e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE

Educazione Linguistica. Language Education

Vol. 9 – Num. 3
Novembre 2020

Edizioni
Ca’Foscari

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Educazione Linguistica. Language Education

Edizioni Ca' Foscari - Digital Publishing
Fondazione Università Ca' Foscari Venezia
Dorsoduro 3246, 30123 Venezia
URL http://edizionicafoscari.unive.it/it/edizioni/riviste/elle/

EL.LE.

Educazione linguistica. Language Education

Rivista quadrimestrale

Redazione | Head office Università Ca' Foscari Venezia | Dipartimento di Studi Linguistici e Culturali Comparati | Centro di Ricerca sulla Didattica delle Lingue | Ca' Bembo | Dorsoduro 1075 - 30123 Venezia, Italia | elle@unive.it

Editore Edizioni Ca' Foscari | Fondazione Università Ca' Foscari Venezia | Dorsoduro 3246, 30123 Venezia, Italia | ecf@unive.it

Certificazione scientifica delle Opere pubblicate da Edizioni Ca' Foscari - Digital Publishing: tutti i saggi pubblicati hanno ottenuto il parere favorevole da parte di valutatori esperti della materia, attraverso un processo di revisione anonima sotto la responsabilità del Comitato scientifico della rivista. La valutazione è stata condotta in aderenza ai criteri scientifici ed editoriali di Edizioni Ca' Foscari.
Scientific certification of the works published by Edizioni Ca' Foscari - Digital Publishing: all articles published in this issue have received a favourable opinion by subject-matter experts, through an anonymous peer review process under the responsibility of the Scientific Committee of the journal. The evaluations were conducted in adherence to the scientific and editorial criteria established by Edizioni Ca' Foscari.

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

e-ISSN 2280-6792

Sommario

URL https://edizionicafoscari.unive.it/en/edizioni/riviste/elle/2020/3/
DOI http://doi.org/10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Conoscenze e competenze nell'educazione linguistica

Paolo Balboni
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Abstract Knowledge (declarative and procedural; tacit and epistemological; implicit and explicit; acquired and learned, operational and pragmatic knowledge); knowledge by acquaintance or by description; knowledge as commodity; competence; competency, capacity, ability, skill, mastery: these are the terms used to define the aims of educational linguistics, that is, *knowledge about* the language and *competence in* the language: the *analysis vs. use pendulum* that has been swinging for the last 25 centuries. The article tries to bring some terminological (and epistemological) order into this cluster of terms.

Keywords Educational Linguistics. Language Teaching. Language Education. Communicative competence.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2020-07-20
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Balboni, P. (2020). "Conoscenze e competenze nell'educazione linguistica". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 333-344.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/001

Da mezzo secolo, nello studio dell'educazione linguistica la parola chiave – ripetuta in modo viepiù meccanico, senza indagarne il significato e il portato consequenziale – è 'competenza comunicativa'; da una decina d'anni la scuola italiana, in sintonia con la tendenza europea, si è trasformata, come recita la vulgata, da 'scuola delle conoscenze' in 'scuola delle competenze'.

Che relazione c'è tra competenze e conoscenze? E che relazione c'è tra *competence* e *competency*, che molti in Italia considerano sinonimi o, come spiegato da uno studioso in una conferenza, come varietà inglese e americana della stessa parola?

Cercheremo di proporre una riflessione sul tema, non per puro gusto terminologico (anche se *une science est une langue bien faite*, come constatava Condillac in pieno Illuminismo), ma perché la confusione tra i termini sta generando da anni confusione nella formazione dei docenti, nella creazione di materiali didattici e – lo supponiamo, ma non abbiamo prove – anche nella didattica quotidiana delle lingue materne, seconde, straniere, etniche, classiche.

1 *Conoscenze* e *competenze/capacità* nelle prime elaborazioni del concetto di *Competenza comunicativa*

Nel 1972 Hymes, un antropolinguista che si interessava anche di sociolinguistica ma non certo di edulinguistica, rese popolare la nozione di *competenza* (concetto chomskyano di quindici anni prima) *comunicativa* (superando/allargando la nozione chomskyana di *competenza linguistica*). In realtà la locuzione *competenza comunicativa* era stata usata da Campbell e Wales (1970) e da Sauvignon (1972), in maniera autonoma rispetto a Hymes (1972).

Il macigno di Hymes arrivò al momento giusto nelle acque per nulla stagnanti dell'educazione linguistica: in America da vent'anni ci si sforzava di dare risposta al bisogno di inglese degli immigrati e si era in piena stagione strutturalistica (linguistica tassonomica bloomfieldiana combinata con il neocomportamentismo skinneriano); in Europa cinque anni prima era iniziato il *Modern Language Project* diretto da Trim, un pragmalinguista oxoniense che diresse i *Livelli Soglia* e indicò la via al *Quadro Comune Europeo di Riferimento*.

La novità, sintetizzata come un salto dal paradigma 'sapere sulla lingua' a quello 'spere usare la lingua', produsse un grande dibattito nel campo delle lingue seconde e straniere, mentre il discorso di Hymes era pensato soprattutto per descrivere le competenze necessarie in lingua materna e, solo per estensione, in ogni lingua padroneggiata.

Nel mondo anglofono gli anni Ottanta videro un forte dibattito sul tema e anche la formalizzazione di alcuni modelli sui contenuti della competenza comunicativa: locuzione che avrebbe dovuto essere *competenza e performance comunicativa*, visto che la performance,

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 333-344 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

attraverso la padronanza delle abilità linguistiche, era già posta al centro dei discorsi di Canale e Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Richards, Schmidt (1983), Sauvignon (1983), Widdowson (1983): a quest'ultimo si deve il raccordo tra la competenza mentale, dove risiedono le *abilities* cognitive, e la loro realizzazione performativa, le *skills*. Quando nel 1988 Taylor propose coerentemente di abbandonare *competenza* a favore di *performance* comunicativa, il costrutto di Hymes era ormai diventato un slogan non modificabile.

Anche in Italia la nozione generò un forte dibattito: nel 1979 Freddi, Farago Leonardi e Zuanelli scrissero il primo libro sul tema, e nel 1981 Zuanelli pubblicò il volume fondamentale per la storia di questo concetto in Italia.

Fino a questo punto il dibattito si presentava spesso come una serie di ipotesi, ma non c'erano 'modelli', intesi come strutture logiche e formali che tentano di descrivere un fenomeno in ogni luogo e tempo (Balboni 2011 e 2018 descrivono l'applicazione della teoria dei modelli alla linguistica educativa). Canale produsse un modello implicito nel 1984, indicando gli obiettivi sociopragmatici, grammaticali, discorsivi e strategici dell'insegnamento linguistico; un altro contributo veniva da Widdowson, ma ancora una volta in maniera implicita, nel 1983, quando lo studioso britannico introduceva la separazione tra *competence*, una realtà mentale, e *capacity* che realizzava la competenza nel mondo reale (cui corrispondevano *ability* e *skill*, citate sopra). Bachman (1990) e Bachman, Palmer (1996) iniziano una formalizzazione più esplicita: pur restando ancorati alla sola comunicazione linguistica, ignorando quindi le grammatiche non verbali, Bachman e Palmer individuano due *conoscenze* alla base della *competenza*:

a. la *operational knowledge*, che comprende la grammatica (in senso tradizionale) e la testualità;
b. la *pragmatic knowledge*, cioè le dimensioni pragmatica e sociolinguistica;

nel loro modello la *capacity* di Widdowson diventava *communicative ability*, ma non veniva indagata.

Abbiamo richiamato sopra il progetto europeo che si è evoluto dal *Modern Language Project* al *Quadro Comune*: i modelli impliciti erano ipersemplificati, focalizzavano il codice verbale e ne individuavano tre fattori: la *conoscenza* linguistica, quella sociolinguistica e quella pragmalinguistica, affidando ad un gruppo di 5 abilità (ridotto rispetto alla dozzina di abilità effettive) la trasposizione delle *conoscenze* in *performance*. In seguito gli enti certificatori europei, pur facendo sempre riferimento al *Quadro*, ne hanno integrato il modello in vari modi, con attenzione (non sistematica e generalizzata) alla dimensione culturale, a quella non verbale e alla componente strategica nella comunicazione.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 333-344 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

2 Conoscenze, competenze e abilità: tre concetti diversi

Abbiamo cominciato negli anni Novanta un percorso che, attraverso il volume *Verità, conoscenza, etica nell'educazione linguistica* (2011), è approdato alla formalizzazione del *Theoretical Framework* del 2018 e delle *Eight Hypotheses* del 2020: lo scopo è quello di individuare quanti più possibili punti certi, quante 'conoscenze' vere ci sono nel complesso concetto che chiamiamo 'educazione linguistica'.

Lo strumento concettuale che abbiamo scelto, come abbiamo detto sopra, è il 'modello'. Un modello che pretende di dare un'informazione *vera* è costituito da:

a. *dichiarazioni*: 'verità' elementari, falsificabili, costituite da frasi semplici con copula o quasi-copule come *essere*, *avere*, *essere fatto di*, *durare*, *trovarsi* ecc.: «in italiano gli aggettivi qualificativi si accordano con il nome cui si riferiscono» è una delle dichiarazioni che costituiscono la competenza linguistica;
b. *procedure*: fasci di dichiarazioni legate da un meccanismo come *se*… *allora*: «*se* il nome è femminile plurale, *allora* l'aggettivo che lo qualifica è accordato al femminile plurale».

Le dichiarazioni sono *conoscenze*, rientrano nel campo cognitivo; le procedure sono il presupposto della performance: si possono *conoscere* tutte le dichiarazioni grammaticali di una lingua senza avere la *competenza* per comunicare in quella lingua. La comunicazione è azione sociale: è nel contesto che una frase grammaticalmente *corretta* (o anche scorretta, ma comprensibile) diventa pragmaticamente *efficace* nel realizzare uno scopo comunicativo, esegue un compito, diventa *competenza* che si realizza attraverso le *abilità* (o *capacities* nell'universo epistemologico di Widdowson).

