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CLIL

(Content and Language Integrated Learning)

through English in Italian Higher Education

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Il posseder piú lingue dona una certa maggior facilità e chiarezza di pensare seco stesso, perché noi pensiamo parlando. Ora nessuna lingua ha forse tante parole e modi da corrispondere ed esprimere tutti gl'infiniti particolari del pensiero. Il posseder piú lingue e il potere perciò esprimere in una quello che non si può in un'altra, o almeno cosí acconciamente o brevemente, o che non ci viene cosí tosto trovato da esprimere in un'altra lingua, ci dà una maggior facilità di spiegarci seco noi e d'intenderci noi medesimi, applicando la parola all'idea, che senza questa applicazione rimarrebbe molto confusa nella nostra mente.

Giacomo Leopardi, *Zibaldone di pensieri*

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PART ONE
RATIONALE

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1.
RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Beginning with the Bologna Process in 1999, and in some cases even earlier, European universities have had to deal with a series of issues regarding how to better manage a more globalised world in which knowledge plays an increasingly important part. Many universities in non-English speaking countries have thus decided to offer courses taught through English in some disciplines in order to be more competitive as international institutions. Italy is one of these countries. This decision has become almost obligatory due, in part, to the fact that some subjects (especially those in science and economy) and all sources of knowledge (journals, textbooks, conferences) use the English language for communication (Wilkinson 2004, Wilkinson - Zegers 2007, Alexander 2008; Wächter - Maiworm, 2008).

Furthermore, for economic considerations, several well established European universities are faced with the need to attract foreign students in order to be competitive in the global academic context and to prepare native students for a future job market that will require highly flexible and cosmopolitan professionals. As well as political-economic reasons there could also be linguistic motives that are moving universities toward teaching through English. Such programmes could improve the limited knowledge of English that is particularly evident in some Southern European countries (Eurobarometer – http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_237.en.pdf) and create the need to teach English in a more significant and efficient manner. The decision to teach content through English has advantages and disadvantages, which will be discussed further in this study.

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It is here that the world of CLIL at the tertiary level or ICLHE becomes intertwined with these needs for more efficient teaching at the university level. The CLIL acronym suggests an integration between language and content. A CLIL study is particularly important because, after an initial period where the term included experiences which were very different from one another, and since it is gradually expanding across Europe, various scholars have attempted to define its features. CLIL is at the centre of a debate concerning its efficiency and effective teaching practices (Lorenzo - Casal - Moore 2009, Navés 2011, Ruiz de Zarobe 2011). At present there is a strong need for the planning of objectives and evaluation for CLIL (Coyle 2010) and for more research in the field (Coonan 2006, Dalton-Puffer - Nikula - Smit 2010, Llinares - Morton - Whittaker 2012, Pérez-Cañado 2012). A study of CLIL at the tertiary level is even more necessary because there have still been relatively few studies compared to the number of studies at the other educational levels (Dafouz Milne - Nuñez - Sancho 2007, Fortanet Gómez 2008).

No up-to-date survey of CLIL programmes existed at the tertiary level in Italian universities. Secondly, there was no data on students' views of the input presentation strategies used by lecturers. Thirdly, the Italian CLIL university discursive lecturing context had heretofore been (apart from Veronesi 2009) completely unexplored. Triangulated data from observing, recording, transcribing, analysing lectures and interviewing the lecturers might bring out new input presentation strategies in addition to the traditional ones and a certain form of attention to language on the part of the content lecturers that could lead to new kinds of training.

The research was therefore planned to comprise a quantitative part (macro context), involving a survey sent to all the Italian universities in order to gain general information on their CLIL at the tertiary level programmes, and a qualitative part (micro context) that studies the input presentation strategies of four lecturers from two Italian universities as seen through a triangulation of data (observations, transcriptions of lectures, and interviews). Both the suggestions of combining qualitative and quantitative data and to triangulate them are present in Pérez-Cañado's article on CLIL research (2012). The objective of the survey would be to gain an overall view (which would help me in selecting the lecturers) and the aim of the

qualitative elements is to have a more specific view of the Italian context and of how lectures are conducted. Between these two parts there was to be a complementary study whose object would be to confirm, through the students' opinions, the input presentation strategies that represent the starting point for the qualitative research.

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2.
THE CLIL (CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING) APPROACH

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is an approach [1] that calls for the integrated teaching-learning of language and content. The term CLIL was introduced in the 1990s, even though many programmes had already been set up all over Europe. It began with the Council of Europe Resolution in 1995, which stated that the teaching of a foreign language through other disciplines represents a highly innovative approach. In the same year the White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission) discussed a similar concept. Since 2000, all European Socrates programmes sponsoring teachers and learners have promoted CLIL. In 2003 the European Commission, in its 2004-2006 Action Plan, clearly defined CLIL as a valid approach. On the Council of Europe Internet site there is a page entirely dedicated to CLIL (http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/language-teaching/doc236_it.htm).

The European Commission defines CLIL as follows (http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/language-teaching/doc236_en. htm):

> Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) involves teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a language other than that normally used. The subject can be entirely unrelated to language learning, such as history lessons being taught in English in a school in Spain. CLIL is taking place and has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education. Its success has been growing over the past 10 years and continues to do so.

[1] Hereafter CLIL is called an approach (see Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010) even though the definition on whether it is a methodological approach or simply an approach is still controversial.

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Mounting evidence suggests that this kind of approach has a number of positive effects on learning, including increased motivation (Wolff 2007, Coyle - Hood - Marsh 2010, Coonan 2012), an improvement in language skills (Brinton - Snow 1990, Lyster 2007, Mehisto - Marsh - Frigols 2008, Wiesemes 2009, Navés 2011), and a deep processing of the subject matter or both the subject matter and language skills (Marsh - Langé 1999, 2000, Masih 1999, Pavesi – Bertocchi - Hofmannová - Kazianka 2001, Coonan 2002, Langé 2002, Marsh 2002, Van de Craen - Ceuleers - Mondt 2007, Dafouz – Guerrini 2009, Coyle - Hood - Marsh 2010, Nordmeyer 2010). Alongside these purely didactic gains, economic (two learning outcomes from a single timetable slot) and cognitive ones can be observed (Coonan 2007a, Mehisto - Marsh 2011). In addition to the fact that, as a testimony to its recognition, there is the transferability of CLIL-like approaches across the globe from Canadian immersion experiences to English-medium instruction in Southeast Asian countries (see Coyle - Hood - Marsh 2010, Johnstone 2010). CLIL is actually an umbrella term in the sense that it takes in a variety of experiences and practices.

From a linguistic point of view, subject-matter teaching through an additional language has the advantage of leading to an incidental acquisition of the language, since learning the latter is not the sole teaching objective (Krashen 1985b, Genesee 1987). The students learn indirectly both from the material proposed and from the input on the part of the lecturer (Pavesi 2002a). The term incidental learning is used to define a kind of language learning which is acquired implicitly, the attention of the learner being drawn away from the object of teaching. It is supposed to be very effective and long-lasting because language learning and the implicit knowledge that comes from this are by-products of other learning processes (Wode 1999). From a definition given by Hulstijn (2003), incidental learning helps learners to pick up structures of the language by being involved in activities which are focused on meaning. Moreover, As Marsick and Watkins put it (2001:26) «When people learn incidentally, their learning may be taken for granted, tacit, or unconscious. However, a passing insight can then be probed and intentionally explored». This quotation clearly explains the fact that incidental learning is unconscious but this does not mean that it does not lead to deep learning.

Though CLIL was firstly adopted for the purpose of improving

language proficiency (Dalton-Puffer 2007), experts agree that in CLIL-like approaches both content and language are involved in the learning process (Cummins 1984, Krashen 1985b, Genesee 1987, Brinton - Snow 1990, Met 1994, Marsh - Maljers - Hartiala 2001, Coonan 2007a,b) and that a «promise» is intrinsic in the acronym CLIL that is «that content be learnt through the language and that language be learnt through content, contemporaneously» (Coonan 2008:14). The learning of a language is connected to the learning of knowledge, so that it is impossible to see the two as separate entities (Stohler 2006) up to the point that some have suggested that the term CLIL is too vague, since language learning can never be content-free (e.g. Johnstone 2010). The importance of not seeing the content as a separate discipline from the language could lead to a collaboration across subject areas which could lead to professional growth for teachers (Nordmeyer 2010).

2.1. Labels, Characteristics and History

2.1.1. *CLIL at the Tertiary Level or ICLHE* (*Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education*)

Although CLIL is a term used mainly in primary and secondary school contexts, it is also used in reference to the third level of instruction (Dafouz - Nuñez - Sancho 2007, Ricci Garotti 2009, Fortanet-Gómez 2010, Aguilar - Rodríguez 2012). At the third level CLIL is more commonly called ICLHE (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education). The term ICLHE was coined in Maastricht, where two conferences were organised (2003 and 2006) that sanctioned the use of this acronym. In 2010 an ICLHE association was also created that founded an internet site called www.iclhe.org.

As regard the terminological issue, the LANQUA project subject group on CLIL in higher education warned that the competencies needed for L2-medium instruction nowadays are not well described or defined; therefore there is a need to outline good practices. As a starting point the group declared that they wanted to use the term CLIL to describe their project, since it is a «relatively established term in Europe» (Greere - Räsänen 2008: 4) which refers

to «all those HE approaches in which some form of specific and academic language support is offered to students in order to facilitate their learning of the content through that language» (see *Table 1* for specific reference). Nonetheless, the group stated that «these approaches vary on a continuum of discipline-specific and pre-content support to full integration of language and content». The group notes how differently the various teachers view language. The content teachers see it as a means for building knowledge, while the language teachers see it as content in and of itself. According to their taxonomy the context of this study would be defined as partial CLIL (*Table 1*).

Table 1. Definition of Partial-CLIL according to Greere and Räsänen, 2008:12.

CLIL-RELATED INSTRUCTIONAL TYPES	
TYPE/FEATURES	PARTIAL-CLIL (CONTENT - FOCUS IN L2)
Main aims	Content mastery; L2 learning incidental – language aims not specified, but often implicit L2 learning aims
Target Group	Any group, both native and non-native learners
Main Actors	Subject specialist
Pedagogical Approach	Often lecture-type, focus on transmission of knowledge, expert-centred. Approach depends on what is typical of the discipline or preferred by teacher
Main View of Language	L as tool
Learning Outcomes Expected	As in content instruction. Language learning dependent on the pedagogical approach and on the learner's own motivation, initiative and autonomy. Lack of awareness of the role of language is typical
Assessment	Content mastery assessed in whatever way is typical; language learning not assessed apart from possible self-assessment

2.1.2. *Characteristics of CLIL at the Tertiary Level or ICLHE and the Role of English*

Some of the issues of ICLHE or CLIL at the tertiary level are first of all that it is not a bottom-up approach but a top-down one. In other words, the need for its implementation is not usually felt by the lecturers but rather derives from an economic-political choice by the

university. At least in Italy the decision came about only in part to attract foreign students; for the most part it was intended to give an international profile to non-English-speaking students (Costa - Coleman 2012b). In fact, English is the language most used in this type of programme (Coleman 2006) since high proficiency in English represents a fundamental asset in today's increasingly globalised world. If the objective of these programmes is not only to transmit content-based information but also to promote and implement the knowledge of English, then this type of experience can be called CLIL at the tertiary level, since both areas (linguistic and content) represent teaching objectives. The goal is to improve language competencies, for most of the time, incidentally (Wilkinson 2009).

Second, precisely for the above-mentioned reasons this wave of teaching through English could represent a threat to the L1 of the students. The fear here is that instruction through English will undermine local languages and their own academic tradition (Knight 2008). In contrast, Lehikoinen (2004) argues that English-taught programmes have helped Finland to increase its visibility in Europe. Smit (2010) also notes that the coupling of two languages for adults does not cause cognitive harm or social dissonance. Thus, the age of the university students plays a key role and CLIL should not represent a threat to the L1, given that the students should already be fully competent in their first language.

Third, lecturers that adopt CLIL at the tertiary level are mainly non-native-English-speaking subject-matter lecturers who have an educational disposition toward the teaching of academic content over language. According to Dafouz Milne (2011), since content lecturers are not given any CLIL training they feel inadequately prepared to handle language issues. Fortanet-Gómez (2010) is of the same opinion, denouncing the lack of linguistic attention in Spain on the part of content lecturers.

Because of these reasons, among the drawbacks of CLIL at the tertiary level is the fact that subject-matter teachers do not always have the proper linguistic preparation, especially at the third level of instruction (Costa - Coleman 2012b), to enable them to use the CLIL approach, which, by definition, represents a balance between language and content objectives. Despite the characteristics described, universities tend to define such courses more as English-taught programmes or English-medium instruction than as ICL(HE) ones. Nonetheless, it is logical and economical to integrate these two

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teaching aspects (language and content). As Wilkinson (2004) points out, ICLHE is more used with respect to the type of pedagogy adopted and its specific features. He warns that ICLHE type of teaching is usually intended as simply teaching a content through a foreign language, while not taking into account that both content and language goals should be considered.

The experience of ICLHE-like contexts was first defined by Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003) who made a terminological distinction regarding the content-based teaching at university level in the U.S. They differentiated between Theme-Based Language Instruction (where the language teacher chooses several topics for the language activities), Sheltered Content Instruction (content course taught in L2 to a group of foreign learners) and Adjunct Language Instruction (where the foreign students attend two courses, a language course for linguistic support and a content course, together with mother tongue students). Adjunct Language Instruction can also be assimilated to support language courses in Europe (Arnó-Macià - Mancho-Barés 2015).

All these contexts (Theme-Based, Sheltered and Adjunct) are present in the European setting where ICLHE is set in a continuously changing European educational context and is strongly related to the internationalisation of universities. Although the two expressions (internationalisation and ICLHE) are connected it is useful to highlight that the term internationalisation is broader than ICLHE because it implies a comprehensive institutional policy. Many universities have decided to offer courses taught through English in some disciplines and to implement their connections worldwide in order to be more competitive.

As regard the use of English which is the most used language in ICLHE contexts, Coleman (2006) highlighted the close relationship between English as a Lingua Franca (or even Killer Language) and internationalisation. In his state-of-the-art article he argued that language policies are closely linked to the economic concept of globalisation. In this respect, there is a tendency to link the English language to Anglo-American imperialist hegemony. It is likely, though, that English will not eventually kill all other languages and there could be a diglossic future where one language would be used for local communication and another for international communication. This latter English could be a mix of all the varieties spoken around the world.

Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez (2008) emphasise that there is a paradox in the decisions of universities regarding the internationalisation process. On the one hand, several disciplines now require an advanced knowledge of English, and on the other the Barcelona Council (2002) of the heads of state in the EU mandated that European citizens be competent in at least two foreign languages (not including English). There is a tendency to implement the English-taught programmes for reasons linked to the disciplines, but also a tendency toward the reduction in English courses in the universities in order to make room for other languages.

2.2. The Institutional Context of CLIL at the Tertiary Level

Studies on CLIL have increased in primary and secondary schools, but there is still a lack of research at the tertiary level (Dafouz - Nunez - Sancho 2007, Järvinen 2008, Pérez-Cañado 2012). Fortanet-Gómez (2008) confirms that there is little on countries of Southern Europe. The following studies either examine reasons for successful CLIL at the tertiary level programmes or describe existing contexts.

Crandall and Kaufman (2002:2) highlight challenges for the future of CLIL-like projects at the tertiary level «identifying or developing appropriate content, convincing content faculty to participate in the programme, developing and maintaining communication and collaboration, developing sufficient expertise across disciplines and institutionalising the effort».

Alexander (2008) present objectives for ICLHE programmes. He observed that there are three broad types of ICLHE in Europe. He further defines English as having a «gatekeeper function in HE» (Alexander 2008:82).

In addition, Mellion (2008) found strategies to make a CLIL university project successful. They are called the three Cs. Conditions (the socio-political conditions and funding), Commitment (individual responses of the teachers) and Competencies (linguistic, pedagogic and multicultural). Mellion also drew up a list of elements for success funding, initial analysis before implementing the programme, full support from the university board, training for teaching staff, English language training for students and academic writing support, an

efficient international office and international exchanges for both students and academics.

These studies underscore the importance of both institutionally favourable features and aspects more closely linked to teaching, such as the competencies of lecturers and their involvement in the project. These factors of success are not always found in CLIL at the tertiary level programmes, perhaps due in part to the relative novelty of these programmes and the fact they are not yet fully grounded in the system.

2.3. Lecturing Patterns of CLIL Lectures at the Tertiary Level in European Contexts

The following studies refer to lecturers who are non-native speakers of English and describe the results of both lecturers' questionnaire surveys and discourse analysis data gathering methods. Among the first to deal with CLIL at the tertiary level lectures was Vinke (1995) who analysed both the students' and lecturers' points of view in the Netherlands. In general, lecturers had a positive view of their teaching in both languages, Dutch and English (see also Valcke - Bartik - Tudor 2012 for the Belgian context). The majority did not think there was a difference between teaching in the L1 and L2. The very few differences related to vocabulary, limited ability to express themselves, more time needed for preparation, fewer improvising skills such as humour, slower pace, and also the positive effects from the possibility of practising English. Alongside the survey Vinke also did observations of the lectures and reached the same conclusions there was no significant difference in teaching behaviour between L1 and L2, but lecturers were less expressive when teaching in English (gestures, intonation) and there were more hesitations, false starts, silence, and vagueness.

In recent years a research project (CLUE-UCM, http://www.clue- project.es/campanas/clue-project/) carried out in Spain tried to identify lecturing patterns in CLIL contexts. Dafouz Milne (2006), Dafouz (2007), Dafouz, Nuñez and Sancho (2007), Dafouz, Nuñez, Sancho and Foran (2007), Dafouz Milne and Núñez Perucha (2010) and Dafouz Milne (2011) have described discursive characteristics of CLIL at the tertiary level. They found that lecturing is still the most

widely used format, in line with Morell's studies (2007) and with Ricci Garotti's as regards the Italian context (2009). However, when they studied lecturing patterns in CLIL contexts they found there was a high level of *we* statements and apologetic structures, which they saw as a sign of cooperation and identification with the audience.

Veronesi (2009) discussed several initial results from a study in one Italian university (University of Bolzano), which has a trilingual policy embracing English and both principal local tongues, as regards discursive and linguistic phenomena in the lecturers' monologic talk. Above all, the level of interaction during the five lectures varied significantly from lecturer to lecturer (see also Morell 2004). There is a variation with regard to the use of codeswitching as well, perhaps because codeswitching can be viewed as causing a loss of face, in the sense of indicating an inadequate linguistic competence on the part of the lecturer. The present study, on the contrary, will examine codeswitching as a means to lower stance, understood as the attitude and status of the lecturer towards the students and to make input more comprehensible. Veronesi's interpretation of certain types of behaviour in the monologic lecture demonstrates that, contrary to prevailing opinion, an interpersonal dimension exists that lowers the teacher-student asymmetry even in this type of lecture. Examples of interpersonal dimension are digressions (play on words, retorts, anecdotes) and rhetorical questions (see also Morell 2007).

Aguilar and Rodríguez (2012) interviewed eight lecturers in order to find out their perceptions on the CLIL teaching in a Spanish university. Contrary to other authors, they found that lecturers believe they have a faster delivery rate because they use less paraphrasing and fewer synonyms. The lecturers stated they were not interested in any training and that they did not assess the language at all. They also interviewed 746 students and found out that both stakeholders (lecturers and students) believe that technical vocabulary acquisition is a benefit of CLIL. Finally, they stated that students asked for more codeswitching as an example of focus on form for technical terms.

SUMMARY

This chapter began with the definition of CLIL and the studies on this approach, which underscore the advantages from the language, content and motivational points of view. Moreover, the chapter made clear that CLIL provides a merging of language and content objectives. From there the peculiarities and differences in CLIL at the third level of education, or ICLHE, were outlined, starting from the assumption that these are more tied to the context than to the approach per se. Given that there are a number of similar terms that often express concepts which are difficult to distinguish, the attempt was made to define the common and divergent points regarding CLIL, Bilingual Education, Content-based Instruction and English-medium Instruction. Subsequently, a list was provided of the studies on CLIL at the primary and secondary school levels as well as at university level, where studies have been done on the teaching practices of lecturers. The contexts in which the CLIL approach has proven successful, and the few training programmes foreseen were described. Finally, attention was drawn to the extent to which the success of CLIL is tied to factors strictly linked to the context. Sometimes CLIL-like approaches do not always occur in the best of circumstances, as is the case in some African and Asian countries.

3.
THE EUROPEAN CLIL CONTEXT

This section provides a general and schematic perspective on the state of English-taught programmes in Europe on the basis of a study by Ammon and McConnell (2002) and Wächter and Maiworm (2008). With the Bologna Process, initiated in 1999 with the aim of harmonising higher education programmes all over Europe, many universities have become more and more interested in English-taught programmes.

