, which will already be mandatory for the fifth year of secondary and polytechnic schools from next academic year (transitional rules, academic year 2014-2015), should be significantly extended also to primary and junior secondary school. (https://labuonascuola.gov.it/documenti/lbs_web.pdf, 94)

Despite the best of intentions, though, Italian legislation is still sketchy, and state-of-the art data are unavailable. To date, the CLIL methodology has been introduced in primary school on an experimental and voluntary basis and has not as yet been framed in a specific legislation. Furthermore, none of the many regional school offices – *Uffici Scolastici Regionali* – questioned during a quick survey conducted by the authors at the beginning of 2014 academic year to probe the current status of CLIL in the region – were able to provide solid data concerning CLIL penetration percentage. In fact, the *CLIL Ministry Report*, dated March 2014 (reporting on school year 2012/2013), only deals with secondary schools, failing to mention explicitly any of the experimental and pilot projects implemented.

The still sketchy CLIL-related primary school legislation and data have different implications: on the one hand, they have contributed to further fostering CLIL enthusiasm (at least among policy makers), giving supporters of the CLIL methodologies a chance to put CLIL syllabi to the test; on the other hand, they have puzzled many teachers and school administrators, who have often found themselves at a loss for resources and materials (not to speak of competences). The lack of a well-defined strategy seems to be confirmed, albeit empirically, also by the remarks of a sales representative at MacMillan, a publisher that has tried to fill the gap in materials (making available online a certain amount of resources for both primary and secondary school) and has been pro-active in collaborating with the authors of the present chapter:

> I'm not sure exactly how many schools are doing CLIL in Lombardy. From what I have heard speaking with teachers, there are many ways to approach CLIL. Some schools will take a school subject and teach it in English all year, while other schools will organize lessons periodically for a number of different

> subjects. Furthermore, some schools which are supposed to begin teaching CLIL courses have told me that they don't plan on doing it at all this year, as they don't feel ready, or that they lack the necessary resources or that the teachers don't have the linguistic preparation […]. (Casimir Kukielka – MacMillan Sales Representative – Personal communication)

… > […]. ok?

Nonetheless, with the significant exception of many teachers, stakeholders (policymakers, parents and even children) all seem to have great expectations, most of them centred on students improving significantly their foreign language competence – subject knowledge becoming somewhat secondary to this primary aim (cf. Pladevall-Ballestera 2015). Expectations associated with CLIL appear to be fuelled by a widespread dissatisfaction with the outcomes of school-based foreign language learning and a stereotypical view of foreign language lessons as a series of mechanistic grammar drills. CLIL is regularly referred to as an educational environment where naturalistic language learning can take place implying that the best kind of language learning proceeds without formal instruction (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, and Smit 2010, 16).

senza riferimento alle pagine del vol.: ok?

In the official report of one of the most recent and extensive CLIL-based projects in Lombardy, the BEI project (see Cavalieri and Sternieri, this volume), the words of a 3-grader are worth quoting: "If I go on like this, by the time I am 16 I am going to be a bilingual" (Bondi et al. 2014, 12). Generally speaking, students involved in CLIL-based projects are typically aware of the innovative educational context they find themselves in, and most of the times they are proud to be the receivers of a cutting edge methodology; the same can be said for school administrators.

At the other end of the scale, teachers' attitudes, as revealed by qualitative interviews carried out by the authors with practicing teachers, ranges from prudent enthusiasm to criticism, mainly in consideration of two factors: the greater workload a CLIL-based syllabus means for them, and their feeling of inadequacy due to their tendency to be critical in assessing their own language skills. This general impression is confirmed by literature reporting on previous, mostly successful, CLIL experiments conducted in several countries, most notably Spain and Italy. A case in point is that of a Spanish teacher who reported what happened when the English department she worked for decided to pilot a CLIL programme: some of her colleagues referred to it as "science-fiction", even though a syllabus partially taught in Valencian and partly in Spanish had been regularly delivered in their school (Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols 2008, 24). A general feeling of inadequacy and heightened workload is also reported in a number of Italian studies based on pilot projects, including the BEI project mentioned in the introduction to this chapter and discussed by Cavalieri and Sternieri (this volume). In a recent monitoring survey (MIUR 2014b, 29) teachers involved in CLIL secondary school (*Licei Linguistici*) activities put emphasis on the need for extra training and especially focused on methodological and language proficiency.

The BEI report quoted above (Bondi et al. 2014) contains crucial information about the perceived needs of the primary school teachers involved in the project. Among them language courses are short listed, particularly in consideration of the teachers' self-reported general language competences. On the occasion of qualitative interviews with practicing teachers conducted for the purpose of the present research, a sense of incapacity in handling the challenge prevailed – even when enthusiasm was shown – and calls for further language training were voiced with an emphasis on general English rather than on the domain specific features of the language required to teach (which teachers seem not to be aware of). In fact, so consistent appears to be the mention of a need for enhanced language competences in the existing reports on previous projects, that language training cannot but be defined as a key priority for teachers – and as such should also be considered by providers of teacher education.

4. CLIL implementation and required teacher language competences

As highlighted above, therefore, a key pre-requisite for CLIL-based teaching is the possession of adequate language skills. Whatever intensity (see Cummis 2000, 68), length of exposure and specific syllabus organization (see Barbero e Clegg 2005, 56) is chosen for a CLIL-based project, the teachers' language competences are a pivotal factor. But what level of English is deemed necessary for CLIL teachers in Italy?

uniformato grafia dati DM: ok?

According to the Italian Ministry Decree (Decreto Direttoriale) dated 2012 (from DM nr. 249/10 issued on 10/09/2010) C1 English level was supposed to be a prerequisite for secondary school CLIL teachers. One year later, in 2013, the decree operating notes downgraded teachers' language level to B1 (or, in the words of the notes, *assimilabile* – 'equal to', presumably lacking an official certification of the same). This downgrading suggests that, even at secondary school level, teacher language competence is one of the main issues, and policy makers and academia, as well as practicing and prospective teachers, have so far had to make do with the (currently limited) resources they have.

This is a typical problem when educational innovation outpaces teacher education provision. But if the problem is keenly felt among high-school teachers, is even more pressing at primary school level. As CLIL programmes in Italy have expanded from secondary to junior and primary school, the number of teachers with suitable language proficiency (B2) has been found to be extremely limited.

Compounding the problem is the fact that at the moment there appear to be no provision or recommendation as to what language level primary school teachers to be employed in CLIL implementation ought to possess. It is assumed teachers should be confident enough in language use to convey discipline-specific contents. On the one hand, a C1 level requirement might appear to be, in the words of the Italian Ministry for Education, who made the point during a radio interview aired in September 2014 (Radio Due), that the introduction of CLIL at primary school level required highly trained teachers. On that occasion she defined CLIL as a challenge, stressing the importance of appropriate teacher training, and thereby hinting at the possible implementation of specific programmes addressed to all primary school teachers. On the other hand, the most recently published educational targets for prospective school teachers, listed in the Ministry Decree nr. 249 dated 10/09/2010, establish that "teacher training is aimed at qualifying teachers and developing their subject knowledge and their psycho-pedagogical, methodological, and organizational skills", with no mention made of foreign language education, let alone CLIL. It is fair to say that the programming document establishing the prospective introduction of CLIL is subsequent to the decree; nonetheless, the disconnect between current educational objectives and future needs is quite obvious, especially when one considers that the 2010 Decree had the aim completely overhauling the syllabus for primary teacher training.

The 5 year Primary Education Degree (*ciclo unico* – combined BA and MA programme) started in academic year 2011/2012. From a quick survey of Italian 5 year Primary Education Degree RADs (*Regolamento di Autonomia Didattica*, covering the syllabus for each course) it emerges that the standard course organization, following the Ministry guidelines, requires students to study English for a total of 10 ECTS. The *Deans Conference* established that these ECTS should be obtained through 'Laboratory activities', which generally involve a higher number of teaching hours than courses proper. Two extra ECTS are awarded for obtaining a B2 language level qualification. **uniformato minuscole: ok?**

As can be seen, the objectives are quite modest, and hardly sufficient to guarantee a knowledge of English suited to CLIL implementation, though ultimate definitions of 'appropriate' foreign language level don't seem to have been achieved.

Initial data obtained through a survey carried out by one of the authors would appear to suggest that the competences of prospective primary school teachers are indeed fairly low when they begin university, and have only marginally improved after completing the course offered by their institution. The data were obtained by administering a DIALANG test to students enrolled in the Primary Education Degree offered by the University of Aosta, where one of the authors is in charge of English language instruction. Available for fourteen languages, DIALANG is a free-to-use language diagnosis system developed by many European higher education institutions which reports students' competences in reading, writing, listening, grammar and vocabulary against the Common European Framework for language learning. The test was administered to assess the entry level of the 58 students involved. The data – which are only partial, and should therefore be taken with caution – suggest that while about a third of the students tested have B1-level competences (approx. 34%), many are placed below this threshold (over 40%), and only 3% have a C1 language level (*Tab. 1*).

-level: qui con trattino? verificare sempre

The limited size of the sample makes generalizations impossible. However, it does indicate that it is difficult to make assumptions about the starting level English of prospective teachers and, therefore, to envisage an exit level adequate to the demands of CLIL-based teaching.

Table 1. – DIALANG TEST for Primary Education Degree students at University of Aosta (a.y. 2013/2014).

meglio uniformare come sopra (così) la dicitura dell'università?

Language level	Students	%
A1	7	12,07
A2	17	29,31
B1	20	34,48
B2	12	20,69
C1	2	3,45
C2	0	0,00

5. Tentative proposals for primary education teachers

Valle d'Aosta as a single sample cannot, of course, be considered representative, but it prompts further investigation. Research should involve a wider range of Italian universities and an extended language level assessment should be carried out with primary education degree course students, the aim of the investigation being to evaluate the adequacy of universities programmes to meet the needs of CLIL education.

As originally stated by the Italian Prime Minister when presenting CLIL methodology as part of the innovative programme for Italian school system, and as described by practicing teachers involved in CLIL-based projects in primary schools, B2/C1 seems to be the target language level for successful primary school teachers operating in a CLIL environment.

If academia wants to play a role in the CLIL educational scenario, a radical rethinking of primary education degree courses – in terms of university credits, language level entry tests and syllabus – is needed. At the moment, primary education degree course is conceived with a total number of 300 credits distributed over 5 years. Of these, 80 credits focus on educational psychology and teaching methodology, 142 are dedicated to disciplinary subjects, 32 are set aside for special needs, 24 for training and 9 are devoted to the final dissertation. English is listed among the disciplinary subjects with 10 credits allocated. A re-distribution of credits and a tailored lecture/lab ratio would meet language learning needs and at the same time would recognize the very nature of foreign language: a skill rather than a discipline.

Entry tests and language certifications may also be given a greater role than they have at the moment. Setting the entry level at a reasonable standard (at least B1) may enable teachers and administrators to design more effective degree courses with B2/C1 as a realistic target language level for students, while remedial courses might be considered to support underperforming students.

Finally, syllabus revision should be taken into consideration. This would imply, for example, shifting the focus to foreign language teaching methodology for very young learners, as it does not seem to be always included in the present primary education degree course. Ad hoc resources and materials should also be presented to and tested by prospective teachers within their academic training.

Participants in CLIL-based pilot projects and institutional informants both in Lombardy and Valle d'Aosta have repeatedly referred to the need for adequate material for primary school teachers. Meeting this need appears to be the pivot of the question for both prospective and longer-serving teachers, a top priority for academic courses on the one hand, and for professional training courses on the other. In times of budgetary restrictions, with an allocated budget (DM 821/13) of 2,485,000 euro per 18,000 teachers (namely 138 euro per person), providing teachers with ad hoc resources might be the answer for CLIL main stakeholders: students and teachers. Customized materials, tailored to students' age and interests, and designed for non-specialized teachers, would also provide language training for those teachers. At the moment, primary school teachers are involved in CLIL activities on a voluntary basis. User-friendly resources and ready-made materials might result not only in effective foreign language teaching but also in teachers' language improvement, therefore reinforcing their motivation and participation.

bene virgola nei numeri (non punto)? 3x

One of the two authors of the present paper has been appointed member of a board of technical advisors for primary school teachers' CLIL training programmes in Val d'Aosta region. According to her personal experience, materials need to have specific characteristics to underpin successful CLIL teaching. As also exemplified in Tavani (this volume), CLIL materials for Italian teachers do not seem to be adequate for the CLIL methodology challenge.

senza riferimento alle pagine del vol. per unif.

In order to be in line with their didactic purposes, CLIL materials need specific characteristics that may be described using what we can name as the 4 Rs method: CLIL materials need to be reliable, ready-made, readable-through and rewarding. Reliability entails the reputation of the institution and people responsible for quality control processes, and at the same time it involves website stability: teachers need to know they can access the materials when in need. Ready-made materials, possibly supported by audio tracks, are likely to be first chosen on the part of busy teachers who will simply be in charge of reading them through following detailed teachers' notes and providing handouts to students. Eventually, such a structured path will be perceived as rewarding by both actors involved in the educational process: education providers get extra language training, while education receivers get high quality teaching. The 4 Rs are believed to represent guidelines when designing, assembling and circulating resources for CLIL courses, and they are expected to lead to standardization of the above mentioned resources, providing a reliable guide even for the most hesitant teacher and therefore boosting their confidence in class. The 4 Rs could make a whole difference for effective primary school foreign language teaching, compensating for a four-decade history of poor results on the one hand, and for teachers' (usually low) foreign language level on the other hand.

4 Rs: è corretta la grafia? x3

The provision of foreign language skills has proven to be expensive, difficult to monitor, and time consuming to improve on a national scale. Institutions, for their part, still seem vague when it comes to describing the foreign language pre-requisites for educators involved in CLIL projects. Focus on resources might provide a twofold result: more effective CLIL teaching for students and better trained teachers in primary school scenario, a still relatively unexplored area in which we have the opportunity to provide a model of good practice.

6. Conclusions

Foreign languages, and especially English, have been high on the agenda of Italian Education Ministers for over 15 years, and have been deemed essential for academic and professional success for considerably longer, as testified by the flourishing language school market in the country. The most recent school reform, *La Buona Scuola*, recommends that foreign language teaching be effected as much as possible through CLIL based methodologies, which should be deployed not only in high schools (as already mandated in previous legislation, effective from the 2014/2015 school year), but from the very start of primary education.

While the enthusiasm harboured by legislators and, it would appear on the basis of empirical observation, much of the public (though not equally shared by teachers and school principals) may appear excessive, the results of the pilot studies conducted in Italy over the last fifteen years suggest that it is not misplaced, and that indeed there may be much to be gained (not least in terms of students' motivation and active participation) from broadening the experiment. This new deal for primary level foreign language teaching, however, can only be successfully implemented if qualified teachers are found – or existing teachers are (re)trained – in CLIL-specific methodologies.

CLIL- resta il trattino non spaziato?