2.1 Conoscenza

La conoscenza è un insieme di banche dati immagazzinate nella nostra memoria.[1] Non ci interessa, a questo livello di discorso, se siano organizzate in maniera modulare, per campi, *frames*, copioni, e

1 Questo non è un saggio *sulla* conoscenza, ma sul suo ruolo nella competenza e performance comunicativa: quindi ci limitiamo ad un rinvio generale alle nostre principali fonti, oltre a Bertrand Russell, Magda Arnold, John Schuman, Stephen Krashen e, ovviamente, Aristotele: sono classici che non hanno bisogno di rimandi bibliografici; oltre ai molti epistemologi citati in Balboni 2011, ci hanno aiutato in questo saggio Calabi et al. 2015 e Besnier 2016 per il panorama che offrono sulle teorie attuali relative alla conoscenza; Piazza 2017; Ehrlinger e Wöß (2016), infine sono illuminanti sul modo in cui i grafici possono contribuire a comprendere elementi di conoscenza.

così via: quale che sia la prospettiva da cui la si osserva, la nozione di 'conoscenza' è chiara, incluso il fatto che può essere:

a. *dichiarativa* vs. *procedurale*: vedi sopra;

b. *implicita* vs. *esplicita*; *conoscenza* vs. *metaconoscenza*; *tacit* vs. *epistemological knowledge*

La performance linguistica orale si basa sulla conoscenza implicita, quella esplicita si attiva perché non c'è il tempo necessario per farlo, mentre può essere attivata quando si legge o si scrive e diventa qualificante quando si traduce; tuttavia, la maggior parte dei parlanti nativi non ha conoscenze esplicite, pur producendo sistematicamente frasi grammaticalmente corrette: quanti italofoni sanno che «quando le forme imperative monosillabiche incorporano il pronome personale indiretto atono, ad eccezione di *gli*, ne raddoppiano la consonante iniziale, e con *mi* modificano in *-m* l'eventuale *-n* finale del verbo»? Probabilmente anche il lettore implicito di queste pagine, che ha conoscenza metalinguistica, fatica a cogliere che la dichiarazione tra virgolette riguarda forme come *dammi*, *dille*, *tiemmi*, *vatti* e così via.

c. *acquisita* vs. *appresa*; *knowledge by acquaintance* vs. *knowledge by description*

La prima versione della dicotomia è stata resa popolare da Krashen (1981, 1982), la seconda appartiene a Bertrand Russell (1912):

- la conoscenza acquisita o *by acquaintance* si forma spontaneamente a seguito di un input e della valutazione che ne facciamo (*input appraisal*, cardine della teoria cognitiva delle emozioni, da Magda Arnold 1960, alle applicazioni edulinguistiche di Jane Arnold 1999 e di John Schumann 1997, 2004) e della conseguente collocazione tra le esperienze (la 'banca dati' delle conoscenze);
- la seconda forma di conoscenza, quella *appresa* (chiamata anche *knowledge as commodity*), è il prodotto di un processo volontario di razionalizzazione dell'esperienza (processo autonomo o stimolato in strutture formative come la famiglia, la scuola, la bottega artigiana ecc.); i parlanti di madrelingua, così come immigrati fluenti nella seconda lingua parlata nell'ambiente in cui vivono, possono essere pienamente efficaci e appropriati nella comunicazione, e spesso anche sufficientemente corretti, pur non avendo conoscenza appresa a fungere da *monitor* della performance, ruolo che Krashen attribuisce a questa forma di conoscenza;

d. *ontologica*, *teorica* vs. *applicata*, *operativa*

È la classica distinzione aristotelica tra teoria e pratica, che nell'*Etica Nicomachea* compara la conoscenza teorica del bene e del giusto e la sua realizzazione pratica nella politica, dove si realizza l'interazione tra il bene assoluto in teoria e quello realizzabile nella polis.

In campo epistemologico è una differenza fondante: il linguista teorico conosce i meccanismi di funzionamento di una lingua; il linguista educativo integra quella conoscenza teorica con altre conoscenze (socioculturali, matetiche, relazionali, neuro- e psicolinguistiche, metodologiche, educative, docimologiche, ecc.) per produrre acquisizione e/o apprendimento linguistico in un contesto e con persone reali come i cittadini della polis, caratterizzate quindi dal loro vissuto, dalle loro motivazioni e aspirazioni, dalle loro capacità, intelligenze, stili cognitivi e matetici, e così via.

La conoscenza teorica è monodisciplinare (il biologo anatomico vuol conoscere il corpo umano, il chimico vuol conoscere le varie sostanze) mentre quella operativa è transdisciplinare (il medico integra le conoscenze del biologo e del chimico per curare una patologia).

Se lo scopo dell'educazione linguistica è saper comunicare, allora la conoscenza collocata nella mente è necessaria ma non sufficiente. Le conoscenze dichiarative verbali, non-verbali e contestuali devono interrelarsi e diventare conoscenze procedurali che, attraverso i processi psicolinguistici, strategici, relazionali ecc. che costituiscono le abilità, si trasformano da *potenza* in *atto*, in performance.

2.2 Competenza

Affrontiamo il secondo corno del problema, la natura e il ruolo della competenza che, da quanto detto sopra, risulta *basata sulla* ma non *prodotta dalla* conoscenza.

Nella linguistica trasformazionale la *competence* è l'insieme delle regole grammaticali possedute (consapevolmente o non) da un parlante, che gli consentono sia di comprendere e produrre infinite frasi, anche mai udite prima, sia di ricostruire frasi parzialmente mal formate e di comprenderle.

Fuori della linguistica il termine *competenza* ha avuto molte definizioni: Llanos-Antczak e Sypniewska (2017) ne fanno un'interessante ricognizione. Una definizione che include molti dati è quella di Pellerey, secondo cui la competenza è:

> la capacità di far fronte a un compito, o a un insieme di compiti, riuscendo a mettere in moto e a orchestrare le proprie risorse interne, cognitive, affettive e volitive, e a utilizzare quelle esterne disponibili in modo coerente e fecondo. (2004, 12)

Nel caso dell'educazione linguistica, il compito è quello di realizzare i propri scopi partecipando ad un evento comunicativo (in presenza, per corrispondenza, in setting virtuali, diacronico, sincronico, ecc.); in realtà la partecipazione ad un evento non è un compito ma un insieme di compiti linguistici, extralinguistici, relazionali, strategici, ecc. Per far fronte a questi compiti la persona competente ha la 'capacità' (torna un termine usato da Widdowson nel 1983: la *competence* è mentale, la *capacity* è la *padronanza*, in inglese *mastery*) di 'mettere in moto' (espressione che ben rappresenta la natura dinamica delle competenze) le conoscenze dichiarative, implicite o esplicite, trasformandole in conoscenze procedurali: sono «risorse interne cognitive», dice Pellerey, ma anche 'affettive' (quindi relazionali) e 'volitive' (quindi intenzionate a soddisfare gli scopi pragmatici): tutte queste competenze e conoscenze, emozioni e decisioni, vengono 'orchestrate', intrecciate in modo da essere efficienti sul piano del contenuto della comunicazione, dei modi della comunicazione, delle relazioni che si vogliono stabilire con gli altri partecipanti, che quindi diventano 'risorse esterne disponibili' e che possono portare ad un evento 'fecondo', che soddisfa il più possibile gli scopi dei partecipanti all'evento.

Il Parlamento Europeo ha emanato due raccomandazioni in cui il tema delle conoscenze, competenze, capacità, abilità è cruciale:

a. *Raccomandazione* del 18 dicembre 2006

Il testo si occupa di *lifelong learning*, che dovrebbe formare sempre nuove competenze, definite in questo modo:

> Le competenze sono definite in questa sede alla stregua di una combinazione di conoscenze, abilità e attitudini appropriate al contesto. Le competenze chiave sono quelle di cui tutti hanno bisogno per la realizzazione e lo sviluppo personali, la cittadinanza attiva, l'inclusione sociale e l'occupazione.
>
> Il quadro di riferimento delinea otto competenze chiave: 1) comunicazione nella madrelingua; 2) comunicazione nelle lingue straniere […]. (Unione Europea 2006, L 394/14)

b. *Raccomandazione* del 23 aprile 2008

qui viene presentato lo *European Qualification Framework*, pensato per certificare le competenze dei cittadini europei, comunque esse siano state acquisite. La *Raccomandazione* offre queste definizioni:

> I risultati sono definiti in termini di conoscenze, abilità e competenze;

g) «conoscenze»: risultato dell'assimilazione di informazioni attraverso l'apprendimento. Le conoscenze sono un insieme di fatti, principi, teorie e pratiche relative ad un settore di lavoro o di studio. Nel contesto del Quadro europeo delle qualifiche le conoscenze sono descritte come teoriche e/o pratiche;
h) «abilità»: indicano le capacità di applicare conoscenze e di utilizzare know-how per portare a termine compiti e risolvere problemi. Nel contesto del Quadro europeo delle qualifiche le abilità sono descritte come cognitive (comprendenti l'uso del pensiero logico, intuitivo e creativo) o pratiche (comprendenti l'abilità manuale e l'uso di metodi, materiali, strumenti);
i) «competenze»: comprovata capacità di utilizzare conoscenze, abilità e capacità personali, sociali e/o metodologiche, in situazioni di lavoro o di studio e nello sviluppo professionale e personale. Nel contesto del Quadro europeo delle qualifiche le competenze sono descritte in termini di responsabilità e autonomia. (Unione Europea 2008, C111/4)

Nella *Raccomandazione* del 2006 si utilizza già l'articolazione triplice in conoscenze, abilità e competenze, che verrà precisata solo due anni dopo; se nelle due *Raccomandazioni* si consultano le sezioni in cui ciascuna competenza di carattere comunicativo (nella madrelingua e in lingue non native) viene descritta secondo questi tre fattori si noterà la corrispondenza con il modello di competenza comunicativa cui facciamo riferimento da un quarto di secolo (la versione più recente è in Balboni 2018) anche se la logica descrittiva e non formale del documento stabilisce confini non nitidissimi tra conoscenze, abilità e performance (Unione Europea 2006, L 394/14-15).