In general English-taught programmes tripled in number between 2002 and 2007.7% of those institutions that answered the survey offered programmes in English, and these universities are concentrated mainly in the Northern and central parts of continental Europe. The typical institution that offers such programmes has the following characteristics large, with many degree programmes, and offering Bachelor's, Master's and PhD degrees. In terms of student enrolment, the overall number is 121,000 (Wächter - Maiworm 2008). EU countries in the South are the most lacking in programmes offered through English, and it is for this reason that a survey may be very useful (Fortanet-Gómez 2008). For brevity's sake not all countries in the EU will be analysed but only the ones with a tradition or with a current CLIL-type provision. Where possible a brief summary of what is taking place not only at the tertiary level but also at the primary and secondary levels will be given on the basis of the EURYDICE survey of 2006 (http://ec.europa.eu/languages/ documents/ studies/clil-at-school-in-europe_en.pdf) and Coonan (1999) on CLIL. The countries will be described in alphabetical order.

By constitution Belgium has three official languages (French, Dutch and a minority of German speaking community). Brussels, the

capital, is a bilingual language area (French and Dutch) although by hosting the European Commission and the European Council, it evidently also requires a very high level of English. Therefore, trilingual education is becoming more widespread even at the tertiary level where there are Dutch and French universities offering English-taught programmes.

Bulgaria has a long tradition (50 years or so) of bilingual schools. There are 125 bilingual schools, and the languages taught are English, German, Spanish, French, Italian and Russian. As a result, there is a strong provision even at the tertiary level. The choice to implement tertiary level provision (mainly through English) might even be due to the need for local institutions to become more competitive in the European context.

In Finland the internationalisation process was already underway at the end of the 1980s. In the primary and secondary schools CLIL is often offered in English, and English is adopted as the vehicular language even at the tertiary level (Lehikoinen 2004). Today the country attracts many foreign students.

In France there are *sections européennes* at the secondary level where part of the curriculum is taught through a vehicular language. During the past decade many universities have started offering English-taught programmes.

In Germany, where there is a tradition of bilingual schools and CLIL provision, there is the possibility to have joint certifications (French and German) at the end of secondary school. Apart from English and French sections there are also Italian, Spanish, Dutch and Russian ones. At the end of 1996, 180 secondary bilingual schools were present especially in Nordrhein-Westfalen. The country is gradually offering increasing English-taught programmes even at the tertiary level.

In preparation for its entry into the European Union in 2004, Hungary was very open to internationalisation. The international students in particular are the greatest beneficiaries of such courses.

In the Netherlands, university tuition is paid for privately by students, therefore, it is very important to attract foreign as well as non-foreign students. At the same time, in line with other European contexts, English-taught programmes (ETPs) prepare Dutch students to become a globalised workforce. Nowadays there is a widespread provision for students who can choose to take courses in either Dutch or English.

In Spain, the introduction of CLIL in primary schools has followed from a recent educational reform in the 1990s. With regard to the Spanish context, Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2010) maintain that success depends not only on the quality of the teachers' education but also on an institutional policy that guides and promotes CLIL programmes that provide continuity between secondary school and university. Nowadays many universities (for example, Universidad Complutense and Autonoma de Madrid) are implementing English-taught programmes. There is also a strong provision of courses in Catalan and Basque which are combined with courses in Castilian.

Sweden started offering English-taught courses at the beginning of the 1990s. At the end of that decade the country faced the problem of how to avoid the loss of the Swedish language. Students can now opt to sit exams in Swedish and have the right, if they so request, to be examined in Swedish.

SUMMARY

This chapter presents a general outline of ICLHE programmes in Europe. In order to do so reference was also made to CLIL in scholastic contexts before moving on to its presence at the university level.

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4.
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORIES AND THE ROLE OF INPUT

Subject-matter teaching through an L2 and CLIL have become a widely recognised approach, in part because they expose learners to comprehensible input intended as input that can be understood by a learner (Gass - Madden 1985, Krashen 1985a,b). For Krashen, the use of an L2 as the medium of instruction can provide learners with great quantities of comprehensible input, which is considered a necessary factor for second language aquisition to take place. The teacher, who in Krashen's theory should be a subject-matter teacher, produces language to convey content, thereby trying to facilitate comprehension. Input is language to which learners are exposed.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis is one of the most comprehensive theories of SLA to have appeared in the last thirty years, even if it is inspired by the studies in the '70s on baby talk, caretaker talk, teacher talk and foreigner talk (for general works mentioning these studies see Snow 1985, Wesche 1985, Gass - Selinker 1994, Carroll 2001, Ellis 2008). There have been studies that have analysed the Input Hypothesis but few that engaged in a true discussion of its characteristics (Benati - Van Patten - Wong 2005, Rast 2008, Van Patten 2009). Krashen's (1985a) input theory includes support for a type of teaching that leads to implicit learning.

Long (1996) has gone further with Krashen's input theory, stating that interaction and negotiation of meaning play a very important role in SLA. Negotiation of meaning is to be understood as a way of overcoming obstacles in communication, and it is carried out by those involved in conversation. His theory was subsequently developed to include and combine focus on meaning and the so-

called *focus on form* (Long - Robinson 1998). *Focus on Form* is contrasted with Focus on Forms, which instead calls for teaching mainly the structures of a foreign language.

The Output Hypothesis formulated by Swain (1985, 2000) goes a step further than these theories, stating that in order to learn an L2 students should have the opportunity to produce the language. The Output Hypothesis is a way to test the hypotheses concerning the L2 and to allow the speaker to better focus on the language.

Returning to the concept of input, which is the starting point of the study, Coonan (2002) in a book for practitioners has highlighted strategies that might be learnt by teachers in order for them to facilitate linguistic and conceptual comprehension in CLIL contexts [1]. These are:

- Using discourse markers;
- using repetitions;
- using examples;
- using synopsis/summaries;
- using definitions;
- explaining;
- re-using lexis;
- using synonyms;
- using paraphrasis;
- reformulating;
- asking for questions;
- slowing down the pace of speaking;
- emphasising through intonation;
- articulating words clearly.

Some of these strategies have been confirmed by Genesee (1987), Echevarría, Vogt and Short (2008) and Rosenthal (2000); in particular, repeating, slowing down the pace of speaking, summarising and paraphrasing. Repetitions have also been highlighted by Tannen (1989) and Dafouz Milne (2011).

All these categories can be expanded and adjusted with reference to visual aids, graphic organisers, gestures and videos (Kasper 2000, Echevarría - Vogt - Short 2008, Airey 2011) to evaluate good

[1] Coonan refers to these strategies as *teacher's output* (within a paragraph on *comprehensible input*) even though the concept of output is usually referred to learners. In the present thesis these strategies are inserted within the concept of *input* because lecturers' spoken language is intended as input towards students.

input techniques performed by teachers even in university contexts. Very few studies have highlighted the significance of these strategies. The most important and thorough of them is Echevarría, Vogt and Short (2008) who have developed a protocol called the SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol – http://www.siop institute.net/) model, which has been used for over 10 years as a research tool for pre-service, in-service training and evaluation of English-medium instruction teaching. The protocol should provide a reference for teachers wanting to scaffold their content teaching. It is divided into three parts: Preparation, Instruction and Review/ Assessment. Instruction is the most relevant to this study and is divided into: Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice/Application and Lesson Delivery. In this section the authors provide a clear outline on how visual aids should be exploited in these types of classes (2008:33). In their view, these aids help to contextualise the learning and at the same time support subject matter understanding. They are also very effective as regards multiple intelligence learning. In brief, lecturers should provide: hands on manipulatives, realia, pictures, visuals (graphs, charts) and multimedia (DVDs, CD-ROMs).

In the case of the present research, whose lectures all belong to the science domain, it is important to highlight discourse-related functions which in some cases overlap with Coonan's strategies. Vollmer (2010:23) discussed these discourse-related functions for the school level. Some of them can also be applied to university contexts, although they are related more to students' competence than to that of the lecturers:

- reporting/recounting;
- classifying;
- defining;
- representing;
- interpreting;
- matching and contrasting;
- deducting;
- justifying;
- embedding;
- reflecting or weighing.

Moreover, some of them (e.g., reporting) are not relevant for the present study since, in the Italian context, monologic lectures do not leave time for students to speak.

4.1. Redefinition of Coonan's Strategies

In order to focus the study the following items *discourse markers* and *using paraphrasis/reformulating* had been eliminated from Coonan's categories because they had been the focus of other studies (Mariotti 2006, Morell 2004, Dafouz Milne - Nuñez Perucha 2010). As regards *discourse markers*, Morell (2004) found out that lecturers who used more *discourse markers* had a more interactive lecturing style compared to lecturers not using them. As regards *reformulations* or *paraphrasis* (which are defined as repetitions at the semantic level), Mariotti (2006) studied science lectures at the school level, viewing these elements as a way of making input more comprehensible in teacher-student interaction. Both strategies do indeed increase redundancy but at the same time maintain the level of complexity needed for discourse by segmenting parts of the discourse, especially in CLIL contexts (Pavesi 2002b). Both authors (Mariotti and Pavesi) have detected the use of paraphrasis in their corpus of CLIL teachers and found that non-native teachers delivering through English make greater use of them compared to their native-speaker counterparts. *Re-using lexis* and *explaining*, because they are similar to other classes (e.g. *repeating* and *using definitions*) and are very difficult to determine in terms of instances or use; and, finally, *slowing down the pace of speaking* and *articulating words clearly*, since these are too cultural-based to be determined and too dependent on the spoken language of each lecturer to be standardised.

Summary

This chapter described the main theories on SLA, paying particular attention to the input hypothesis but discussing also the output hypothesis and focus on form. The starting point for this study were the linguistic input presentation strategies outlined by Coonan (2002), to which were added other strategies connected more with the use of graphics and multimedia tools.

Part Two
RESEARCH DESIGN

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5.
RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The Research Framework section has been divided into two parts (Burgess - Sieminski - Arthur 2006): research methodology and research approach. For both parts a concept map followed by the justification for the choice has been prepared. The research methodology follows a Quant → QUAL (Dörnyei 2007) methodology because information on the number of CLIL programmes at the tertiary level in Italy was needed first in order to gain data on lecturers that could be available for the qualitative part. For these reasons, it seemed logical to begin from the general (census/survey of Italian universities that offer CLIL at the tertiary level) and move on to the particular (lecturers). Furthermore, the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in CLIL research is specifically suggested by Pérez-Cañado (2012). The quantitative part came first in chronological terms since one of its aims was to identify the lecturers to be approached. Despite the fact that the study had a quantitative part, it is mostly a qualitative study.

A qualitative paradigm (Merriam 1998, Albert Gomez 2007) was chosen because the research is focused on a natural context, interested in the process not the outcome (how lectures are conducted), centred on the researcher as the main instrument of investigation and involved in fieldwork. In particular, following the definition given by Marshall and Rossman (1994) and Creswell (1998), a qualitative paradigm has been chosen as an inquiry process for the present study because it aims at investigating a social problem based on observation and matches an educational setting such as a university. The choice of qualitative research is based not only on its definitions and procedures, which match perfectly with the study, but

also on the role of the researcher, who is personally concerned with the CLIL approach.

As regards quality assurance in the research, if I take as a reference the AHRC (Arts & Humanities Research Council) guidelines (http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/Publications/Documents/TheConcordatToSupportResearchIntegrity.pdf), I have tried following all items suggested for good practice. In particular, honesty has been ensured by acknowledging all prior existing research, by clearly stating all the goals of the research, and by handling data with the utmost sincerity. Rigour has been assured by using methods which were consistent with the research questions and by using clear instruments and protocols for the gathering of data. Transparency and open communication has been assured by disseminating findings in international journals and in conferences. Finally, care and respect for all participants have been assured by declaring anonymity and confidentiality.

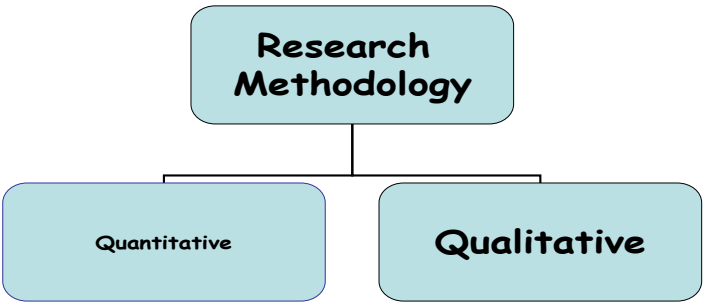

Figure 1. Concept map on the Research Methodology.

The present study followed two main approaches (*Figure* 2). One consisted of a survey (using a questionnaire) on CLIL at the tertiary level programmes in Italian universities. The other was a case study of two Italian institutions, with two lecturers being chosen from each higher education setting for the recording of three-hour lectures. Between these two main investigative paths is another quantitative area of research: a student questionnaire to validate Coonan's (2002) categories.

The principal case study can be defined (Yin 1984) as in part exploratory (since, as I hope, it presents propositions for further inquiry), and in part descriptive case study (because a pattern-matching process was used). Although aware of the fact that the definition of case study is controversial it is thought to be appropriate because taking Merriam as a reference (1998:19) «a case study design is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved. The interest is in the process rather than outcomes, in context rather than specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation». The case study part is based on multiple and different sources of evidence (Gillham 2000), classroom observation by means of a checklist, recordings with related transcriptions, and interviews with the lecturers.

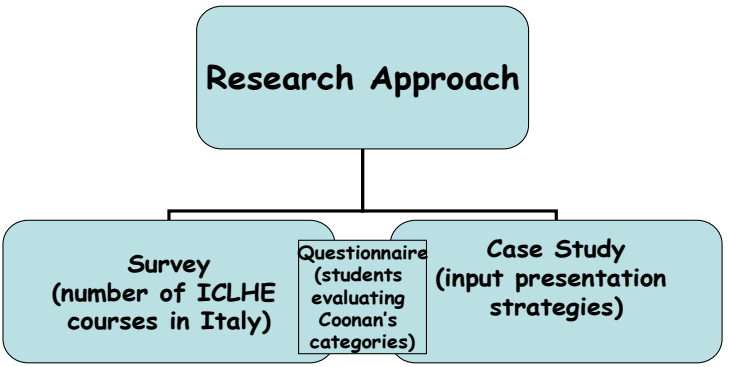

Figure 2. Concept map of the Research Approach.

5.1. Research Questions

There has been substantial research into CLIL, but mainly at the school level, although English-medium teaching is becoming more widespread in non-English-speaking universities in Europe. The present study seeks to add to the body of knowledge and concentrates on the most important and pertinent questions to be addressed whilst acknowledging that it cannot cover every angle.

1) What is the context of CLIL at the tertiary level in Italy?

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2) Building on the literature on CLIL, what types of lecturers' input presentation strategies for students, if any, can be identified?
3) In the light of lecturers' and students' views of which input presentation strategies are effective, what are perceived to be the best practices that can be used as guidelines for other CLIL contexts at the tertiary level?

5.2. Research Strategy and Procedures

Henceforth each section will adopt the same type of descriptive sequence. It will start with the questionnaire for the universities, then speak about the questionnaire for the students, and, finally, present the case studies. The following procedures were adopted for data collection.

5.2.1. *Institutional Survey*

To investigate the situation of CLIL at the tertiary level in Italy, a questionnaire was sent by e-mail to all Italian universities. Prior to sending the e-mail telephone calls were made in order to establish a personal contact and find the right person to whom the email should be sent. University deans, the Heads of the Internationalisation offices, the Chairs of English, the Heads of Faculty and the CLA (Centro Linguistico di Ateneo - University Language Centre) also received a copy of the message in order to extend possible respondents. Where no response was given, a follow-up e-mail was sent after two weeks.

As CLIL at the tertiary level is at its early stages in Italy, even single courses at Bachelor's, Master's or Doctoral levels have been considered. The courses had to be content courses and not ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses.

5.2.2. *Student Questionnaire*

A questionnaire was administered to a sample of students different from those involved in the observations and recordings. The decision

was made in order to be able to effectively use the students to test the strategies that Coonan (2002) indicates as positive for a CLIL teacher in order to provide comprehensible input.

5.2.3. *Lecturers' Case Studies*

Following the case study protocol, a triangulation of the data based on the following schema has been adopted.

Classroom observation. The observation was non-participant semi-structured. The field notes were in the form of impressions and comments that the researcher thought worth pointing out.

Recording/Transcription of the lectures. The study called for the audio recording of four university lectures using a small pocket-size digital recorder. Furthermore, each lecture was also transcribed so as to create a corpus of spoken data that served to highlight the input presentation strategies of the academic staff towards the students and to allow a more in-depth analysis.

Interview with the lecturer. After the recording, the lecturers were asked during a semi-structured 30-minute interview to comment on some important features (detected by the researcher on the basis of the field notes and the observations) that had arisen during the observation of the lecture.

5.3. SAMPLING

The study provides for sample selection based on the following criteria (Duff 2008), total population sampling as regards the census/ survey of Italian universities, convenience sampling as concerns the student questionnaire; and criterion sampling as regards the case studies (see *Table 2*).

The universities were selected according to the database provided by the Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca (Ministry of Education – http://www.miur.it/0002Univer/0020Atenei/index_cf2.htm) and Repubblica's University Guide (http://temi.repubblica.it/guide-universita2010/). Seventy-six universities were surveyed in all.

Table 2. Synoptic table of sampling procedures.

SAMPLING PROCEDURES		
RESEARCH METHODS	NUMBER	TYPE OF SAMPLING
Survey of all Italian universities	76	Total Population
Student Questionnaire	134	Convenience Sampling
Case Studies	4	Criterion Sampling

A total sample of 134 students was surveyed.

The case studies were chosen based on the following criteria having a mixed institutional experience (long-term or short-term) of CLIL at the tertiary level, different teachers' profiles (depending on age and position), different Science faculties and both Bachelor and Master level programmes.

Table 3. Synoptic table showing the characteristics of the sample

SAMPLING PROCEDURES				
University	Lecturer	Level	Topic	Length (words)
1	41 years of teaching - native Italian	Bachelor in Medicine and Surgery	Physics	16,982
1	36 years of teaching - native Italian	Master in Biology and Genetics	Methods in Biochemistry	22,388
2	25 years of teaching - native Italian	Bachelor in Architecture	Architectural Planning	28,828
2	14 years of teaching - native Italian	Master in Rotary Wing Technologies	Ground Resonance	12,403

5.4. INSTRUMENTS

5.4.1. *Institutional Survey*

For the survey of English-taught programmes in Italian universities, the instrument chosen was a questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on the surveys by Wächter and Maiworm (2008) and Capozio

(2004). The aim was to have an up-to-date picture of English-taught programmes in Italy.

The programmes/courses addressed by the questionnaire included:

- the teaching of non-linguistic subjects (even individual courses) in English (by mother-tongue or Italian lecturers);
- teaching as part of three-year degree programmes, master's programmes [1], schools of specialisation and doctoral programmes;

The questionnaire did not consider:

- programmes where English is itself the subject being taught (for example, English Literature).

The questionnaire contained the following information, a title, an introduction (where the aim of the research and its context were introduced), detailed information for filling it in, and the submission deadline.

The questionnaire was five pages long (only three of which were to be filled in) and was divided into three sections.

5.4.2. *Student Questionnaire*

Concerning the validation of some of Coonan's (2002) strategies by the students, the instrument chosen was a questionnaire. Coonan's strategies have therefore been tested in terms of their applicability and usefulness. All the categories were explained (Foddy 1993) to the students, with definitions and examples, and a 4 point Likert scale was used in the questionnaire.

There were seven items (the same ones used for the checklist on the number of occurrences in the transcriptions) *using repetitions*, *using examples*, *use of summaries*, *using definitions*, *using synonyms*, *asking for questions*, *emphasising through intonation.* The survey was anonymous. It was in English, a language the students knew since they were studying International Relations and they had a curriculum with at least three languages. I was present when the questionnaire was administered; thus it was a group administration (Dörnyei 2003).

[1] No difference was made between what in Italy are called *Master's* and *Lauree Magistrali* (translated in English as Master's) because respondents did not differentiate between these two post-bachelor level programmes.

5.4.3. *Lecturers' Case Studies*

In order to enable triangulation of the data, multiple instruments were used for the case studies, namely observational checklist, recordings and transcriptions of lectures, and interviews with the lecturer.

Observation of lectures. The lectures were observed and field notes were taken. For the recordings of the lectures it was decided to use a type of transcription that is easy to read and interpret. An appropriate transcription format was created that is well suited to the research categories Jefferson's transcription system (http://www.staff.lboro.ac.uk/~ssjap/transcription/transcription.htm) which was originally developed for conversation analysis. The transcriptions did not intend to assess the competence of non-native speakers. The transcriptions are in British English. For each transcription the occurrences of Coonan's (2002) relevant categories (*using repetitions*, *using examples*, *using summaries*, *using definitions*, *using synonyms*, *asking questions*, *emphasising through intonation*) were counted.

Interview with lecturer. It was a one-to-one professional semi-structured format interview, using a protocol based on both a set of prepared and spontaneous questions. A simultaneous translation of all the questions was made directly during the conversation. *Table 4* summarises the instruments used.

Table 4. Table of instruments used for data collection.