Up to date CLIL piloting has typically been carried out by volunteer teachers who (ideally) already possessed the required language level (though not the methodological competences). With the upcoming changes which the latest school reform will introduce over the next few years, all teachers will need to be able, at least in principle, to contribute to CLIL-based programmes. This means that they must be provided with the necessary skills and competences prior to their taking up service – i.e., presumably, in the course of their training.

This is where universities have a crucial role to play. University syllabi for prospective primary school teachers must ensure that students receive adequate language instruction as a pre-requisite for CLIL implementation (whether they are going to be CLIL teachers or not: CLIL as a methodology involves the entire teaching team, and it is crucial that all staff participate actively), and that they are given the opportunity to take CLIL methodology courses as electives. This is an ambitious goal, and involves challenges that universities must hasten to address if the fledging school reform is to be successful. Changes in university syllabi, however, take time, and the number of variables involved is very high. While it is to be hoped that strengthening primary school students' foreign language competences will eventually lead to a general improvement that will also impact on the amount of foreign language instruction required at tertiary level, reducing it accordingly, this cannot but be a medium- to long-term goal. In the meantime, suitable strategies must be found to ensure that CLIL teaching is successful. To this end, the availability of suitable ready-made lesson plans is critical. Materials that focus on both content and key (meta)linguistic points should be made available to teachers: in this way the dual goal of CLIL-based teaching – integrating content and language – can be achieved even in less-than-optimal conditions. The special projects funded by some local institutions (such as the BEI project) may be a starting point. It is hoped that these efforts serve as inspiration to maximize the potential of CLIL implementation while making it possible to avoid the pitfalls which have too often beset many laudable initiatives in the past.

References

Aiello, Jacqueline, Emilia Di Martino, and Bruna Di Sabato. 2015. "Preparing Teachers in Italy for CLIL: Reflections on Assessment, Language Proficiency and Willingness to Communicate". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 17 (June): 00-00. **inserire le pp.?**

Barbero, Teresina, e John Clegg. 2005. *Programmare percorsi CLIL*. Roma: Carrocci-Faber.

Bialystok, Ellen. 2004. "The Impact of Bilingualism on Language and Literacy Development". In *The Handbook of Bilingualism*, edited by Tei K. Bhatia and William C. Ritchie, 577-601. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bondi, Marina, Silvia Cavalieri, Ranca Poppi, e Anna Stermieri. 2014. *Il Progetto IBI/BEI nella scuola primaria. Sintesi del Rapporto di Monitoraggio*. http://www.britishcouncil.it/sites/britishcouncil.it/files/final_sntesi.pdf.

Bruton, Anthony. 2011. "Is CLIL So Beneficial, or Just Selective? Re-evaluating Some of the Research". *System* 39: 423-432.

Coonan, Carmel Mary. 2005. "The Natural Learning of a Foreign Language. CLIL as a Possible Partial Solution for the Primary School". *Scuola e Lingue Moderne* XLIII (4-5): 4-11.

Crandall, Jodi. 1998. "The Expanding Role of the Elementary ESL Teacher: Doing More than Teaching Language". *ESL Magazine* 1 (4): 10-14.

Cummis, Jim. 2000. *Language, Power and Pedagogy*. Clavedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dafouz, Emma, and & Michele Guerrini, eds. 2009. *CLIL across Educational Levels: Experiences from Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Contexts*. London: Richmond Santillana.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane. 2007. *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane, Tarja Nikula, and Ute Smit. 2010. *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Di Martino, Emilia, and Bruna Di Sabato. 2012. "CLIL Implementation in Italian Schools: Can Long-serving Teachers Be Retrained Effectively? The Italian Protagonists' Voice". *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning* 5 (2): 73-105.

Grieveson, Margaret, and Wendy Superfine. 2012. *The CLIL Resource Pack: Photocopiable and Interactive Whiteboard Activities for Primary and Lower Secondary Teachers*. United Kingdom: Delta Publishing.

Ioannou-Georgiou, Sophie, and Pavlos Pavlou. 2011. *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education*. Chipre: Nicosia.

verificare dati inseriti

Kaufman, Dorit, and JoAnn Crandall, eds. 2005. *Content-based Instruction in Primary and Secondary School Settings. Case Studies in TESOL Practice Series*. Alexandria (VA): TESOL.

Kiely, Richard. 2011. "CLIL – History and Background". In *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education*, edited by Sophie Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlos Pavlou, 21-33. Chipre: Nicosia.

verificare dati inseriti

Langé, Gisella. 2011. *CLIL in Lombardia, nota informativa*. Milano: Ufficio Scolastico Regionale per la Lombardia Relazioni Internazionali e Lingue Straniere.

Langé, Gisella. 2014. "E-CLIL per una didattica innovativa". *I Quaderni della Ricerca* 18: 13-24.

Lasagabaster, David, and Juan Manuel Sierra. 2009. "Language Attitudes in CLIL and Traditional EFL Classes". *International CLIL Research Journal* 1 (2): 4-17.

Ludbrooke, Geraldine. 2008. "Developing a Performance Test for Italian CLIL Teacher Certification: Examining CLIL Teacher Language". *Studi di Glottodidattica* 4: 150-169.

Marsh, David. 1994. *Bilingual Education & Content and Language Integrated Learning. International Association for Cross-cultural Communication, Language Teaching in the Member States of the European Union (Lingua)*. Paris: Université Paris-Sorbonne.

Marsh, David. 2012. *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). A Development Trajectory*. Córdoba: Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad de Córdoba.

Marsh, David, Peeter Mehisto, Dieter Wolff, and María Jesús Frigols Martín. 2011. *European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages.

Marsh, Herbert W., Kit-Tai Hau, and Chit-Kwong Kong. 2000. "Late Immersion and Language of Instruction in Hong Kong High Schools: Achievement Growth in Language and Non-language Subjects". *Harvard Educational Review* 70: 302-346.

Mehisto, Peeter, David Marsh, and Maria Jesús Frigols, eds. 2008. *Uncovering CLIL*. London: MacMillan.

Educazione (non Istruzione): qui cambia lo scioglimento della sigla?

Ministero dell'Educazione, dell'Università e della Ricerca – MIUR –, Dipartimento dell'Educazione Direzione Generale degli Affari Internazionali dell'Istruzione Scolastica Ufficio Scolastico Regionale per la Lombardia. 2005. *Language Education Policy Profile – Regional Report Lombardy*. [31/10/2015]. https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Lombardyregional%20report_EN.pdf.

Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca – MIUR. 2010. *Il Regolamento dei Licei*. [31/10/2015]. http://archivio.pubblica.istruzione.it/riforma_superiori/nuovesuperiori/index.html.

Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca – MIUR. 2014a. *La Buona Scuola*. [31/10/2015]. https://labuonascuola.gov.it/documenti/La%20Buona%20Scuola.pdf.

Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca – MIUR. 2014b. *DG Ordinamenti scolastici per l'Autonomia scolastica. Gruppo di Lavoro Monitoraggio introduzione della metodologia CLIL nei Licei*. [31/10/2015]. http://www.istruzione.it/allegati/2014/CLIL_Rapporto_050314.pdf.

Pavesi, Maria. 2002. "Per una didattica naturale: strategie discorsivi nell'insegnamento integrato di lingue e contenuti". In *Lingue straniere veicolo di apprendimento*, a cura di Fabrizio Maggi, Cristina Mariotti, e Maria Pavesi, 47-63. Pavia: Ibis.

Pladevall-Ballestera, Elisabet. 2015. "Exploring Primary School CLIL Perceptions in Catalonia: Students', Teachers' and Parents' Opinions and Expectations". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 18 (1): 45-59.

Schwab-Berger, Susanna Rosmarie. 2015. *Teachers' Perceptions of the Implementation of a Multilingual Approach to Language Teaching*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. http://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1762&context=dissertations. **Doctoral > PhD?**

Seikkula-Leino, Jaana. 2007. "CLIL Learning: Achievement Levels and Affective Factors". *Language and Education* 21 (4): 328-341.

Serra, Cecilia. 2007. "Assessing CLIL at Primary School: A Longitudinal Study". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 10 (5): 582-602.

Serragiotto, Graziano. 2008. "La certificazione metodologica dell'insegnante CLIL". In *CLIL e l'apprendimento delle lingue. Le sfide del nuovo ambiente di apprendimento*, a cura di Carmel Mary Coonan, 275-284. Venezia: Libreria Editrice Cafoscarina.

Van de Craen, Piet, Evy Ceuleers, and Katrien Mondt. 2007. "Cognitive Development and Bilingualism in Primary Schools: Teaching Maths in a CLIL Environment". In *Diverse Contexts – Converging Goals. CLIL in Europe*, edited by David Marsh and Dieter Wolff, 185-200. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Van de Craen, Piet, Katja Lochtman, Evy Ceuleers, Katrien Mondt, and Laure Allain. 2007. "An Interdisciplinary Approach to CLIL Learning in Primary Schools in Brussels". In *Empirical Perspectives on CLIL Classroom Discourse*, edited by Christiane Dalton-Puffer and Ute Smit, 253-274. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Van de Craen, Piet, Katrien Mondt, Laure Allain, and Ying Gao. 2007. "Why and How CLIL Works. An Outline for a CLIL Theory". In *Current Research on CLIL* (Special Issue). *Vienna English Working Papers* 16 (3): 70-78. **verificare dati**

Yamano, Yuki. 2013. "CLIL in a Japanese Primary School: Exploring the Potential of CLIL in a Japanese EFL Context". *International CLIL Research Journal* 2 (1): 19-30. http://www.icrj.eu/21/article2.html.

The BEI-IBI Project: A Study on the Best Practices in Integrating Language and Content Learning in Primary Schools

Silvia Cavalieri - Anna Stermieri

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-cava

si prega di inserire almeno 2 keywords

Keywords: ....

1. Introduction

verificare la numerazione dei paragrafi

The rapid spread of globalization, multilingual and multicultural encounters has made an early approach to second language acquisition increasingly important. The Italian education system has been responding to this need by developing different projects and by offering bilingual education programmes even before the coming into force of the Ministerial Decree in 2010 [1] (Coonan 2002; Lucietto and Rasom 2011) Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is aimed at students aged 17-18, thus leaving aside earlier stages of education. A potential solution to filling this gap is represented by the BEI-IBI project, a pilot project developed by the Italian Ministry of Education, the British Council Italy and the USR Lombardia (the Regional Education Office of Lombardy) on the basis of a project implemented in Spain in 1996 (Dobson et al. 2010). The BEI-IBI (Bilingual Education Italy – Insegnamento Bilingue Italia) project involved 6 classes in 6 primary schools across Lombardy, for a period of 5 scholastic years between 2010 and 2015. The project entailed the teaching of three subjects (i.e. Science, Geography, Art) to be delivered in English, which

project: uniformato minusc. nel discorso: ok?

---

[1] DM nr. 249 art. 2 comma 4a: http://www.miur.it/Documenti/universita/Offerta_formativa/Formazione_iniziale_insegnanti_corsi_uni/DM_10_092010_n.249.pdf [10/11/2014].

was also to be the language for class interaction, to provide a fully immersive educational environment. This chapter aims at presenting the data collected during a monitoring activity on the project completed between January and April 2014 (Bondi et al. 2014) and to discuss the best practices to be followed in order to promote bilingual education in early stages of learning beyond the span of this pilot project. We will first introduce the BEI-IBI project and the different policies for multilingual education implemented at European level, both in terms of communitarian language policies and of bilingual education projects across Europe. We will then describe the methodologies which have guided the monitoring activity, presenting the subjects involved, the developmental steps of the study, and the analytical tools used in the investigation. Results will focus on motivations, concerns and on the various perspectives emerging from the contributions of the parties involved (i.e. parents, children and teachers). Our conclusions aim at reconciling the outcomes of the monitoring activity with the suggestions for future development of the project arising from the study.

1.1. *The BEI-IBI project: an overview*

The BEI-IBI project is a pilot project for bilingual education in primary schools enacted by the Italian Ministry of Education, the USR Lombardia and the British Council Italy [2]. The project involves 6 schools in Lombardy selected from among 42 schools that had applied:

- Istituto Comprensivo Como Lora-Lipomo (Como);
- Istituto Comprensivo Fermi (Villasanta, Monza Brianza);
- Istituto Comprensivo Ciresola (Milano);
- Istituto Comprensivo Diaz (Milano);
- Istituto Comprensivo via Cialdini Meda (Meda, Monza Brianza);
- Istituto Comprensivo Copernico (Corsico, Milano).

The BEI-IBI project was devised so as to cover a time span of 5 scholastic years, from 2010/2011 to 2014/2015, in order to guarantee continuity for the entire five-years of primary school for children beginning bilingual education in the first year.

[2] *Protocollo d'Intesa tra l'Ufficio Scolastico Regionale per la Lombardia, il Ministero dell'Istruzione, Università e Ricerca - Direzione Generale per gli Ordinamenti e per l'Autonomia Scolastica, e British Council, Italia, in relazione ad un progetto pilota per l'insegnamento bilingue (25/02/2010).* [10/11/2014]. http://hubmiur.pubblica.istruzione.it/alfresco/d/d/workspace/SpacesStore/1a0bd00b-e20a-407d-8ed2-996ceb052d03/protocollo_di_intesa_bei.pdf.

The core principle guiding the educational framework of the project was that 25% of the curriculum was to be taught in English, with at least two non-linguistic subjects to be selected from Art, Geography and Science in addition to English Language Literacy, which was already part of the traditional curriculum. The subjects taught in English ranged from 6 to 7 hours of bilingual education per week, thus engaging the children in an immersive learning environment. This ambitious project required teachers to have a mastery of English at least to level B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages of the Council of Europe.

2. Plurilingualism and multilingualism: the European context

2.1. *Language policies in the European Union: an overview*

ok virgolette doppie = cit.?

The European Union is founded on the belief of the importance of being "united in diversity", and multingualism is seen as a core aspect of European development. The centrality of issues of multilingualism to the European context is further confirmed by the relevance they were given in both the core functional treaties of the Union, i.e. the *Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union* (Rome, 1957 and further modified in Lisbon 2009) and the *Maastricht Treaty* (*Treaty on European Union* or TEU, 1992). Both treaties give prominence to the role of the EU in "supporting and supplementing action by the Member States aimed at developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States [Article 165(2)], while fully respecting cultural and linguistic diversity [Article 165(1)]" [3].

In particular, the policies of the EU point towards the so-called 'Mother Tongue+2' objective, presented in the European commission's *White Paper on Teaching and Learning, Towards the Learning Society* (1995) and further expanded in the European Commission's communication to the Council *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan* (2003). This principle strongly supports the mastery, by every European citizen, of two languages in addition to their mother tongue. Importantly, to achieve this objective, children are to be taught two for-

[3] http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.13.6.html [10/11/2014].

eign languages at school from an early age (Ruiz de Zarobe 2008, cf. also Egger and Lechner 2012).