3 Conoscenze → competenze → abilità

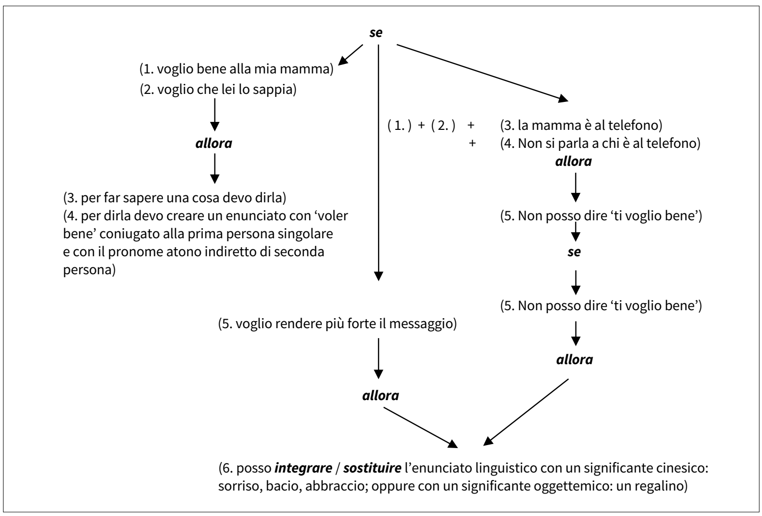
Da quanto sopra risulta evidente che
a. alcune conoscenze possono essere scoperte e immagazzinate dalla persona (l'acquisizione della lingua materna è sostanzialmente un percorso induttivo di scoperta, guidata da qualche intervento adulto; ma anche il fatto che il fuoco scotta e i pasticcini al miele sono buoni sono scoperte esperienziali, induttive, come quelle dell'irregolarità del verbo *io vado*);
b. altre conoscenze sono trasmesse dagli adulti o dai pari;
c. altre infine sono costruite insieme ai pari, di solito sotto la guida di un adulto.

Scoprire, costruire, insegnare *conoscenze* sono percorsi che arricchiscono la mente ma non escono dalla mente, sono sterili sul piano sociale: sapere che si vuol bene alla mamma o che i pasticcini al mie-

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 333-344

le sono buoni è ininfluente nel mondo se queste due conoscenze non diventano azione comunicativa, che può essere linguistica e/o cinesica (il bacio alla mamma, il furto dei pasticcini, ecc.) e/o oggettemica (un regalo alla mamma).

Per diventare azioni sociali le dichiarazioni cognitive o emozionali ('voglio bene alla mia mamma', 'i pasticcini al miele sono buoni') devono interrelarsi con altre conoscenze, producendo delle procedure, dei processi sequenziali come in questo algoritmo (molto semplificato, a dire il vero):



Questo processo trasforma le *conoscenze* in *competenze*, cioè, con le parole di Pellerey, fa nascere dalle conoscenze «la capacità di affrontare e risolvere in modo fecondo il compito che voglio realizzare: dire alla mamma che le voglio bene» (Pellerey 2004, 23). Tuttavia, l'algoritmo sopra non è sufficiente: la competenza linguistica (percorso a sinistra nell'algoritmo), quella cinesica (percorso al centro, la precondizione) e quella contestuale (percorso a destra) devono interrelarsi con le competenze cognitive e operative (*ability*, *skill*) delle abilità linguistiche – padronanza, *mastery*, *capacity*, *competency*, o come le si voglia chiamare – per produrre una performance, per esistere nel mondo.

4 Conoscenze, competenze, abilità nella scuola

Generalizzare le tendenze nella scuola è scorretto, perché la buona formazione degli insegnanti è a macchia di leopardo, come lo sono le sperimentazioni, i rapporti con i centri di ricerca universitari o con i progetti europei, e così via. *In generale*, e con il rischio insito in ogni generalizzazione non basata su un ponderoso lavoro statistico con un campione ampiamente rappresentativo, possiamo dire che nella scuola italiana di oggi:

a. le *conoscenze* linguistiche relative alla descrizione (alla metaconoscenza, *knowledge by description*, *learned knowledge*) dell'italiano L1, in cui gli studenti sono già competenti e in grado di produrre performance, vengono insegnate sia sotto forma di *dichiarazioni* morfologiche («il plurale di *grande* è *grandi*») o lessicali («il *timpano* è la sezione triangolare posta sopra le colonne in un tempio classico»), sia come procedure sintattiche («*se* il nome cui si riferisce 'grande' è plurale, *allora* si usa la forma 'grandi'»).
   L'insegnamento può essere meramente trasmissivo, può essere basato su un percorso induttivo, può essere costruito con i compagni, ecc.: qualunque sia la metodologia, le conoscenze rimangono conoscenze e anche dopo 50 esercizi applicativi non producono performance comunicativa;
b. Le *competenze* invece vengono insegnate attraverso un lavoro su testi da comprendere (da ascoltare, la leggere, da vedere), su temi da svolgere, su testi da tradurre o da riassumere o da parafrasare ecc.: è la procedura da mezzo secolo utilizzata nelle lingue straniere e, laddove ci sono appositi laboratori, nell'insegnamento dell'italiano L2: abilità → competenze → conoscenze.
   Si tratta quindi di un percorso di scoperta, fortemente guidata dal docente sia nell'individuazione delle *procedure* da attivare per eseguire il compito, sia nello sviluppo di strategie di comprensione, dialogo, scrittura, traduzione, ecc.: per insegnare a salutare distinguendo formale da informale, si offrono degli input (audio, video, fumetti, ecc.) si comprendono, si analizzano, si sistematizzano sotto forma sia di dichiarazioni («per salutare al mattino si usano *ciao* e *buon giorno* […]») sia di procedure («se al mattino saluto un amico, uso *ciao*, se saluto un adulto, uso *buon giorno*»);
c. nelle *lingue classiche* la maggior parte della didattica è trasmissiva (non *inventional*, nell'accezione vista sopra) ed è finalizzata alle conoscenze; la performance che ci si attende come risultato è la comprensione scritta – ma i testi da comprendere, quando si conoscono due declinazioni su cinque, non possono essere significativi (in termini bruneriani), sono solo esercitativi. Se riprendiamo l'idea di conoscenza come risultato di *input appraisal*, è difficile pensare che un ragazzo possa classificare come 'esperienza piacevole, da ricercare di nuovo' la traduzione di frasette su *pulchrae puellae*, e che quindi ne nasca una conoscenza stabile, acquisita, *by acquaintance*.

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 333-344

Riferimenti storici

Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://www.academia.edu/20469399/Affect_in_language_learning.
Arnold, M.B. (1960). *Emotion and Personality.* New York: Columbia University Press.
Bachman, L.F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Bachman, L.F.; Palmer A.S. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice. Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Campbell, R.; Wales, R. (1970). «The Study of Language Acquisition». Lyons, J. (ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 242-60. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265778931_The_Study_of_Language_Acquisition.
Canale, M. (1983). «From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy». Richards, J.C.; Schmidt, R. (eds), *Language and Communication*. London: Longman, 2-28.
Canale, M.; Swain, M. (1980). «Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing». *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/i.1.1.
Canale, M. (1984). «A Communicative Approach to Language Proficiency Assessment in a Minority Setting». Rivera, C. (ed.), *Communicative Competence Approaches to Language Proficiency Assessment. Research and Application*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 107-22.
Freddi, G.; Farago Leonardi, M.; Zuanelli, E. (1979). C*ompetenza comunicativa e insegnamenti linguistici*. Bergamo: Minerva Italica.
Hymes, D.H. (1972). «On Communicative Competence». Pride, J.B.; Holmes, J. (eds), *Sociolinguistics*. Baltimore: Penguin, 269-93. http://wwwhomes.uni-bielefeld.de/sgramley/Hymes-2.pdf.
Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
Krashen, S.D. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
Russell, B. (1912). *The Problems of Philosophy*. London: Williams & Norgate.
Sauvignon, S.J. (1972). *Communicative Competence. An Experiment in Foreign-Language Teaching*. Philadelphia: Centre for Curriculum Development.
Sauvignon, S.J. (1983). *Communicative Competence. Theory and Classroom Practice. Texts and Contexts in Second Language Learning*. Reading (MA): Addison-Wesley.
Schumann, J.H. (1997). *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language*. Oxford: Blackwell.
Schumann, J.H. (2004). *The Neurobiology of Learning. Perspectives from Second Language Acquisition*. Los Angeles: Erlbaum.
Taylor, D.S. (1988). «The Meaning and Use of the Term Competence in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics». *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 148-69. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/9.2.148.
Widdowson, H.G. (1983). *Learning Purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Zuanelli, E. (1981). *La competenza comunicativa. Precondizioni, conoscenze e regole per la comunicazione*. Torino: Bollati Boringhieri.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

Altri riferimenti bibliografici

Balboni, P.E. (2011). *Verità, conoscenza, etica nell'educazione linguistica*. Perugia: Guerra.

Balboni, P.E. (2016). *Perché insegnare l'italiano ai ragazzi italiani. E come*. Venezia: Marsilio.

Balboni, P.E. (2018). *A Theoretical Framework of Language Education and Teaching*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars.

Balboni, P.E. (2020). «A Non-Culture-Bound Theory of Language Education». *EL.LE*, 9(1), 5-23. http://doi.org/10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/01/001.

Besnier, J.-M. (2016). *Les théories de la connaissance*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.

Calabi, C. et al. (a cura di) (2015). *Teorie della conoscenza. Il dibattito contemporaneo*. Milano: Cortina.

Ehrlinger, L.; Wöß, W. (2016). «Towards a Definition of Knowledge Graphs». Conference Paper. *Semantics 2016. Posters and Demos Track* (Leipzig, 13-14 September). https://bit.ly/2ZOhlSk.

Llanos-Antczak, A.; Sypniewska, B.A. (2017). «The Notion of Competence». Llanos-Antczak, A.; Sypniewska, B.A. (eds), *Cross-Cultural Personal Selling*. London: Palgrave MacMillan, 1-34. http://doi-org-443.webvpn.fjmu.edu.cn/10.1007/978-3-319-55577-5_1.

Pellerey, M. (2004). *Le competenze individuali e il Portfolio*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.

Piazza, T. (2017). *Che cos'è la conoscenza*. Roma: Carocci.

Richards, J.C.; Schmidt, R. (eds) (1983). *Language and Communication*. London: Longman

Unione Europea (2006). *Raccomandazione del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio del 18 dicembre 2006 relativa a competenze chiave per l'apprendimento permanente*. Bruxelles: Gazzetta Ufficiale dell'Unione Europea, 30 dicembre 2006. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/IT/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006H0962&from=EN.

Unione Europea (2008). *Raccomandazione del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio del 23 aprile 2008 sulla costituzione del Quadro europeo delle qualifiche per l'apprendimento permanente*. Bruxelles: Gazzetta Ufficiale dell'Unione Europea, 6 maggio 2008. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/IT/TXT/?uri=celex:32008H0506(01).

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

On the Interplay between Strategic Competence and Language Competence in Lecturing through English
Findings from Italy

Ada Bier
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Abstract The present contribution is part of a wider research project whose overall goal is to define the construct of language-teaching methodology interface in lecturing through English. This paper aims at exploring the interplay between the use of pragmatic strategies and non-standardness at the morphosyntax level in lectures conducted through English as the academic lingua franca in an Italian public university. In pursuing this aim, the main differences between findings from previous research carried out in Sweden and those obtained in the setting under investigation will be documented. Results indicate that pragmatic strategies are adopted quite often during lectures and lecturers show higher degrees of non-standard morphosyntax in their spoken production, compared to what happens in the Swedish context.