INSTRUMENTS			
RESEARCH APPROACH		INSTRUMENT	RELATED RESEARCH QUESTION
Survey		Questionnaire	Question 1
Student Questionnaire		Questionnaire	Question 3
Case Studies	Observation	Field Notes	Question 2
	Transcription / Recording	Transcription	Question 2
	Interview	Semi-structured Protocol	Question 3

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5.5. Data Analysis

5.5.1. *Institutional Survey and Student Questionnaire*

All items from the two different questionnaires (Institutional and Student) were coded and put on an Excel sheet. The analysis of the institutional questionnaire followed two directions. The first was a database of all the programmes with facts and information on the faculties, the level, the names of the courses and the year of start. The second was based more on the type of experience e.g. the reasons for setting up these programmes, the students involved and the lecturing styles. These related to questions from six to twenty-five.

The following choice was made regarding data analysis for both institutional survey and student questionnaire:

- given the nature of the data it was decided to use a type of descriptive statistics, which implied general description of observed frequencies together with noteworthy results and trends observed for frequencies. Graphics used were pie-charts and histograms for the geographical location and university type variables.

5.5.2. *Lecturers' Case Studies*

The case studies were described individually. The final output was a focused description (Larsen-Freeman - Long 1991), since it is considered useful for analysing a particular issue, such as input presentation strategies. It is also useful when researchers observe and record with predefined categories, such as in this case with Coonan's.

The structure of the transcriptions was in the form of monologues. Since formal lectures were the focus of the investigation, it was always the lecturers who were speaking, with very few interactions with the students; thus, the text was similar to a monologue. The true gap elements between one phrase and another were indicated by pauses. Prosodic features were not described in detail as they could be very different from standard English, since non-native speakers were being recorded and it would have changed the nature of the investigation. It would have required investment in time and training and it might still be too subjective. The transcriptions did

not contain punctuation (except for question marks) and were checked for accuracy at least twice by listening to the recordings. In the presentation of data, the lengths of the excerpts varied conspicuously because I did not want to interrupt the meaningful flow of discourse of the lecture. It is also essential to note that all the lectures analysed were very specific in terms of the academic content, and the fact that only some extracts are presented makes them difficult to interpret for someone not well-versed in the field. Therefore, a brief contextualisation of the topics is given before the analysis of each excerpt. The first three-hour sample of transcriptions was double-checked by a mother-tongue colleague in order to be able to discuss features that created discordance.

Content analysis (Gillham 2000) was used to identify significant statements from the interviews. The interviews were only partly transcribed because content analysis was the most prominent feature to be sought for and no transcription rules were applied in order to ensure readability. The interviews were carried out in Italian, and then translated into English. The translation was close to the original version even though it is not the linguistic items which were being investigated but the gist of the content of what the interviewee said. The interviews were double checked by a mother-tongue colleague to improve accuracy (Mclellan - Macqueen - Neidig 2003, Maclean - Meyer - Estable 2004). It is indeed clear that lecturers had different styles even in their dealing with the interview. Some of them provided very long answers whereas others were very concise. At times they even evaded the question.

SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the research approach, which is mainly qualitative given the context, the research tools, and the fact that the focus was on a process more than a result. Within this qualitative paradigm, quantitative analyses (institutional survey and student questionnaire) and qualitative ones (the analysis of four case studies) were adopted. The case studies were analysed using a data triangulation (observations, lesson transcriptions and teacher interviews). Some ethical issues and the explanation of possible sources of bias were also made explicit.

PART THREE
ANALYSIS OF DATA

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6.
INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY OF CLIL PROGRAMMES AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL IN ITALY

6.1. Analysis of Findings

38 universities (50%) responded to the questionnaire comprising 7 of 14 private and 31 of 62 public institutions. 21 responses came from the North, 8 from the Centre and 9 from the South [1].

6.1.1. *Organisation*

- *Question 1 – Does the university offer English-taught programmes?*

The first answer indicates that ET programmes exist in most (74%) of the institutions that responded. Only 26% declared they had no such programmes. The data would be incomplete without examining other variables such as the type of institution (PU/PR) and the geographic location (North, Centre and South). Thus it was decided (given that the universities had different characteristics) to examine the relative frequencies.

The graph shows that private universities have proportionately more (86%) English-taught programmes. On average they perhaps have more contacts with foreign universities, rely more on attracting foreign students or on preparing very specifically the autochthonous students.

[1] Portions of the results of this survey were published in: Costa, F. and Coleman, J.A. (2012) «A Survey of English-medium Instruction in Italian Higher Education», *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, DOI:10.1080/13670050.2012.676621.

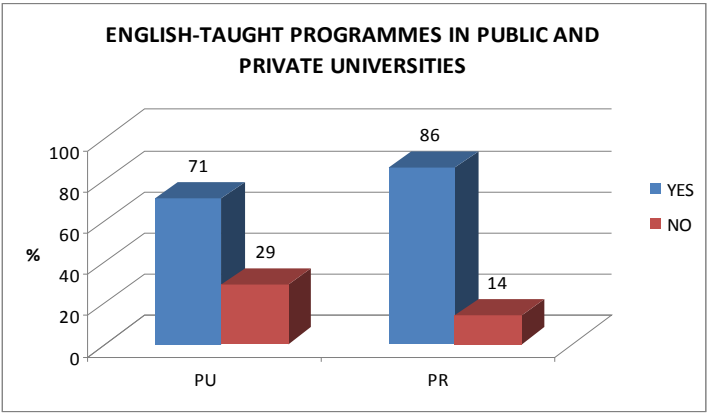

Figure 3. Data on public and private universities for question on the presence of ETPs.

The graph shows that Northern universities have the greatest proportion of English-taught programmes (90%), closely followed by those in the Centre (87.5%), with Southern universities far behind (22%). It reflects the economic and historical situation in Italy, where the North has always been stronger economically with the South trailing behind and slowly aligning to the rest of Europe.

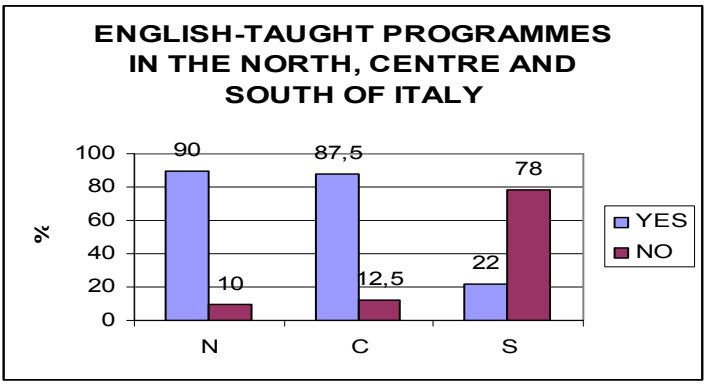

Figure 4. Data for universities in the North, Centre and South for question on the presence of ETPS.

- *Questions 2, 3, 4 and 5 – List those subjects that are taught in English (also noting the faculty). Which courses in the Bachelor's degree programme are entirely delivered in English? Which courses in the Bachelor, the Master's programme, or the Doctoral course activated?*

The subject disciplines with the largest number of single English-taught courses are Economics (89), and Engineering (26). This is what one would expect, since ETPs are quite common for those disciplines which by nature are more international and have very specific types of courses closely linked to anglophone language and culture. English-taught programmes were first introduced by northern private universities in 1992, while the most recent were introduced in 2010. Most of the programmes are at Master's level (57) then at Doctoral level (32) and Bachelor (10). For a detailed list of existing programmes.

- *Question 6 – Have these programmes been supported by university or external funds?*

Question 6 received a percentage (9%) of *no answer*, perhaps because of a desire not to divulge confidential information or because the exact answer was not known. Question 6 reveals that most (54%) of the universities do not receive funding for English-taught programmes. 24% of the universities receive *extra funding*, but within these universities integrating content and language programmes are financed by the university itself, which decides whether or not to allocate funds for this purpose. 10% receive *national funding*, without the source being specified, 6% receive *EU funding*, and 6% funding from *private organisations.*

When public and private universities are compared with regard to funding, for the most part (75%) private universities declare they have *no* specific *funding*. The data shows that the private universities generally call on less external funds (*national, extra, private organisations*) apart from *EU* funding, probably initiating the English-taught programmes from the already available budget, and at zero additional cost. On the other hand, the public universities rely more on *extra* (22%) and *national funding* (11%). *National funding* probably refers to government funding, which makes sense given the fact that these are public universities. Both types of universities receive respectively 3.8% (public) and 8% (private) *EU funding.*

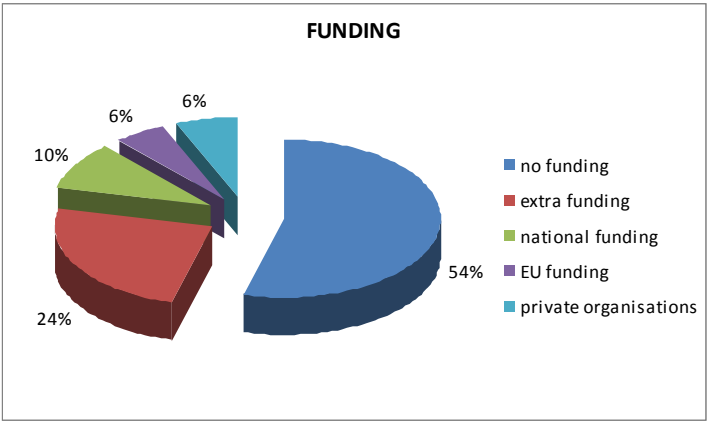

Figure 5. Pie-chart with percentages for question on funding.

From the geographic point of view, all universities from the South claim not to receive any funding. This explanation is logical since funding (public in particular) is declining all over Italy, especially for less prestigious universities such as those in the South according to the newspaper *Il Sole 24 Ore* university rankings (http://www.ilsole24ore.com/speciali/atenei_classifica/universita_dati2-tipo_statale.shtml and http://www.ilsole24ore.com/speciali/atenei_classifica/universita_dati2-tipo_non_statale.shtml). Northern universities follow (47%) those in the South but have *extra funding* (21%), *national and EU funding* (5% each) and *private organisation* funding (10%). Universities in Central Italy declare not to receive any funding (28.5%) for ETPs.

- *Question 7 – What were the reasons for setting up English-taught programmes?*

The reasons for instituting English-taught programmes can be broken down as follows: 32% *to improve international profile*, 21% *to attract foreign students*, which is closely linked to the previous reason, 24% *to prepare Italian students for the global market*, 8% *to improve their national profile* and 8% *to improve English language proficiency*, 5% *to promote interculturality*; and 1% both *to assist students from developing countries* and *other*.

One can immediately see from the data that the strongest reasons for implementing English-taught programmes come from the need to broaden the international horizons of universities because this strategy is adopted to attract students, better prepare Italian students for future careers or receive more funding. The reasons are mainly economic in nature. The percentage (8%) for *improve English language proficiency* indicates the fact that the universities attach relative importance to the language aspect of integrating language and content teaching. The figure for *attract foreign students as an economic resource* is 0%.

When the differences between public and private universities are analysed, both types implement English-taught programmes mainly to *improve international profile* (39% PR and 29% PU). Next comes *to prepare Italian students for global market*, for the public universities (24%), while for the private ones *to prepare Italian students for global market* and *to attract foreign students* are at the same level (22%). *To attract foreign students* (19%) follows for public universities, while for the private ones *to improve national profile of university* (17%). The other reasons cited by private institutions have a very low percentage. On the other hand, the public universities then cite, in order of magnitude, *to improve English language proficiency* (9%), *to promote interculturality*, *to improve national profile of university* (6%), and, finally, *to assist students from developing countries* (5%) and *other*. T*o attract foreign students as an economic resource* is non existent for both types of university. A more general analysis shows that the data for the public universities are more scattered.

- *Question 8 – What were the greatest difficulties in implementing teaching through English?*

Question 8 had a noteworthy percentage (17.86%) of *no answer*. In this case there might be the desire not to respond, since it would be strange for the respondents not to know the major difficulties in setting up such programmes or else that no difficulties were encountered.

30% of universities indicate the greatest difficulty in implementing ETPs is the *lecturers' insufficient English language competence*, while 31% cite the *Italian students' insufficient English language competence*. Many lecturers are reluctant to participate in the ETPs. The figure on the insufficient competence in English of Italian students is indicative of the fact that Italian students do not have a

sufficient level of the language. From the data from question 7 (reasons for starting ETPs), there appears to be an interest in the competence of Italian students. On the other hand, no respondents indicated *foreign students insufficient English language competence*, while 16% declared there is *scarce interest on the part of Italian students.* 15% declared there is *scarce cooperation between lecturers.* 7% indicated other reasons (*planning and management* and *scarcity of funding*), while 1% cited *scarce interest by foreign students.* Perhaps this answer reflects inadequate publicity for such programmes.

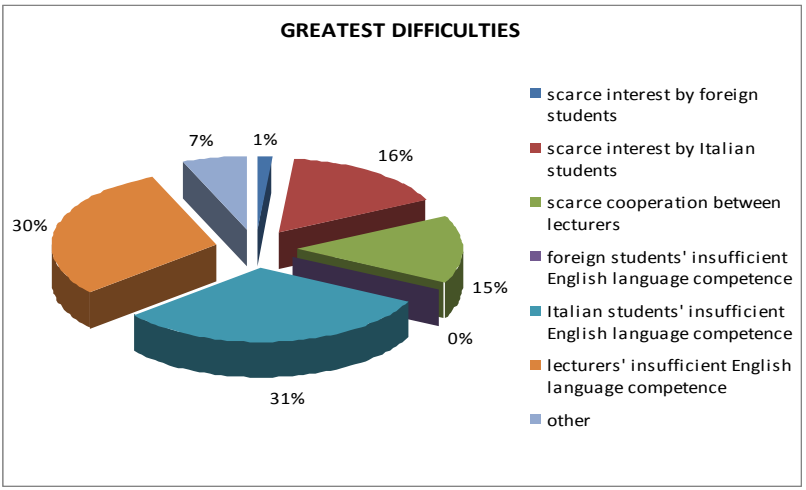

Figure 6. Pie-chart with relative percentages for question on the greatest difficulties.

- *Question 9 – Is there collaboration with foreign universities on the project?*

50% of the universities said they collaborate with foreign institutions while 43% said there was no such collaboration. 7% did not respond.

When the responses in terms of public or private universities are broken down, public universities collaborate less with foreign institutions (36% with a 10% of *no answers*), while all private universities cite such partnership. Perhaps public universities have more restrictions in creating contacts with foreign universities, while private ones have more autonomy.

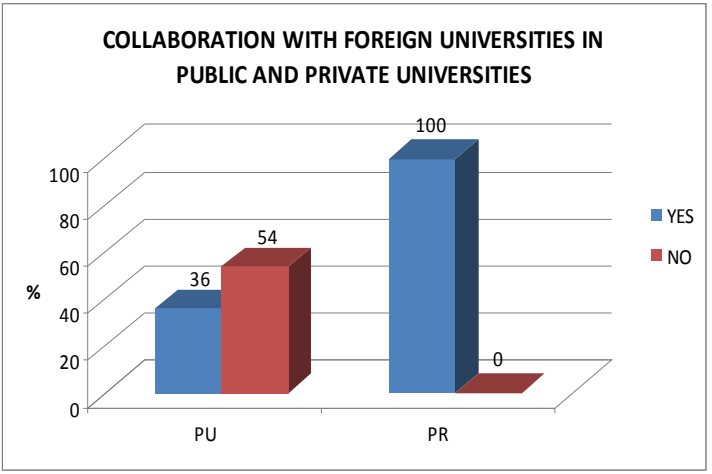

Figure 7. Data for question on the collaboration with foreign universities for public and private universities.

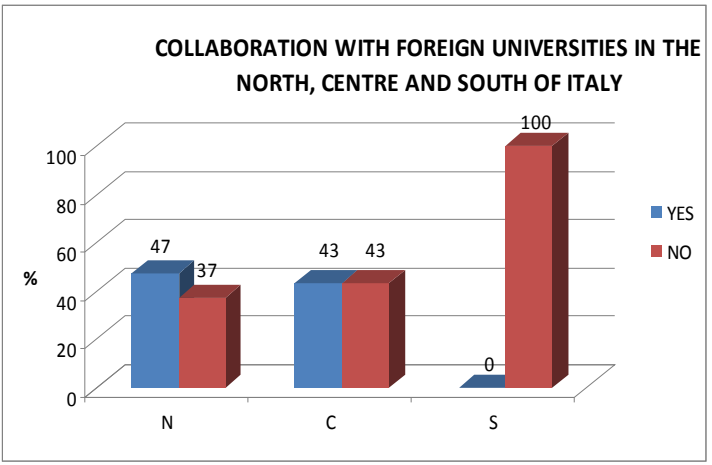

Figure 8. Data for question on the collaboration with foreign universities for universities in the North, Centre and South.

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Comparing collaboration with foreign universities across geographic areas, one can see that in the North there are more contacts with foreign universities (47% with 16% of *no answers*), followed by the Centre (43% with a 14% of *no answers*), where half the respondents cited such contacts, with the South trailing behind with all of them declaring there were no contacts.

- *Question 10 – Has there been an increase in the number of English courses in the last academic year?*

Most universities (64%) state that English-taught programmes have increased, which is plausible since it is a common trend among European countries (Wächter - Maiworm 2008). 29% said they have not increased, while 7% did not respond.

Examining the distinction between public and private universities, both say there has been an increase in ETPs, but the private ones declare a greater increase (100% compared to 54% of the public ones). Public universities have a 10% of *no answers.*

Analysing the context from a regional perspective, the North (68% with 11% of *no answers*) and Centre (57%) have increased the number of English-taught programmes, while half of the institutions in the South have increased them. The situation in the South is more stagnant compared to that in the North whereas there is less difference with the Centre.

- *Question 11 – In most cases how would you evaluate the ETP experience?*

There is a percentage (7.1%) of *no answer* meaning that evaluation of the experience is a straightforward answer. When asked to evaluate the experience, 54% say it is *positive as regards the learning of the content*, 46% *positive as regards the learning of the English language*, and 0% for the other answers (*negative as regards English language*, *negative as regards content*). The positive answer as regards the *learning of the English language* is almost half of the one on content and shows how these programmes could take advantage of both language and content learning. It is in contrast, though, with question 7 where 8% declared that ETPs were established in order to *improve English language proficiency*. There are no negative answers and this testifies to the importance of such courses. There is a slight prevalence of content reasons over language reasons in positive responses.

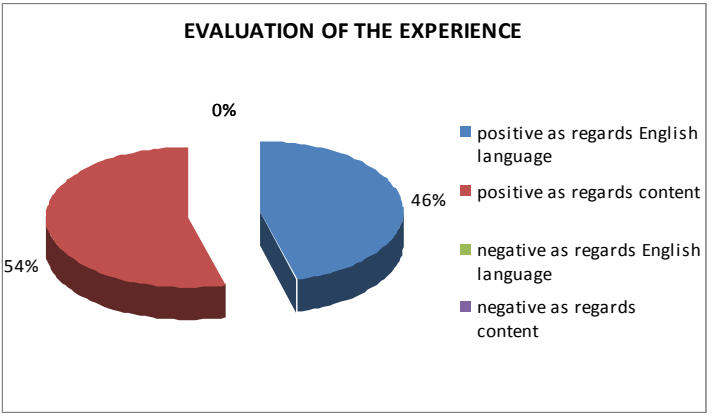

Figure 9. Pie-chart with percentages for question on the evaluation for the experience.

- *Question 12 – Does the use of the additional language involve languages other than English?*

68% of universities said they did not use other languages, while 32% said they did. English is clearly the most used language precisely because, on the one hand, it has become the *lingua franca* in Europe, and on the other it is the language in which papers, theses and research in certain fields (Science and Economics, in particular) are published.

Analysing the situation for public and private universities, in both cases English is the main language used with 64% PU and 83% PR.

Comparing the context in the North, Centre and South, other languages are not used in the North (74%) and Centre (71%), while in the South (100%) they are. The North uses 26% of *other languages* while the Centre 29%. These data seem to be very odd because one would expect to have other languages in regions which are at the borders with other countries. One Northern and one Southern university teach through French; one Northern and one Central institution through German. The other positive answers were less specific, and may reflect respondents' uncertainty as to whether other vehicular languages were used at all.

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- *Question 13 – Do you adopt the Diploma Supplement as an international certification for the courses of study?*

53% of universities say they use the Diploma Supplement, while 39% say they do not. These figures are noteworthy since a number of universities do not consider the DS instrument, even though it is widely used in other European institutions. 4% responded that they did not know what the Diploma Supplement was, and 4% did not answer at all.

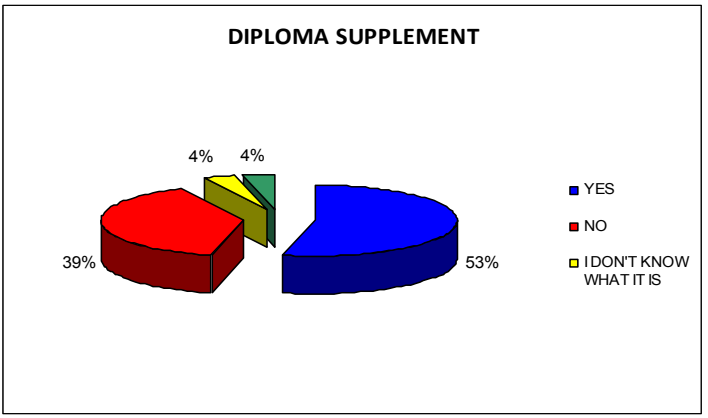

Figure 10. Pie-chart with percentages for question on the Diploma Supplement.