EU Member States have thus been encouraged to take on educational programmes which would respond to this need for widespread linguistic proficiency in more than one language, and CLIL methodologies seem to be the most widespread ones. CLIL methodologies are considered a "flexible system which responds to a very wide range of situational and contextual demands" (Coyle 2005, 23). In the next section, an overview of the different educational approaches to multilingualism which have been developed and implemented across Europe will be provided, and each approach will be discussed in relation to the pilot project that is the object of our study.

2.2. *Educational approaches to multilingualism*

A wide variety of educational approaches has been developed in order to meet the requirements of the 'Mother Tongue+2' objective in schools across Europe. The most famous is probably CLIL, but also immersive and bilingual language programmes have contributed significantly to increasing language knowledge and awareness by engaging students from an early stage of their education.

2.2.1. CLIL: content and language integrated learning

The widespread incorporation of CLIL in curricula pertaining to different educational systems can be ascribed to its qualities of flexibility and transferability across countries, continents and type of schools (Coyle et al. 2010). CLIL has been variously defined: Coyle et al. (2010, 1) claim that CLIL is a "dual-focused educational approach" constantly balancing attention on content and language, without systematically privileging one over the other. They argue for the role of CLIL as "an alternative approach for using language to learn" (ibid., 35) and highlight how "using language to learn is as important as learning to use language" (ibidem).

The main characteristic of CLIL programmes is that they are part of the school's curriculum and coexist with traditional education. In this kind of pedagogical approach, up to 50% of the subjects are taught in a foreign language, while the rest of the curriculum is taught in the pupils' mother tongue. Additional foreign language education is also offered, so as to support the pupils' language proficiency (Elsner and Keßler 2013, 2).

Among the strengths of CLIL approaches, Ruiz de Zarobe mentions the fact that they create conditions for naturalistic language learning, thus also improving communicative competence (2008; cf. also Met 1998; Marsh and Langé 1999; Marsh and Marshland 1999). Moreover, she highlights that such approaches involve the learner in using the language of learning for learning and through learning (see also Coyle 2000; Coyle et al. 2010, 36-37). Moreover, she points out how CLIL approaches increase students' and teachers' motivation and interest levels (Grabe and Stoller 1997; Pavesi et al. 2001) by diversifying methods and forms of classroom teaching and learning.

2.2.2. Immersion programmes

Immersion programs were first introduced in Canada in the early 1960s, and were aimed at an early contact of English speaking children with the French language. Cummins (1998, 34) lists three main types of such programmes: "early immersion starting in kindergarten or occasionally grade 1; middle immersion starting in grades 4 or 5; and late immersion starting in grade 7". He states that these programmes are all "characterized by at least 50% instruction through the target language (French) in the early stages [...]" and that "By grades 5 and 6 the instructional time is divided equally between the two languages and usually the amount of time through French declines to about 40% in grades 7, 8 and 9 with further reduction at the high school level as a result of a greater variety of course offerings in English than in French" (ibidem). Such programmes are thus quite different from CLIL ones, and involve a higher percentage of target language instruction than the BEI-IBI project. Nonetheless, they are similar to the BEI-IBI project in terms of their objective, i.e. to achieve a 'language bath', making the children thoroughly experience an immersive environment. In fact, the BEI-IBI project largely fulfils the requirements for immersive programs outlined by Johnson and Swain (1997) and quoted in Cummins (1998, 35):

opp. iniziali minuscole + punto e virgola finale negli items? (vd. Avvertenze)

1. The L2 is a medium of instruction.
2. The immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum.
3. Overt support exists for the L1.
4. The program aims for additive bilingualism.
5. Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom.
6. Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency.
7. The teachers are bilingual;.
8. The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community.

Following the Canadian experience, and on the basis of the Canadian model, other immersive programmes have been developed also in Europe, for example in Finland. Finnish schools started to propose Swedish immersion programs in the early 1990s as an answer to the increasing demand for bilingual education from bilingual families who raised their children teaching them both Swedish and Finnish (Bjorklund 1997, 86). Similarly to Canada, the bilingualism characterising the community was the main reason that boosted the development of such educational initiatives. Not surprisingly, even before that, immersive educational programmes were developed in another bilingual region, i.e. Cataluña in Spain. In Cataluña, since the promulgation of the *Statute of Self-Government* in 1978, children have had to master both Spanish and Catalan, as the two languages have been attributed equal status. Immersive education became part of the curriculum in 1983, when a school in the industrialized area around Barcelona adopted such an educational approach. This area was specifically targeted, as it hosted a great number of Spanish speaking children whose parents emigrated there from other areas of the country looking for employment (Artigal 1997, 134).

The most evident difference between the immersive programmes described above – set in bilingual contexts – and the BEI-IBI project is the fact that the project was not developed as a consequence of a situation where the two languages used in education coexist in children's everyday life. In the next section we will discuss experiences of bilingual education emerging from a linguistic situation similar to the BEI-IBI one.

2.3. *Bilingual education in Europe: Bilingual Education Project Spain*

Besides immersive programmes in the Catalan region, in Spain another important multilingual educational experience was introduced, namely, the BEP (Bilingual Education Project Spain). The BEP was developed in Spain by means of an agreement between the Ministry of Education and Science and the British Council in 1996. The aim of the BEP was to introduce an integrated curriculum in Spanish state schools, and in particular it set out to provide bilingual education in 43 state schools, involving a total of about 1200 pupils. Since 1996 bilingual education has been introduced at every level of education from age 3 through 16 in the schools involved in the BEP.

The aims of the BEP were a promotion of the acquisition and learning of both English and Spanish through an integrated content-based curriculum, while encouraging awareness of the diversity of both cultures.

Moreover, the BEP was meant to facilitate the exchange of teachers and children as well as to encourage the use of modern technologies in learning other languages. Where appropriate, the BEP envisaged to promote the certification of studies under both educational systems (Dobson et al. 2010, 12). Among the innovative elements of the BEP it is important to mention that it was meant to operate in state schools and not in private or fee-paying schools, and that it was based on a whole-school approach, in order to ensure that all children had the same range of opportunities, regardless of socio-economic factors or other circumstances. A significant amount of curricular time was allocated to the additional language (i.e. English), roughly equivalent to 40% of each week at school, allowing pupils to learn a number of subjects through English, such as Science, History and Geography, thus diverging from immersive programmes providing more than 50% of instruction in the target language. From the beginning, there was agreement with the associated secondary schools that when the BEP pupils entered secondary education, they would continue to receive bilingual instruction. The BEP was clearly what inspired the BEI-IBI project, but substantial differences exist between the two projects, as this analysis will point out.

In order to introduce Italian actors to the practices of the experience, a delegation of Italian teachers was invited to visit Spanish bilingual schools (8-12 March, 2010), where they attended a week-long training course. Subsequently, a group of headmasters visited the same schools (26-28 April, 2010) and were able to come into contact with the guidelines already established by their Spanish counterparts. Among the differences between the two experiences it is important to note that in the Italian context, bilingual education is limited to a smaller number of schools and that the experience will be officially concluded at the end of the five years of primary school of the pilot classes.

qui cambia la grafia (non BEI-IBI)?

3. The IBI\BEI monitoring research: methodological remarks

3.1. *The monitoring team*

The monitoring team included two professors of English from the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia and two young researchers from the same university, who have been in charge of field research, data collection and data elaboration. Moreover, the team included a representative of the Italian Ministry of Education and a representative of the British Council Italy, who provided feedback and supervision.

3.1.1. Developmental stages and aims of the monitoring activity

The project was completed between January and April 2014, following different steps. To begin with, the UNIMORE research team developed a questionnaire on the basis of the one designed by the Ministry of Education targeted at CLIL teachers in Italian secondary schools. Secondly, a preliminary meeting with the teachers in charge of the project in the 6 schools was organized, so as to validate the questionnaire, which was subsequently implemented by the Ministry of Education and administered to the 46 teachers who were the focus of the study via the web-based platform SurveyMonkey. Thirdly, interviews were carried out by the UNIMORE research team with the 6 headmasters before proceeding to analyse the data provided by the questionnaire. Data gathering also included focus groups involving teachers, pupils and parents. The focus groups were conducted as semi-structured interviews by the members of the UNIMORE research team, following a set of questions aimed at raising debate among the participants. The last step of the monitoring activity was directed at testing pupils language competence by means of the completion of a task, to be administered by their teachers. The tasks were homogenous for the 6 schools and were aimed at testing both spoken and written abilities. The UNIMORE research team, under the supervision of both the Ministry and of the British Council Italy completed the activity by drafting both a synthetic final report and an extended final report. In *Table 1* the tools mentioned above are listed, together with the subjects involved at each stage of the research activity.

Table 1. – Tools for data collection.

Online questionnaire	46 teachers
Semi-structured interviews & focus groups	6 headmasters 38 parents 17 teachers 46 pupils
Spoken task	60 pupils (10/school)
Written task	120 pupils (20/school)

The online questionnaire was designed to explore teachers' motivation, practices of curriculum and materials design and strategies for implementing bilingual education. Moreover, teachers' training needs and the impact of the BEI-IBI experience on both school and community were assessed. Semi-structured interviews and focus groups were aimed at unveiling motivation, attitudes, drawbacks and expectations of the subjects involved. The tasks, both spoken and written, consisted of a structured picture description. The pictures provided were meant as stimuli for content communication in the foreign language, so as to test both content knowledge and language proficiency. The aim of the monitoring activity was to provide a comprehensive overview of the outcomes of the project so far, taking into account the manifold perspectives of the subjects involved, i.e. pupils, parents and teachers. Specifically, the monitoring activity was targeted at exploring their motivation and attitude towards bilingual education, focussing on best practices in teaching and on the integrated competence acquired by pupils through bilingual education. Moreover, the research sets out to suggest best practices and guidelines to implement similar bilingual education projects in primary schools beyond the limitations of the pilot experience.

3.2. *Online questionnaire results: focus on the teachers*

In the following sections we are going to summarize some of the most relevant outcomes of the questionnaire, which was completed by 46 teachers. Our focus will be in particular on the 'prototypical' teacher's profile emerging from the answers we received.

3.2.1. The BEI-IBI teacher: a profile

To begin with, it is interesting to trace a profile of the teachers involved in the pilot project. They appear to be experienced professionals with an average age ranging from 46 to 55 (46% of the respondents) and a seniority ranging, in average, from 21 to 30 years (24%). They have taught in the same classes with a certain degree of continuity during the four years of the project (67%). The majority of them holds a Master's degree (54%), of which 20% in Foreign Languages. International certifications of language proficiency are quite common, with 76% of the teachers claiming to have one. The minimum required level of proficiency for the teachers as established by the Ministry of

Education is B2 [4]. However, only 38% of the teachers possesses a B2 certification, while another 38% possesses a certification for the B1 level. Higher levels of language proficiency are certified for a lower percentage of the teachers, with both levels C1 and C2 accounting for just 12% of the respondents.

3.2.2. Resources and materials

BEI-IBI teachers have been asked to describe the resources and materials available in their schools for them to use in their everyday activities. Interestingly, a central role in the project is played by the classroom itself, considered more than just a room, but rather a comprehensive learning environment. Across the six schools the situation differs according to space availability and number of children involved, but teachers have stated that either a lab or a special classroom are dedicated to BEI-IBI instruction or, in some cases, the classroom is set up to become the core of the immersive learning experience. For example, posters and flash cards are hung on the classroom walls to form a permanent learning support. Interestingly, 50% of the teachers claimed to have increased their use of visual supports in order to create an immersive environment. In addition, IT technologies play a key role in the class: the interactive whiteboard is extensively exploited, granting valuable access to multimedia resources (e.g. slideshow presentations, audio files, online teaching resources).

The immersive environment is further reinforced by the presence of the mother tongue language assistant, who is present in the classroom 12 hours per week. It is important to signal that only 2 schools out of the 6 involved have been assigned a language assistant from the Ministry. As a consequence, in order to offer the same learning opportunity to their students, other schools have asked for the collaboration of English speaking parents, Comenius exchange trainees and non-profit organizations promoting language learning.

3.2.3. Teachers instructional design and mode of implementation

In order to investigate the practices of instructional design and of the implementation of the bilingual education framework, teachers were requested to provide information on curriculum and materials design, as well as on preferred classroom activities. As far as curriculum design is

[4] DM nr. 249 art. 2 comma 4a: http://www.miur.it/Documenti/universita/Offerta_formativa/Formazione_iniziale_insegnanti_corsi_uni/DM_10_092010_n.249.pdf [10/11/2014]

concerned, they claimed that a significant portion of it was carried out within the individual school (59% of the interviewees), by means of local meetings that saw the participation of the various teachers involved in the BEI-IBI team. Only 14% of the teachers stated that curriculum design was usually accomplished in the context of general meetings, organized by the USR Lombardia. Materials development emerged as one of the major challenges they faced, as no textbooks are available for this kind of programme. Therefore, they are compelled to find alternatives in order to convey the disciplinary content pertaining to their specific subject.

The questionnaire shed light on the creative process, highlighting different possibilities, which were not mutually exclusive. *Figure 1*, below, shows how in the majority of cases, teachers personally develop original materials, in order to fit the school curriculum (25%). At the same time, 23% of teachers claimed that they are sometimes able to adapt existing resources to their needs, thus reducing the workload of lesson planning. Materials development in the context of the BEI-IBI school team, either from scratch or by adapting pre-existing resources, seems to be less frequent (18% in both cases). Teachers seem to benefit from materials developed by the Regional project group (again, both in terms of original and adapted materials) to a limited extent (7% in both cases). Interestingly, only 2% of the teachers report having been able to use materials provided by colleagues from other schools involved in the project, thus suggesting a low level of networking. This datum was then discussed in the focus groups with the teachers, who mentioned, among the reasons for this low rate of cooperation, two main factors: first, a widespread reluctance to share materials with little likelihood that others will be eager to reciprocate, thus feelings of 'exploitation' and, secondly, the fact that the web-based platform that was made available was not working properly, which discouraged its use.

In class, teachers had the opportunity of collaborating with a mother tongue language assistant, either recruited from the Ministry of Education or, when not possible, by the school itself. Teachers indicated that the presence of the mother tongue language assistant was a significant contribution to the implementation of the project, and the majority of them reported close collaboration and support of the language assistant.

There seems to be a tendency to favour modes of teaching aimed at directly engaging the pupils. Teachers claim to focus on oral language skills, foregrounding listening activities and interaction. *Figure 2*, below, depicts the range of activities teachers implement in their everyday classroom routines. The data confirm that activities based on oral skills have a prominent role in bilingual education.