Keywords English Medium Instruction. English as a Lingua Franca in Academia. Lectures. Pragmatic Strategies. Non-Standard Morphosyntax. Teaching Methodology.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Peer review

Submitted 2019-09-01
Accepted 2020-04-23
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Bier, A. (2020). "On the Interplay between Strategic Competence and Language Competence in Lecturing through English. Findings from Italy". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 345-366.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/002

1 Lecturing in the International University

The Bologna process (1999)[1] has pushed forward the internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Europe (De Wit et al. 2015), acting as "a lever for forcing change in higher education pedagogy" (Dearden 2014, 24) and contributing to the rapid growth of *English Medium Instruction* (EMI),[2] as a global phenomenon (Dearden 2014; Macaro 2018). Internationalisation poses a series of challenges within the academic domain, among others the necessity for lecturers to teach through a language (i.e. English) in which they are generally not as competent as they are in their own L1. In addition to this, their students as well are usually non-native speakers of English, a circumstance that adds further complexity to the overall picture. As a consequence, the issue arises of the effectiveness of the teaching action of such lecturers, who are experts in their discipline(s) but are faced with the challenge of having to teach through a language that is not their native one, a situation that may turn out to be an impediment to good lecturing (Airey 2009, 2012; Vinke 1995).

In agreement with the claim according to which "the distinction between what is linguistic and what is pedagogic is a difficult one to make" (Björkman 2011b, 961), and under the dual assumption that a) lecturing requires communicating effectively, b) communication is a linguistic action (but not only), language being the first and most important tool a lecturer needs,[3] it is hypothesized that the two dimensions, language and teaching methodology, do not have precise boundaries, neat and well-defined, yet represent two sides of the same construct – i.e. the **language-teaching methodology interface**.

2 Lecturing through English. A Review of the Literature

The background for the present study is represented by three main strands of research:

a. studies that have examined situations in which lecturers are mainly native-speakers of English and have international audiences: in these studies, attention is focused on the **prag-**

1 http://www.processodibologna.it.

2 *English Medium Instruction* is defined as follows: "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English." (Macaro 2018, 19).

3 To this end, let us recall Van Lier's position, in which education – in general, from kindergarten to university of third age – is described as a "language-saturated enterprise" (2004, 21), where the importance of language is paramount: "Language, in a significant sense, *creates* education, *perpetuates* it, and *reproduces* it" (2004, 1; emphasis added).

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 345-366 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

matic issues related to the discourse of lectures (DeCarrico, Nattinger 1988; Allison, Tauroza 1995; Mulligan, Kirkpatrick 2000; Jung 2003; Crawford Camiciottoli 2004, 2005; Morell 2004); on the use of **questions** to stimulate interaction during lectures (Thompson 1998; Morell 2004; Crawford Camiciottoli 2005); on the importance of effective **informative speaking**, in general (Rounds 1987; Samovar, Mills 1995);[4]

b. studies that have examined dialogic speech in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) situations (Seidlhofer 2011), where speakers make up for their language difficulties by employing a series of strategies that help them cope with misunderstandings: strategies for **signalling** and **preventing misunderstanding** (Mauranen 2006), strategies for **increasing explicitness** (Mauranen 2007);[5] **interactive strategies** (Kaur 2009); negotiation of meaning through **accommodation strategies** (Cogo 2009; Cogo, Dewey 2006);[6]

c. studies that have specifically focussed on monologic speech in ELF academic settings, where lecturers employ a series of **pragmatic strategies** to enhance the effectiveness of their oral communication (Penz 2008; Ädel 2010; Bjørge 2010; Hellekjær 2010a, 2010b; Björkman 2011a). Starting from the concept of **pragmatic fluency** (House 1996), according to which ELF speakers can be pragmatically fluent without strictly following native speaker norms, and from findings of previous studies which contributed to identifying the features of **effective lecturing behaviour** (Klaassen 2001, 2008; Hellekjær 2010b), Björkman carried out research in a Swedish academic context (2008, 2009, 2010, 2011b, 2013) and the results obtained highlighted the link between the adoption of pragmatic strategies and effective academic communication, emphasizing the blurred nature of the boundary between language and pedagogy.

4 Rounds (1987) and Crawford Camiciottoli (2004) included both native speaker and non-native speaker lecturers in their studies.

5 Mauranen states that "they [ELF speakers] expect comprehension to be hard to achieve in purely linguistic terms, and engage in various strategies to offset the problems that might ensue. Misunderstandings are not common because speakers prevent them: they try to converge towards a shared middle ground on account of the uncertainties involved" (2007, 245-6).

6 Cogo and Dewey, emphasizing the link between form (i.e. lexicogrammar) and function (i.e. pragmatics), claim that changes made to lexicogrammar are mainly explained by pragmatic communicative needs such as "efficiency of communication, added prominence, reinforcement of position, increased explicitness, redundancy" (2006, 87).

This research aims at offering some new insights into the existing literature both by providing a comparison with findings from an influential study (i.e. Björkman's) carried out in a similar setting (i.e. an international university in Sweden), and by reporting findings from a country – Italy – where, by comparison with northern and central European countries, lecturing through English is a relatively recent phenomenon (Costa, Coleman 2013; Wächter, Maiworm 2014). Moreover, the novelty of this research project consists in trying to merge two different yet complementary perspectives: on the one hand, a distinctly **linguistic** perspective, represented by the aim of describing and analysing the oral production of lecturers who employ English as the academic lingua franca to teach their subjects. To our knowledge, few studies on this topic have been conducted in Italy so far, one of these being that by Basso (2012) at the Venice International University. On the other hand, a **pedagogic** perspective, characterized by a dual interest in 1) understanding whether and how the use of vehicular English in the academic context impacts on lecturers' teaching methodology, and 2) identifying ways to improve the effectiveness of lectures carried out in English. Research conducted in Italy on these issues is, once again, relatively little and the questionnaire survey seems to be the favourite format (Francomacaro 2011; Costa 2016; Helm, Guarda 2015; Guarda, Helm 2016, 2017). Two studies, Francomacaro's (2011) and Costa's (2016), matched survey and lecture observation: while in the latter the descriptive component of lecturers' language production is secondary with respect to questionnaire data,[7] the former is of particular interest as it combines the analysis of lecture structure with that of pragmatic strategies. Following Francomacaro's conclusions, according to which

> it is necessary to improve the standard of the English-medium lecture [...]. The improvement might start *by raising awareness*, among all the participants to the lecturing event, *of the fundamental function that language plays in any learning process*. (2011, 157; emphasis added)

The overall aim of the present contribution is to **explore the interplay** between the use of pragmatic strategies and non-standardness at the morphosyntax level in lectures conducted through English (Björkman 2008, 2009, 2011b, 2013) as a **preliminary step** towards the definition of the construct of language-teaching methodology interface where, in our view, awareness of language as a tool for teaching is thought to play a pivotal pedagogic role (Bier 2019).

7 This is most likely because Costa's research is at the national level.

In order to identify a point of departure from where to start and in keeping with the literature that has been briefly presented so far, it may be hypothesized that the language-teaching methodology interface in academic lecturing exists and its **preliminary definition** could be formulated as follows: all those actions in which language – as well as being the main vehicle for transmitting information – is employed as a teaching tool to support learners in the organization and cognitive management of subject-matter content, represent **evidence** of the 'activation' of such interface.

3 Research Aims and Research Questions

In the present research project, our overall goal is to work towards a **comprehensive definition** of the language-teaching methodology interface, providing both evidence of its existence and a thorough explanation of what is underneath such an interface, as 'switched on' (or off) by subject lecturers teaching through English in academic contexts.

As far as the present contribution is concerned, two preliminary aims are pursued. First, an exploration of lecturers' **strategic competence**, operationalized in terms of frequency of pragmatic strategy use, is carried out: we identified these strategies, verified whether and to what extent our research participants adopted them while teaching, and compared our results with those obtained by Björkman (2010, 2013). Second, an investigation of lecturers' **language competence**, operationalized in terms of frequency of non-standard morphosyntactic features in their spoken production, is conducted: in line with findings from the ELF literature, wherein the native-speaker norm is rejected in favour of a less rigid benchmark[8] – thus making the adoption of the CEFR of little use when wishing to assess lecturers' performance (Pilkinton-Pikho 2013) – we both ascertained the frequency of non-standard morphosyntactic features characterizing our research participants' spoken production and compared our findings with Björkman's (2013).

This paper aims at answering the following questions.

Do lecturers make use of pragmatic strategies to enhance their communicative effectiveness while lecturing in English? What are the most frequent ones? Are non-standard morphosyntactic features common in lecturers' spoken production? What are the most frequent ones?

8 Cogo refers to the alternative of considering "a bilingual proficient speaker as an empirically based alternative to native norms" (2008, 59).

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 345-366

Do these findings differ from those reported by the Swedish scholar? Finally, overall, is there any correspondence between lecturers' adoption of pragmatic strategies and deviation from standard morphosyntax when lecturing?

4 Research Setting and Method

The present investigation has been carried out in a public university in northern Italy, where the number of English-taught programmes is gradually increasing at all levels (BA, MA and PhD). Eight lecturers, all Italian, who were involved in English-medium teaching, were contacted personally via e-mail by the researcher and were asked whether they wished to participate in this research project on the use of English as a medium of instruction: seven out of eight agreed and gave their permission to be observed and audio recorded while lecturing, and to be interviewed. A concise description of our group of participants is provided below **[tab. 1]**.[9]

Table 1 Research participants

ID	Gender	Age range	Academic field
FL_01	F	50-60	mathematics
FL_02	F	40-50	mathematics
FL_03	F	40-50	computer science
FL_04	F	30-40	management
FL_05	F	50-60	economics
ML_01	M	40-50	chemistry
ML_02	M	40-50	computer science

The whole corpus of collected data comprises lectures (20 lectures,[10] 27 hours and 36 minutes) and semi-structured interviews with lecturers (7 interviews, 2 hours and 53 minutes). As far as lectures are concerned, the researcher herself attended all of them as a non-obtrusive observer, audio recorded them and took notes on the non-verbal behaviour of participants (e.g. students' non-verbal backchannelling, gesturing and use of ICTs by the lecturer, etc.). For both lectures and

9 To guarantee lecturers' anonymity, their names have been substituted with identification codes.

10 Three lectures for each participant were attended. The only exception to this is lecturer FL_01 of whom two lectures, instead of three, were attended.

interviews, the ELFA (2008) transcription guidelines[11] were followed.