As regards the difference between public and private universities, the public universities are divided into those that use the Diploma Supplement and those that do not (45% each with a 5.5% of *no answers*). 83% of private universities use it and only 17% do not. Clearly a tool such as the Diploma Supplement is useful internationally only where there are close ties with other institutions in terms of both students and faculty and it explains why private universities use it more.

Comparing the context in the North, Centre and South, the Diploma Supplement is more used in the North (63% with a 5% of *no answers*), though there was also a higher percentage of universities that did not know what it was compared to the situation in the other regions. In the Centre there was a higher percentage of universities that did not use it (71%), while in the South there was an equal proportion of institutions that adopted and did not adopt it. Noteworthy

is the data from the South, where the issue regarding the Diploma Supplement appears better than in the Centre, perhaps because in the former region universities have to point more toward an international certification in order to survive.

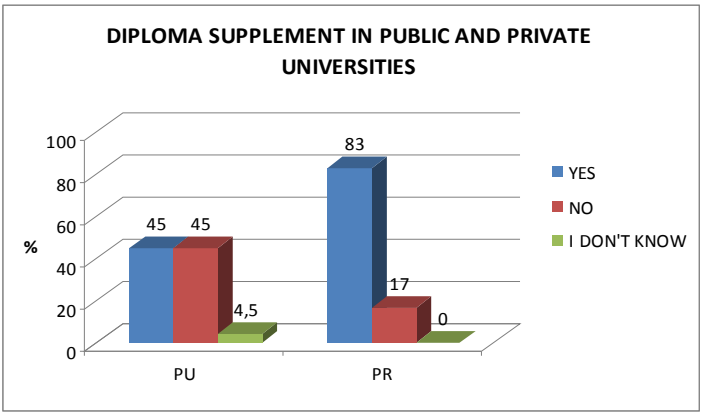

Figure 11. Data relative to question on the Diploma Supplement for public and private universities.

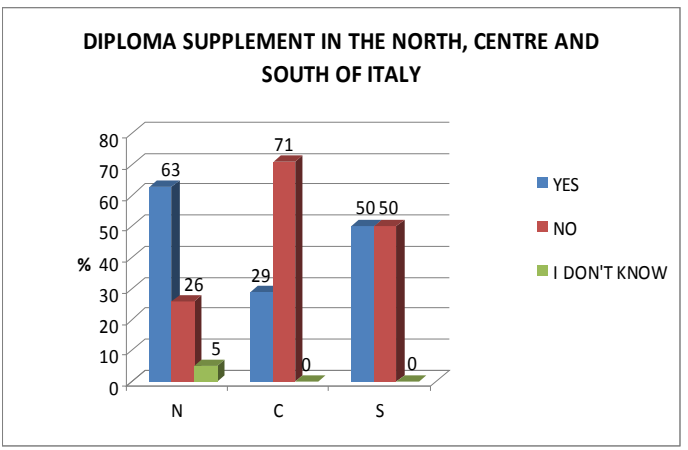

Figure 12. Data relative to question on the Diploma Supplement for universities in the North, Centre and South.

6.1.2. *Teachers and Teaching Styles*

❑ *Question 14 – For the most part how are the lecturers involved in the project selected?*

59% declared they had chosen lecturers *according to specific competencies*, while 26% said they did so on a *voluntary basis*, 15% answered *I don't know*, and 0% that there was some sort of constraint in the choice.

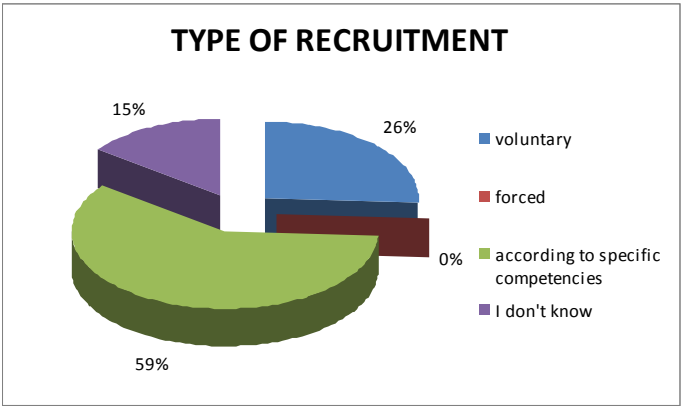

Figure 13. Pie-chart with percentages for question on the type of recruitment.

Comparing public and private universities, the former have more scattered results, starting from *according to specific competencies* (45%), followed by *voluntary basis* (32%) and *I do not know* (18%). *According to specific competencies* is the only response from the private universities, which seem to aim more toward a more professionalised English-taught programme.

❑ *Question 15 – How would you describe the competencies of the majority of lecturers?*

7% did not respond. 90% responded that the lecturers are *L1 Italian subject lecturers* a *Figure* which corresponds perfectly with what emerged from the case studies. Only 10% were *L1 English subject lecturers.* Thus scarce use is being made of the English subject lecturers even though they could represent a valid resource provided

that the institutions finds some. On the other hand, it should be noted that students tend to value English-taught courses from native speakers of their language, both because students relate better to someone who is not perfectly fluent in English, and feel less inhibited toward them, and because if the teachers know the students' native language they are more careful and better understand their language difficulties (Bartik - Maerten - Tudor - Valcke 2010).
When the difference for private and public universities was analysed, the vast majority in both cases responded *L1 Italian subject lecturers* (84% PU and 83% PR), though there was a slightly higher percentage of *L1 English subject lecturers* (17%) responses for private institutions in the light of more exchanges with foreign universities, as noted in one of the previous questions. 9% of public universities did not answer.

An examination of the background in the main areas of the country reveals that only in the North is there a noticeable, though small, percentage of *native speakers* (13%) among the academic staff, while the Centre and South have none. There are probably fewer native speakers in the latter two areas because universities are less prestigious and attract fewer foreign lecturers. 11% of universities in the North did not answer.

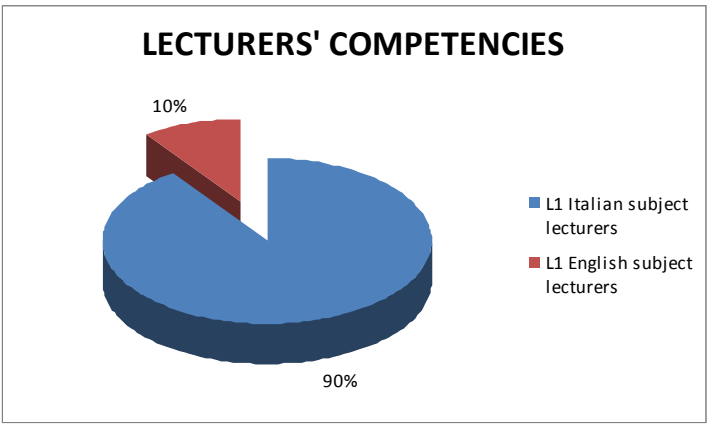

Figure 14. Pie-chart with percentages for question on lecturers' competencies.

- *Questionn 16 – Is there special training for lecturers who participate in English-taught programmes?*

77% of the universities answered that they provide *no lecturer training*, a figure corroborated by the case studies (see sections on Interviews with lecturers). This result perhaps owes to the fact that the programmes have only recently been implemented, that the universities simply do not feel the need for particular training, or that, in a period of global economic crisis, they cannot afford such training. 15% said they had provided for a *language course*. This would represent the best and most economical option for a CLIL-type of teaching given that university academic staff that participate in English-taught programmes come from specialised disciplines and might not always have an adequate level of English. 8% said they provided *methodological training*.

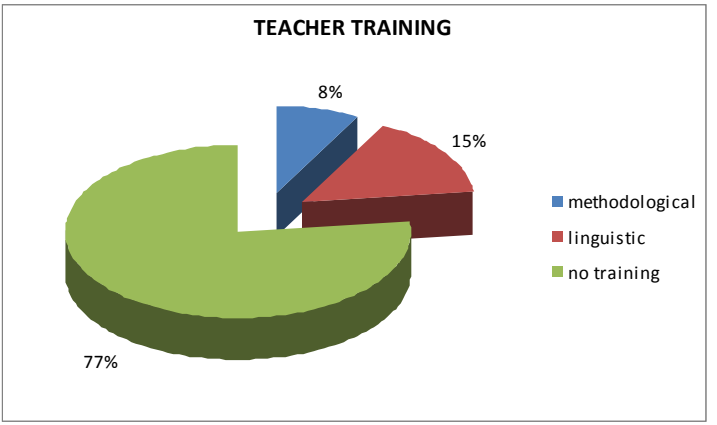

Figure 15. Pie-chart with percentages for question on teacher training.

The data show that both public and private universities present all three options in terms of lecturer training. In the former there is a percentage of universities that provide *methodological training* (8%) and *no such training* (68%); a small percentage declared they provide *linguistic training* (16%). *No training* (86%) represents the highest percentage for private universities, followed in equal measure by *linguistic* (7%) and *methodological* (7%) training. In this instance the public institutions seem more advanced in that they provide more training.

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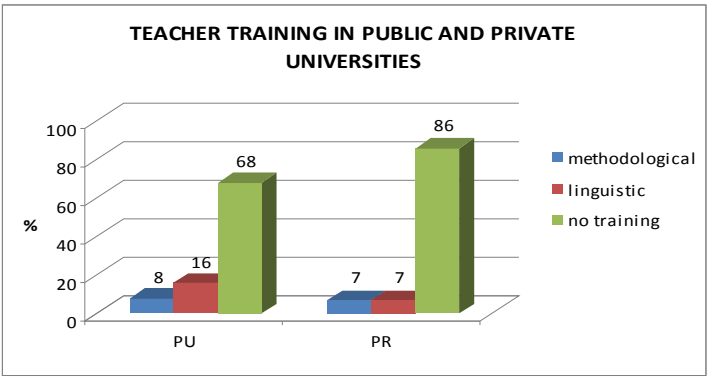

Figure 16. Data for public and private universities for question on teacher training in public or private universities.

Breaking the figures down for the main areas in the country, universities in the North had a very high percentage of *no training* (84%), while the situation in the Centre is much more scattered, with *linguistic training* (50%) in first place followed by *no training* (43%) and then *methodological* (21%). Perhaps the Centre points more toward the preparation of lecturers in order to gain more visibility abroad, and implements a specific training programme to this end.

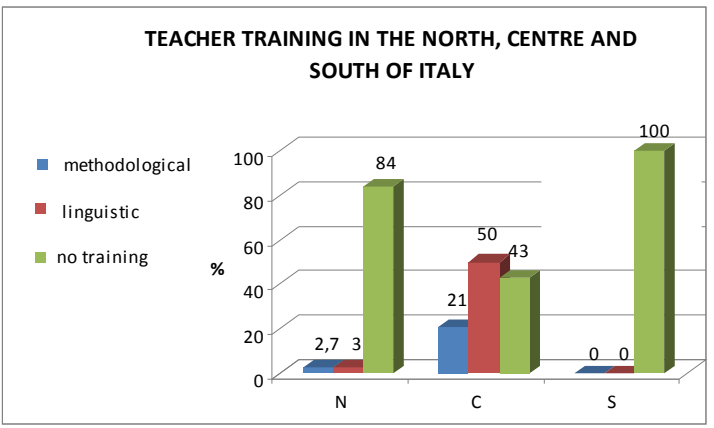

Figure 17. Data for the North, Centre and South for question on teacher training.

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❑ *Question 17 – What percentage of classes are in the form of formal lectures?*

71% of the universities said they provided formal lectures 70-100% of the time, which is a noteworthy figure that testifies to a very traditional type of teaching style. 13% said they gave formal lectures 50-70% of the time, while only 13% and 1% said formal lectures occurred 20-40% and 10-20% of the time, respectively. These figures are corroborated by the case studies and by a noted tradition in university teaching that favours formal lectures.

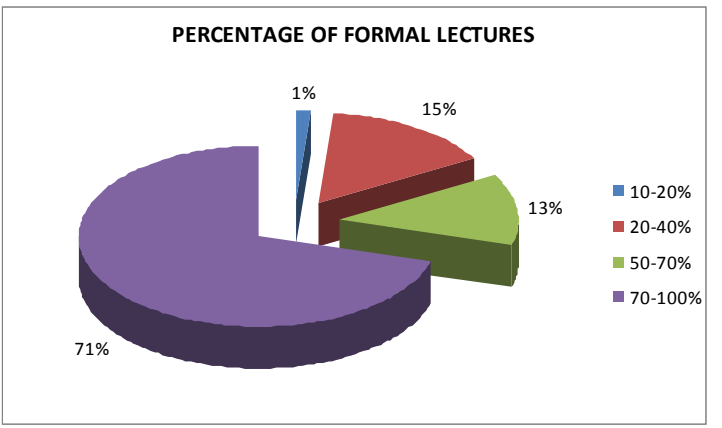

Figure 18. Pie-chart with percentages for question on percentage of formal lectures.

❑ *Question 18 – What teaching materials are used most often?*

A noteworthy percentage (13%) said they were not able to answer the question. Question 18 was inserted precisely to find out how much of what was going on in the classroom was known by the administrations. There are few directives and controls from the top which has positive and negative sides to it. A small percentage (11%) said they made use of *Internet-based materials*, while only 3% declared they used *videos*. The answers show that, at least as far as the teaching techniques are concerned, the teaching styles are diversified.

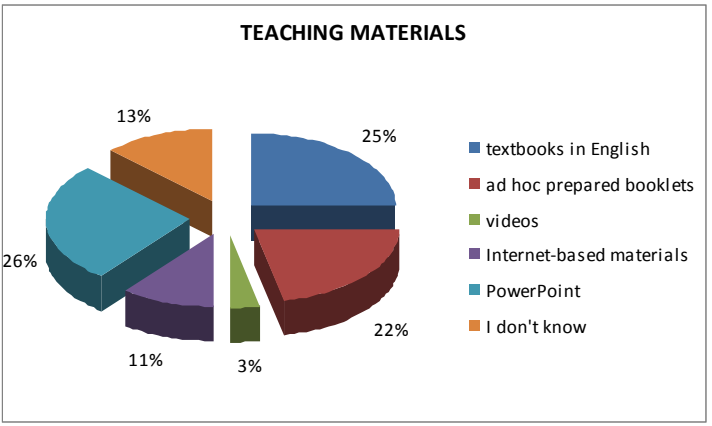

Figure 19. Pie-chart with percentages for question on teaching materials.

6.1.3. *Students*

- *Question 19 – In most cases, which linguistic abilities are most promoted among the students?*

29% stated that *listening* is the language skill most developed in the students. 20% responded *I don't know*, which again testifies to a lack of communication or interest between the administrative and teaching areas of the university.

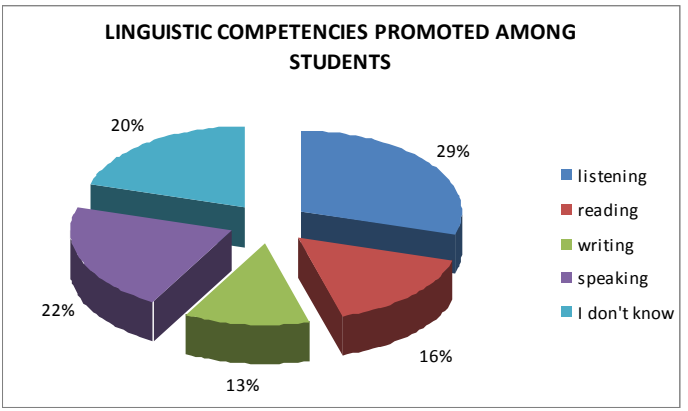

Figure 20. Pie-chart with percentages for question on the linguistic competencies promoted among the students.

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22% said that *speaking* skills were developed, which is quite surprising in fact, during most of the observed lectures there was little interaction and very few occasions for the students to speak. Moreover, most of the exams are written. Finally, 16% and 13% declared that *reading* and *writing* are the most elicited competencies.

❑ *Question 20 – In most cases, in which language are the exams given?*
Slightly more than half (57%) of the sample said that *English* was the language used for exams. If one adds this to the *Figure* for the use of *both Italian and English*, then the result is in line with the concept of CLIL at the tertiary level. It is important that the assessment takes into account the integrated nature of language (English) and content (Serragiotto 2003, Llinares - Whittaker - Morton 2012). 19% of the universities use only *Italian* for exams, while 4% said they were not in a position or did not want to respond.

When the differences between public and private universities are compared, both use *English* for student assessment. However, the public universities have a more varied response. After *English* (52%) they indicate the use of *Italian* (23%), *both* and *I don't know* (4.5%) in that order, while after *English* (67%) the private universities indicate *both* (33%), with virtually no percentage for the other two items.

As far as the main areas in the country are concerned, universities in the North indicate, in order, *English* (55%), *both* (21%), *Italian* (13%) and *I don't know* (5%) as the language of assessment. The reality is slightly different in the Centre: *English* (57%) comes first, followed by *both* (21%) and *Italian* in equal measure, while *I don't know* is non-existent. In the South *Italian* (50%) and *English* (50%) are at the same level. Northern universities adopt a teaching approach similar to that of CLIL at the tertiary level, since they utilise the target language, or at least both languages.

❑ *Question 21 – Students' admission prerequisites.*
57% of universities have an *entry test*, which seems quite high. Probably the question was not clear, and as a result those responding thought it referred to an entry test for general admission to university and not to the English-taught programmes. Nevertheless, 39% said there was *no entry test*, while only 4% did not respond. One might evaluate these figures taking into account they also include universities with only a single ET course, in which case an entry test would

not be possible and even unjust, unless provision were made for a corresponding course in Italian. It is different if dealing with an entire degree programme in English but the data does not allow to differentiate in this regard.

The difference in proportions between public and private universities shows a less clear distinction between *entry test* (54%) and *no test* (41%) in the former, while in the latter there is a far greater proportion for *entry test* (67%). Moreover, private universities have a lower percentage for *no entry test* (33%) than public ones have (41%). 5% of public universities did not answer.

❑ *Question 22 – Linguistic admission prerequisites for students.*

Almost half (46%) of the respondents require an *international certification.* Roughly the other half (43%) have no such requirement, while 11% did not respond.

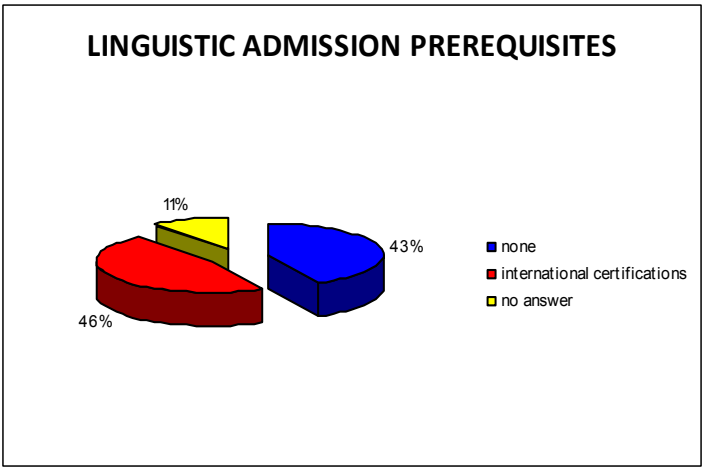

Figure 21. Pie-chart with percentages for question on linguistic admission prerequisites.

A slight majority of public universities said they do not require certification (45%), while slightly less than half require an *international certification* (41%). There was a 14% of *no answers.* Private universities have a wider gap as far as requiring or not requiring an *international certification* (33%) is concerned. The majority of private universities require one (67%). Here, too, private institutions show

they are more advanced, since the requirement of an *international certification* is a prerequisite for students who wish to do their university studies in English.

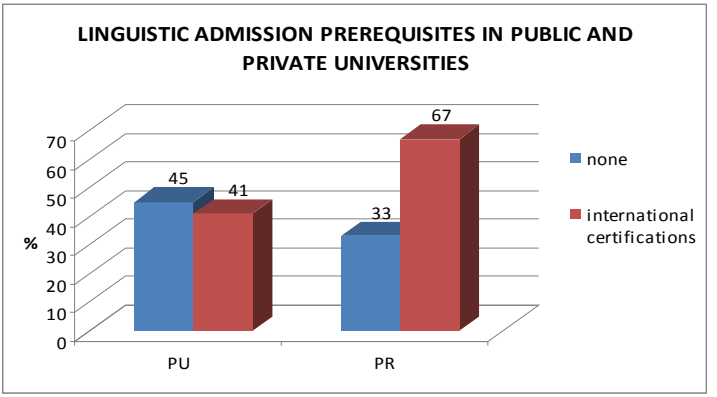

Figure 22. Data for public and private universities for question on linguistic dmission prerequisites.