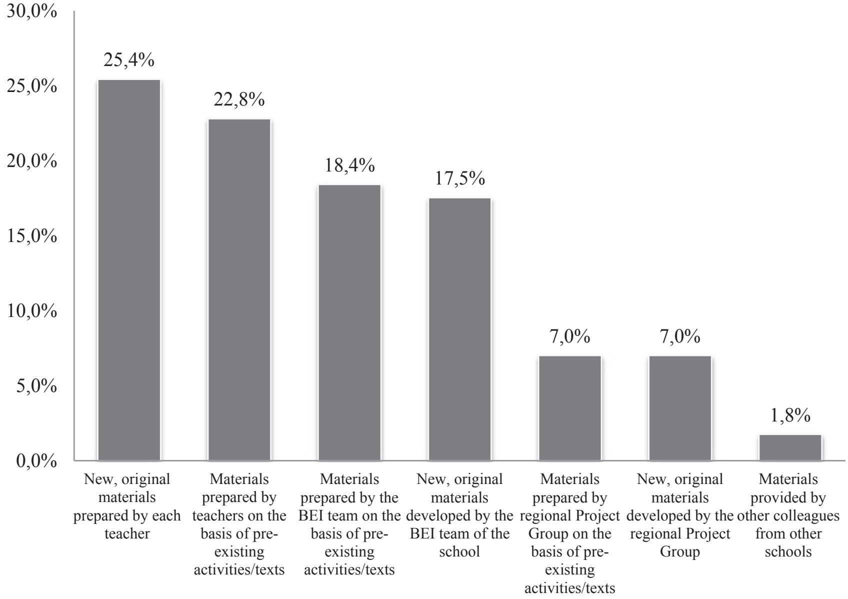


Figure 1. – Teaching materials production and design.

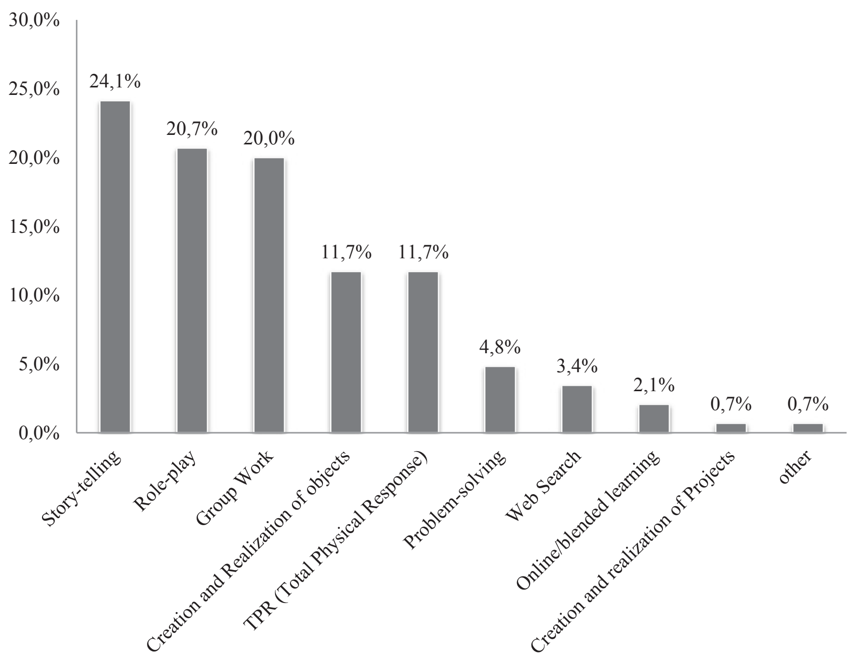


Figure 2. – Modes of teaching and learning.

Storytelling seems to be the most widely used mode of teaching (24.1%), while role-play and group-work represent jointly the second most popular category of activities, and attest to the great importance of interaction in a bilingual education context. Children are thus personally engaged in the cooperative construction of disciplinary knowledge, while at the same time practicing the language. Pupil involvement in the classroom is realized not only by means of spoken interaction but also by asking them to realize objects and small craftworks (11.7%) or to take part in activities based on TPR (Total Physical Response) (11.7%). TPR activities are led by the teacher that associates words with movements the children are asked to reproduce. With reference to this, it is important to mention the *Jolly Phonics* method for teaching the sounds of the English language [5]. This method associates a movement to each of the 42 sounds of the English alphabet. *Jolly Phonics* is used in particular with children in their first and second year of school, while it is less common in further educational stages.

Computer-based tasks are not frequently part of classroom activity, as some schools do not have either the equipment or the space to do so on a regular basis. Nonetheless, technology is an important part of this pilot project, as teachers make extensive use (where possible) of interactive whiteboards, which can provide a full multimedia support.

3.2.4. Teachers training

Both already existing activities aimed at training teachers in BEI-IBI teaching methodologies and perceived needs expressed by the interviewees in the questionnaire were investigated in the study. Teachers reported that an introductory training course (lasting 6 to 4 days) was offered by the USR Lombardia, in collaboration with the British Council Italy, at the very beginning of the project in April 2010. This course included both in-presence and online based activities. An important part of this course was the introduction to the *Jolly Phonics* method. The British Council Italy also organizes annual seminars, usually lasting 2 days in June and in September, and an expert from the British Council regularly visits the schools, holding a one-day workshop twice a year in each school. Language training has been provided by some schools to their teachers, but seems not to have been part of a more comprehensive initiative. Interestingly, language

[5] Further information available at: http://www.jollylearning.co.uk/overview-about-jolly-phonics/.

training is one of the most requested of the envisaged training activities (as shown below in *Fig. 3*), with 19% of the interviewees expressing a preference for this kind of support.

The only training activities receiving more preferences than language training were workshops focusing on interaction and providing classroom-ready materials that the teachers could actually use in their everyday teaching (24%). The centrality of interaction and in-person engagement is also further confirmed by a widespread interest in job-shadowing experiences, possibly to be held in English speaking countries (17%). Specific training for newly recruited teachers was only mentioned by a small portion of the interviewees (6%). This datum might be interpreted in relation to the stability of teachers who have been known to work with the same classes for long periods.

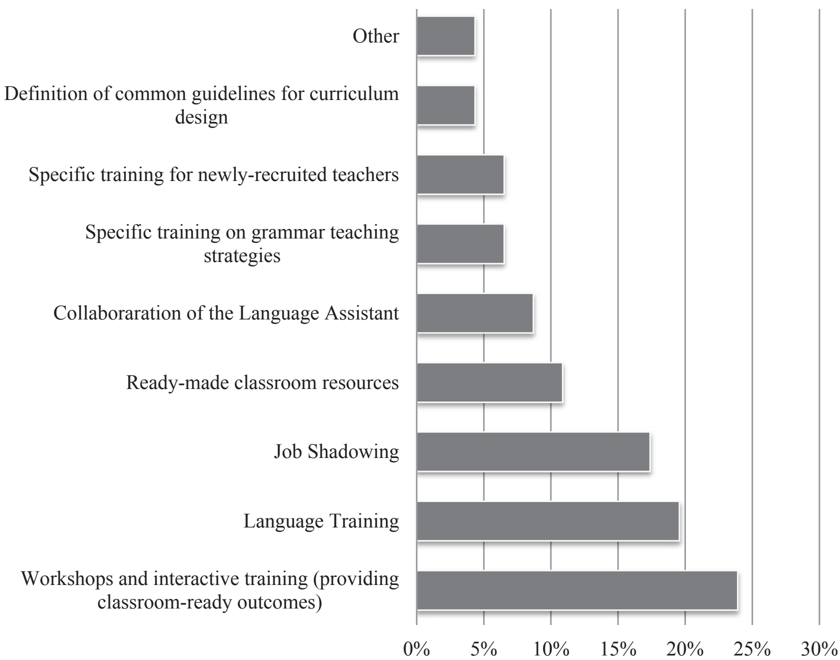


Figure 3. – Envisaged training activities.

3.3. *Focus groups and interviews: concerns and motivations for joining the project*

This section discusses the outcomes of the semi-structured interviews that revealed the perspective of the different parties involved in the project (e.g. pupils, parents, teachers and headmasters). Specifically, it reports on their motivations for joining the project and on their concerns about it.

3.3.1. Concerns about the BEI-IBI project

All the participants in the study expressed their personal concerns with respect to the project, according to their own degree of involvement. Pupils said that their initial concerns lay mainly with an increased study load and with a possible increased difficulty in learning a subject in a different language. The latter concern was also expressed by the parents, who also claimed to fear a limited knowledge of both disciplinary content and vocabulary in Italian and a limited ability to discuss disciplinary topics in Italian. Parents with basic to no knowledge of English were also worried about not being able to help their children studying and doing homework. A second concern parents voiced was connected to Italian teachers using English in class: many feared that children might acquire incorrect pronunciation due to the influence of the teachers' non-native accent. Over the years, moreover, parents complained about the lack of a consistent approach towards grammar teaching, and that children were not taught a systematic study method, being thus potentially penalized in the following stages of their education. In addition, a lack of official textbooks was considered odd by the parents, who envisaged a clearer study reference for their children.

Teachers focussed on their difficulties with school colleagues working outside the project: they state that it may be advisable to raise awareness about the relevance of the project among the entire school staff, possibly in the context of a broader reflection on innovation and evaluation of educational experiences. Nonetheless, some pointed out a possible loss in the status of the traditional methodology brought about by such an immersive project as the BEI-IBI one.

3.3.2. Joining the BEI-IBI project: motivations

All the actors involved in the project seemed to share a positive opinion on the project, in terms of the advantages brought by early contact with L2.

Families were strongly motivated in that they saw the project as an opportunity for their children to begin learning a second language at an early age, thus acquiring a more open-minded perspective on the world. Teachers highlighted the benefits of putting children in contact with L2 at an early age and in particular the benefits of an innovative teaching and learning methodology, such as the immersive environment that characterizes the BEI-IBI project. On the other hand, headmasters widened the scope of the outcomes of the project to include local communities. In fact, the BEI-IBI project, promoting the use of English as a *Lingua Franca*, enabled schools located in suburbs or in difficult neighbourhoods to achieve greater integration of children with different linguistic backgrounds. The project helped to raise empathy among children with different nationalities, cultures and mother tongues, increasing equal learning opportunities, increasing schools' prestige, with a positive influence on the schools' surrounding areas as well.

Teachers highlighted aspects of personal and professional improvement, since the BEI-IBI experience has been perceived as a positive challenge by many and, interestingly, also by those who were approaching retirement when the project started. There seems to be a widespread sense among the teachers of feeling personally enriched and professionally empowered by the opportunity to take part in the project.

3.3.3. Pupils' perspective

The discussion with the children showed their extraordinary motivation and ability to clearly identify examples of acquired skills and of classroom activities. Children are aware of being part of a pilot project and are excited about this experience with English: they claimed they felt "lucky and privileged". During the study, pupils have been asked to describe the activities they do in class and they have demonstrated their ability to report on their everyday classroom experiences in Italian with no apparent lack of mastery of the disciplinary content and vocabulary and expressing themselves with ease in both languages. Moreover, they showed appreciation for the opportunity to share acquired skills during the focus groups, autonomously deciding to sing songs learned in class or to show the researcher their notebooks, drawings and materials.

Children reported various memorable and satisfactory activities for each discipline. Their answers highlighted their appreciation of practical activities such as experiments, group work, poster preparation, songs, drawing, interactive activities in general and multimedia presentations (typically used in the context of Sciences, Geography and Arts teaching). They also liked more language-oriented tasks, frequent in the context of Literacy teaching, such as storytelling, reading, grammar learning (which is perceived as useful for "constructing sentences"), together with the use of interactive methods such as 'matching cards'. Children (as well as their parents) confirmed that they generally do their homework alone, and only ask parents "who speak English" for help when they find it difficult. They claim to browse the Web and in use new technologies (e.g. tablets) autonomously, in the main using such tools to check the meaning of new words, even though traditional study tools (e.g. dictionaries) are also used.

qui virgolette singole?

4. Summing up

In general, the attitude of the parents towards the project is extremely positive and any concerns are largely balanced by the encouraging results obtained by the children. Teachers, headmasters and parents (many of whom were able to compare the IBI-BEI experience with that of their older children in traditional education) confirmed that knowledge of disciplinary content and mastering of the mother tongue were not affected by the early and intensive exposure to L2. The main concern expressed by all teachers, pupils, parents and headmasters lies with the future of the children in the transition to junior high school, as a lack of continuity in the use of the language may lead them to a regression. Moreover, the traditional teaching methodologies children might encounter in further educational stages may lead to a loss of interest on the part of pupils used to the BEI-IBI teaching approach. In general, the need to define guidelines for the transition to higher stages of education was highlighted by all the parties.

qui IBI-BEI (non BEI-IBI)?

4.1. *Educational outcomes*

A written and spoken task were submitted to the children. In both cases, children were shown a picture and asked to describe it by means of a guided, semi-structured set of questions (see Appendixes 1 and 2).

The investigation of the links between our results and the previous studies focussing on interlanguage and second language acquisition in children (cf. Selinker et al. 1975) goes beyond the scope of the present chapter. Further research will shed light on the acquisition processes emerging from the data collected during this study.

4.1.1. Written task: strengths and weaknesses

The analysis of the tasks has shown that children are able to provide simple and direct information adding some notes of personal characterization. Any formal errors do not affect the clarity of the message, putting the pupils' language proficiency as level A2 CEFR (Basic/Waystage). Furthermore, pupils tend to use visual aids not for decorative purposes, but to better illustrate their point in answering the question, with the intent to summarize or to exemplify. *Figure 4* shows this process in action: the child, in order to demonstrate her knowledge of the morphology of the volcano, has drawn the volcano itself, with arrows connecting the names of the different parts to the drawing. Moreover, before listing the various types of volcanoes she knows, she draws them so as to better reinforce her argument and provide evidence for her claims. In the end, she describes the different animals and vegetation that characterise the volcano, distinguishing different zones both in writing and in drawing.

A certain degree of linguistic creativity emerges from the written tasks, specifically in the creation of words such as 'versant' for the Italian *versante*. Nonetheless, all pupils (including the less proficient ones) showed an ability to draft a text, characterized by elements of cohesion combined with simple sequences articulated thematically. As can also be seen in in *Figure 4*, there seems to be a widespread tendency towards generalization, with pupils consistently omitting plural markers (e.g. "I can see fox, deer squirrel and woods") and third person singular markers in the present tense, thus adopting a single verb form for all people (e.g. "magma push up"). On the other hand, phenomena of overcorrection, e.g. the presence of the 3rd person singular 's' with plural subjects or with the verb in its base form have been noticed across a range of tasks (e.g. "Inside this there is magma that can erupts on the earth's crust called lava"). The analysis also revealed deviations in spelling, such as words written by trying to reproduce their sound, as shown in *Figure 5*, where the child wrote *togheder* instead of 'together' and *roch* instead of 'rock'.

qui iniziale della cit. minusc.?