The analytic approach that has been adopted is characterized by the distinction between **extensive** and **intensive**, as the whole corpus has been investigated extensively whereas only a small portion of it has been analysed intensively; this is explained by the fact that the present research has been managed by a single researcher, which made it practically impossible for all the lectures recorded to be wholly transcribed. Therefore, a combination of an extensive exploration of the whole corpus and an intensive analysis of a subset of it was thought to be more manageable. However, for the purposes of the present contribution, reference will be made to the intensive analyses of transcribed lectures only (i.e. one lecture for each participant): the main figures of the corpus subset that has been considered are summarized here **[tab. 2]**.

Table 2 Corpus of transcribed lectures

Period	25 September-18 December 2017
No. of lectures	7
Total time	9h 41′ 18″
Total no. of words	69,581

The corpus subset that has just been described was carefully investigated with a view to identifying types and frequencies of both the pragmatic strategies adopted by the seven lecturers and the non-standard morphosyntactic features characterizing their oral delivery. As already mentioned, Björkman's study (2013) served as the main point of reference for the present research, as it functioned as a useful blueprint to conduct a thorough exploration of those dimensions – i.e. strategic competence and language competence – which are of paramount importance to better understand the English-medium teaching phenomenon: it was thought therefore that starting this research endeavour with an investigation of such dimensions might contribute to our overall goal of uncovering and defining the construct of the language-teaching methodology interface (Bier 2019).

As for **types of pragmatic strategies**, in keeping with Björkman's study,[12] the following have been contemplated: comment on terms and concepts, prospective and retrospective signalling of discourse structure, signalling importance, comment on intent, labelling a

11 https://www.helsinki.fi/sites/default/files/atoms/files/elfa_transcription_guide.pdf.

12 As for pragmatic strategies, Björkman used Penz' taxonomy (2008) as the main point of departure for her research.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 345-366 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

speech act, comment on details and on content of task, comment on common ground, backchannelling, self-repair (language form vs. content), other-correction, repetition for emphasis (vs. caused by disfluency), repetition of other's utterances, head and pre-dislocation, tail and post-dislocation. To these, a few others have been added: enumerating, involving the audience, immediate reformulation of concept/key-term/question, use of questions and rhetorical questions, repetition of problematic item with question.

The **non-standard morphosyntactic features** that have been investigated are these: not marking the plural of the noun, article usage, double comparatives/superlatives (noun phrase level); subject-verb agreement, tense and aspect issues, passive voice (verb phrase level); non-standard question formulation, word order, negation (clause level); non-standard word forms, non-standard analytic comparative, non-standard plural forms/countability (morphology). The only feature that was not found in Björkman's study and has been added here is dropping subject pronouns (verb phrase level).

As far as data analysis is concerned, each lecture transcription was examined twice: first, pragmatic strategies were identified, highlighted and counted; then, the same procedure was followed for non-standard morphosyntactic features. To ensure reliability of results,[13] the following procedure was adopted: both analyses – pragmatic strategies and non-standard forms – were repeated two weeks apart, without making any reference to the results previously established. This procedure had the double advantage of 1) allowing a close check of discrepant instances, and 2) stimulating careful reflection on the same instances.

5 Results. Pragmatic Strategies and Non-Standard Morphosyntax in Lecturing

Prior to presenting and describing findings related to pragmatic strategy use and frequency of non-standard morphosyntactic forms, **rate of speech**, which is a feature that has a bearing on comprehensibility and therefore on lecturing effectiveness, will briefly be illustrated. As can be seen in the table below **[tab. 3]**, the average rate of speech has been calculated dividing the total number of words by the total duration (in minutes) of each transcribed lecture. These results will be commented on later, in the discussion section.

13 Reliability indicates the "degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers [*inter*-rater reliability] or by the same observer on different occasions [*intra*-rater reliability]" (Silverman 2005, in Dörnyei 2007, 57).

Table 3 Rate of speech

ID	TOT. no. of words (in transcribed lecture)	Duration of transcribed lecture (secs / mins / hrs)	AVERAGE RATE OF SPEECH (whole lecture *) in words/minute	RATE OF SPEECH (extract 1**) in words/minute	RATE OF SPEECH (extract 2**) in words/minute
FL_01	8,741	4,744 / 79 / 1.32	**110.65**	112.8	116.4
FL_02	10,330	5,054 / 84 / 1.40	**122.98**	135.6	117
FL_03	12,427	4,996 / 83 / 1.39	**149.72**	149.4	145.2
FL_04	10,378	4,937 / 82 / 1.37	**126.56**	143.4	108
FL_05	6,606	4,676 / 78 / 1.30	**84.69**	91.8	93.6
ML_01	9,781	4,835 / 80 / 1.34	**122.26**	147	124.2
ML_02	11,318	5,516 / 92 / 1.53	**123.02**	128.4	138.6

* From beginning to end of lecture.
** Stretch of talk comprised between two interruptions (by students). The only exception to this is FL_01 whose lecturing flow is never interrupted and therefore the two extracts represent the opening and the closing of the lecture.

As for pragmatic strategies and non-standard morphosyntactic features, since, as has just been shown, there are differences in rate of speech among the lecturers, all figures indicating frequency in the tables below **[tabs 4-5]** have been normalised by 10,000 words; comparison with Björkman's findings is therefore allowed.

Table 4 displays the frequency of use of each pragmatic strategy by each lecturer, and a comparison with figures from the Swedish setting.[14]

Table 5 displays the frequency of each non-standard form by each lecturer. As can be seen, pre- and post-dislocation – included in Table 4 as well, given their pragmatic contribution to lecturing effectiveness – are also present, being themselves non-standard syntactic features.[15]

Table 6 shows a comparison with average per hour figures obtained in the Swedish setting.[16]

14 Figures from the Swedish setting are those reported in Björkman (2013, 124). The only exception to this is the figure regarding *questions*, which was reported elsewhere (Björkman 2010, 80). Instances of *repetition because of disfluency* are *not* regarded as pragmatic strategies: they are just identified and then removed from instances of repetition. Therefore, they are not contemplated in the summation. Another note on Björkman's figures: although the summation was obtained adding up figures normalized by 10,000 words, it refers to 4 lectures only, whereas the present study has considered 7. To make figures at least roughly comparable, a proportion was computed and Björkman's figures were multiplied by the ratio 7/4 (figures in parentheses are the original ones, referring to 4 lectures).

15 Corresponding standard features are **heads** (for **pre**-dislocation) and **tails** (for **post**-dislocation).

16 Figures from the Swedish setting are those reported in Björkman (2013, 95).

Table 4 The pragmatic strategies used by the seven lecturers and a comparison with Björkman's findings (figures are normalized by 10,000 words)

PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES	FL_01	FL_02	FL_03	FL_04	FL_05	ML_01	ML_02	Σ	Björkman's Σ
comment on terms and concepts	46	29	56	63	33	42	34	**303**	**33** (19)
prospective signalling	14	39	55	22	17	14	27	**187**	
retrospective signalling and **summarizing**	9	15	24	16	8	12	17	**102**	**58** (33)
enumerating, making a list	1	2	6	3	3	1	8	**24**	
signalling importance	67	14	8	13	83	18	23	**226**	**47** (27)
comment on **intent**	30	6	11	4	3	7	4	**64**	**42** (24)
labelling a speech act	26	10	35	13	26	30	9	**149**	**137** (78)
comment on **details** and on **content of task**	1	32	24	7	5	1	23	**93**	**152** (87)
comment on **common ground** (we)	119	73	86	53	74	65	86	**556**	**511** (292)
involving the audience (you)	46	109	117	121	129	130	183	**835**	-
backchannelling	0	17	11	11	48	14	25	**127**	**28** (16)
self-repair (language form)	16	22	16	60	35	34	47	**230**	**35** (20)
self-repair (content)	18	12	12	16	3	17	36	**115**	
other-correction (content)	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	**6**	0
immediate reformulation	21	17	23	32	45	14	80	**232**	-
repetition for **emphasis**	11	29	16	16	23	13	12	**121**	**82** (47)
repetition because of **disfluency**	31	49	74	109	86	79	152	**580**	**294** (168)
repetition **of other's** utterances	0	27	5	17	51	6	12	**119**	**11** (6)
head (fronting)	0	0	0	2	5	2	2	**10**	-
pre-dislocation	0	0	9	8	51	17	4	**90**	-

PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES	FL_01	FL_02	FL_03	FL_04	FL_05	ML_01	ML_02	Σ	Björkman's Σ
tail	1	0	8	13	11	4	4	**40**	-
post-dislocation	5	3	6	8	3	3	4	**30**	-
questions	0	56	15	48	145	27	14	**306**	
rhetorical questions	174	263	60	141	118	287	61	**1104**	
of which "ok?"/"right?"	105 (60%)	218 (83%)	11 (18%)	120 (85%)	82 (69%)	270 (94%)	51 (84%)	857 (78%)	**75** (43)
without "ok?"/"right?"	69 (40%)	45 (17%)	49 (82%)	21 (15%)	36 (31%)	17 (6%)	10 (16%)	247 (22%)	
repetition of problematic item with a question	0	0	0	3	5	1	1	**9**	-
Σ	**605**	**775**	**606**	**689**	**926**	**762**	**717**	**5080**	
ranking	7	2	6	5	1	3	4		

Table 5 The non-standard morphosyntactic features produced by the seven lecturers (figures are normalized by 10,000 words)

NON-STANDARD FORMS	FL_01	FL_02	FL_03	FL_04	FL_05	ML_01	ML_02	Σ
not marking plural of noun	113	6	15	37	80	73	20	**344**
article usage	32	11	6	47	157	81	20	**354**
double-comparatives/ superlatives	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	**2**
subject-verb agreement	66	6	10	22	42	11	10	**168**
tense and aspect issues	33	24	24	32	88	33	17	**251**
passive voice	7	0	1	3	12	1	0	**24**
dropping of subject pronoun	64	16	25	35	42	12	31	**226**
non-standard **question formulation**	9	7	2	13	64	4	2	**100**
word order	22	6	6	18	21	17	7	**98**
negation	9	1	0	0	4	2	1	**17**
non-standard **word forms**	0	0	1	1	20	2	0	**23**
non-standard **analytic comparative**	2	0	1	0	8	8	0	**19**
non-standard **plural forms/ countability**	1	0	0	1	5	0	0	**7**
pre-dislocation	0	0	9	8	51	17	4	**89**
post-dislocation	5	3	6	8	3	3	4	**32**
Σ	**364**	**79**	**106**	**225**	**599**	**264**	**116**	**1753**
ranking	2	7	6	4	1	3	5	

Table 6 Non-standard morphosyntactic features: comparison with Björkman's findings

NON-STANDARD FORMS	per hour figures	Björkman's per hour figures
not marking plural of noun	32.78	3.30
article usage	31.97	3.80
double-comparatives/superlatives	0.11	0.20
subject-verb agreement	15.91	3.00
tense and aspect issues	23.77	3.00
passive voice	2.05	0.30
dropping of subject pronoun	22.36	-
non-standard **question formulation**	8.48	0.40
word order	9.57	0.80
negation	1.71	0.30
non-standard **word forms**	1.85	0.10
non-standard **analytic comparative**	1.72	0.40
non-standard **plural forms/ countability**	0.54	0.70

6 Discussion

Do lecturers make use of pragmatic strategies to enhance their communicative effectiveness while lecturing in English? What are the most frequent ones? Do these findings differ from those reported by the Swedish scholar?