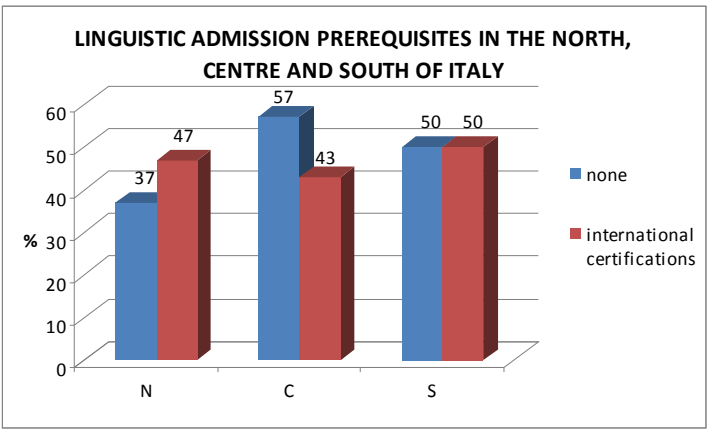

Figure 23. Data for universities in the North, Centre and South for question on linguistic admission prerequisites.

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A comparison of the three main areas in the country reveals that there is a higher percentage (47%) of Northern universities that require an *international certification* than those that do not (37%). 16% did not answer. In the Centre, however, there is a higher number of universities (57%) that do not require one, while in the South there is an equal split between the two options. As noted above, the North appears to be more advanced in this regard.

- *Question 23 – In general, what is the number of students that participate each year in some form of course of studies in a foreign language?*

Most universities (81%) have *fewer than 3,000* students on CLIL programmes. 11% did not respond. 4% have *between 3,000 and 15,000*, and the same percentage have *between 15,000* and *50,000*. None of the universities have *more than 145,000* enrolled students in CLIL programmes.

- *Question 24 – Are scholarships available for those who follow an English-taught programme?*

Only 22% of Italian universities offer scholarships to students. This *Figure* does not show interest for foreign students but if the future intention is to attract the greatest possible number of students then the availability of scholarships might represent prestige and a good reputation even for those who do not receive such funds.

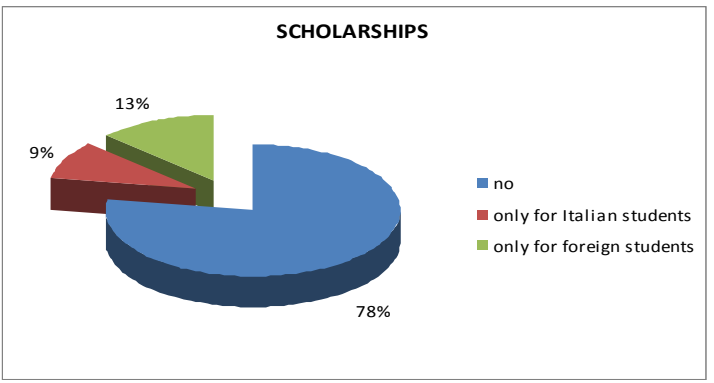

Figure 24. Pie-chart with percentages for question on scholarships.

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A majority of both public and private universities said they *did not have scholarships* (73% PU and 83% PR). Public institutions have slightly more scholarships *only for foreign students* (14%) than *only for Italian students* (9%). Private universities, on the other hand, are evenly split between *foreign* (8.3%) and *Italian students* as far as scholarships are concerned. In any case, the differences are not significant. The context in the North, Centre and South is quite similar. The majority of universities does not offer scholarships. However, in the North there is a small percentage of scholarships *only for foreign students* (16%) and very few *only for Italian students* (3%). On the other hand, in the Centre the few scholarships available are *only for Italian students* (29%). The entire sample of southern universities said they did not offer scholarships. The less prestigious universities also offer fewer scholarships and study opportunities, the reasons for which might have partly to do with the economic possibilities of the various institutions. The richest universities might be able to afford more scholarships.

- *Question 25 – Has there been an increase in the number of credits for English-taught courses?*

85% of respondents said there has not been an increase in the number of credits, while 11% said there has been, though not to a considerable extent. 4% did not respond.

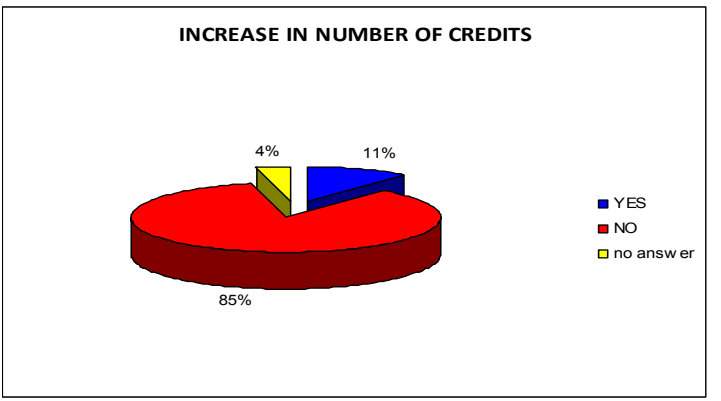

Figure 25. Pie-chart with percentages for question on the increase in the number of credits.

If universities wish to implement English-taught programmes they might provide incentives for both students and academic staff. An increase in credits means that the course is more demanding, indeed.

A majority of both public (86%) and private universities (83%) have not increased the number of credits for ETPs. 5% of public universities did not answer. It should be noted, however, that there is a slightly higher proportion (17%) of private universities that have increased credits than there are of public ones.

There is a similar situation regarding the question in the North, Centre and South, in the sense that the majority of universities have not increased credits. Only in the North do some universities (16%) plan to use this type of incentive, while in the Centre and South there are none.

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7.
STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON INPUT PRESENTATION STRATEGIES

The questionnaire was given to 134 students from one university in Northern Italy. They were second-year and third year students in the three-year degree programme in International Relations. Two participants were Erasmus students and four students were foreigners studying their whole degree in Italy. It took them on average ten minutes to fill in the questionnaire, and all of them turned it in because the administration was done in class. As the Likert scale only had four items it was decided to divide them in half, two positive and two negative. At the end students were asked if anyone had problems or doubts in filling it in, and no one answered in the affirmative [1].

All 134 questionnaires were valid. Only one questionnaire had an answer that had been cancelled and then corrected, but in any case the student's view was clear and there was no resulting doubt about interpreting the answer. The Likert scale had two items which were analysed as positive and two which were analysed as negative.

[1] Part of this chapter was published in: Costa, F. and Coleman, J. (2012a), «Examining Input Presentation Strategies», in Marsh, D. and Meyer, O. (eds) *Quality Interfaces: Examining Evidence & Exploring Solutions in CLIL*, Eichstaett, Eichstaett Academic Press, 99-102.

7.1. Analysis and Results

In general, the first element that stood out was that the strategies that Coonan considers valid are also thought to be so by the students. Only *repetition* has a higher percentage corresponding to *not helpful at all* (23%).

The first strategy, *repetition*, is one of the least useful ones according to the students' perceptions and has the most scattered results. Positive feedback is around 35% (*helpful* 22% + *very helpful* 13%), while most (*a bit helpful* 42%) of the students are not convinced that the *repetition* category is completely *helpful* with 23% declaring they might think it is *not helpful*. Considering that students very seldom used the *not helpful* evaluation with the other categories, these results would seem to indicate they think *repetition* is not important, perhaps because they think that mere repetition does not work, even though it is a strategy to fix concepts into memory. It is also thought that *repetition* is per se a very difficult category to be consciously grasped by the students.

As regards the *examples* category, most students' evaluations are positive (78% *very helpful* and 21% *helpful*). The items *a bit helpful* and *not helpful at all* do not appear in the results.

89% overall of the students think that the *summaries* category is *very helpful* (46%) and 43% *helpful*. 6% consider it *a bit helpful* and 1% *not helpful at all*. Therefore, even if the strategy is difficult to understand, the students still think it is very important.

As regards the category of *definitions*, 85% of the respondents were highly positive towards this strategy (*helpful* 54% + *very helpful* 31%). 14% of the students found it *a bit helpful*.

With regard to *synonyms* (Figure 55), 45% of students think they are *very helpful* and 42% *helpful*, a total of 87% of positive answers. 10% think it is *a bit helpful* and 2% *not helpful at all*. The attention by students to *synonyms* might be due to the fact that for some foreign words they need *synonyms* to be able to understand them.

As for the *questions* category, 17% of students found *questions – very helpful*, which, added to 44% of *helpful* is more than half (61%). 33% found *questions – a bit helpful* and 6% *not helpful at all*, which might be due to the fact that students feel *questions* are a source of stress during lectures.

Intonation is one of the categories considered more problematic

by the students, with 4% responding *not helpful* and 28% *a bit helpful.* 20% *very helpful* and 48% *helpful*. Learners' opinions about *intonation* are the most divided, perhaps because it is not very direct or transparent and is difficult to grasp.

Very few students answered the open question (20 out of 134) about what else can help. The answers were either single words or very short sentences. Among the most interesting findings is the following: three students indicated *use of the blackboard* as very useful. In effect, the *use of the blackboard* category had already been added to Coonan's in order to calculate the number of strategy occurrences in the transcriptions and observations. The same can be said for the *use of PP* (two students). Finally, it is noted that *friendly behaviour* is considered an input presentation strategy even if by very few students (3).

Table 5. Table summarising the open responses of the students.

RESULTS FROM OPEN QUESTIONS	
OPEN QUESTION	NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES
Open / Friendly behaviour / Let students ask questions / Friendliness	3
Use of the blackboard	3
Use of PP slides	2
Giving useful information to pass the exam	2
Give extra materials	2
Using brainstorming	2
Using books	1
Underlining important concepts	1
Same class in a native speaker environment	1
Proposing exercises	1
Go slower	1
Writing keywords	1

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8.
ALBERT

8.1. Context

The university was founded in the mid-14th century and is one of the oldest ones in Italy. The internationalisation programme has started in 2009 when the Faculty of Medicine instituted a degree programme in Medicine and Surgery entirely in English. The programme is open to both Italian and international students: in the first year 85% of students were mother-tongue Italian. The degree programme requires the completion of 360 credits over six years, with 36 exams, a hospital internship, the writing of a final thesis and a viva.

8.2. General Features of the Lecture – Field Notes

Two lectures were observed. They lasted about three hours in total. The course title was: Physics and it was at the Bachelor's level. General features derived from the field notes taken during the observation are as follows:

- The lecture was clear, dense with specific lexis and rich in information. The lecturer spoke very slowly, articulating and enunciating clearly every word.
- The students did not ask too many questions, and all of these were solicited in English during the lecture. However, when the lecture had finished, some of the students went to the lecturer to ask for clarifications in Italian. This behaviour might be a sign that the learners feel they are in an English context during the

lecture, and it reflects the consistency with which the lecturer expressed himself in English. At the same time it might also signify that when the lecture is over, the formal context disappears and the participants return to a more informal one where the mother tongue common to most students and their lecturer can be used, as occurs in most instances.

- When the lecturer had to answer students' questions he relied more often on examples and made more mistakes.
- The lecturer continually made use of rhetorical pauses typical of the lecturing style in Italy. At times these pauses corresponded to the end of an explanation of a concept, though many times this was not the case. These pauses are pure rhetorical devices.
- Overall, the lecturer's speech reflected the fact that he is a native-speaking Italian. Each word was clearly pronounced, given that Italian is a syllable-stressed language, unlike English, which is time-stressed.

8.3. Corpus Transcriptions

The transcription for the three-hour lecture was 16,982 words long. The extracts discussed hereafter were chosen for their showing instances from all the categories under analysis. As mentioned above in the Chapter Six on Methodology, several of Coonan's categories were used in the observation and were all present in the transcriptions.

Extract (1) was taken from an introductory lecture on blood, where the lecturer presents the various blood components. It begins by *summarising* what was said in the previous lecture using a very concise sentence. Subsequently he uses both *repetitions* as well as *synonyms* and *intonation* (*erythrocytes - red-blood cells*; *white blood cells - leukocytes*). *Synonyms* were a rare strategy because of the specificity of the scientific discourse.

(1)
last lesson I told you that blood is made by a cell suspension in aqueous solution (.) the blood cells are three kind of three kind (.) the erythrocytes (.) RED-BLOOD-CELLS (2.0) eh they are MANY five million per cubic millimetre (.) these cells are devoted to the oxygen transport (.) then we have much less cells (.) called WHITE-BLOOD-CELLS or leukocytes (.) there are many kind of these cells (2.0) about

five eight thousand per cubic millimetre (.) and then you have the PLATELETS eh the platelet are MANY but are much smaller then red blood cells (2.0) red blood cells are (.) of (.) discoid form (.) a section of which you see there (.) the diameter of these cells is about seven point seven micrometres (2.0) two micrometres in THICKNESS (2.0)

In extract (2) he is speaking about the hematocrit value. This part is simple to understand and does not require any other explanations apart from a *definition* and an *example*.

(2)
well (.) the volume they occupy in PERCENTAGE is called HEMATOCRIT VALUE (3.0) the VISCOSITY depends on hematocrit value (3.0) and is INCREASING with hematocrit value (4.0) eh the normal value of hematocrit is forty percent (.) eh this leads to about four time (.) the water VISCOSITY (.)

Extract (3) deals with the laminar flow of blood. The lecturer seems to be speaking off the cuff right after a student question. He uses rhetorical *questions*, many *repetitions* (*velocity*; *viscosity*), and *intonation* markers (*INCREASE*, *AXIAL BUILDUP*, *CHANGE*, *DECREASE*, *LIQUID*, *CONCENTRATE*) which represent the key concepts of this extract. This part is not very intelligible, and such instances seem to occur when the lecturer answers a student's question, as he has to express himself in a spontaneous, unprepared way. Once he has answered a question he usually asks *is clear this?*, or *or you want I repeat?* Such behaviour could be considered more as a rhetorical expedient than as true questions for the students; in fact, he does not wait for a response from them.

(3)
it is clear [student asks question] INCREASE near the wall incr-the BLUE ONE is the-the contour due TO THE AXIAL BUILDUP (3.0) so you have a CHANGE in contour no more parabolic there is a DECREASE in velocity near the axis (.) an increase in velocity near the wall (7.0) eh (.) now there is a QUESTION (4.0) which is the more (.) the decrease in velocity near the centre (.) or the increase near the wall? (.) well it is the last one (.) what happen-is happening (2.0) eh because this BEHAVIOUR of red blood cells give a decrease of the MEAN viscosity of the LIQUID (0.2) so the effective viscosity (.) is DECREASED (.) the effect near the wall (.) is (.) much more than the effect on the axis (.) it is () that the red blood cells take a form to be

more hydrodynamic (.) in flow in the vessel (.) you see? they CONCENTRATE on the axis (.) so the velocity the MEAN velocity is increased (2.0) eh is clear this? (.) or you want I repeat? (3.0) [student asks question] GREATER yes, with respect to the parabolic contour [same student goes on with question] no, it is greater the INCREASE in velocity near the wall (.) than the decrease in velocity on the axis [same student goes on with question] when you evaluate (.) the mean velocity (.) you find that the mean velocity is INCREASED hm? this means that the viscosity is decreased hm? (2.0) so the flowing is BETTER

Extract (4) deals with the elasticity of the walls, which appears to be a very difficult concept. The lecturer uses many *repetitions* (*elastic*, *pressure* and *energy*, all of which are better explained by the *ribbon* example). He also uses a *synonym*, *rigid*, *cohesion force*, which is a general service term for *infinite binding force* (this category could also be considered a *definition*) and many *intonation* markers such as *INFINITE BINDING FORCE* AND *COHESION FORCE*. Given that the cohesion force depends on the deformation, the lecturer uses a very fitting *example* of an *elastic ribbon* even though he does not introduce it with a specific marker such as *for example*.

(4)
you understand? is like an elastic when you take an elastic (.) and you (5.0) (tirato non so) pull (.) the elastic (3.0) at a certain point you l-leave (.) alone the elastic (.) and the energy accumulated is given () is transformed in uh a (.) kinetic energy (.) () it is the same so the wall in place (.) and then as the valve close the wall give a pressure (.) to the liquid and the pressure stay HIGH (5.0) so there is a continuous (.) transformation between (.) potential elastic energy and kinetic energy or pressure energy (.) you see (.) going on in aorta (5.0) so the fact that the wall is deformable is very important (.) we have to describe this effect (.) to understand well this effect (5.0) what means rigid matter? rigid mean INFINITE BINDING FORCE between the parts of the matter (3.0) the molecules for example (2.0) deformable matter means that the bonding is FINITE (.) and the bonding has the characteristic to be dependent on the deformation state of MATERIAL (10) the finite bonding force is (.) called COHESION FORCE (5.0) the fact that uh (2.0) bonding for the cohesion force in matter are dependent on the deformation state of material (3.0) can be explained if you take a an (.) ribbon (.) elastic ribbon (.) you pull the elastic ribbon (.) at the beginning the ribbon (.) is uh very deformable (3.0) if you give a (.) little pull (.) and you touch the elastic ribbon you see that you can deform it EASILY (3) but uh if you extend (.) you give a high pull and

> extend the ribbon (.) the ribbon (.) if you touch it (.) becomes VERY RIGID (3.0) so the cohesion force depends on the state (.) of deformation (2.0) you see? (.) and this complicates (.) the description of these forces (2.0)

8.4. LECTURER'S VIEWS

This section will highlight only those questions that provided meaningful answers for the purposes of this study. The lecturer had significant experience, having taught at university for 41 years, even though this was the first time he had done so in English.

He had a rather positive view of the experience after one semester, though he did not wish to rush to conclusions before the exams start as these might reveal (if low scores appear) shortcomings in the course.

He said he did not note any difference in teaching in English as opposed to Italian and, given that he had always had a positive evaluation from his students, he said he used the same strategies he adopts when teaching in Italian, as these have shown themselves to be both effective and productive. *I have copied these strategies exactly*, *since they have always brought success when teaching in Italian* [...] *I have also copied the style of my lecture presentation*, *even if I know for a fact that other lecturers have changed their presentation style*.

When asked which categories he feels are more important, he stated: *all are important*, *in part not to be repetitive. I try to continually change my way of speaking because I have to make sure my students do not become bored*; *I have to keep them on their toes. I consciously use all of these strategies in alternation.*

As regards the use of *repetitions*, he said that he does so particularly when the concepts are difficult. Moreover, he stated that: *this English group is the best in absolute terms. You will have seen yourself that there is little interaction. Instead in Italian there is much more interaction. That is*, *they stop me*, *they ask questions* […]. *Sometimes they ask about simple things*, *but at times I have to explain everything again.* The lecturer seems to ascribe the lack of interaction to the fact the students at lectures taught in English are very good and understand everything. At this point it was noted that perhaps the students do not intervene because they are afraid they speak English poorly, but the lecturer denied the possibility, saying that, *I*

try to convince them right from the first lecture that they mustn't be afraid of speaking. They have to wear the lecturer out and not be timid.

As far as his interest in the linguistic aspect is concerned, he said: *I am only interested in the content. I am interested in their learning Physics.* At this point he was asked if he is attentive toward the language when he teaches in Italian, and he said: *not even in Italian. They have to take a written exam, and they make mistakes even in Italian, but I never evaluate them on this.* This answer is linked to the following one, in which the lecturer said he did not feel the need for training in CLIL at the tertiary level, as he believed he is already sufficiently prepared.

9.
ISAAC

9.1. Context

The course is Methods in Biochemistry and is part of a Master's Degree in Molecular Biology and Genetics at the Faculty of Science, which is entirely taught in English. The course ends with a dissertation on a scientific investigation.

9.2. General Features of the Lecture – Field Notes

All the lectures made use of *handouts* created by the lecturer specifically for that course. He started from the written text (handuts), which he used as the outline of his discourse. This strategy is used because the *handouts* represent a sort of aid-memoire for both the lecturer, who does not lose the thread of his discourse, and the students, who have material to refer to during and after the lectures. The lecturer had a highly interactive style, continually interrupting his lecture to ask the students *questions* to which he always waited for an answer and provided feedback.

In general, the following patterns were observed out of the field notes taken:

- the lectures were dense as regards specific content;
- the lecturer had an advanced knowledge of English (as can also be noted from the extracts);
- the lecturer adopted rhetorical pauses during his discourse which are strictly linked to his culture and language (Italian);
- he used a written text (*handout*) as an outline for his discourse;

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- he often used *repetition* not only of individual lexemes but of entire sentences;
- he made use of *questions* to try to elicit interaction and used animated *gestures* to elicit answers;
- he always waited for an answer to these *questions* and supplied feedback with various response tokens and stronger *intonation* (*Yes! Exactly! Absolutely!*);
- he smiled a lot during the lectures and used *humour*;
- he corrected himself when he made mistakes;
- he used realia to show the students examples of the types of apparatus they would use; the lecturer appeared to be very interested in the practical explanation of the tasks the students would carry out during their work.

9.3. Corpus Transcriptions

The three hours of lectures were the equivalent of 22,388 words. The number of words was higher compared to other transcriptions, perhaps due to the lecturer's advanced knowledge of English and to the fact that he did not have breaks during the lectures.