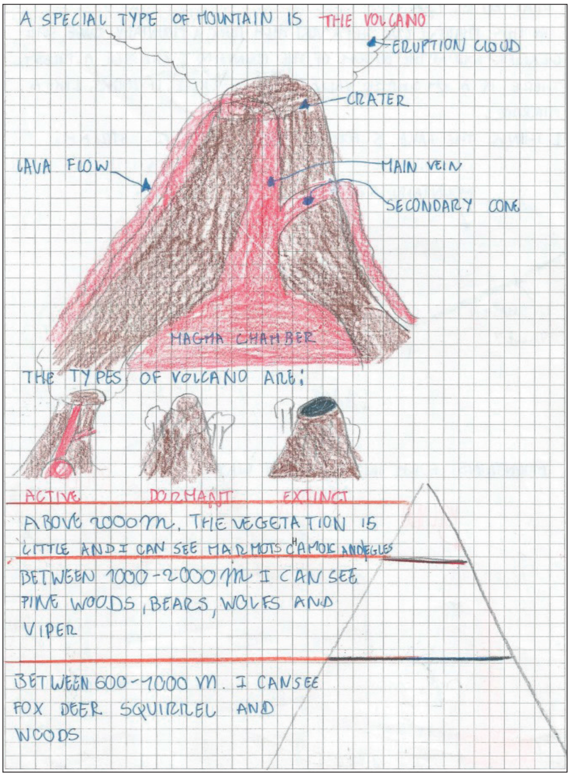


Figure 4. – Example of a written task.

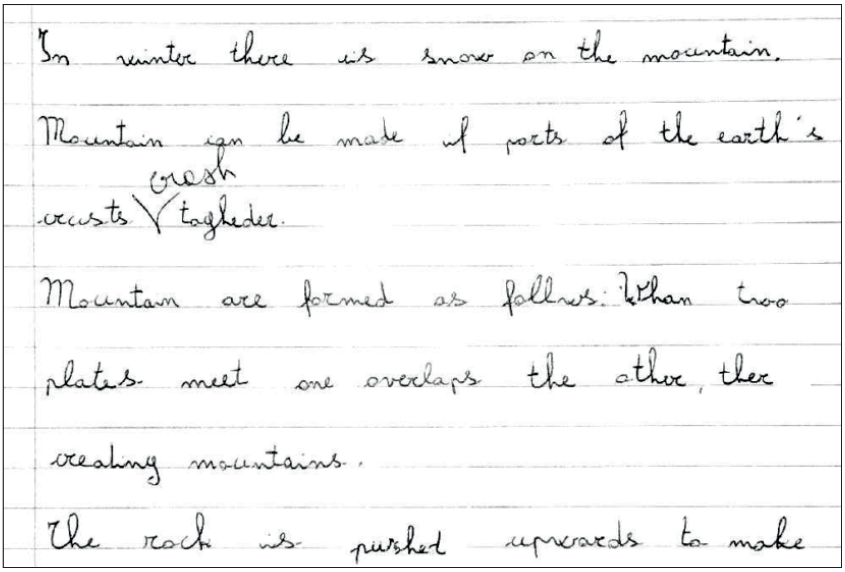

In winter there is snow on the mountain.
Mountain can be made of parts of the earth's
crusts crash togheder.
Mountain are formed as follws: When two
plates meet one overlaps the other, then
creating mountains.
The rock is pushed upwards to make

Figure 5. – Example of a written task/2.

4.1.2. Oral task: strengths and weaknesses

In general, pupils are able to pronounce the sounds of English correctly and accurately, even though fluency prevails over accuracy. Let us consider, for example, pupil A in the flowing example. She manages to point out the elements in the picture (river, mountains, water), but with inaccuracies at the level of syntax ("[…] a river and mountains landscape"). Moreover, she answers the teacher's question "What can you see in this picture?" by focusing on the element of water which she describes in detail, adding pre-existing geographical knowledge but repeatedly using the same introductory sentence and evaluative lexicon ("[…] is very important"):

verif. Maiuscole

[Teacher] What can you see in this picture?
[Pupil A] In this picture I can see a river and mountains landscape. The water for agriculture.
[T: for agriculture] Is very important […] is very important for vegetables needs water for grow.
[T: to grow] The water is very important for a farmer of the world.
[T:] Of the world. Ok, thank you.

As shown in the transcript above, phrases and sentences appropriate to the situation emerge from the oral task sample. However, this oral production is characterised by frequent repetitions, with limited attempts at personalizing speech. Sentences are limited in length, but the pupil is, nonetheless, able to make connections between her previous knowledge and the new information she can retrieve from the picture.

4.1.3. Overall considerations

All pupils possess a good command of the subject content. Even children with special educational needs (BES) participated and were able to express themselves, describing the images briefly and concisely. Nevertheless, a need to integrate fluency and accuracy emerged from the study of the tasks, together with a need to include elements of awareness and metalinguistic reflection, with a special reference to the structure of sentences. It is important to notice that the level of competence shown by the majority of the samples is A2. This is significant, since the goal for primary school pupils of the same age is usually level A1 [6].

[6] A detailed description of the language structures used by pupils in the samples is provided in Bondi et al. 2014, 62.

5. Conclusions

The increasingly multicultural environment we experience nowadays and the pervasiveness of globalisation have had a significant impact on the educational environment, which has in turn become multicultural and multilingual. In the schools involved in the pilot project, for example, in particular those located in Milan city centre, bilingualism was a common phenomenon, frequently mentioned also as a motivation for joining the project. English plays a key role in such a complex scenario and, as Marsh (2006) argues, English is turning from a foreign language into a second language, opening up new communicative possibilities among individuals belonging to different communities. From an educational point of view, this has led to a need to learn English that goes beyond language training and points to a more comprehensive perspective based on a Functional approach to language learning and teaching.

Curricula need to respond to the pressing requirements of a global linguistic environment, and bilingual education programmes are seeking to provide an answer to this growing demand. The BEI-IBI project sets out to prepare children to face the challenge of internationalization, but has shown a major limitation, as it will not continue in the subsequent stages of education. This drawback has been mentioned by all the actors involved in the study, all of whom expressed their concern that a valuable initiative may risk being a one-off experience. As a consequence, in order to address the misgivings of families, it is considered advisable that the USR Lombardia, the Ministry of Education and the British Council Italy join efforts to devise possible solutions to this problem.

From the point of view of the impact the project has had, headmasters and teachers signalled that a positive effect could be noticed in students' language skills but also that the project has had a direct influence on teaching modes, which appear to have benefited from the innovative methodologies fostered by such an immersive experience. It can be said, therefore, that the project has not only changed the teaching practices and materials used in the classes involved, but also encouraged a rethink of the entire curriculum of the schools involved. Nonetheless, a number of problems have arisen, such as the difficulty in finding classroom-ready materials for the implementation of the project, resulting in an increased workload for teachers who need to devise their own materials. Moreover, teachers stressed the importance of constant development of their own communicative competence by implementing new forms of teacher training. In order to improve the sustainability of the project and, possibly, to promote its extension, it seems that two core issues need to be addressed: on the one hand, the development of a vertical curriculum, so as not to nullify the skills acquired by the children during these years; on the other, it seems important to enhance the skills of the teachers by supporting initiatives of lifelong learning.

References

Artigal, Josep Maria. 1997. "The Catalan Immersion Program. Immersion Education: International Perspectives". In *Immersion Education: International Perspectives*, edited by Robert Keith Johnson and Merrill Swain, 133-150. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bjorklund, Siv. 1997. "Immersion in Finland in the 1990s: A State of Development and Expansion". In *Immersion Education: International Perspectives*, edited by Robert Keith Johnson and Merrill Swain, 85-122. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bondi, Marina, Silvia Cavalieri, Franca Poppi, e Anna Stermieri. 2014. *Il Progetto IBI/BEI nella scuola primaria. Sintesi del Rapporto di Monitoraggio*. [10/11/2014]. http://www.britishcouncil.it/sites/britishcouncil.it/files/final_sintesi.pdf.

Coonan, Carmel. 2002. *La lingua straniera veicolare*. Torino: UTET.

Coyle, Do. 2000. "Meeting the Challenge: The 3Cs Curriculum". In *Issues in Modern Foreign Language Teaching*, edited by Samuel Green, 139-158. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Coyle, Do. 2005. *CLIL in Europe and the UK*. [10/11/2014]. http://www.britishcouncil.org/mfl-docoyleall-2.ppt.

Coyle, Do, Philip Hood, and David Marsh. 2010. *CLIL. Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, Jim. 1998. "Immersion Education for the Millennium: What Have We Learned from 30 Years of Research on Second Language Immersion?". In *Learning through Two Languages: Research and Practice*. Second Katoh Gakuen International Symposium on *Immersion and Bilingual Education*, Katoh Gakuen (Japan), edited by Marshall Childs and Michael Bostwick, 34-47. ....luogo......: ....editore........ **completare?**

Dobson, Alan, María Dolores Pérez Murillo, and Richard Johnstone. 2010. *Bilingual Education Project Spain Evaluation Report*. [10/11/2014]. http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/ec/files/BEP.%20Ingl%C3%A9s%20.pdf.

Egger, Gerlinde, and Christine Lechner. 2012. *Primary CLIL around Europe: Learning in Two Languages in Primary Education*. Marburg: Tectum Verlag.

Elsner, Daniela, and Jörg Ulrich Keßler. 2013. "Aspects of Immersion, CLIL, and Bilingual Modules: Bilingual Education in Primary School". In *Bilin-*

gual Education in Primary School: Aspects of Immersion, CLIL and Bilingual Modules, edited by Daniela Elsner and Jörg-Ulrich Kessler, 1-6. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Grabe, William, and Fredrika L. Stoller. 1997. "Content-based Instruction: Research Foundations". In *The Content-based Classroom: Perspectives on Integrating Language and Content*, edited by Marguerite Ann Snow and Donna Brinton, 5-22. New York: Longman - White Plains.

Johnson, Robert Keith, and Merrill Swain, eds. 1997. *Immersion Education: International Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lucietto, Sandra, and Olimpia Rasom. 2011. "Consultancy Work in an Innovative Plurilingual CLIL Programme: Context, Relationships and Evaluation". *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* 30: 1438-1446.

Marsh, David. 2006. "English as a Medium of Instruction in the New Global Linguistic Order: Global Characteristics, Local Consequences". In *Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference for Middle East Teachers of Science, Mathematics and Computing*, edited by Seán M. Stewart, Janet E. Olearski, and Douglas Thompson, 29-38. Abu Dhabi: METSMaC.

Marsh, David, and Gisella Langé, eds. 1999. *Implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.

Marsh, David, and Bruce Marshland. 1999. *Learning with Languages*. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.

Met, Myriam. 1998. "Curriculum Decision-making in Content-based Language Teaching". In *Beyond Bilingualism: Multilingualism and Multilingual Education*, edited by Jasone Cenoz and Fred Genesee, 35-63. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Pavesi, Maria, Daniela Bertocchi, Maria Hofmannová, and Monika Kazianka. 2001. *Teaching through a Foreign Language. A Guide for Teachers and Schools to Using Foreign Languages in Content Teaching*. [10/11/2014]. http://www.ub.edu/filoan/CLIL/teachers.pdf.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Yolanda. 2008. "CLIL and Foreign Language Learning: A Longitudinal Study in the Basque Country". *International CLIL Research Journal* 1 (1): 60-73.

Selinker, Larry, Merril Swain, and Guy Dumas. 1975. "The Interlanguage Hypothesis Extended to Children". *Language Learning* 25 (1): 139-152.

White Paper on Education and Training – Teaching and Learning – Towards the Learning Society. COM (95) 590 final, 29 November 1995. [10/11/2014]. http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf.

verificare dati inseriti

Appendix 1 – Written task

Look at the picture and describe what you see. You can write about:

- the origins of mountain;
- the types of mountains you know;
- any special type of mountain;
- the animals and plants you can find in the mountains.

Appendix 2 – Spoken task

Look at the picture and describe what you see. You can talk about:

- where the water you can see in the picture comes from;
- where it goes;
- the important role this water plays in our daily lives.

CLIL Physics in Italian Secondary Schools: Teaching Materials and Methodological Issues

Annarita Tavani

doi: 10.7359/791-2016-tava

Keywords: CLIL, language acquisition, physics, secondary school, textbooks.

1. Introduction: aim and scope

This research examines materials in use in Italian secondary schools for the teaching of CLIL physics. The corpus – a small-sized one due to the current scarcity of didactic aids for CLIL physics on the Italian market – consists of teaching units in English attached to four course books, either in print or as digital resources downloadable from the educational web platform made available by the relevant publisher for students who have purchased a given textbook. This corpus is studied against a control corpus made up of two physics course books published in the UK and South Africa, with a view to identifying similarities and differences in the discourse of scientific instruction originating in English-speaking countries and in an EFL CLIL setting. The research question focuses on the suitability of ad hoc CLIL materials for the didactic purposes ideally served by Content and Language Integrated Learning and may be worded as follows: are the teaching materials designed for CLIL classes of physics – having Italian as the majority language – suitable for an integration of disciplinary content and vehicular language (English) in the presentation and practice phases of the teaching process? More specifically, does the choice of presentation techniques and consolidation activities in the CLIL teaching units conform to the rationale of Content and Language Integrated Learning? A second research question concerns a further general issue, namely, the students' acquisition of the basic communication skills – both receptive and productive – of the international discourse community (Swales 1990) whose disciplinary area they are being instructed in. The underlying hypothesis is that the teaching materials should ideally incorporate discursive features of the relevant discourse area – instruction in physics – showing the highest possible convergence with materials used to instruct native speakers of English. In particular, I will try to ascertain whether CLIL materials respond to the lexical, syntactic and textual requirements of the discourse of scientific instruction, both in terms of micro-linguistic choices and in the overall cognitive organisation of texts.

Lange > Langé

Within the framework of CLIL studies (Genesee 1994; Marsh and Langé 2000; Dalton and Puffer 2007; Coyle, Hood, and Marsh 2010; Llinares, Morton, and Whittaker 2012), I rely on the methodological tools provided by discourse analysis, with a special focus on the analysis of LSPs (Gotti 2003; Garzone 2006; Gotti 2008), while the cognitive functions enacted in the corpus texts are explored through the analytical framework developed by text grammar (Werlich 1983). Both the corpus, i.e. the materials in use in Italian schools, and the control-corpus, i.e. the materials in use in English-speaking countries, are examined through a qualitative close reading procedure, which appeared to be best tailored to a planned multi-level analysis focusing on lexis, syntax and textual organisation and also considering the need to develop didactic strategies of 'scaffolding' language acquisition in CLIL students [1] of physics.

Section 2 examines the CLIL materials with a view to ascertaining their suitability for purposes of language scaffolding, more specifically, for the scaffolding of Content Obligatory Language – Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills or BICS – and Content Compatible Language – Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency or CALP (Cummins 1984). Techniques aimed to teach terminology so as to make language input and disciplinary content comprehensible [2], are scrutinised against corresponding techniques adopted in native English and South African textbooks. Strategies for presentation of content and consolidation of language are also investigated in an attempt to assess their impact on the acquisition of BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), which should ideally include the ability to autonomously re-use acquired language, thus serving the purpose of integrating content and language learning. In section 3 the focus shifts

1 For the concept of 'scaffolding', see Miller forthcoming.
2 For the concept of 'comprehensible language input', see Krashen 1985.

to a study of some features of the discourse of scientific instruction. In particular, section 3.1 examines a pair of lexical items in the two corpora, aiming to ascertain the degree of convergence between corpus and control-corpus on some crucial terminological issues. Section 3.2 goes on to analyse two syntactic structures which are distinctive of LSPs for purposes of thematisation and depersonalisation, that is to say nominalisation and passivisation. A close reading of corpora will provide scope for contrastive analysis of these microlinguistic features and thus for assessment of the adherence of CLIL materials to the syntactic standards of the discourse of scientific instruction. Finally, section 3.3 introduces a study of CLIL texts which relies on the categories developed by text grammar, with a view to comparing the textual profiles emerging from those materials with the alternation of text types traceable in textbooks published in English-speaking countries, in an attempt to assess more extensively the suitability of existing teaching aids for an integration of Content and Learning.