Results reported [tab. 4] reveal that the seven lecturers make use of a variety of pragmatic strategies to enhance their communicative effectiveness. On the whole, **questions** and **rhetorical questions** are by far lecturers' most favourite pragmatic tool to involve the audience and receive feedback, being used in the attempt to improve the chances that the message delivered be understood by students. In a similar vein, the second and third most frequent strategies are **involving the audience** (you) and **commenting on common ground** (we), a finding that seems to confirm the importance attached to referring to the audience as a discourse participant and co-constructor of meaning.

A comparison with the Swedish results reveals interesting findings. To begin with, the same strategies investigated by Björkman were indeed observed in the Italian setting as well, thus allowing us to respond negatively to the scholar's question and confirm her speculation:

> A question that may emerge from the discussion in the present study is whether the pragmatic strategies discussed here are in

> any way *sui generis* [Author's emphasis]. There is little reason to think that the pragmatic strategies observed in the present corpus should be absent in other types of high-stakes interaction in other academic settings where speakers strive to get the message across. (Björkman 2011b, 961)

In general, however, the frequency of pragmatic strategies found in our corpus is much higher **[tab. 4]**: in one case only (i.e. commenting on details and on contents of task) the Swedish result is slightly higher than ours; in a couple of cases (i.e. labelling a speech act and commenting on common ground) there is only a tiny difference between the two settings; in most cases, notably in **questions** and **rhetorical questions**, **self-repair** (both language and content), and **commenting on terms and concepts**, our figures are strikingly higher than those obtained by Björkman.

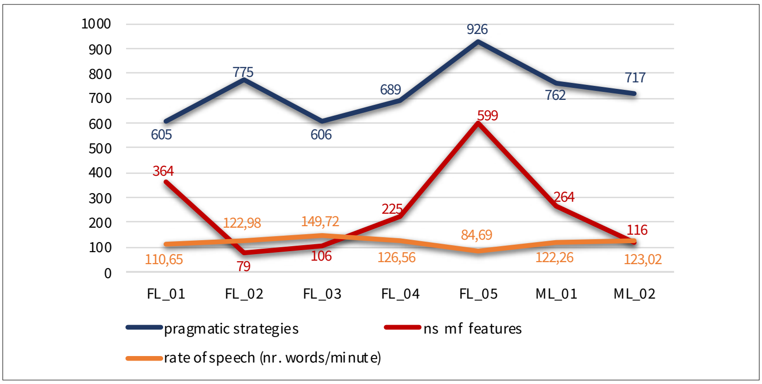
Are non-standard morphosyntactic features common in lecturers' spoken production? What are the most frequent ones? Do these findings differ from those reported by the Swedish scholar?

Our findings **[tab. 5]** show that the non-standardness characterizing the seven lecturers' oral delivery is varied and frequent. The most numerous deviant cases are found at noun phrase level, namely in **article usage** and **not marking plural of noun**. Second, non-standardness at verb phrase level follows, with **tense and aspect issues** and **dropping of subject pronoun**. Finally, non-standard **question formulation** is also quite frequent, and this finding goes parallel to what was found for pragmatic strategies (cf. *supra*): since questions are by far the most frequent pragmatic tool used by lecturers, there is ample reason to think that a considerable degree of non-standardness could be found in questions themselves.

Our figures, compared to the Swedish ones, are substantially higher **[tab. 6]**. The only non-standard morphosyntactic features for which our results are slightly lower are double-comparatives/superlatives and plural forms/countability, whereas all the others are much more frequent: **article usage** is eight times more frequent, **not marking plural of noun** almost ten times, and non-standard **question formulation** is twenty-one times more frequent than in the Swedish setting. As far as this last result is concerned, a quick revision of Björkman's findings is in order: in her analysis of communicative effectiveness in academic settings, it was found that non-standard syntax in question formulation can be a critical factor, leading to overt disturbance and communication breakdown (Björkman 2008, 2009, 2013). This seems to sound warning bells for the context investigated, since numerous instances of non-standard questions were found in the lectures analysed here.

Is there any correspondence between lecturers' adoption of pragmatic strategies and deviation from standard morphosyntax when lecturing?

To answer this research question, a comparison between the seven lecturers is needed. Results are summarised here **[graph 1]**.



Graph 1 Comparison between lecturers

After a careful examination of results, **three situations** stand out: 1) the case of lecturer FL_05; 2) the case of lecturers FL_01 and FL_02; 3) the case of all the others.

As can be seen in the table, FL_05 ranks first in all dimensions, with a considerable margin with respect to those who rank second.[17]

- as for pragmatic strategies, she is the lecturer who, on the one hand, adopts them much more often than all the others; on the other hand, instances of "note that" to signal importance (36% of instances) and use of rhetorical "ok?" and "right?" (69%) abound in her oral delivery, which hints at both limited variety in communicative repertoire and improper use of these formulas as routines, resulting in their reduced pragmatic effectiveness;
- as for morphosyntax, she is the lecturer who produces the highest number of non-standard forms in her oral delivery, and numerous non-standard questions are among them.

17 As for pragmatic strategies, the difference between FL_05 (first) and FL_02 (second) is 151, whereas in all the other cases the difference is much smaller. As for non-standard forms, the difference between FL_05 (first) and FL_01 (second) is 235, whereas, again, in all the other cases the difference is much smaller.

FL_01 and FL_02 identify opposite cases:

- FL_01 is the lecturer who adopts pragmatic strategies the least and, in addition to this, instances of "note that" to signal importance (64% of instances) and use of rhetorical "ok?" and "right?" (60%) abound in her oral delivery, again indicating lack of variety and routine use; FL_01 ranks second in terms of frequency of non-standard features, not marking plural of nouns being the most frequent one;
- on the opposite, FL_02 is the lecturer who ranks second for pragmatic strategy use, even if rhetorical "ok?" and "right?" (83% of instances) are quite abundant in her oral delivery; FL_02 ranks last for non-standard morphosyntax, all features being infrequent.

The other four lecturers seem to align to the pattern identified for FL_05, although in a less extreme way: the more (or less) frequent the use of pragmatic strategies, the more (or less) frequent the presence of non-standard morphosyntactic features. More specifically,

- ML_01 ranks third in all dimensions. As for pragmatic strategies, it is remarkable that, particularly in this case, "ok?" and "right?" are very frequent among rhetorical questions (94% of instances), again indicating lack of variety and routine use;
- ML_02 and FL_04 share a mid-position in ranking as the former ranks fourth in pragmatic strategies and fifth in non-standard forms, whereas the latter ranks fifth in pragmatic strategies and fourth in non-standard forms;
- FL_03 occupies the sixth position both for pragmatic strategies and non-standard morphosyntax. As far as the former are concerned, it is noteworthy that, unlike what was pointed out in previous cases, FL_03 makes the least use of rhetorical "ok?" and "right?" (18% of instances). However, she is the lecturer who speaks the fastest.

If ratios are computed between the number of pragmatic strategies used and the number of non-standard forms produced, figures show – not surprisingly, after having examined the three situations above – that FL_02 ranks first (9.81), as the discrepancy between the former and the latter is the widest. On the opposite, FL_05 ranks last (1.55), since such discrepancy is much narrower. For the same reason, FL_01 ranks second last (1.66).

Our findings, obtained in a specific academic setting (i.e. a medium-sized public university in northern Italy), indicate that the seven lecturers – although showing varying degrees of non-standard morphosyntax in their spoken production, which, in turn, indicate varying levels of language competence – not only are able to use pragmatic strategies but also adopt them quite often, compared to what

e-ISSN 2280-6792

Swedish lecturers do (Björkman 2013). On the whole, our findings seem to support House's position, according to which **pragmatic fluency** does not necessarily require conforming to standard norms, as speakers can be pragmatically fluent in their own ways without following standard patterns (House 1996).

The results obtained heretofore – especially those regarding situations 1 and 3 discussed above – seem to be in line with findings from the Swedish context and, more generally, with what the literature states (cf. § 2), i.e. the use of pragmatic strategies 'compensates' for the possible presence of non-standard morphosyntactic features in ensuring communicative effectiveness, "form seems to follow function" (Cogo 2008, 60).

However, if we take a closer look at FL_05 (i.e. many strategies, many non-standard forms) and FL_01's (i.e. few strategies, many non-standard forms) profiles, the following questions arise: is such a 'compensation relationship' between pragmatic strategies and non-standard morphosyntactic features always in place? Even when non-standard forms are many (cf. FL_01, FL_05)? Even when critical non-standard question formulation is persistent (cf. FL_05)? Or does a 'tolerance level' exist, in terms of frequency of non-standard features, beyond which the effect exerted by pragmatic strategies is limited? To this end, we shall recall the results of some studies, carried out in the Italian (Clark 2017) and international (Suviniitty 2012; Gundermann 2014) contexts, which indicate that students generally hold strict views on their lecturers' language competence in English, and often assess them negatively based on the language competence they perceive: these findings might support the hypothesis that a 'tolerance level' actually exists, beyond which lecturers ought not to venture, as they would run the risk of reduced communicative effectiveness – perceived and, most likely, effective as well. Our line of reasoning seems to be supported by Macaro's hypothesis too, according to which "EMI teachers need to have stepped over a certain threshold of proficiency before they can teach successfully" (Macaro 2018, 81).

From an educational linguist's point of view, as for practical implications deriving from the first part of our wider research, it is noted that lecturers – who teach in non-language-teaching contexts, and whose L1 is not English – need support in becoming aware of the role of language as a teaching tool. This should be done through a **systematic reflection** on:

a. usefulness of pragmatic strategies as tools to enhance communicative effectiveness (thanks to increased comprehensibility of speech, higher transparency in lecture structure, possibility to interact with students, receive feedback and check their understanding);
b. critical effects produced by non-standard formulations, paying special attention to the ways in which questions are posed.