In extract (1) the discourse is very specific. The lecturer is giving a lecture on Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography (HIC) and explaining to the students the type of polymer they could use. He gives an *example* (*sepharose for example*), in this way citing and eliciting notions he has already spoken about to the students. The use of *examples* even of a single word and not necessarily as part of an entire discourse is useful for this type of extremely specific lecture. There are many instances of *examples* in the transcriptions.

> (1)
> you will see on the left (.) a matrix (2.0) which is the usual eh neutral polymer that we have considered so far (.) maybe sepharose for example to which you have (2.0) found a ligand ok?

In extract (2) the lecturer explains that if there is a decrease in free energy there will be a stabilisation of the system. This concept is of fundamental importance, thus there are examples of how the lecturer treats the subject: that is, by using many (non-rhetorical) *questions* and many *repetitions* (*difference*, *if you have an increase*, *always*, *free*

energy). As one can see, the lecturer guides the students with his *questions*, waiting for their answer and trying to elicit from them some form of reasoning and logical thinking. He uses the Initiation-Response-Feedback structure, which, in Italy, is more common at lower educational levels than at university (Ricci Garotti 2009). He is engaged in a negotiation of meaning with the students, wanting them to understand on their own what might happen (in part because it heightens the topic under study and makes it easier for them to remember), since the predictive capacity in science is a fundamental objective or goal. He presses them with *questions*: *what are you expecting? as a result? if you have an increase in this factor?* He tries to become more specific, since he did not receive an answer to the first question. He then suggests: *you have a decrease in?* and gets an answer to which he reacts enthusiastically using *intonation* (*FREE ENERGY*). He again presses the students with *and what happens in a SYSTEM in which you have a decrease in free energy?* and *when you have a decrease in free energy you always have a …?*, to which he receives an answer, partly because he elicits it with *a sta-*. At this point he provides positive feedback (*YES …*) and continues with a rhetorical question (*do you remember …?*), ending with a statement of his own to sum up the concept (*every time you have …*). It is as if he used a climax to be able to achieve a co-construction of knowledge together with the students.

(2)
(.) in th-in the TEXT the difference in free energy is (.) equal to the difference in (2.0) H (.) what is H? [student answers] (.) ENTROPY correctly absolutely MINUS [writes on the blackboard] (.) this one ok? now (.) if you have an increase (.) sorry (.) yes obviously T (.) yeah temperature (.) if you have an increase in THIS factor (.) what are you expecting? (.) as a result? if you have an increase in this factor? [student answers] yeah (.) you have a decrease in? [student answers] (2.0) FREE ENERGY (.) and what happens in a SYSTEM in which you have a decrease in free energy? [student answers] (3.0) always (.) this always (.) when you have a decrease in free energy you always have a? a sta- [student answers] (3.0) YES a STABILISATION OF THE SYSTEM because (.) the lower is the FREE ENERGY (.) and the HIGHER is the? (.) STABILITY of the SYSTEM absolutely this is (.) ok? do you remember (.) from the second day from the general chemistry? eh eh from the thermodynamic? so (.) every time that you have a DECREASE in free energy of your SYSTEM (.) this corresponds to an increase in stability in stability

As already pointed out for the other lecturers, and in line with what is expected from a scientific discourse, *synonyms* are not often used. In the case of this lecturer, when they are used (extract 3) it is for more general terms (*a series of - a number of* and *a few points - a couple of points*).

(3)
you have a SERIES a number of (.) eh ligands available (.) and depending on eh (.) the (.) LEVEL of hydrophobicity of your proteins you may use or the other or the other ok? (3.0) ok (2.0) now (.) about dilution conditions (.) I (.) we have already (.) said (.) something but there are at least a few points (.) a couple of points that (.) should be corrected or at least commented (.)

Extract (4) provides an example of a very concise *summary* of what has just been presented. Chromatography is a separation process in which sepharose is very useful, as it produces porous material.

(4)
ok? so I will SUMMARISE just (.) telling you that (.) sepharose is very useful (.) not only because it contains a lot (.) of auxiliary groups (.) through which you may bind the ligand (.) but even though you may produce a POROUS material (2.0)

9.4. Lecturer's Views

The interview took place after the second observation and lasted around one hour because the lecturer liked talking even about things that were not among the questions. In general it should be noted that the lecturer seemed to have a very high awareness of how to teach, since much of what he said is backed up in what has been written in the field notes.

He has been teaching for 36 years, but he added that: *this is my second year teaching in English*, *if we don't count the lectures I have given elsewhere*, *in the sense that during these 36 years I have been invited to give other lectures*, *or the congresses where I have given oral presentations* […].

When asked about the differences between Italian and English he says: *When I'm there I improvise. Sometimes I mess up because improvising in Italian is not a problem*, *but in English sometimes I realise that it's a bit like a tail rolling around itself. I think it would*

have been better to say nothing […]. *This represents a limitation.* In some way he felt he is less fluent in English and has to hold himself back more because of a lack of mastery of the language. *I say a lot of silly things when I teach in Italian. I enjoy myself I tell jokes. I'm not at the same level with English. I'm afraid of saying nonsense, or else I have the self-control not to go down a certain road, and so I may not recall a term or not know it at all* […]. He also spoke of how tiring it is teaching in L2. *In this sense I can become distracted in English, so that in the end I have to concentrate with twice the effort. There is twice the effort compared to a lecture in Italian because I always have to keep in mind how to go on with the next sentence. Even more so because I don't prepare the lecture beforehand I don't have a schedule, because I prepare it on the fly* […] *I see something and say I have to add this* […]. *The level of concentration is exhausting. Physically it's much more tiring. This is the only true difference. After that, the subject is what it is, and to be honest it all comes from English texts. The outlines I give to the students have always been in English* […]. *The shift from Italian to English was not so traumatic since we were already going down that road* […]. *The initial years were tough.*

When it was observed that smiling is among his strategies, he answered: *I smile at my students because that's my disposition* […]. *If I can tell a joke to entertain them, I'm happy. In fact, I enjoy myself more than they do. I try to tease them as much as possible.* At this point he was asked if this might not be seen as a loss of authority in a role like that of a lecturer, and he noted that, on the contrary, he feels it is very constructive. He seems to search for ways to make the lecture less heavy. *We start from the assumption that they are old enough to understand, and that I am old enough to earn their respect, and so there has never been a problem. I can also take advantage of the situation to needle them without any problem. In all these years I've never had words with anyone* […]. *I start from the assumption that if, along with the lecture, a student can have fun; then in the end obviously the lecture becomes less heavy. Even the fact that they can intervene becomes a moment of relaxation, because they are looking at one another, communicating, and then we start again.* […] *I don't get stressed out by making mistakes. I don't consider myself at the same level as the students. I'm the lecturer, they are the students. They must learn and I must provide them with something. If they let me know I've made a mistake, I stop, and if they are right they are right. Sorry, I was wrong. I tip my hat to them.*

When asked about the strategies he uses, he answers very self-consciously: *I use questions, no doubt because it stimulates participation. I use this strategy. Then, intonation. A monotone voice puts them to sleep instead you need to keep up the pace. Repetition. I also use this often, perhaps too much so. Repetita iuvant. I believe that repeated two or three times the same concept isn't superfluous; rather it can be useful to get it to sink in.*

When he was asked how much responsibility he feels he has to also teach the language, he answered: *I try to tell them, to give them the correct pronunciation. From the language point of view I don't do this. I've never even thought of doing so. It's a new thing. I like to pronounce words correctly, but then I can come out with 'ligand' instead of 'laigand' because in the rush of my discourse it escapes.* […] *This happens when they come to do the exam. The first lesson I made a premise: that I would teach them a course in English not an English course. What's important is that they study in English, understand what they are studying, and then make the effort to do the exam in English. There is a girl who speaks English perfectly* […] *but apart from the language is always falling asleep.* At this point he was asked how he assesses the students. He said he does not pay attention to the language but admits that he at least corrects mistakes, even though they do not enter into the mark. *If this involves something elementary, that you don't even know how to read, then I'd say, 'Who made you decide to do a course in English?'. I'd throw that comment out at them.* […] *If I hear the mistake I correct it, but it doesn't enter into the mark. I assess the content if the student can explain it to me, that's okay for me. That's all that matters.*

As a final remark, this lecturer showed a particular interest in language and linguistic nuance, which is not so common for lecturers of non-language subjects. *But I'd like to be able to speak very well. I'd like to speak with an American accent, the kind I like. I like to say 'twendy' instead of 'twenty'* […] *or 'wader' instead of 'water'.* […] *Now when I retire, if I have the chance to go there for a year, I'd take it. I like it there.*

10.
FRANK

10.1. Context

The lectures were given at the Faculty of Architecture and Society. The university is located in Northern Italy and was founded midway through the 19th century. It is a scientific-technological university that academically prepares engineers, architects and industrial designers, and it participates in numerous research and training projects, while continuing to reach out to other countries: from North America to Southeast Asia and Eastern Europe. It has had an interest in internationalisation, offering numerous exchange programmes and joint degrees entirely in English.

10.2. General Features of the Lecture - Field Notes

The title of the course was Architectural Planning within the Bachelor in Architecture. The lecturer alternated formal lectures with seminar-type revision classes based on student work. In both cases the lectures were effectively monologues, so there was no real difference between the two types of classes.

The first lecture was presented as an off-the-cuff general lecture on Architecture that touched on cultural aspects and introduced pertinent reflections. The lecture has been defined as off-the-cuff since the lecturer had evidently not prepared the lecture in advance, which is part of his teaching style.

The topic of the lecture was the degree to which Architecture could be considered a Science or an Art. It is worth reflecting here on

the fact that such a topic is in line with the type of faculty involved. This lecturer in particular reflects the epistemology of his subject, which is half scientific and half artistic. His teaching style (the fact he has a style can be seen from the interview below) was very humanistic, even if he mixed in detailed scientific explanations. After having observed one of his lectures, the general impression is that he wanted to create Socratic doubts in his students to subsequently lead them to reflections that would be fruitful for their future work. He proceeded by way of digressions, anecdotes and citations. However, in the end, he always provided a summary of what he had said.

In general, the following patterns were observed:

- the lecturer had a very advanced level of English which is also confirmed by the transcriptions;
- he used many discourse markers, such as *you know*, and often relied on vague language;
- he corrected himself;
- he made continual use of erudite and non-erudite quotations;
- at times he also used other languages, such as French and German;
- he continually drew on the blackboard. It was very useful for following his discourse.

10.3. Corpus Transcriptions

The three hours of lectures were the equivalent of 28,828 words. This high number of words might be due to the lecturer's advanced knowledge of English, which explains his fast and fluent delivery or to the fact that he did not have any breaks. Moreover, he allowed less room for student intervention. It is he who held the floor most of the time.

Extract (1) provides a typical example of how this lecturer teaches, that is using a mix of all the categories in a very original way. He is citing *Bauhaus* as a school that believed in the architect as a scientist. The *repetitions* he uses are often proper nouns (*Bauhaus*, *M.*). He then follows with an *example* to explain what the *gute form* is. He also codeswitches from German (*Gute Form*) to English (*good form*). At the end of the extract he uses a *definition* to explain a technical term: *ergonomy*.

(1)
one could say that the BAUHAUS in Germany as a SCHOOL (.) sort of theorised this-this thing even if it has a very mystical I would say beginning (.) when you see the picture of the people in Bauhaus that look like MONKS you know it then was as some kind of community idea community (.) THEN there was a thing called ULM school (.) recently they had-they had a show in Milan about M.T.M. (.) he is still alive and he is on the cover of Domus magazine now (2.0) and M. could be seen as the (.) legacy of the Bauhaus you know the Nazi closed down the Bauhaus some people fled to America () and (.) in a way there's a thing in German called Gute Form good form (.) [writing on the blackboard] which we could take the BRAUN RAZOR as the example I'm not saying the BMW this is the shape of the Braun razor (.) this is in a way is that some kind of designer takes the techniques (.) in a way what we call ERGONOMY the science of the measures of man (.)

Extract (2) continues the discourse on habits and methods, discussing how an architect should not focus on habits; otherwise it can become a nuisance. Better yet, the architect should rely on habits up to a certain point. Here there is an example of the use of *synonyms* (*save time - time savers*).

(2)
so one could say METHODS AND HABITS SAVE TIME are time savers (.) but they're risky (.) because there is a moment you don't discuss it any more (.) ON THE OTHER SIDE if you always start from NEW (.) you (.) you question every time

Extract (3) presents a disquisition on Opera houses and how these should be built. As one can see, there is a purely scientific part on acoustics, as well as many rhetorical *questions* (*do we need a formal auditorium …?*, *is it that range …?*, *what is the speed …?*). Some *repetitions* of specific lexis were also found (*opera house*, *humidity*, *sound*), and in general many *repetitions* and *emphasising through intonation* (*FIXED*, *MOBILE*, *OPERA*, *ACOUSTICS*, *SPEED OF SOUND*, *PRESSURE*, *TRIANGLE*, *BOUNCE-OFF SOUND*, *MAXIMUM MATHEMATICAL DIMENSION*, *OPERA*, *SHOEBOX*) of terms which create cohesion in the text, since the explanation is particularly complicated. Moreover, there is a *summary* introduced by *all I am trying to say*. This is a typical approach by a lecturer who realises he needs to give a *summary* of what he has said, since his delivery can at times be confusing.

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(3)
ok? (.) then of course last thing about this do we need a FORMAL AUDITORIUM (.) or do we need just a hall? that's another thing (.) I mean eh (3.0) it's a typological choice (.) you need to be fle-FIXED seats or MOBILE seats (.) you can have arguments for the other (.) if you took (.) let's say (.) there's always some power in specificity (.) maybe an OPERA house (.) for example eh there's one main difference about opera houses (.) which is in opera you should not use amplification ok? then (.) the-the ACOUSTICS of an opera house is this (.) you have (.) [draws] if this is a singers Pavarotti and you're sitting HERE (.) you have a direct thing (.) and the SPEED OF SOUND in eh say thirty percent humidity today maybe is not because it changes with humidity (.) let's say something like twenty-seven metres a second (.) let's say twenty-four (.) is it that range no? what is the speed of sound in a room of air? it depends on PRESSURE anything or sort of (.) THEN if you have then Pavarotti singing (.) is also emitting sound air and you have bouncing off (.) SO THIS IS a-a TRIANGLE (.) and of course this is longer than this ok? (.) THEN if this is twenty-seven (.) and the sum of this and this is say forty-two (.) since THIS SOUND will get to your ear half a second later (.) ok? (.) then the LONGER it gets (.) if this is let's say (.) eh let's say a hundred (.) you will take sort of three seconds to go to there (.) and then this is a hundred and fifty (.) the DELAY between the DIRECT SOUND and the BOUNCE OFF SIGN (.) is one second and a half (.) you need to have an echo (.) so there is a MAXIMUM MATHEMATICAL DIMENSION of OPERA houses (.) given by not having an echo (.) this it LIMITS the number of seats of OPERA houses (.) it MEANS that you cannot go gigantic opera houses (.) without doing some very strange devices or bouncing off it's a very complicated thing (.) then of course you said (.) but then I take away (.) if I make all this sound absorbent then just to say that when you have the big halls like METROPOLITAN (.) many times they even do something like THAT why? because (.) the-the-the classical type of opera house is sort of like La Scala a little bit or maybe you have the kind called the SHOEBOX (.) back in Vienna (.) then sometimes they do this (.) they do a MAIN HALL (.) and then they do not much thin (.) these are MINOR halls (.) all I'm trying to say is that (.) I could we could make a THEORY (.) that an auditorium for OPERA (.) is not good for Vasco Rossi concert (.) is not good for theatre (.) so (.) if you talk about people there is a SPECIFIC auditorium for opera (.) a SPECIFIC auditorium for rock (.) a SPECIFIC auditorium for organ playing ok? (.) but then if you're REALLY specific you will not play organ there

10.4. LECTURER'S VIEWS

The interview took place after the second observation and lasted around 45 minutes. The lecturer has been teaching for 25 years and for about 10 years has been doing so in English. He had considerable experience and overall was satisfied with the experience of teaching in English.

As mentioned above, he had a unique teaching style, which makes use of *digressions*, *humour* and *anecdotes.* He is well aware of his teaching style and purposefully adopts it. In going over the lectures observed with him, he showed a certain uneasiness in teaching his subject, since it falls somewhere between an art and a science. When his particular teaching method was examined, he clearly explained it. He knows he appears disorganised in his discourse and often uses personal anecdotes. In short, he commented that his teaching consciously adopts a Socratic method to get the students thinking about certain questions rather than giving them the answers or instructions. It is precisely the self-awareness that makes all his teaching strategies particularly intentional and sought after: *it comes naturally to me. You could say that a university professor measures his teaching efficiency. My sector in particular is made up in part of formal lessons but also of revision lessons.* [...] *It's not clear if my Architectural Planning course is artistic or scientific by nature.* […] *It is a hybrid. Let's say that in all of this I have developed from my character a totally eclectic method of teaching that often uses, even perhaps to an extreme degree, analogy as a pedagogical tool. I don't know if this is right or wrong I don't know. In the sense that the professor mustn't become a comic or a showman.* [...] *Especially for a subject like mine that does not have a corpus, he can appear a bit disorganised in his presentation.* […] *A university professor has such a degree of freedom in his teaching that his defects also come out. He ends up speaking about personal matters at times. Whether or not this is didactically effective is up to the students to decide. Generally there are two types of students and a mixture of the two. Some work well with a set of precise instructions while others work well with the Socratic method.* […] *In learning we must start from the rules and then deviate, an excess of personalisation may not take into account the rules.* […] *So the great dilemma of my teaching is this: I allow myself an extreme eccentricity that rests on a very good scientific base.* […] *I like to joke around.* […] *I realise that at times, with students who*

instead grew up on the Internet and are accustomed to a much more superficial type of learning context, not having a particular method is perhaps unorthodox. Talking about the variations before first understanding the rules makes no sense. My way of teaching should work when joined to a learned foundation; sometimes I realise my style is wrong because it is set on thin ice. On the use of anecdotes in teaching he states: *perhaps the traditional culture was more systematic in nature, while now it is fragmentary. A lot of information but little structure.* […] *I accept the anecdote as providing structure to teaching and not as having an occasional role. Teaching is boring and anecdotes help to liven up communication. What if the anecdotes represented the actual teaching content?*

About the differences are between teaching in English and in Italian, he stated that, having studied in the United States, he has a mixed teaching style. *Part of my education was in English.* […] *There's a nice statement by Ernst Gombrich.* […] *He says that on the continent the professor is faithful to the discipline, while in the Anglo-Saxon world he is faithful to the student. Despite the fact that in the Anglo-Saxon world there is a disciplinary status, there is also the strong idea that the professor is there to help the student.* […] *He is a bit like a consultant.* […] *Perhaps there's also another difference, that the European tradition is more historically oriented.* […] *The Anglo-Saxon world focuses more on the problems than on the history of the solutions. This leads to more scientific freedom.* […] *From America I've adopted not only the language but also an empirical approach. The idea of not having formal preconceptions. And from Europe I've gained a certain erudition.*

In the next part of the interview he made a linguistic observation on how the premodifications typical of English give him the possibility to speak about and express concepts differently than he would in Italian. *Returning to the English-Italian question, we could say that one thing I like about English for example, I'm a lover of English rock, let's say,* […] *the fact that in English I can, if I say «whisky man» in Italian I translate it as «uomo del whisky», «uomo che fa il whisky», or «uomo che beve il whisky». Or if I say «whale man» it could be a «whaler» but also a «uomo balena (whale man)». The absence of the preposition and the ability of English to generate, to use nouns as adjectives makes some types of English poetry untranslatable.*

On the topic of *humour*, he said: *language contains humour,*

deep associations. English, in turn, being a sort of mathematical average of Chinese and Pakistani [English]... today there is a simplified use of English as an international language. […] *International English is impoverished because it does not contain the cultural richness of a language.* […] *Certain quips by an American, I can understand them.* […] *My English also contains cultural similarities to the Anglo-Saxon world which are probably lost during my lessons.* […] *I don't know what the students understand from my English.* […] *Using English as a medium of exchange, you have a twofold translation of mine from English and then from English to the mother tongue of the other person.*

Regarding his use of strategies, he had this to say: *often the professor's discourse is spontaneous and unplanned.* […] *By nature I tend to have a stream of consciousness approach. Almost consciously I avoid a point-by-point simplification and summaries.* […] *I don't know if this depends on the subject matter I teach* […] *but I think I would do the same even if I were giving a mathematics lesson.* […] *I don't know how much I resort to your various categories.*

He commented positively on the use of *repetition*: *There is structure where there is redundancy. If any note whatsoever can follow a particular note, then there is no structure. I recognise that language has its own structure due to its redundancy.* […] *Part of the message is its need for redundancy. There's a saying in English: «If I say it three times it is true». We know that repetition is one of the mnemonic devices for remembering. So if I want to be assured that what I say is understood, I must say it loud and clear.* […] *On TV the program host repeats the general information after every advertisement.* […] *This simplified repetition tends to compensate for the semantic dispersion of lack of attention.*

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11.
NEIL

11.1. Context

The Master's course observed represents an advanced programme at the university in question. The Master in Aerospace Engineering (rotorcraft field) began in 2010 but is offered at a university which for years has had programmes in English. Enrolment in the Master's programme requires a five-year degree in Aeronautical, Space, Aerospace, Mechanical, Electronic, or Electrical Engineering, or a Bachelor degree with at least two years of working experience.