2. Language acquisition through CLIL physics

The rationale for CLIL is grounded on the double assumption that extensive exposure to L2 is the best way to acquire language and that acquisition of disciplinary content may also profit from an approach which necessarily requires the adoption of scaffolding strategies and a firm anchorage on the students' background knowledge and experience. This section examines CLIL physics materials with a view to assessing their ability to provide context-embedded activities aimed at stimulating meta-cognition as well as tasks designed to further vocabulary acquisition and an awareness of terminological issues. Classroom use of L2 and content-oriented language practice are crucial areas of the learning process and should therefore be the basis of all content and language integrated teaching.

In order to favour the acquisition of both Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, CLIL teachers must make sure they provide comprehensible language input as students only acquire what they understand (Krashen 1985), and they need to embed language in context. Indeed, evidence shows that cognitively demanding tasks are made more accessible to students when they are 'scaffolded' or supported by context in the form of non-verbal input – vocal features of teachers' talk, gestures, facial expression, visual aids, etc. – alongside information on contextual elements, that is to say, on the communication situation, as well as additional verbal input schematising content, e.g. through mind maps[3].

CLIL materials usually teach terminology to make it comprehensible by simply listing terms and pairing each item with either a translation or a definition, the latter being a common strategy in the discourse of both science popularisation (Calsamiglia and van Dijk 2004; Garzone 2006) and science instruction. *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) occasionally teaches terminology, e.g. at the beginning of the first teaching unit, where both a definition and a brief explanation of the terms 'kinematics' and 'dynamics' are provided:

verificare sempre negli esempi l'uso delle Maiuscole, del corsivo e la punteggiatura finale

(1) *Kinematics* is the study of the characteristics of motion in terms of position, displacement, velocity and acceleration over time. In this module, motion will be considered from a new perspective: dynamics.
Dynamics tells you what causes a body to rest, or why it moves at a constant velocity or a constant acceleration. The most important question in this module in this module is 'why?' The three fundamental laws of dynamics are Newton's three laws of motion. (Bianco et al. 2012)

uniformato la struttura grafica degli esempi

Unexpectedly, the South African opencourseware textbook *The Free High School Science Texts: Textbooks for High School Students Studying the Sciences Physics Grades 10-12* (textbook 5) does not introduce a definition of the terms in question; indeed, it does not use the terms at all, if we overlook the fact that 'dynamics' occurs once as a pre-modifier of the head noun 'trolley' in a noun phrase used in the instructions for an activity investigating Newton's Second Law of Motion. No difference emerges between the concepts of kinematics and dynamics, the two being subsumed under the less specialised umbrella term 'motion'. Conversely, *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) fails to define 'kinetic energy', while the opencourseware textbook (textbook 5) provides a simple definition of the term, followed by explicatory text meant to foster comprehension:

(2) *Definition: Kinetic energy*
Kinetic energy is the energy an object has due to its motion.
Kinetic energy is the energy an object has because of its motion. This means that any moving object has kinetic energy. The faster it moves, the more kinetic energy it has. Kinetic energy (KE) is therefore dependent on the velocity of the object. The mass of the object also plays a role. (FHSST Authors 2008).

[3] For the concept of 'context-embedded tasks', see Cummins and Swain 1986.

Definition and explanation are regularly followed by exemplification – in the form of problem-solving activities. Activities are labelled, which clarifies their role as resources of the discourse of popularisation and 2nd level instruction, as in the following example:

(3) *Question:* A 1 kg brick falls off a 4 m high roof. It reaches the ground with a velocity of 8,85 m·s−1. What is the kinetic energy of the brick when it starts to fall and when it reaches the ground? (FHSST Authors 2008)

The question is followed by a model answer.

(4) *Physics* (textbook 4) published by Mondadori Education teaches vocabulary through visual input accompanied by labelling terms – e.g. the photo of a ferromagnet and a superimposed 'spidergram' consisting of the label 'ferromagnet' plus a number of nouns and adjectives related to elettromagnetism:
ferromagnet,
magnetosphere,
magnetic,
magnetism,
electric,
electricity,
electromagnet,
electromagnetic,
electromagnetism. (Caforioa and Ferilli 2014)

The task prompted by this visual/verbal input is worded as follows:

(5) Work with your classmates [pairs? groups?] and deduce the linguistic and physical implications of the links between each term in the spidergram. Some of the words are created by word formation [affixation?], others are compounds. (Caforio and Ferilli 2014)

A further task is set, which consists in matching definitions with the terms in the spidergram. Here follows an example:

(5) ____________ (n, U sing.): a form of energy from charged elementary particles, usually supplied as electric current through cables, wires, etc. for lighting, heating, driving machines, etc. (Caforio and Ferilli 2014)

There is little or no teaching of terms in the other materials examined. The CLIL module attached to *Fenomeni, leggi, esperimenti. Meccanica. Termodinamica* (textbook 2) published by Mondadori Education consists entirely of a number of excerpts from "Works of eminent physicists", preceded by a brief introduction – in Italian – cursorily summarising content, and accompanied by no further help, no glosses, no teaching of vocabulary, no language scaffolding and, more importantly, no tasks to check students' comprehension.

Classroom language is introduced – and regularly accompanied by translation – before the teaching units attached to the physics coursebook published by Zanichelli (textbook 1) – also printed separately as independent booklets. Classroom language is meant to scaffold BICS for the students, but seems to offer input that is already known to 2nd level students of English, as shown in the following examples:

(6) May I have your attention?

(7) Today we are going to talk about…

… > […]. (= puntini di sospensione oppure interruzione di cit.?) 2x

(8) Does everyone have a copy?

(9) Please read in silence.

(10) Please leave a line after each answer.

(11) Please put up your hand.

(12) Revise chapter… (Anzola and Borracci 2012)

Far from scaffolding the students' BICS, this classroom language appears to be designed to furnish the content teacher with the essential tools for oral interaction in a CLIL class. These lists of probable fragments of teacher talk are followed by true/false, multiple-choice, gap-filling and find-the-mistake activities which are meant to check comprehension of audio-aural material presented through videos. Here is an excerpt from one of the multiple-choice activities:

(13) *Select the correct answer.*
To sign up for the extra activities [sic] should go to the a. administration
b. bar
c. presidency [sic]
(Anzola and Borracci 2012)

ok virgolette doppie? verificare sempre per unif.

Of greater use may be the "Maths" and "Physics talk" sections, which precede the block of teaching units called 'chapters'. These sections consist of a number of mixed materials, ranging from instructions as to how numbers and symbols should be written and read to details about scientific notation, grouping, functions and graphs. Unexpectedly, an isolated definition appears for the term *expression*, followed by a brief list of verbs which collocate with the noun:

expression **opp. 'expression'? (vd. Avvertenze)**

(14) In mathematics, an expression is a finite combination of symbols and numbers.
Mathematical expressions are calculated, solved or evaluated. (Anzola and Borracci 2012)

The "Physics talk" consists entirely of formulae, which are given a label – under the heading "Subject" – followed by an enunciation "In symbols" and finally spelt out "In words":

(15) Energy of a photon
$E = hv$
The energy of a photon is equal to the product of the Planck constant h and the frequency v of its associated electromagnetic wave. (Borracci and Carbone 2014)

Rather surprisingly, the South African coursebook (textbook 5), too, provides simple instructions on how to write "Units as Words or Symbols": **ok Maiuscole? verificare sempre**

(16) Unit names are always written with a lowercase first letter, for example, we write metre and litre. The symbols or abbreviations of units are also written with lowercase initials, for example m for metre and l for litre. The exception to this rule is if the unit is named after a person, then the symbol is a capital letter. For example, the kelvin was named after Lord Kelvin and its symbol is K. If the abbreviation of the unit that is named after a person has two letters, the second letter is lowercase, for example Hz for hertz. (FHSST Authors 2008)

The instructions are supplemented by an 'exercise':

(17) *Exercise: Naming of units*
For the following symbols of units that you will come across later in this book, write whether you think the unit is named after a person or not.
1. J (joule)
2. l (litre)
3. N (newton)
4. mol (mole)
5. C (coulomb)
6. lm (lumen)
7. m (metre)
8. bar (bar) (FHSST Authors 2008)

Allegedly aiming to scaffold students' language skills, the physics textbook published by Zanichelli (textbook 1) provides further material after a "Slides and notes" section, followed by a 'concept map', sample questions and model answers. This 'language practice' does not appear to have a clear focus on language, as shown by the gloss detailing its function on the book blurb:

(18) *Language practice: esercizi di fisica in inglese per mettere alla prova le conoscenze linguistiche e disciplinari* [physics exercises in English to test pupils' linguistic and disciplinary knowledge]. (Anzola and Borracci 2012; Borracci and Carbone 2013, 2014)

corsivo perché ital.: ok?

There is some confusion as to whether the section should further linguistic or disciplinary competence, and there is no indication that an integration of the two is being aimed at through the activities labelled as 'language practice'. Here follow some sample tasks:

(19)
1. Match the terms in column two to the hints in column one [matching terms with definitions].
2. Find and correct the mistakes [identifying content mistakes].
3. Complete the sentences in the first column using the chunks in the second column [matching information].
4. Complete the passage [gap-filling activity with focus both on content and on language].
5. True or false [focus on content]. (Borracci and Carbone 2013)

verif. minusc. e punteggiatura finale

Two further sections complete each unit:

(20) *Reading comprehension: letture in lingua con esercizi di comprensione* [exercises using passages downloaded from the web].
Multiple choice and problems: con prove d'esame A-level assegnate in Inghilterra [using the texts of A-level exams in England]. (Anzola and Borracci 2012; Borracci and Carbone 2013, 2014)

As to the need to support students' metacognition, *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) opens each module with a detailed list of the skills which will – hopefully – be acquired through the didactic tools deployed in the teaching units making up the module. Here follows an example:

(21) In this module you will develop the following competences:
- explaining phenomena of everyday life in light of the principles of dynamics;
- forming questions and adopting strategies for solving problems of dynamics, and evaluating their solutions;
- mastering the linguistic tools for handling communication and learning in English;
- reading, understanding and interpreting various types of written texts relating to Newton's laws;
- producing various types of text suitable for interpreting and reporting

what you have learnt about Newton's laws. (Bianco et al. 2012)

While the first two 'competences' focus on the acquisition of content and disciplinary skills, the other three objectives are language-oriented, as they put emphasis on reading and writing skills in L2 and on a rather vaguely worded mastery of "linguistic tools for handling communication and learning in English". Students are thus made aware of the fact that thanks to the CLIL physics classes they will acquire both disciplinary and linguistic competence.

Similarly, the South African coursebook (textbook 5) opens teaching units or 'chapters' with an 'introduction' detailing skill acquisition and objectives:

(23) You will […] learn how to use position, displacement, speed, velocity and acceleration to describe the motion of simple objects. You will learn how to read and draw graphs that summarise the motion of a moving object. You will also learn about the equations that can be used to describe motion and how to apply these equations to objects moving in one dimension. (FHSST Authors 2008)

Also the *Cambridge IGCSE Physics Coursebook* (textbook 6) opens each teaching unit with a list of objectives:

(24) *Core:* Interpreting distance against time and speed against time graphs.
Core: Calculating speed and distance.
Extension: Calculating acceleration. (Sang 2010)

Another strategy adopted by *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) with a view to furthering students' metacognition is a section rounding up the unit on Newton's Second Law of Motion:

(25) *Dynamics:* General strategy for solving problems.
Model: Make a simplified assumption, if necessary.
Visualise: – Translate the words into symbols. – Draw a sketch to visualize the situation. – Draw a motion diagram or a few sketches representing different moments on the object's path. – Identify the forces involved. – Draw a free-body diagram.
Solve: Use Newton's second law of motion. Take the vectors from the free-body diagram and use kinematics to find the velocity and positions.
Assess: Is the result reasonable? (Bianco et al. 2012)

By contrast, in other CLIL materials no metacognitive mention of either learning strategies or learning objectives can be traced. The reason why some teaching units are also offered in English is never hinted at, and the outcome of the rather laborious process of working in physics through a foreign language is shrouded in mystery. True, CLIL materials are not methodological treatises, nor are they meant to work out theoretical models while exploring the process of acquiring language competence and disciplinary content at the same time. Yet, a modest effort to detail objectives, methods and targeted competence would be beneficial to both students and teachers, who are definitely facing a challenge when setting out to engage in Content and Language Integrated Learning – or Teaching.

Also beneficial to BICS and CALP acquisition would be a consistent adoption of 'scaffolding' strategies, especially in the form of context-embedded tasks. The opencourseware *Physics* (textbook 5) regularly adopts context-embedding strategies in the introduction to each 'chapter':

> (26) Imagine you had to make curtains and needed to buy fabric. The shop assistant would need to know how much fabric you needed. Telling her you need fabric 2 wide and 6 long would be insufficient – you have to specify the unit (i.e. 2 metres wide and 6 metres long). Without the unit the information is incomplete and the shop assistant would have to guess. If you were making curtains for a doll's house the dimensions might be 2 centimetres wide and 6 centimetres long! (FHSST Authors 2008)

Again, of all the CLIL materials examined, *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) is the only textbook to provide a "Lead-in" section at the beginning of each unit consisting in true/false context-embedded questions such as the following:

ok allineamento?

> (27) If you move a magnet towards a compass and then away from it, the needle deflects in one direction and then in the other. T/F
> (Bianco et al. 2012)

By choosing to tick either T (for true) or F (for false), students are required to rely on their everyday experience so that they can build up new knowledge and competence on the basis of what they already implicitly know. This opening task is followed by an activity meant to teach terminology, which requires students to match terms and definitions before they have been taught anything on the relevant topic. Rather than teach technical lexis, this activity appears to test untaught vocabulary. It may therefore either function as a guessing game, or it may open the unit on the strength of the assumption that the content has already been covered in L1. The latter hypothesis, however, runs counter to the didactic purposes of CLIL, which is meant to integrate content and language teaching and learning and is grounded on the belief that language acquisition works best when the students' focus is on content rather than language (Krashen 1982). By anticipating knowledge of the content in L1, the didactic focus inevitably shifts from content to linguistic form, thus neutralising the benefits of the CLIL approach, in that its function is reduced to the status of language practice superimposed on the staple L1 teaching of physics. What would be of great use for purposes of language scaffolding is, rather, a regular attempt to contextualise tasks, which, however, rarely occurs in the Italian materials, even when questions are posed and problem-solving tasks are set. 'Authentic' materials consequently appear to be better suited than any of the ad hoc CLIL materials to boosting students' disciplinary competence and to fostering their acquisition of both Content Obligatory and Content Compatible language.