The research that has been presented in this contribution is limited in two main ways. First, results obtained (all from the lecturers' side) have not been matched with the students' point of view: since lecturers' communicative effectiveness, as perceived by their students, has not been investigated, we are not able to give definite answers to the questions on the relationship between pragmatic strategy use and non-standard morphosyntax that have been touched upon above. Furthermore, rich qualitative data from field notes (collected during lecture observation) and semi-structured interviews with lecturers have not been contemplated in the analyses presented here: such data offer detailed information on lecturers' teaching experience (through English but not only) and their perceptions on English-medium teaching related issues (e.g. role of language proficiency, relationship with students) (Bier 2020). Only after a triangulation of findings will it be possible to make more accurate claims on those issues, about which we have just begun to scratch the surface.

7 Conclusions

If lecturers did not use pragmatic strategies and non-standard morphosyntactic features abounded in their oral delivery, given the complexity of the content provided (difficult and new for students) and given the added complexity deriving from the language used (which is neither the lecturers' nor the students' L1),

> lectures may be potential minefields where students do not get the opportunity to negotiate meaning and check their understanding. ELF settings are by nature challenging settings for all speakers involved, and without opportunities to negotiate meaning, there is an increased risk of disturbance in communication. (Björkman 2011b, 961)

The main reason for which pragmatic strategies are used, in ELF in general, not only in the academic context, is to prevent possible communication breakdowns and increase the explicitness and comprehensibility of one's speech (Mauranen 2006, 2007; Mauranen, Ranta 2009). In academic non-language-teaching contexts, communicative failure may be caused by the **language** of instruction or by the **content** taught or, more realistically, by a **blend of both**. Language-related obstacles may hide in the **language of the discipline** – i.e. subject-specific terminology, genre(s) and academic discourse characterizing the discipline itself – but also in the **language competence** of both the lecturer, who uses English as the academic lingua franca (and whose oral morphosyntax may show a degree of deviation from the standard), and the students, who have different L1s and use English as the language **of** and **for** learning. Discipline-related difficulties, instead, reside in the highly specific and complex content provided, the full understanding of which requires that students develop competence in the language of the discipline as well: we can thus understand that separating **content** from **language**, and vice versa, is not an easy task, either in theory or in practice.

Based on the results presented in this contribution, we can formulate a first, tentative confirmation of our preliminary definition of the **language-teaching methodology interface**, evidence of its activation being found in those situations where the lecturer strives to be clear, to make him/herself understood by students, by means of the adoption of those strategies whose main objective is neither the quantity of content provided nor adherence to native-speaker English but **comprehensibility** on the students' part: language is thus both a vehicle for information/facts/content and a tool to offer students the scaffolding of such content, the focus being on the instrumentality of language, on the role of language in **mediating the construction of knowledge**, rather than in the mere transmission of it (Halliday 1978).

Acknowledgements

The Author wishes to express her heartfelt gratitude to the seven lecturers who participated in the research, whose contribution has been invaluable.

Funding

The Author would like to acknowledge funding by the Department of Linguistics and Comparative Cultural Studies of Ca' Foscari University of Venice (Assegno di ricerca dal titolo "Lingua e metodologia didattica nell'insegnamento accademico in lingua inglese: due lati della stessa interfaccia"; SSD: L-LIN/02), which made this postdoc research possible.

References

Ackerley, K.; Guarda, M.; Helm, F. (eds) (2017). *Sharing Perspectives on English-Medium Instruction*. Bern: Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0343-2538-7.

Ädel, A. (2010). "'Just to Give You Kind of a Map of Where We Are Going'. A Taxonomy of Metadiscourse in Spoken and Written Academic English". *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 9(2), 69-97. https://doi.org/10.35360/njes.218.

Airey, J. (2009). *Science, Language and Literacy. Case Studies of Learning in Swedish University Physics* [PhD Dissertation]. Uppsala: University of Uppsala.

Airey, J. (2012). "'I Don't Teach Language'. The Linguistic Attitudes of Physics Lecturers in Sweden", in Smit, U.; Dafouz, E. (eds), "Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education", special issue, *AILA Review*, 25(1), 64-79. https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.25.05air.

Allison, D.; Tauroza, S. (1995). "The Effect of Discourse Organisation on Lecture Comprehension". *English for Specific Purposes*, 14(2), 157-73. https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(95)00007-e.

Basso, N. (2012). "Dealing with the Unexpected. The Use of ELF in an International Academic Context". Ludbrook, G.; Newbold, D. (eds), *English Lingua Franca. Contexts, Strategies and International Relations*. Venezia: Cafoscarina, 21-35.

Bier, A. (2019). "Towards a Definition of the Language-Teaching Methodology Interface: Some Preliminary Findings from Italy". Presentation at the *EMI Practices in Europe* Conference (University of Copenhagen, Denmark, 4-5 April 2019).

Bier, A. (2020). "On the Hidden Dimension of the Interface between Language and Teaching Methodology: Lecturers' Cognitions on EMI". *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 1. In print.

Bjørge, A.K. (2010). "Conflict or Cooperation. The Use of Backchannelling in ELF Negotiations". *English for Specific Purposes*, 29, 191-203. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.04.002.

Björkman, B. (2008). "'So Where We Are?' Spoken Lingua Franca English at a Technical University in Sweden". *English Today*, 24(2), 35-41. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0266078408000187.

Björkman, B. (2009). "From Code to Discourse in Spoken ELF". Mauranen, Ranta 2009, 225-51.

Björkman, B. (2010). "'So You Think You Can ELF'. English as a Lingua Franca as the Medium of Instruction". *Hermes*, 45, 77-96. https://doi.org/10.7146/hjlcb.v23i45.97348.

Björkman, B. (ed.) (2011a). "English as a Lingua Franca", special issue, *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(4).

Björkman, B. (2011b). "Pragmatic Strategies in English as an Academic Lingua Franca. Ways of Achieving Communicative Effectiveness?". Björkman 2011a, 950-64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.033.

Björkman, B. (2013). *English as an Academic Lingua Franca. An Investigation of Form and Communicative Effectiveness*. Berlin; Boston: De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110279542.

Björkman, B. (2016). "English-Medium Instruction and English as the Lingua Franca in Higher Education in Central and Northern Europe". Pitzl, M.-L.; Osimk-Teasdale, R. (eds), *English as a Lingua Franca. Perspectives and Pros-*

pects. Contributions in Honour of Barbara Seidlhofer. Boston: De Gruyter Mouton, 57-68. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501503177-011.

Brown, G.A.; Bakhtar, M. (eds) (1983). *Styles of Lecturing*. Loughborough: University of Loughborough; ASTD Publications.

Clark, C. (2017). "Perceptions of EMI. The Students' View of a Master's Degree Program". Ackerley, Guarda, Helm 2017, 285-308.

Cogo, A. (2008). "English as a Lingua Franca. Form Follows Function". *English Today*, 24(3), 58-61. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0266078408000308.

Cogo, A. (2009). "Accommodating Difference in ELF Conversations. A Study of Pragmatic Strategies". Mauranen, Ranta 2009, 254-73.

Cogo, A.; Dewey, M. (2006). "Efficiency in ELF Communication. From Pragmatic Motives to Lexico-Grammatical Innovation". *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 5(2), 59-93. https://doi.org/10.35360/njes.12.

Costa, F. (2016). *CLIL through English in Italian Higher Education*. Milano: Edizioni Universitarie di Lettere Economia Diritto-LED.

Costa, F.; Coleman, J.A. (2013). "A Survey of English-Medium Instruction in Italian Higher Education". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(1), 3-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.676621.

Crawford Camiciottoli, B. (2004). "Interactive Discourse Structuring in L2 Guest Lectures. Some Insights from a Comparative Corpus-Based Study". *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(1), 39-54. https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-1585(03)00044-4.

Crawford Camiciottoli, B. (2005). "Adjusting a Business Lecture for an International Audience. A Case Study". *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 183-99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.05.002.

Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a Medium of Instruction. A Growing Global Phenomenon*. Oxford: British Council; University of Oxford.

DeCarrico, J.; Nattinger, J.R. (1988). "Lexical Phrases for the Comprehension of Academic Lectures". *English for Specific Purposes*, 7(2), 91-102. https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(88)90027-0.

De Wit, H. et al. (eds) (2015). *Internationalisation of Higher Education*. Brussels: European Parliament; Directorate-General for Internal Policies.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

ELFA. English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (2008). *The Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings*. http://www.helsinki.fi/elfa/elfacorpus.

Francomacaro, M.R. (2011). *English as a Medium of Instruction at an Italian Engineering Faculty. An Investigation of Structural Features and Pragmatic Functions* [PhD Dissertation]. Naples: Università degli Studi di Napoli Federico II.

Guarda, M.; Helm, F. (2016). "'I Have Discovered New Teaching Pathways'. The Link between Language Shift and Teaching Practice". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(7), 897-913. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1125848.

Guarda, M.; Helm, F. (2017). "A Survey of Lecturers' Needs and Feedback on EMI Training". Ackerley, Guarda, Helm 2017, 167-94.

Gundermann, S. (2014). *English-Medium Instruction. Modelling the Role of the Native Speaker in a Lingua Franca Context*. Freiburg: New Ideas in Human Interaction Studies.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as Social Semiotic. The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Hellekjær, G.O. (2010a). “Language Matters. Assessing Lecture Comprehension in Norwegian English-Medium Higher Education”. Dalton-Puffer, C.; Nikula, T.; Smit, U. (eds), *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 233-58.

Hellekjær, G.O. (2010b). “Lecture Comprehension in English-Medium Higher Education”. *Hermes*, 45, 11-34. `https://doi.org/10.7146/hjlcb.v23i45.97343`.

Helm, F.; Guarda, M. (2015). “Improvisation Is not Allowed in a Second Language. A Survey of Italian Lecturers’ Concerns about Teaching Their Subjects through English”. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 5(2), 353-73. `https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2015-0017`.

House, J. (1996). “Developing Pragmatic Fluency in English as a Foreign Language. Routines and Metapragmatic Awareness”. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(2), 225-52. `https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100014893`.

Jung, E.H.S. (2003). “The Role of Discourse Signalling Cues in Second Language Listening Comprehension”. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(4), 562-77. `https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00208`.