11.2. General Features of the Lecture - Field Notes

The lecture lasted about three hours, only two and a half hours were transcribed, since the remaining part was taken up with student questions and a brief 10-minute break.

The lecture was on Ground Resonance. In general:

- The lecture was extremely clear, full of specific lexis and information. The lecturer spoke very fast, as his English proficiency is very advanced.
- The students did ask some questions, all of which were solicited in English. Most of these questions came at the end of the lecture, and in some cases were answered by other students, a clear indication of the extent to which the lecturer uses cooperative and peer discussion techniques. The lecturer hardly ever showed annoyance at losing the floor. Other questions were

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noted during the 10-minute break; these were in English (from foreign students) as well as in Italian (from Italian-speaking students). It might signify that when the lecture is over, the formal context disappears and the participants return to a more informal one where the mother tongue common to most students and their lecturer can be used, as occurs in most instances.

- When the lecturer had to answer students' questions he relied more often on *examples* and made more *false starts.* Obviously, all the *false starts* were not considered as *repetitions*.
- It was this advanced competence of the lecturer that explains the fact that there were few pauses but many fillers (such as *eh*). In this same vein, he made use of vague language and discourse markers.
- On several occasions he corrected himself, demonstrating the possession of a developed internal linguistic monitor.
- There was extensive use of Power Point. It should also be noted that the lecturer often changed media (video, formulas, photographs, blackboard). The *blackboard* was particularly used to write and explain the formulas. In this way he could show and the students follow all the steps. The lecturer chose to begin the lecture with a video of a famous TV series (McGyver), which allowed him to keep the students' attention at a high level while at the same time creating a relaxed and ironic atmosphere. He also used authentic documents, such as videos of real eventful landings, which kept the students' attention high while affording them the opportunity to relax.
- The lecturer had a very friendly attitude and at times introduced witticisms.

11.3. Corpus Transcriptions

The transcription for the three-hour lecture was 12,403 words long.

In extract (1) the lecturer is showing a photograph that exemplifies the concept of Ground Resonance. He describes the photo and the sequence of events that have led to the destruction of a helicopter following the occurrence of Ground Resonance. He uses several *synonyms*, such as *aircraft* and *helicopter* and *sloping rock* and *irregular soil*. The latter is not an exact *synonym* but makes sense in

the context. Aérospatiale Alouette is placed in the category of *examples*, even if it is of a visual kind. At the same time he uses *repetitions* (*aircraft*, *pilot*, *helicopter*, *ground resonance*) and *intonation* (*TOUCHED DOWN*, *SLOPING ROCK*, *SUDDENLY*, *DESTRUCTED*, *MAIN ROTOR*, *CABIN*) to underscore specific terms or particularly dangerous situations.

> (1)
> (5.0) eh as an introduction I have collected some information from the eh NTSB regarding eh ACCIDENTS or NEAR-ACCIDENTS related to ground resonance this is-this happened in 2005 (.) eh eh this is a-a-an Alouette an Aérospatiale Alouette (.) it's the three blade rotor soft in plane this is just the picture of the aircraft while this is the ACTUAL PICTURE of the aircraft AFTER the accident I found it eh Sunday night on the Internet (.) eh I have highlighted what is relevant to ground resonance in the official description of the accident so what happened is that the pilot TOUCHED DOWN on a SLOPING ROCK so on an IRREGULAR SOIL and not perfectly level and the helicopter at some point began to oscillate (.) the pilot pulled up the collective and the aircraft SUDDENLY self DESTRUCTED this is eh the pilot's words literally (.) eh eh so the ground resonance then separated the transmission rotal system and the engine from the fuselage and ONE MAIN ROTOR impacted the CABIN eh the pilot said that he experienced at least two insequent ground resonance events with the same helicopter in the previous eighteen months so he KNEW the helicopter was PRONE to this problem (.)

Extract (2) begins with a category that appears to be halfway between a *definition* (*we have defined*) and a *summary* of what was already said. It shows how the categories in question often are interconnected. This part of the lecture is very complicated, and the lecturer continues to use *repetitions* (*rotor*, *forces*, *cyclic lead-lag*) to try to refer to mathematical demonstrations from previous lectures, since he is about to move on to a new demonstration (*as X depends on...*) for which it is essential to remind students of what was covered in the previous lectures. There are two examples of *summaries* (*we have already computed... – we computed the inertia...*). The extract ends with a clarifying mathematical *definition*: (*we define a new set of variables...*).

> (2)
> (.) we have defined the-the-the EQUIVALENT mass and stiffness somehow of those two motions we are interested in (.) those two

> motions are forced by some forcing terms that represent forced applied to the centre of the hub and these forces are exactly what comes from (.) the ROTOR and what comes from the ROTOR are FORCES related to the DISPLACEMENT of the centre of mass of the rotor (.) we have already computed these terms last Friday if I go to the other presentation (.) what we basically did was (8.0) [looking for a file on his computer] where is it here it is (.) we COMPUTED the inertia forces corresponding to a DISPLACEMENT of the centre of mass of the rotor (.) they basically consist in eh eh the (.) SECOND derivative of the CYCLIC lead-lag of the cyclic lead-lag motion in multiblade coordinates (.) and as X depends on the first harmonic of the SINE CYCLIC and the force and direction Y depends on the first harmonic of the COSINE CYCLIC (3.0) at this point we can put the two things together (.) we define a new set of eh VARIABLES which consists in the cosine and sine cyclic lead-lag motion the longitudinal and lateral displacement of the HUB CENTRE (3.0)

As pointed out above, this lecturer provides time for student questions. In the extracts there is a sequence of *questions* serving various roles. At the beginning the lecturer (see excerpt) asks if there are any questions (*eh if you have any questions?*), and after a student asks one, he tries to better understand the question (*which one?*, *the airframe?*). Given that the student has still not understood his explanation, he asks for clarification (*which one?*) so as to be more precise in his answer. However, he immediately admits he does not quite know how to respond to the question (*it is not totally clear to me*). This type of question and answer might be a kind of playing for time by the lecturer, who does not know how to answer the question and perhaps is hoping it goes away. There are examples here again of some *repetitions* and *intonation* regarding specific lexis (*AIRFRAME*, *HORIZONTAL*, *SIGNIFICANT DAMPING*).

> (3)
> (.) eh if you have any questions? we can eh yes please (.) [student asks question in English] which one? here? [student talks again] the airframe? the airframe is on the horizontal lines (.) [same student speaks] yes (.) I mean they are ALWAYS horizontal they just change colour (.) because you have SWAPPING of two of two modes but (.) the airframe mode is (.) remains the-the horizontal line (.) ok (.) [same student talks] which one? [student talks again] soft-in-plane? large offset? small offset? [student talks] which one is this? [student speaks] here? yes it has different slope from other one? eh well eh the reason the EXACT REASON IS NOT TOTALLY CLEAR TO ME but the fact is if we have SIGNIFICANT DAMPING like in this case this is

> the very small offset I had to add eh eh SIGNIFICANT amount of damping some 50% of damping

Extract (4) is also very significant for its *questions.* At the beginning the lecturer says he is not familiar with ground resonance, even if it is the topic of the lecture. Probably it was a technical question, intended more for a pilot than an engineer. Surprisingly, a student who is also a pilot holds the floor for a very long time, responding to the question. The lecturer does not appear annoyed in the least, and he then proceeds with two *examples* (*you have the rotor with the four blades for example*, *damping can be provided somewhere along the path of the drag train like the engine itself for example*).

> (4)
> (.) I will just pass you the pdf if you want I can show to you right now (.) [student asks question] it's just a couple of short sentences but I can - I will pass you the pdf so you have all the material (30) let me see (.) yes I think this is all any other questions? yes yes? [student asks questions] yes yes to be honest eh eh I'm not eh very familiar with eh about ground resonance so (.) my guess is that you have to guarantee that the aircraft is not prone to ground resonance in a given number of-of conditions (.) and you are supposed to emit some RESTRICTIONS (.) possibly on-on-on operating on-on type of surfaces that are not compliant with the design of the aircraft (.) that's my guess (.) I don't know if there is () [student speaks] [another student speaks] [first student who is the pilot speaks again answering the second student's question for ten minutes] one thing I-I wanted to mention is eh we discussed the case of having one eh degraded eh blade damper or at least (.) blade dampers with different properties because of wear (.) if we need to analyse this condition (.) the rotor is no longer eh let's say blades are no longer identical (.) so in principal (.) we cannot use multiblade coordinates (.) and all the maths we have developed so far (.) sort of failed if we need to use these if we have to consider these different properties (.) eh I have (.) prepared a very small sketch of the interblade damper (.) you have the rotor with the four blades for example (.) and the damper the dampers connect eh eh adjacent blades eh (.) in this case (.) as-as Mr. A. eh eh was saying (.) I think one of the MAIN advantages of this design (.) is that DAMPERS do not have to-to take care eh let's say of steady modes (.) like drag (.) but on the other side (.) you have no damping on a collective lead-lag motion you only have (.) damping on-on on eh lead-lag modes that involve relative motion between blades (.) so you would have damping on-on cyclic modes (.) you would have damping on reactionless modes (.) but no damping on collective modes (.) eh in-in some sense this is

> not a big deal (.) because you don't need let's say collective lead-lag dynamics is eh relatively separate from the AIRFRAME DYNAMICS because it-it only couples with the transmission with the drive train and (.) damping can be provided somewhere along the path of the drag train like the engine itself for example (.) [student pilot speaks] any questions? anyone? thank you very much

11.4. LECTURER'S VIEWS

The following section will highlight only those questions that provided meaningful answers for the purposes of the study.

The interview with the lecturer lasted around 30 minutes on the same day of the recording. It took place on Skype, since the lecturer was about to leave for the U.S. for several months and had a very full diary.

The lecturer has been teaching for 6 years as a full-time lecturer, although he began teaching in 1996. He is a university researcher. He has had previous teaching experience for at least 4-5 years at the doctoral level and full-time training at various industries.

When asked how clear his lectures were, he said: *clarity comes from experience.* […] *I don't use systematic techniques. I use a bit of intuition.* […] *This type of course is very carefully prepared, for the lectures I normally do in Italian, except for the first lecture or those which are a bit particular, I do not use audio-visual supports. I usually make a lot of use of the blackboard. I am instinctive I don't follow an outline 100% of the time. I prepare my lectures ahead of time but not point by point. I prepare the main topic, but then I often broaden the treatment.* […] *Attending congresses has been a great help to me. When I was doing my doctorate I immediately began attending congresses and speaking in English, not off the cuff, since I prepared my discourse in advance; but when I was asked questions I had to get by in some way, and I improved visibly from one congress to the next.* The lecturer does not prepare his presentation in English for the lectures. He is aware of his knowledge of the language and knows he can count on a natural flow of speech. Of great interest is the level of awareness with which he recounts his experiences as a foreign language learner, saying that he is aware of having improved his knowledge by using the language at conventions.

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When asked if he has noted any differences in teaching in Italian as opposed to English, he said: *in Italian I'm much surer of the words in the technical sentences. In English I have a bit more difficulty, despite the fact I'm more used to speaking technical as opposed to colloquial English. In fact, you'll have noted that at times I have to think before saying something which in Italian would come to me spontaneously.* In reality, the lecturer appears to be somewhat hypercritical. It is true that he uses false starts and corrects himself, but his speech is extremely spontaneous.

On the percentage of time he focused on the content he had this to say: *in this type of lecture I concentrate on the content. At times I have the students recount their experiences, but this is more to lighten the atmosphere.* […] *At these lectures the students concentrate very much on the content, while those I teach in Italian are in their first years and perhaps are tired because they've had lots of hours of lectures.* He rightly noted that when he teaches in Italian it is to Bachelor students, while he teaches in English to Master's students; it is normal for there to be a big difference between the two types of lecture. The two types of experiences are not easily compared, since with younger students he clearly is more forgiving while with older students, such as those in the Master's programme, he focuses more on content and is more demanding.

As regards the input presentation strategies, he said: *they are all more or less important. I can't tell you when I use them.* […] *I think I use summaries* […] *and repetition and not examples as the main thread of my discourse, being careful to make clear where the example or, better yet, the example as a rhetorical device is valid. Examples which, however, shouldn't be taken literally I always try to show where they can be taken literally and where they are exemplifications. You can say I use intonation.* […] *It's important to me to show by intonation what is important and what can be omitted.*

Regarding the opinion students have of the strategies, he added: *I agree with the view of the students concerning repetition. In this sense, if I were a student it would bother me if someone continued to repeat things. I would instead prefer it if I were the one to ask for a concept to be repeated if need be. I don't mind being interrupted even right in the middle of my thought process. On the contrary I see it as a sign that students are listening carefully to me. On the other hand, I don't agree so much about intonation because it indicates what the lecturer thinks about what is important and what isn't.* […] *As a*

student I have always appreciated lecturers that insisted on some concepts, *even simple ones*, *without adding too many embellishments meant to show you should understand them.* It is to be noted that, as he is relatively young, he is still able to refer to and be aware of the life of a student.

When asked about asking the students a lot of questions, he responded: *even my colleagues leave a lot of time for questions.* […] *I don't think it depends on the lecturer's age. We are a bit atypical. In my department there has always been a departmental spirit* […] *so we have a precise imprint*, *we have the same style.* […] *It's important to be guided in your lecture by whether or not the students have understood. Whether or not you succeed is another matter, but the intention is there.*

12.
SYNTHESIS OF THE FINDINGS

This chapter includes a synthesis and a discussion of the findings of all the parts of the study. It starts from the Institutional Survey, it then describes the Student Questionnaire and finally the findings from the four case studies and their relative triangulation of data. It also includes a later section on the literature review of the new input presentation strategies (*preemptive focus on form*, *input enhancement*, *codeswitching*, and *the use of humour*) that have emerged from qualitative discursive data analysis in the present study. This section was inserted only after analysing data from the transcription corpus. For this reason, the discussion on the new found strategies is a qualitative analysis of discourse and does not encompass a quantitative analysis of occurrences.

12.1. Institutional Survey Discussion

In general, ETPs have increased since 2000. The largest number of courses are in the disciplines of Engineering and Economics. This is also confirmed by the CRUI survey (http://www.crui.it/HomePage.aspx?ref = 2094#) in May 2012 for the areas it shares in common with the survey (which covered more areas; see chapter seven – Institutional Survey). In fact, the CRUI survey confirms that most of the courses involved are at the Master's and Doctoral levels, that they are mainly in the North, and that English-taught courses exist in 70% of universities (this survey indicated 74%).

ETPs are normally self-funded and represent a positive experience for the universities that answered the questionnaire. The

data show significant differences among universities in the North, Centre and South of Italy. For historical reasons, the Northern universities are more advanced in terms of ETPs. There are also differences between private and public universities with the former having more international contacts. Irrespective of the type of university, outdated methods still exist in terms of teaching style, the lack of training and there issue of credits for students undertaking CLIL programmes is not considered as important nor is the provision of scholarships. Moreover, some universities have assessment criteria for CLIL programmes which sometimes do not use the target language as it should be.

12.2. Student Questionnaire Discussion

To sum up, if as a starting point the addition of *very helpful* and *helpful* answers is taken as a reference, the following results are shown. *Repetition* is considered to be the least useful strategy, with only 35% of positive answers. Although the literature considers it a very important strategy, it is also a very difficult one for students to grasp.

The use of *examples* is the most highly considered one, with 99% of positive answers. This strategy seems to be of particular importance in CLIL settings, where students rely on and need more help in order to fully understand certain concepts. In between these two extremes is a continuum which goes from *use of summaries* (89%), and the use of *synonyms* (87%), to the use of *definitions* (85%). The *synonym* strategy appears to be very difficult for lecturers to use, since in specialised language contexts the terms are usually very precise and do not involve synonyms (Gotti 1991), which is corroborated by the case studies.

Next there is the use of *intonation* (68%), which again might be a difficult strategy in terms of the ability of students to grasp it, and, lastly, the use of *questions* (61%), which might suffer from the fact that, within the Italian academic culture, students are not required to participate actively in the lecture.

The open question shows that the students consider visual aids such as the *use of the blackboard* and *use of PowerPoint* as very useful. Finally, *friendly behaviour* is considered an input presentation stra-

tegy even though data are very scarce; it would be interesting to determine whether CLIL is helpful in this regard.

The result is consistent with the fact that Italian students are used to academic lectures which require minimal participation on their part. Finally, together with a climate that does not favour student-lecturer interaction, there might also be the fear of being judged by both fellow students and the lecturer.

As no student questionnaire has ever dealt with these input presentation strategies it is impossible to compare these data with others.

12.3. Case Studies Synthesis of the Findings

As one could expect when dealing with human beings there is a certain amount of variability among lecturers; nevertheless, there are some common threads regarding the majority of them. In general, features which are common to other studies are: the fact that the lecturers think they do not change their style of teaching in the L1 or L2 (see Vinke 1995 although she finds them less expressive; Dafouz - Nuñez Perucha 2010), the fact that there is some form on interpersonal dimension even in formal lectures (Veronesi 2009) and finally that there are no evident communicative problems during the lectures even if the English is non-standard and the use of repetitions and questions are similar to this study (Björkman 2011). This latter study suggests the need for more training as in Costa 2015.

The field notes and transcriptions reveal that all the lectures are quite clear (even I, who am not an expert in the subject in question, was able to follow the logical thread of the discourse) and dense in content. Moreover, there is great variability in the length of the transcriptions. I was present for around three hours of lecturing, but during this time sometimes there were breaks, sometimes not, and at times they began with a 15-minute academic delay. For all the lectures the students were for the most part native-speaking Italians.

As regards the process of detecting the linguistic input presentation strategies some problems were encountered in order to decide what category they belonged to. As regards *repetitions* it was decided to count only content words or phrases and sentences as repetitions and not grammar words on their own because the focus was on cohesion and what made the discipline discourse. Moreover very often *repetitions* were just false starts.

The marker *means* which was thought to be an introduction to *definitions* is often used, but also the verb *to be*. The category *example*s was not always introduced by the word example, and examples (see also Dafouz Milne - Nuñez - Sancho 2007) were of many types, even videos as in the Ground Resonance lecture. Hereafter are discussed in detail the results from the triangulation of the case studies.

12.4. Input Presentation Strategies (from Observations, Transcriptions and Interviews)

As far as the counting of the input presentation strategies is concerned, given that the lectures differed significantly in the number of words used, it was decided to divide the total number of words by the number of occurrences for each lecturer in order to be able to compare the use of these categories (*Table 6*). For example, lecturer Albert used *repetition* once per 44 words: the lower the figure the greater the frequency. Near the frequency of occurrences there is written important (strategy) or not important (strategy) which refers to what the lecturers declared during the interviews.
The comparison reveals that repetitions and intonation are the most used categories. As regards repetitions, only one of the lecturers (Isaac) uses repetitions more than the others and shows awareness of doing so. There is no significant variation among lecturers concerning intonation. These are the two categories the lecturers rely on, even based on what they said that during the interviews.

Three of the four lecturers use examples in the same manner, while Isaac clearly uses them less. As far as their statements during the interview are concerned, two out of four said that they approved of the linguistic strategies and adopted all of them.

It is to be noted that when the input presentation strategies were listed during the interview and they were asked if they used them, they deliberately chose not to comment in depth on some of them, such as definitions and synonyms. Only one of them spoke negatively about examples and one negatively about summaries. In particular, they all valued repetitions (even if one contradicted himself, saying at first that they were useful but then saying they were not), questions (three mentioned this strategy), and intonation (three

out of four mentioned this). For a detailed overview of each lecturer see *Table 6.*

Moreover, there is a discrepancy between what was stated in the interviews and what was actually adopted as a strategy (see *Table 6*). Repetitions, intonation and questions were the most used (even though the latter are all rhetorical) and represent the strategies regarding whose use the lecturers have the clearest idea. The other strategies reveal more variability, even if (perhaps purposely) none of the lecturers (apart from one for examples and one for summaries) explicitly mentions them. On the other hand, there is a clear discrepancy between what Frank states regarding summaries (that he does not consider them useful) and his actual practice (he uses them more than the others).

Table 6. Data on the occurrences of the input presentation strategies in terms of their frequency (the lower the number the higher the occurrence) compared to what was stated in the interviews.

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES AND THE VIEWS REGARDING THE LINGUISTIC INPUT PRESENTATION STRATEGIES							
	Repetitions	Examples	Summaries	Definitions	Synonyms	Questions	Intonation
Lect. Albert	44 Important	414 Important	2830 Important	1544 Important	809 Important	191 Important	36 Important
Lect. Isaac	14 Important	1178 Important	2798	2798	2238	39 Important	28 Important
Lect. Frank	47 Important	589	1310 Not important	3603	3603	687	28
Lect. Neil	27 Important	620 Not important	2067 Important	1378 Important	564 Important	365 Important	21 Important

Table 7. Comparison between the opinions of the lecturers and students based on the questionnaire and interviews.