3. The discourse of CLIL instruction

The reason why among non-linguistic subjects the sciences are strongly recommended as suitable disciplines for CLIL projects in Italy is probably that scientific discourse is felt to be an LSP with firmly built-in lexical, morpho-syntactic and textual conventions whose acquisition performs a fundamental gate-keeping function, making it highly desirable to equip 2nd level students with Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency in this discourse area. This essential didactic need provides powerful motivation for the considerable effort involved in teaching and learning disciplinary content in a foreign language and therefore represents a strong rationale underlying the methodological approach of Content and Language Integrated Learning. However, are the existing CLIL materials suitable to fulfil this need? In other words, do the Italian CLIL materials adequately incorporate the discursive features of scientific instruction, or should materials originating in English-speaking countries be preferred as 'authentic' samples of this discourse field? To find out, I will analyse three crucial levels of the meaning-making process: lexis, syntax and textual construction.

3.1. *Terminological issues*

Specialised lexis or terminology is undeniably a key factor in scientific communication. It is therefore extremely revealing of the specialised nature of the discourse of science, both in expert-to-expert and in expert-to-learner communication. That is why the model discourse provided to learners of science in the form of course books should ideally deploy accurate terminology of the relevant disciplinary area, thus facilitating students' acquisition of CALP.

Specialised lexis is essentially monosemic within each specific field (Gotti 2003; Garzone 2006; Gotti 2008). Yet the CLIL materials examined do not always appear to adopt terms endowed with the quality of monoreferentiality. For example, *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) makes no distinction between the concepts of 'scalar speed' and 'vectorial velocity', tending to privilege the adoption of the noun 'velocity', which consequently functions as a polysemic lexical item. Underlying this choice, which is common to all CLIL materials, may be the false assumption that 'speed' is a general English noun while 'velocity' is a specialised term pertaining to the field of physics. This, however, is a form of popular rationalisation of what appears to be an inaccurate selection of lexis as, in actual fact, both 'speed' and 'velocity' were originally general English words which were endorsed as terms by the discourse of physics through a process of semantic redetermination (Garzone 2006). In the same way, *Physics* by Zanichelli (textbook 1) fails to clarify the concepts of scalar speed and vectorial velocity, using 'speed' and 'velocity' as synonyms in a formula on Beta velocity, which is included in the "Physics talk" section:

(28) *Beta velocity*
$\beta = v/c$
Beta is the ratio of the velocity of an object (or an inertial reference frame) v to the speed of light. (Borracci and Carbone 2014)

Differently, the opencourseware *Physics* (textbook 5) provides a concise simple definition of 'velocity' and clear explicatory text on the difference between 'speed' and 'velocity':

(29) *Velocity* is the rate of change of position.
Average velocity (symbol v) is the displacement for the whole motion divided by the time taken for the whole motion. Instantaneous velocity is the velocity at a specific instant in time.
(Average) speed (symbol s) is the distance travelled (d) divided by the time taken (_t) for the journey. Distance and time are scalars and therefore speed will also be a scalar […].
Instantaneous speed is the magnitude of instantaneous velocity. It has the same value, but no direction. (FHSST Authors 2008)

To further clarify the two concepts, a table schematising relevant features is added:

(30)

Speed	Velocity
1. depends on the path taken	1. independent of path taken
2. always positive	2. can be positive or negative
3. is a scalar	3. is a vector
4. no dependence on direction and so is only positive	4. direction can be guessed from the sign (i.e. positive or negative)

(FHSST Authors 2008)

The *Cambridge IGCSE Physics Coursebook* (textbook 6), too, explains the difference between scalar 'speed' and vectorial 'velocity':

(31) In physics, the words *speed* and *velocity* have different meanings, although they are closely related. *Velocity* is an object's speed in a particular direction. [...] Velocity is an example of a *vector quantity*. Vectors have both magnitude (size) and direction. Another example of a vector is weight – your weight is a force that acts downwards, towards the centre of the Earth. Speed is an example of a *scalar quantity*. Scalars only have magnitude. Temperature is an example of another scalar quantity. (Sang 2010)

Clear, explicatory text of this kind would be extremely beneficial to learners' acquisition of CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), but unfortunately no explanation of conceptual differences between scalar speed and vectorial velocity can be traced in the CLIL materials. More importantly, no monosemy is attached to the term 'velocity', whose polysemic use appears to be rather confusing in texts designed for scientific instruction.

3.2. *Nominalisation and passivisation*

Another crucial level of meaning construction is morpho-syntax. Specialised discourse is not modelled on any 'special grammar', but rather has wider recourse to certain structures – common to the general language – which meet special discursive needs, such as the needs for thematisation and depersonalisation, typically attributed to the discourse of science (Gotti 2003; Garzone 2006; Gotti 2008).

Surprisingly, teaching materials originating in English-speaking countries scarcely adopt these structures at all. Here follow examples of nominalisation, which are much rarer than in the discourse of Italian CLIL physics:

(32) Balancing is the clue to finding an object's centre of mass. (Sang 2010)

(33) This was the motivation for adopting a set of internationally agreed upon units. (FHSST Authors 2008)

In the cases where nominalisation is adopted, no depersonalisation is being aimed at. Rather, the nominal forms traceable in the excerpts above represent largely consolidated options commonly in use in general English. Examples of passivisation are even scarcer and the few occurrences of passive structures do not seem to mark any specialised use of the language:

(34) The acceleration is the gradient of the v vs. t graph and can be calculated as follows: [...]. (FHSST Authors 2008)

In scientific discourse the adoption of nominalisation and of the passive voice enables the authors to conceal agency, thus making scientific discourse sound more impersonal, apparently originating with the community of scientists rather than with individual researchers. This depersonalising effect is coupled with a convenient semantic loading of noun phrases in subject position and a consequent unloading of verbs – often reduced to the mere function of copulae. This choice often serves the purpose of thematising information, shifting it from its status as 'new' or rheme to the status of 'given' or theme, thus functioning as a strongly cohesive device (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004).

Very little use of these syntactic strategies can be traced in the texts originating in English-speaking countries, which testifies to a consistent effort to avoid overspecialised language in 2nd level didactic materials. Differently, CLIL texts often make recourse to nominalisation and passivisation, as can be seen in the following examples:

(35) No process that works on a cycle is possible whose result is the absorption of heat from a reservoir and the conversion of this heat into an equivalent amount of work. (Borracci and Carbone 2103)

(36) Conduction may be seen as the transfer of energy from the more energetic particles of a substance to its less energetic particles, and is caused by interactions between the particles. (Bianco et al. 2012)

(37) Isothermal expansion (C → D): the gas is brought into contact with a heat reservoir at temperature Tc. Work is done on the gas as it is com-

pressed (Wcd < 0) and heat Qc is transferred to the heat reservoir. (Borracci and Carbone 2103)

(38) Electromagnetic waves are generated by the accelerated motion of electric charges. (Caforio and Ferilli 2014)

CLIL materials appear to be striving hard to conform to the discursive standards of English for science. Yet in this way, a golden opportunity to model the language of CLIL physics on the didactic requirements of 2nd level scientific instruction is missed.

3.3. *Text type profile*

Physics textbooks originating in English-speaking countries show a clear prevalence of expository text, with frequent recourse to instruction whenever tasks – often of the problem-solving kind – are set.

This pattern can be traced also in the CLIL materials, which, however, are rich in narrative text reporting on scientific discoveries and providing information about eminent researchers of the near and distant past. For example, the reading comprehension passages included in the teaching units of *Physics* by Zanichelli (textbook 1) are narrative in nature. Further examples are the sections interspersed in *Pearson for CLIL Physics* (textbook 3) detailing the history of leisure activities like skydiving or throwing the javelin, which feature as short narratives, told either in the past or in the present simple. They are visually set apart from the rest of the text in that they are framed, usually with an accompanying photograph. Also *Physics* published by Mondadori (textbook 4) features various framed narratives on the life of the great physicists of the past, accompanied by photos or pictures of the relevant famous researcher. Such narratives are absent in coursebooks originating in English-speaking countries, with occasional exceptions, such as the account – labelled 'case study' – provided by opencourseware *Physics* (textbook 5) on how Galileo hypothesised and Newton later demonstrated that objects fall at the same rate regardless of their mass.

Another clear difference emerging from a comparison of the two corpora is the quality of exposition characterising the texts in each corpus. Undoubtedly prevalent in both corpus and control-corpus, exposition generally combines the features of synthetic and analytic exposition in the English and South African materials, while in the CLIL texts it tends to favour the synthetic approach. The following are examples of texts featuring sentences functioning as "thematic text bases" (Werlich 1983) in the two corpora:

(39) *The Law of Conservation of Energy:* Energy cannot be created or destroyed, but is merely changed from one form into another [thematic text base of synthetic exposition]. So far we have looked at two types of energy: gravitational potential energy and kinetic energy. The sum of the gravitational potential energy and kinetic energy is called the mechanical energy. In a closed system, one where there are no external forces acting, the mechanical energy will remain constant. In other words, it will not change (become more or less). This is called the Law of Conservation of Mechanical Energy [analytic expansion of thematic text base]. (FHSST Authors 2008)

(40) Heat is energy transferred from one body to another (or from a body to the environment) that are in thermal contact with each other, due to a temperature difference between them. (Borracci and Carbone 2013)

(41) A heat engine is a thermodynamic system, operating in a cycle, that converts heat or thermal energy into mechanical work. (Borracci and Carbone 2013)

(42) The electromagnetic spectrum is the distribution of electromagnetic radiations according to their different wavelengths (or frequencies). (Caforio and Ferilli 2014)

Differently from all other materials in both corpora, the *Cambridge IGCSE Physics Coursebook* (textbook 6) regularly avoids the typical synthetic or synthetic/analytical structure of exposition, showing a clear preference for contextualised exposition starting with information on sample situations in which the learner can experience a given law of physics in action. In other words, exposition is usually preceded by a circumstantial introduction which makes the thematic text base difficult to identify, as in the following example:

(43) A car driver uses the accelerator pedal to control the car's acceleration. This alters the force provided by the engine. The bigger the force acting on the car, the bigger the acceleration it gives to the car. Doubling the force produces twice the acceleration, three times the force produces three times the acceleration, and so on. (Sang 2010)

Thus exposition, which serves the fundamental purpose of explaining and is therefore an essential text type in the discourse of instruction, is relied on to favour comprehension by embedding explanation in a context that is familiar to the learner. Similar context-embedding strategies would be extremely useful in CLIL materials as they would further students' understanding of disciplinary content in L2.

4. Conclusions

A close reading of materials developed in Italy for CLIL physics and coursebooks published in English-speaking countries has shown that CLIL materials do not consistently adopt strategies for integrating acquisition of language and disciplinary content and for scaffolding students' BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). As a matter of fact, only some of the materials teach terminology, and they often fail to embed tasks in sufficient context. As to taking measures that may favour meta-cognition, only *Pearson for CLIL Physics* includes sections detailing teaching objectives and learning strategies. By contrast, context-embedding and meta-cognition play a vital role in the textbooks in use in English-speaking countries.

A comparison of the discursive features characterising the two corpora reveals a more accurate use of specialised lexis in the English and South African materials, as well as a strenuous effort to make the discourse of scientific instruction – in terms of both syntactic features and overall cognitive-textual organisation – more accessible to learners, while CLIL materials appear to be striving hard to conform to the grammatical and textual standards of specialised discourse. This difference in the handling of the discourse of instruction may be symptomatic of differing approaches to the teaching of science, which affect learning objectives and consequently teaching strategies. In particular, didactic practice in English-speaking countries tends to privilege comprehension and acquisition of disciplinary content through a consistent choice of context-embedded presentation techniques and consolidation tasks, whereas the didactic approach underlying the teaching of physics in Italian schools appears to be grounded on the belief that 2nd level instruction should ideally mould learners into experts thanks to a process of appropriation of the discourse of science into the discourse of scientific instruction. The question remains open whether learners at secondary school level would better profit from a popularising rather than technical handling of the discourse of scientific instruction.

In conclusion, I suggest that CLIL physics materials be designed to facilitate teachers in their effort to scaffold students' acquisition of both disciplinary content and language with a special focus on terminology. More technical aspects of scientific discourse, notably those features of English for science which prioritise syntax aimed at to optimising depersonalisation and thematisation, should be discarded in favour of a less specialised variety of the language, better suited to learners' cognitive and expressive needs. I also suggest that CLIL teachers of physics make use of a number of presentation and practice techniques and activities conceived to scaffold students' understanding of content and use of L2 in situations close to their everyday experience, though relevant to disciplinary objectives.

References

Calsamiglia, Helena, and Teun A. van Dijk. 2004. Popularization Discourse and Knowledge about the Genome. *Discourse and Society* 15 (4): 370-389.

Coyle, Do, Philip Hood, and David Marsh. 2010. CLIL: *Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, Jim. 1984. *Bilingualism and Social Education: Issues in Assessment and Pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, Jim, and Merrill Swain. 1986. *Bilingualism in Education. Aspects of Theory, Research and Practice*. London: Longman.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane. 2007. *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Garzone, Giuliana. 2006. *Perspectives on ESP and Popularization*. Milano: CUEM.

Genesee, Fred. 1994. *Integrating Language and Content: Lessons from Immersion*. NCRCDSLL Educational Practice Reports 11.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2003. *Specialized Discourse. Linguistic Features and Changing Conventions*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Gotti, Maurizio. 2008. *Investigating Specialized Discourse*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Halliday, Michael A.K., and Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Hodder Arnold.

Krashen, Stephen. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, Stephen. 1985. *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. New York: Longman.

Llinares, Ana, Tom Morton, and Rachel Whittaker. 2012. *The Roles of Language in CLIL*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marsh, David, and Gisella Langé, eds. 2000. *Using Languages to Learn and Learning to Use Languages: An Introduction to Content and Language Integrated Learning for Parents and Young People*. Jyvaskyla: University of Jyvaskyla, TIE-CLIL.

Miller, Kate. 2012. *Scaffolding the Language of CLIL History at 2nd Level*. PhD Dissertation (supervisd by Prof. Giuliana Garzone). Milano. Universià degli Studi di Milano.

Swales, John M. 1990. *Genre Analysis: English in Research and Academic Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Werlich, Egon. 1983. *A Text Grammar of English*. Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer.

Lange > Langé

Corpus

Textbook 1:

Anzola, Eleonora, and Silvia Borracci. 2012. *Physics. Mechanics*. Bologna: Zanichelli.

Borracci, Silvia, and Angelo Carbone. 2013. *Physics. Thermal Physics, Waves*. Bologna: Zanichelli.

Borracci, Silvia, and Angelo Carbone. 2014. *Physics. Electromagnetism, Relativity and Quantum Physics*. Bologna: Zanichelli.

Textbook 2:

Bergamaschini, Elisa, Paolantonio Marazzini, e Lorenzo Mazzoni. 2012. *Fenomeni, leggi, esperimenti. Meccanica. Termodinamica*. Milano: Mondadori Education.

Textbook 3:

Bianco, Camilla, Alessandro Biondi, James Pearson-Jadwat, and Vittoria Armato. 2012. *Pearson for CLIL Physics*. Milano - Torino: Pearson - Longman.

Textbook 4:

Caforio, Antonio, and Aldo Ferilli. 2014. *Physics. CLIL Tools for Physics Learning – Electromagnetic Waves, Astrophysics and Cosmology*. Milano: Mondadori Education.

Control-corpus

Textbook 5:

FHSST Authors. 2008. *The Free High School Science Texts: Textbooks for High School Students Studying the Sciences Physics Grades 10-12*. http://www.fhsst.org.

Textbook 6:

Sang, David. 2010. *Cambridge IGCSE Physics Coursebook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Authors

Maiuscole, sigle, trattini, diciture delle università sono state uniformate secondo le norme della rivista: si prega di verificare

Alexandra Albuquerque has been a Lecturer since 1995 and currently teaches at Porto Polytechnic, at the Porto Accounting and Business School. Her main research interests are specialized languages, terminology, computer assisted translation, localization and internationalization. She is a member of CICE (Research Centre for Communication and Education) and of CLUNL (Linguistics Research Centre of Universidade Nova de Lisboa). She has been the President of APCOMTEC (Portuguese Association of Technical Writing) since 2015, and Secretary of TCeurope (European Umbrella Organisation for Technical Communication) since April 2016. She has also been coordinating the ISCAP International Office since 2004. Her latest publications include her PhD Thesis *O Ciclo Vicioso do Satisfatório na Gestão de Terminologia em Contexto Empresarial: Problemas e Oportunidades* (Universidade Noval de Lisboa, 2015), the volume *CLIL Training Guide* (2015), of which she is one of the co-authors, and the chapter "Language Management, Knowledge Transfer and Translation-mediated Communication in Global Environments: Old Paradoxes, Unseen Practices and New Insights", authored with Rute Costa and J. Paulo Esperança (2015).

Glen Michael Alessi is a Tenured Researcher and Assistant Professor at the Department of Communications and Economics at the Università degli Studi of Modena and Reggio Emilia. His research interests include corpus-assisted discourse analysis, critical genre analysis and intercultural communication. His recent publications examine the role of interdiscursivity and intertextuality in forming new or hybrid generic norms in professional and institutional discourse. He is the co-editor of *The Ins and Outs of Business and Professional Discourse Research: Reflections on Interacting with the Workplace* (2016).

Paola Catenaccio is Associate Professor of English Linguistics and Translation at the Università degli Studi of Milan. Her research interests lie primarily in the field of discourse analysis, which she applies to a variety of domains (legal discourse, business communication, the discourse of news production, the discourse of science and popularization) in combination with other methodological perspectives, adopting a multi-method approach to linguistic research, especially in an intercultural perspective. Her most recent contributions focus on linguistic aspects of corporate communication, especially corporate social responsibility. She has authored numerous articles which have appeared in international journals and edited collections. She also has a strong interest in teaching methodologies, and more specifically in the teaching of ESP. In this domain she has co-authored two volumes devoted to *English for Medicine* (2006). Some of her publications are the volume *Understanding CSR Discourse: Insights from Linguistics and Discourse Analysis* (2012), and the book chapters "Social and Environmental Reports. A Diachronic Perspective on an Emerging Genre" (2011) and "The Representation of Gambling in Gambling Awareness Campaigns: The Discursive Construction of Addiction" (2015).

Silvia Cavalieri is an Adjunct Professor at the Università degli Studi of Milan, Modena and Reggio Emilia, and Parma. She holds a PhD in Comparative Languages and Cultures from the Università degli Studi of Modena and Reggio Emilia. From 2010-2014, she also held a 4-year post-doctoral research grant at the Università degli Studi of Milan. She has recently taught CLIL courses organized by the Università degli Studi of Modena and Reggio Emilia. Her areas of research and publication include ESP, legal language, courtroom discourse, and academic discourse. Some of her latest publications are the volume *Courtroom Discourse in the Witness Examination. The Case of the Public Inquiry* (2013), and the book chapters "Memoranda of Understanding (MoU): Generic and Syntactic Aspects" (2014) and "Argumentative Strategies in the Judgements of the European Court of Justice: Connectors in French and English" (2016), with Chiara Preite.

Roxanne Barbara Doerr is an Adjunct Professor at the Università degli Studi of Milan (English Language), Modena (English Literature), Padua (English Language) and Verona (English Language). She holds a PhD in English Studies from the Università degli Studi of Verona, the title of Dr. Phil. from the Universität of Köln, and the title of Doctor Europaeus for an international co-tutored Doctoral Thesis entitled *The Debate Between the Concepts of Justice and Equity in the XX century Anglo-Saxon Legal Thriller*. Her areas of research and publication include language **Doctoral Thesis > PhD Thesis?**

of new and social media, workplace communication, distance learning, psychology English, English for specific purposes, multiculturalism, law and visual arts, law and literature, law and culture, the legal thriller, post-modern and contemporary literature. Her most recent publications include "The Justice of the Peace and the Puppet: Representations of Order and Chaos in Ben Jonson's 'Bartholomew Fair'" (2015), "Rumpole and the Rights of Accused Terrorists" (2015) and "Staged and Staging Bodies as Legal and Medical sites in Volpone" (2015).

Stefania Gandin (University of Manchester) is a Lecturer in English Language and Translation at the Università degli Studi of Sassari. Her main research interests focus on corpus linguistics, translation studies and ESP. She has taken part in several national and international conferences and published numerous papers dedicated to corpus linguistics and translation-related themes. Her most recent publications range from articles on the translation of tourism discourse to studies on literary translation; among them the volume *Translating Yeats: prospettive letterarie, linguistiche e didattiche* (2015), edited with L. Salis, and the articles "Translating the Language of Tourism. A Corpus Based Study on the Translational Tourism English Corpus (T-TourEC)" (2013) and "'And they lived horribly ever after' – Translating, Rewriting and Retranslating the Story of Shrek" (2014).

Giuliana Garzone is Full Professor of English, Linguistics and Translation at the Università degli Studi di Milano, where she co-ordinates the PhD programme in Linguistic, Literary and Intercultural Studies. Her research interests are mainly in ESP, which she has explored in a discourse analytical perspective, integrating it whenever necessary with corpus linguistics. She has co-ordinated several research projects and published extensively on legal, scientific and business discourse as well as on translation and interpreting. Her latest publications include the volume *Le traduzioni come 'fuzzy set'. Percorsi teorici e applicativi* (*Translations as a 'fuzzy set'. Theory and applications*) (2015), and the book chapters "Evolutions in Societal Values and Discursive Practices: Their Impact on Genre Change" (2014) and "Polyphony and Dialogism in Legal Discourse: Focus on Syntactic Negation" (2016). She is editor-in-chief of the journal *Lingue Culture Mediazioni / Languages Cultures Mediation*, and is co-editor of the series "Lingua, traduzione, didattica" ("Language, translation, language teaching") for the publisher FrancoAngeli. She sits on the advisory board of the international journals *Text & Talk* and *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*.

Cinzia Giglioni is an Adjunct Professor of English at the Università della Valle d'Aosta and at the Università degli Studi of Milan. She holds a PhD in English Studies from the Università degli Studi of Milan, where she also held a 4-year post-doctoral research grant. She has also been teaching English in an undergraduate degree programme in Primary Education, an experience that underlies her volume volume *English for Education Studies* (2010). She collaborates with other scholars on the Italian section of ABELL (Annual Bibliography of English Language and Literature). Her most recent research interests include genre studies, while her latest contributions focus on the linguistic aspects of corporate communication: cf. e.g. "Apologetic Discourse in Financial Reporting: CEO and Chairman Statements. A Case Study" (2012); "Variation in Apologetic Strategies in Annual Company Reports: Rhetorical Functions of Lexical-syntactical Patterns" (2014).

Originally from Birmingham, Dermot Heaney holds a PhD from U.C.C. of the National University of Ireland and is at present a Tenured Researcher in English Linguistics and Translation at the Università degli Studi of Milano. His research interests to date lie mainly in two directions. The first is L2 translation pedagogy particularly conventional metaphor, on which his most recent publications are "Metaphor? What Metaphor? A Case Study in rendering terms and Conventional Metaphor in L2 Italian-English Translations of Specialised Discourse" (2015) and "A Comparison of Metaphors Used in Italian and English Journalism on the Early Stages of the Euro Crisis: The Potential of a Systematic Approach for Specialised L2 Translation Training" (forthcoming). His other principal area of research covers aspects of politeness theory, multilingualism, identity construction, and humour in sports media interactions. His most recent publication in this sphere is the chapter: "Bowling them Over and Over with Wit: Forms and Functions of Humor in Live Text Cricket Coverage" (2016).

Cynthia J. Kellett Bidoli is Associate Professor of English Language and Translation in the Department of Legal, Language, Interpreting and Translation Studies at the Università degli Studi of Trieste, where over the years she has taught English Language, Consecutive Interpreting and Dialogue Interpreting, and also coordinates Italian Sign Language modules. Since 2011 she has been general editor of the international journal *The Interpreters' Newsletter*. She has published over 40 articles in the fields of both spoken and signed language interpreting as well as on English in the Italian Deaf Community and audio-visual translation of films and

TV programmes for Italian deaf audiences. Her present research interest is focused on the use of digital pen technology in consecutive interpreting. Publications as editor include: *English in International Deaf Communication*, co-edited with E. Ochse (2008); *Interpreting Across Genres: Multiple Research Perspectives* (2012); and *Sign Language Interpreting*, Issue 19 of *The Interpreters' Newsletter* (2014; in open access).

Manuel Moreira Silva is a Senior Lecturer at the School of Accounting and Administration of Porto (ISCAP - IPP), Department of Languages and Cultures, since 1998. He coordinates the Unit of Applied Languages at the Research Centre for Communication and Education (CICE) of ISCAP and is a Researcher at INESC TEC (Institute for Systems and Computer Engineering of Porto), in the Centre for Enterprise Systems Engineering (CESE). He is a member of the Executive Committee of the Portuguese Language Centres Association (ReCLes.pt). He has participated and is currently involved in different European and national projects. His research interests range from translation studies, to localization, project management, knowledge management, ESP, CLIL and e/b-learning. His latest publications inclusde the volume *CLIL Training Guide* (2015), and the papers "Language Tools: Communicating in Today's World of Business" (2005) and "CLIL in Portuguese Higher Education – Building a Community of Practice and Learning" (2015).

Anna Franca Plastina is a Tenured Researcher at the Università of Calabria, where she teaches ESP to undergraduate Pharmacy students and post-graduates at the school of Clinical Pathology. She also a is board member of the PhD programme in LSP. She holds national scientific qualifications as Associate Professor of English Language and Translation and as Associate Professor of Educational Linguistics. Her main research interests lie in the fields of ESP, critical and multimodal discourse analysis, CALL and psycholinguistics. Her most recent publications include the edited volume *Challenging Language Barriers in the Public Service: An Interdisciplinary Perspective* (2016), the book chapter "Appreciating the Mediterranean Diet: Popularizing Nutritional Discourse Online" (2016) and the article "Putting the Plain into Pain Language in English for Medical Purposes: Learner Inquiry into Patients' Online Descriptive Accounts", published in the *Journal of CercleS* (2016). She has she has taken part in national and international conferences related to her research fields.

Giorgia Riboni holds a PhD in English Studies and is currently working as a post-doctoral Researcher at the Università degli Studi of Milan. Her main research interests lie in Internet genres and web-mediated communication platforms such as blogs and microblogs. In particular, she has investigated how the latter are rhetorically exploited so that they can be turned into an efficient political, marketing or academic tool. Her research is characterised by a methodological approach based on discourse analysis, often integrated with quantitative investigation, as typical of corpus linguistics. Her latest publications include the volume *Nuovi media e discorso politico. I blog nelle elezioni presidenziali americane (New Media and Political Discourse. Blogs in US Presidential Elections)* (2014), and the book chapters "Constructing (Cyber-)space on Twitter: A Study of Place Deixis in Tweets" (2014) and "Enhancing Citizen Engagement: Political Weblogs and Participatory Democracy" (2015).

Anna Stermieri holds a PhD in Human Sciences from the Università degli Studi of Modena and Reggio Emilia. She currently holds a research grant on corpora and bilingual education at the Università degli Studi of Modena and Reggio Emilia. Her research interests are focused on genre analysis and discourse studies, with an interest in knowledge dissemination and professional discourse. She has published on topics such as the features of theatre criticism from a genre-based and ESP point of view, also in a diachronic perspective. Her current research interests, besides bilingual education, are directed towards the discourse of blogs and the investigation of the strategies of popularization and knowledge dissemination in academic blogs and in educational videos.

Annarita Tavani holds a PhD in English Studies (Linguistics) and presently collaborates with the Università degli Studi of Milan. She has many years of experience as a High-school English teacher. Her research interests lie mainly in the field of institutional communication, specialised discourse and L2 teaching. Among her latest publications are the volume *Institutional Language and Discourse in International Organizations* (2013) and the book chapters "FAO's Food Insecurity Reports: An Evolving Genre" (2012) and "Strategies of Self-mention in Traditional Ayurvedic Medical Discourse" (forthcoming).

Elisa Turra has obtained a PhD in Applied Linguistics at the University of Lancaster. She teaches Languages for Specific Purposes at Università Commerciale Luigi Bocconi and holds seminars and company courses on

Business Communication, Meetings and Negotiations. She has also taught courses at the University of Edinburgh, the Università degli Studi of Milan and Modena. Her research and publications focus on business meetings, corporate and intercultural communication, and classroom interaction. Among her latest publications are the volume *Investigating Interactional Strategies in New Economy Business Meetings* (2012) and the articles "An Italian Perspective on International Meetings, Management and Language", with Gina Poncini (2008) and "Oppositional Alliances and Frame Shifts in Italian Corporate Meetings" (2010).

LCM Lingue Culture Mediazioni
Languages Cultures Mediation

http://www.ledonline.it/LCM-Journal

La Collana / The Series

Lingue migranti e nuovi paesaggi • A cura di Maria Vittoria Calvi, Irina Bajini e Milin Bonomi

Giuliana Garzone • *Le traduzioni come fuzzy set. Percorsi teorici e applicativi*

Espaces réels et imaginaires au Québec et en Acadie. Enjeux culturels, linguistiques et géographiques • Édité par Chiara Molinari et Dino Gavinelli

Focus on ESP teaching developments and issues • Edited by Giuliana Garzone, Dermot Heaney and Giorgia Riboni

In preparazione:

El cuerpo y sus economías en la cultura y la historia de mujeres de la América Latina, el Caribe y otras latitudes • Edición de Irina Bajini y Luisa Campuzano