COMPARISON BETWEEN STUDENTS AND LECTURERS							
	Repetitions	Examples	Summaries	Definitions	Synonyms	Questions	Intonation
Students	no 35%	yes 99%	yes 89%	yes 85%	yes 87%	yes/no 61%	yes/no 68%
Lecturers	yes 4/4	yes 2/4 no 1/4	yes 2/4 no 1/4	yes 2/4	yes 2/4	yes 3/4	yes 3/4

The observations and extracts reveal that the subject taught by Frank entails a great need for summaries; otherwise the discourse might probably be too fragmentary.

Even summaries, which are considered useful by the students, are valued by three of the four lecturers. Definitions and synonyms are always considered useful by the students while being valued by two of the four lecturers. Finally, questions and intonation are valued more by the lecturers than by the students.

12.5. Interview Findings on the Language Aspect

During the interviews three out of the four lecturers (Isaac, Frank, Neil) explicitly stated they were not interested in teaching language (*From the language point of view I don't do this. I've never even thought of doing so; Clearly my objective is not in any way to teach English.* […] *For me in teaching architecture the language is an instrument and not a result; Dealing with the language aspect? Personally*, *no.* […] *What's important is getting the message across.*).

Two of them (Isaac and Neil) said that they welcomed some kind of linguistic training, while one (Albert) said that he had no need for this. It is perhaps no coincidence that the latter is the lecturer with the least competence in English but the longest teaching experience. One could assume that when he says he has no need for training he is referring to himself (and viewing himself) as a content lecturer (and not in need of training), not as a language lecturer; or perhaps he did not want to lose face during the interview.

Though those interviewed stated they were not interested in the language, they showed not only a personal interest in it but also a consideration and awareness of language and their situation as language learners (*Returning to the English-Italian question*, *we could say that one thing I like about English for example, I'm a lover of English rock, let's say the fact that in English I can, if I say «whisky man» in Italian I translate it as «uomo del whisky», «uomo che fa il whisky», or «uomo che beve il whisky». Or if I say «whale man» it could be a «whaler» but also a «uomo balena (whale man)»; But I'd like to be able to speak very well. I'd like to speak with an American accent, the kind I like. I like to say 'twendy' instead of 'twenty', or 'wader' instead of 'water'. Now when I retire, if I have the chance to go there for a*

year, I'd take it. I like it there. I try to tell them, to give them the correct pronunciation, but not in a formal way).

12.6. UNEXPECTED FINDINGS FROM TRANSCRIPTIONS

During the course of the research some unexpected findings emerged fom the analysis of the transcriptions. These are the presence of *preemptive focus on form* (lexical, grammatical), *input enhancement* (mainly typographical), *codeswitching* and a certain degree of *humour* in the lectures. These findings are original and give an insight into lecturing patterns of CLIL at the tertiary level. In this case references to the transcriptions will be across lecturers. These input strategies, which I will label as *defamiliarising* categories, are particularly useful to emphasise conceptual and linguistic aspects and to maintain in equilibrium that continual balance of stance between lecturer and student typical of academic language. The cognitive added value of CLIL at the tertiary level could well be what Dodman (2009:55) calls *defamiliarisation* (whereby the input is more noticeable because it is not familiar to the students e.g. lecturers using humour to convey content) as regards the learning of technical vocabulary at school level but could also be applied to input strategies, as well. This discordance or surprise factor could make input more noticeable (this is corroborated by what has been observed in the field notes) and therefore lead to a deeper learning process. The presence of these strategies, which were suitable for both content and language teaching also indicated that these lectures may fall under the name of CLIL at the tertiary level because they fuse together these two aspects in the input.

12.7. FOCUS ON FORM IN CLIL CONTEXTS

There have been few studies that have investigated the extent to which *focus on form* is present in CLIL contexts. This also gives rise to a problem in defining exactly what is included in the concepts of *focus on form*. Pérez-Vidal (2007) performed a study in several CLIL primary and secondary school classes, noting no instance of *focus on form*, which she defines as: «explicit teaching of the L2, focus on grammar, phonetics, lexis and negative feedback» (Pérez-Vidal: 47).

12.7.1. *Preemptive Focus on Form* [1]

Several studies have dealt with corrective feedback or repair as a reactive *focus on form*, though in school contexts (Mariotti 2006, Dalton-Puffer 2007, Serra 2007). On the contrary very few studies have addressed the so-called *preemptive focus on form*.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001:414) state: «preemptive focus on form involves the teacher or learner initiating attention to form even though no actual problem in production has arisen».

Preemptive focus on form can involve grammatical, lexical, phonological items but in the case of this study only grammatical and lexical instances were found. Moreover, along with *lexical* and *grammatical focus on form* two other types of *preemptive focus on form* have been added *input enhancement* and *codeswitching*.

12.7.2. *Input Enhancement*

Van Patten (2009), similar to Long (1996) in his work on *focus on form*, tries to link two of the most modern theories on input: *Input Enhancement*, understood as an explicit technique to get the attention of students and thus favour learning, and Input Processing (very similar to the concept of Intake): that is, how learners process and consider as salient certain input elements. Sharwood Smith posits that there can be quite different types of *input enhancement*. With respect to this categorisation, *input enhancement* is also included within implicit form-focused instruction (Costa 2012a).

12.7.3. *Codeswitching*

Because of fears that foreign language acquisition might be damaged, switching back and forth from L1 to L2 was typically prohibited in language classes as it was thought to create language interference (Cook 2001). However, the judgments on *codeswitching* have changed (Cook 2001): it is now seen as representing a valid strategy adopted by all bilingual speakers. As a result, it is felt that *codes-*

[1] Portions of these results were published in: Costa, F. (2012) «Focus on Form in ICLHE Lectures», *AILAReview*, 25, pp. 30-47.

witching can be adopted in CLIL programmes (Ricci Garotti 2006, Coonan 2007b) which are closely related to Bilingual Education. Hereafter, the term codeswitching is used as a synonym for translanguaging (Mazak - Herbas-Donoso 2015), even though the latter refers to the use of two languages according to the task that is involved. García (2009:47) also refers to it as «languaging bilingually within the same domain».

The results of the present research suggest the need to redefine form and to include *codeswitching* within *preemptive focus on form*.

12.7.4. *Humour*

Results after data analysis show that a certain amount of *humour* is present in the lectures analysed, therefore this strategy has been added to Coonan's list (see Conclusions). Despite the fact that there have been many studies on *humour* and *wit*, especially regarding psychology and literature, almost all of these refer to and have as their object native speakers. There are few studies on *humour* in education and especially on non-native speakers.

A categorisation of what is intended as *humour* (Norrick 1993) is taken as the starting point of the following discussion. *Humour* is word play, sarcasm, telling anecdotes, telling jokes and irony (this last one was added by Barbe, 1995). Despite the attempts at categorisation, Norrick himself (1993) held that in reality the various forms are all contained inside a continuum. *Humour* has the advantage of relieving the tension and it is a way to recognise affiliation (Norrick 1993). Along the same lines, anecdotes, especially if they are humorous, strengthen relationships, and funny stories help to create a positive idea of the person who tells them. Wordplays and puns, on the other hand, are more difficult to find, especially in the corpora of non-native speakers.

Frymier, Wanxer and Wojtaszczyk (2008:280-81) assessed students' ideas on the appropriateness of teachers' *humour* through an online university survey. They drew up a list where the most valued aspects were, among others: «use of humour related to course material, use of language in a creative and funny way to describe course material, use of funny props to illustrate concepts or as an example, and telling of humorous stories about their lives». Among the least valued aspects were «telling jokes unrelated to course content, use of

a critical, cynical or sarcastic tone about general topics unrelated to the course, teasing students in class, use of vulgar language, telling sexual jokes or making sexual comments and use of humour targeted to a specific religious or ethnic group».

Wanzer, Frymier and Irwin (2010) have also investigated *humour* in educational contexts through a questionnaire involving 378 students. They claim that, as students are not expecting teachers to use *humour*, when it does occur they have a heightened interest that results in increased student learning. However, the study showed that offensive *humour* or other disparaging or inappropriate forms of *humour* would not have the same effect. Summerfelt, Lippman and Hyman (2010) investigated the effects of *humour* on memory and found a connection between the two.

If, as the studies presented here show, *humour* is not only a pedagogical motivator but also a way to enhance understanding of content, then it is clear that it could be used in CLIL at the tertiary level courses, with necessary caution, since the lecturers in this case are non-native speaking.

12.8. Evidence from the Data

The examples are taken from all the lecturers observed. For brevity's sake only the most important examples are provided. The extracts have been subdivided into these categories, *lexical preemptive focus on form*, *grammatical focus on form*, *typographical input enhancement*, *codeswitching* and *humour*.

12.8.1. *Lexical Preemptive Focus on Form*

In extract (1) Albert explains the collocation *rigid matter* with the paraphrase *infinite binding force* precisely because he wants to give an explanation that is closely tied to Physics.

(1)
the finite bonding force is (.) called cohesion force

In extract (2) Neil also tries to explain the collocation *fluidlastic devices*, thereby focusing on form.

(2)
fluidlastic devices which are elastomeric components with cavities

12.8.2. *Grammatical Preemptive Focus on Form*

There are very few examples of grammatical *focus on form* in the corpus analysed. Given the assumptions mentioned previously, that content lecturers tend not to deal explicitly with linguistic aspects, the grammatical clarifications are seen as too obvious an instance of linguistic focus, and so the lecturers apparently do not feel competent to deal with them.

In extract (3) lecturer Neil corrects himself, emphasising the difference between *may* and *do suffer.*

(3)
(.) I say may-they actually they do suffer from this problem

12.8.3. *Typographical Input Enhancement*

In extracts (4) and (5), lecturer Isaac refers to the text he uses advising the students to underline (*typographical input enhancement*) certain parts.

(4)
so (.) let me say that (.) the first keyword today is salt so (.) I would like to (.) underline what is the content of the second sentence of the brochure

(5)
(.) in-in all cases what you want to eh suggest (.) to underline uh is why these types of support are strongly hydrophilic carbohydrates (.) is the other keyword it should be considered strongly (.)

12.8.4. *Codeswitching*

The decision was made to include *codeswitching* in the examples of *preemeptive focus on form*. Based on the observations, *codeswitching* is used both in situations where there are some foreign students (in which case the *focus on form* is used to ensure that these students get

a good basis in Italian, as well) and for lectures where there is a preponderance of Italian-speaking students. In the latter case *codes-witching* can be interpreted as an attempt to provide the lexis in both languages (L1 and L2), especially with regard to specific and semi-specific terms the students most likely do not know.

In extract (6) lecturer Frank uses a personal anecdote (citing it in Italian and translating it into English), probably to provide a break in intensity. He relates a proverb his grandmother always repeated. This approach, together with the use of *codeswitching*, could represent an additional occasion for the foreign students even if few to learn about aspects of Italian culture and language. Lecturer Frank has the most non-Italian-speaking students, even though they are smaller in number than the native Italian speaking students. This is perhaps why he uses *codeswitching* more as a form of linguistic-cultural focus and detail.

(6)
we have to get somewhere to something which has identity (.) to please everybody that (.) my-my grandmother used to say (amico di tutti amico di nessuno) friends of everybody friends of nobody (.) so I say when you're trying to please (.)

12.8.5. *Humour*

The examples that follow are instead all aimed at lowering tension. Lecturer Isaac uses *humour* in various ways and with various meanings, often laughing to alleviate tension. In extract (7) he laughs because he is requesting something serious from the students: not to look at a *table* that could reveal the concepts he wants them to understand on their own. He laughs because he is forcing them to do something they would not do spontaneously and because he realises how difficult it is to get them to heed his request (he is aware that the students look at the *table* just the same). He transmits the message that in the end it is not so serious even if they look.

(7)
(2.0) the other arrow indicates (.) a salting in effect (.) now you will find a number of cations and a number of anions (.) I think that without looking for a moment at *table* number two (.) uh (.) if you just look at *table* one ha ha (.) please don't look at *table* number two ha ha [laughs]

In extract (8) he is asking the students if they have any questions. As usually happens in these cases, no one answers, creating some embarrassment, which is alleviated by the comment that teachers are paid precisely in order to answer such questions. Once the embarrassment and tension over having to ask a question is lessened, the students are more prone to let themselves go.

(8)
(.) do you have any problem about this? (.) do you have any problem? (.) I will repeat without uh? (.) if you have any problem please let me know I will repeat everything ok? (2.0) this is the reason why they gave me (.) a lot of salary (.) [laughs] get a lot of money (2.0)

In extract (9) lecturer Frank talks about a question in Physics and, to ease the students' concentration and the weightiness of the explanation, uses *codeswitching* to make a *joke* (*so the bubbles wants to be vicini vicini*).

(9)
(.) and what are these kind of surfaces? you know like bubble surfaces (.) this is called a catenoid (.) is the minimum mathematical curve (.) spanning these two area (.) so the bubbles wants to be (vicini vicini) as we say [laughs] (.) close to each other they love each other (.) the are molecules of water they love to stay as close as they can to each other you know they are very (.) so then they try to be as close as they-the-they can

In extract (10) lecturer Neil speaks of *elastomeric devices* which should serve to improve helicopter performance. The lecturer begins with the *definition* of *fluidlastic devices.* It is a rather complicated discussion, so he uses *humour* to relieve student fatigue (*have no leaks for a certain amount of time*).

(10)
so they are sort of a solid state eh fluid dampers which are supposed to have no leaks at least for for a reasonable amount of time [laughs] for operating time and and eh so they are sort of state of the art a frontier type of devices but all of this type of devices none of them behaves like a linear viscous component and the only type of component we can easily study in-in a linearised problem this is a viscous component

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CONCLUSIONS

CLIL is a relatively new approach that is rapidly expanding at all levels of education, though there is a strong need for research in this area. The topic of CLIL at the tertiary level had not been dealt with before in Italy, which accounts for the research gap. For this reason, and in light of the findings, the present research could lead to new ideas in terms of educational practice and policy feeding into new and inspiring new approaches for training content lecturers who are asked to teach through English and new theoretical insights into lecturing patterns. Moreover, a certain degree of inequality across geographical areas and between private and public sectors has become apparent, necessitating the need for a more calibrated education policy throughout the country (Pulcini - Campagna 2015).

In detail, the research questions which have been answered by the findings are:

A. Macro level.

4. What is the context of CLIL at the tertiary level in Italy?

B. Micro level.

2. Building on the literature on CLIL, what types of input presentation strategies for students, if any, can be identified?
3. In the light of the lecturers' and students' views concerning which input presentation strategies are effective, what are perceived to be the best practices to be used as guidelines for other CLIL contexts at the tertiary level?

Half of all Italian universities responded to the questionnaire on CLIL at the tertiary level, making the findings reliable and generalisable. The findings reflect some important features of the Italian context.

To begin with, CLIL at the tertiary level has clearly been spreading, mainly through English, especially over the past decade,

although Italy still lags behind many other countries. The faculties with the most ETPs are Economics and Engineering.

In addition, as the present study shows there are some substantial differences between universities in the North, Centre and South of Italy. Here is the classical situation of the a vicious cycle; that is, institutions which, for historical reasons, are less prestigious, lately receive less financial support from the government or from other institutions, and become increasingly isolated and separated from the other universities. Even the difference between public and private institutions in terms of CLIL at the tertiary level works to the disadvantage of the former. Private universities have many more contacts abroad and are proportionately much more interested in this type of teaching. This study reports this inequality and provides a possible basis for a review of policies to create a fairer balance between North, Centre and South and between private and public universities.

Linked to the above considerations, it appears that internationalisation as an institutional policy has not been fully thought out. University administrations are not always aware of what is taking place in the classroom. From one point of view this guarantees lecturers' autonomy but from another it suggests that the internationalisation policy has not yet been embraced by the whole institution. Several questions (for example, 18 and 19) were included precisely to uncover how much the administrations knew about the teaching habits of their academic staff. There is no check on approaches to teaching, which on the one hand leaves the lecturers free to do as they please in their courses, but on the other also isolates them. Perhaps a programme of professional development might enhance the teaching practices of all lecturers and create a welcome move towards more uniformity in CLIL teaching.

Each case study is by definition unique. But lectures are the widely accepted form of teaching in Italian higher education, and since the quantitative analysis has revealed that Northern Italian universities are further advanced in CLIL programmes at the tertiary level, the decision to choose four lecturers from two Northern universities could better reflect implementation trends in the entire country.

Results show that these non-native lecturers are creative in the use of input presentation strategies and make use of all strategies identified previously, and also used additional ones, suggesting that a

redefinition of the types of categories is needed. Along these lines, I have added additional strategies to Coonan's (2002) basic ones *preemptive focus on form*, *input enhancement*, *codeswitching* and the *use of humour*. The premise behind Research Question 3 is the importance of input in language acquisition. To get some feedback in this regard I decided to ask students their opinion on Coonan's input presentation strategies. While students and lecturers mostly agree on the teaching and learning process according to the results, it is also important that both actors should be informed and made aware of the existence of these strategies. In general, students considered useful all input presentation categories. The most valued categories are, in order *examples*, *using summaries*, *using definitions*, *using synonyms*, *marking with intonation*, and, in part, the *use of questions* (maybe because the Italian context does not favour student-lecturer interaction or maybe for fear of being judged by fellow students and the lecturer). *Repetition* is the only one considered less positive. Apart from the two extremes (*repetitions and examples*) and *questions*, all categories are regarded as useful by both educational groups (lecturers and students), as shown in *Table 8.*

The data show discrepancies at times between the strategies considered useful by the lecturers and those actually used in the classes. This is the reason behind the hypothesis of the need for training for these lecturers in order to raise awareness and highlight the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching approaches.

Since their style worked in Italian, the lecturers thought they could simply retain it when lecturing in English. Nevertheless, uneasiness was apparent with regard to: lecture preparation time, simplifying the discourse, slowness in the flow of speech, lower improvising skills, less ability in terms of elegant speech and, at the same time, less ability to speak in an informal register. One of the lecturers thought the experience was more tiring.

Table 8. Scale of comparison (from left to right: more useful to less useful) of students' and lecturers' opinions.

COMPARATIVE RANKING OF STUDENT AND LECTURER VIEWS							
Students	examples	summaries	definitions	synonyms	intonation	questions	repetitions
Lecturers	repetitions	questions	intonation	summaries	definitions	synonyms	examples

As for the balance between language and content, the lecturers stated that they did not take into account the language objectives while teaching in English, not even in the assessment phase or when the course was delivered in the L1. However, this is not completely accurate: the lecturers say they engaged in metalinguistic reflections, at times corrected the language aspect, even without taking account of this in the mark, and attempted to set a good linguistic example, that is, to provide a sort of implicit language teaching.

One observation is in order in light of these results, and it concerns the training of lecturers. As long as CLIL at the tertiary level grows and provides an economic advantage for the educational institutions there will be a need for adequate training of content lecturers, especially as regards the linguistic aspect. English-taught classes are delivered in Italy by subject lecturers and not by language specialists. Despite being subject-matter lecturers and declaring that they were interested in teaching only content (Costa 2012b), in reality all the lecturers in some way or another paid attention to the linguistic form and to its teaching, thus trying to exploit the CLIL approach in the best way possible. However, this attention to language is still sporadic, thus providing interesting material for future CLIL training for university lecturers.

It is very difficult to imagine that lecturers with a lot of current experience, such as subject-matter lecturers, and with a very high social status (that of Italian university lecturers) will adapt and put themselves on the line by doing traditional training courses. This research indicates that some of the lecturers would welcome linguistic training but not methodological training. Nonetheless, it is important that they receive some guidelines on how to carry out their lectures in English and on how to deal with language objectives if the CLIL approach is to be exploited in the best way possible. Since it is unthinkable to impose from the top down a type of traditional training course, perhaps training should be rethought as an exercise in self-awareness, self-discovery, and personal internalisation. Drawing from the corpus of this study, one possibility could be to show subject-matter lecturers evidence of their use of and attention to language when a communication problem is somehow sensed.

This could represent the starting point for a type of training focusing on reflection, which could provide a new-found role for language teachers in the CLIL context. In fact, the language colleague could be a facilitator who brings out the positive aspects and

attention to language already present in subject-matter lecturers, so that both actors can work together to further develop these shared assumptions. Thus, methodological training could start with a non-judgmental observation of the lesson by the language academic staff and move on to a series of meetings which present examples of attention to language that content lecturers are not aware of. From here the course can be broadened to demonstrate how a focus on language can be expanded in order to fully exploit CLIL. The support of the language academic staff may help the content lecturers not to feel so inadequate in focusing on language, thereby favouring progress toward more collaboration among the academic disciplines.

The CLIL approach is by now a well-established fact though it is still in its infancy. Therefore, this is the moment for increased research on the topic and for advocating changes where needed. CLIL is above all economical, and there is thus a need to exploit both the language and the content teaching and the learning process in the best way possible. The hope here is that the present study, which has aimed to be both descriptive and prescriptive, can go a long way in serving as an important link between past and future in the CLIL approach.

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APPENDIX
TRANSCRIPTION GUIDELINES

?	question
(.)	just noticeable pause
-	sharp cut off
()	unclear talk
WORD	emphasis through intonation
[ ]	my comment
( )	codeswitching

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