Kaur, J. (2009). “Pre-Empting Problems of Understanding in English as a Lingua Franca”. Mauranen, Ranta 2009, 107-24.

Klaassen, R.G. (2001). *The International University Curriculum. Challenges in English-Medium Engineering Education* [PhD Dissertation]. Delft: Delft Technisches Universiteit.

Klaassen, R.G. (2008). “Preparing Lecturers for English-Medium Instruction”. Wilkinson, R.; Zegers, V. (eds), *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*. Maastricht: Maastricht University Press., 32-42.

Lichtkoppler, J. (2007). “‘Male. Male.’ – ‘Male?’ – ‘The Sex is Male’. The Role of Repetition in English as a Lingua Franca Conversations”. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 16(1), 39-65.

Lynch, T. (1994). “Training Lecturers for International Audiences”. Flowerdew, J. (ed.), *Academic Listening. Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 269-89. `https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524612.020`.

Macaro, E. (2018). *English Medium Instruction. Content and Language in Policy and Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mauranen, A. (2006). “Signaling and Preventing Misunderstanding in English as a Lingua Franca Communication”. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 177, 123-50. `https://doi.org/10.1515/IJSL.2006.008`.

Mauranen, A. (2007). “Hybrid Voices. English as the Lingua Franca of Academics”. Fløttum, K. (ed.), *Language and Discipline Perspectives on Academic Discourse*. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars, 243-59.

Mauranen, A.; Ranta, E. (eds) (2009). *English as a Lingua Franca. Studies and Findings*. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars.

Morell, T. (2004). “Interactive Lecture Discourse for University EFL Students”. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(3), 325-38. `https://doi.org/10.1016/s0889-4906(03)00029-2`.

Mulligan, D.; Kirkpatrick, A. (2000). “How Much Do They Understand? Lectures, Students and Comprehension”. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 19(3), 311-35. `https://doi.org/10.1080/758484352`.

Penz, H. (2008). “What do We Mean by That? ELF in Intercultural Project Work”. Paper presented at the *ESSE Conference* (University of Aarhus, Denmark, 22-6 August 2008).

Pilkinton-Pikho, D. (2013). *English-Medium Instruction. Seeking Assessment Criteria for Spoken Professional English* [PhD Dissertation]. Helsinki: University of Helsinki.

Quirk, R. et al. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.

Rounds, P.L. (1987). “Characterising Successful Classroom Discourse for NNS Teaching Assistant Training”. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 643-71. `https://doi.org/10.2307/3586987`.

Samovar, L.A.; Mills, J. (1995). *Oral Communication. Speaking across Countries*. Dubuque: Brown & Benchmark.

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Suviniitty, J. (2012). *Lectures in English as a Lingua Franca. Interactional Features* [PhD Dissertation]. Helsinki: University of Helsinki.

Thompson, S. (1998). “Why Ask Questions in a Monologue? Language Choices at Work in Scientific and Linguistic Talk”. Hunston, S. (ed.), *Language at Work*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 137-50.

Van Lier, L. (2004). *The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning. A Sociocultural Perspective*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Vinke, A.A. (1995). *English as the Medium of Instruction in Dutch Engineering Education* [PhD Dissertation]. Delft: Delft Technisches Universiteit.

Wächter, B.; Maiworm, F. (eds) (2014). *English-Taught Programmes in European Higher Education. The State of Play in 2014*. Bonn: Lemmens.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Language Awareness in Italian Secondary Schools
How Do Students Approach Language Awareness Tasks and What Kind of Language Awareness Emerges from their Reflections?

Zuzana Toth
INVALSI

Abstract The present paper aims to explore how students of Italian secondary schools approach linguistic tasks and what sort of knowledge about language emerges from their analyses. These questions arise from the observation of the results of the Invalsi tests. In order to examine how students construct their answers to a sample of language awareness questions, they were asked to explain how to answer them by making a tutorial video. The videos were discussed during a semi-structured interview. The data were transcribed and analysed by means of Qualitative Content Analysis. The results indicate that the principal difference between students relates to the stability of their "engagement with language" and their ability to switch their attention between different levels of linguistic analysis.

Keywords Language Awareness. Engagement with Language. Metalinguistic Knowledge. Cognitive Conflict. Guided-Inductive Approach to Grammar.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Peer review

Submitted 2019-12-18
Accepted 2019-07-05
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Toth, Z. (2020). "Language Awareness in Italian Secondary Schools. How Do Students Approach Language Awareness Tasks and What Kind of Language Awareness Emerges from their Reflections?". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 367-388.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/003

1 Introduction

The present study focuses on language awareness in L1 Italian of upper-secondary school students, as part of the skills students are expected to acquire according to the National Guidelines developed by the Italian Ministry of Education.[1] Given its importance in students' curriculum, language awareness is assessed within the Italian test administered by INVALSI,[2] the research institute responsible for the external assessment of learning outcomes at various levels in the Italian school system. The present study focuses on the Italian tests administered in the second class of upper-secondary schools, corresponding to the 10th year of schooling, in the period between 2011 and 2017. At this time the tests were administered in paper-and-pencil format, and published on the institute's website, together with the related results. The tests administered from the year 2018 are not available for analysis because their administration is computer-based, and the tests are no longer published.

The Italian tests that form the subject of the present study were composed of two parts: a reading comprehension section and a language awareness section. The results of the language awareness questions reveal significant variations in the achievements of students from different school types (general upper secondary education, technical and vocational education). When looking at the percentage of correct answers, for instance, there is always a gap between general secondary schools on one side, and vocational schools on the other, which suggests that students attending a vocational school are disadvantaged when it comes to reflection on language.

The dimension of the gap between the two school types is inconstant; for the questions examined in the present study it varies between 14% and 45%. However, this variability cannot be directly linked to the overall difficulty of the questions at the national level, nor to the linguistic phenomena on which they focus (Toth 2019). Among two questions targeting the same grammatical phenomenon, for instance, one may generate a large gap between school types, the other a moderate one. The same variability is observable when looking at the difficulty of these questions at the national level.

The absence of systematic patterns suggests that students' language awareness should be viewed from a complex system perspec-

The present study was conducted within the research project *Misurazione diacronico-longitudinale dei livelli di apprendimento degli studenti*, funded by INVALSI. The author would like to thank Prof. Maria G. Lo Duca for her constant support throughout the study, the participating students, and the teachers who made the data collection possible.

1 `http://www.indicazioninazionali.it`.

2 National Institute for the Evaluation of the Education System

tive (Larsen-Freeman 2013), and the test outcomes should be considered as results emerging from the interaction of multiple factors (Svalberg 2016a, 4). An attempt to take a closer look at how this complex system works is motivated by the relevance attributed to language awareness in both the ministerial guidelines and the academic literature (e.g. Bialystok 2001; Lo Duca 2004, 2018a; Svalberg 2015, 2016a, 2016b). The present study aims therefore to deepen our understanding of how students approach language awareness tasks and elaborate their answers, in order to gain a better understanding of which factors influence the outcome of their reflections and how these factors work together.

2 Language Awareness in the Italian Curriculum

As pointed out by Balboni (1993), the Italian education system is centralized, in the sense that curricular guidelines are prepared by the Ministry of Education and are the basis of the teaching programmes implemented by schools. The present study focuses on upper-secondary education, which lasts five years and is organized into a two-year period and a three-year period. Even though in upper-secondary education curricular guidelines are differentiated according to the school type, the ministry also defines knowledge and competencies all students are expected to possess at the end of compulsory education, which coincides with the end of the two-year period. The ability to reflect on language is part of these competences, and its conceptualization in the ministerial documents is congruent with the definition of language awareness (LA) as "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (Association for Language Awareness, `https://www.languageawareness.org/?page_id=48`). However, as pointed out by several scholars (Cots 2017; Jessner 2017), the definition and conceptualization of LA varies across disciplines, and researchers use the terms 'knowledge about language' (KAL) and 'metalinguistic knowledge' (MLK) when referring to concepts similar to LA. In the present study, the terms LA and KAL are used as synonyms, while MLK is seen as a "more specific conscious knowledge of the formal aspects of language" (Cenoz, Gorter, May 2017, ix).

As pointed out by Lo Duca (2004, 2012a, 2012b), the majority of Italian teachers seem to follow a traditional approach to language, conceiving knowledge about language as the memorization of a set of rules and labels rather than the observation and analysis of linguistic data. As Van Rijt et al. (2019, 79) note, the same tendency has been observed in a significant number of studies conducted across the globe. However, a traditional approach to language often leads to the memorization of partial definitions and the acquisition of fragmentary knowledge, as exemplified by Lo Duca (2011) on the classification of words into parts of speech. Such classification is traditionally based on semantic definitions, by treating words in isolation, rather than examining their function in a sentence and their relationship with the context. Consequently, students tend to classify words according to semantic criteria, and do not pay attention to morphosyntactic features, encountering difficulties with words that do not correspond to a semantic definition of the part of speech they belong to (Lo Duca, Ferronato, Mengardo 2009; Lo Duca, Polato 2010; Lo Duca, Cristinelli, Martinelli 2011).

Thus, a traditional approach to language seems to discourage analytical reflection and may lead to a mechanical application of labels and rules of thumb to linguistic data, as indicated by studies on L1 Italian and L1 Dutch (Lo Duca 2018a; Van Rijt et al. 2019), as well as by studies on the results of the INVALSI test on language awareness (e.g., Lo Duca 2018b; Toth 2019).

1.1 Collaborative Construction of Language Awareness

In addition to examining how students approach linguistic data and tasks, several studies (e.g., Galloway, Stude, Uccelli 2015; Lo Duca 2004, 2012a, 2012b, 2018a, 2018b; Myhill, Jones, Wilson 2016; Svalberg 2015; Toth 2019; Watson, Newman 2017) point towards the importance of discussion based on the observation of linguistic data in developing the language awareness of students. Discussion enhances metalinguistic understanding by directing the student's attention to relations between form, meaning and function (Myhill, Jones, Wilson 2016, 37), and exploiting the student's implicit competences and natural curiosity towards language (Lo Duca 2004, 2018a). These results support a "language awareness approach", as described by Svalberg (2016b), focusing on the collaborative construction of knowledge instead of its transmission, emphasizing the learner's active participation.

In Svalberg's (2009, 2016a) studies, the collaborative construction of language awareness is called 'engagement with language' (EWL), and described as a complex and cyclical process, in which the learner draws on their existing language awareness (LA) to reflect on linguistic data and analyse how language works, resulting in new or enhanced LA (Svalberg 2009, 248). This process has not only a cognitive, but also an affective and a social dimension; in addition to focused attention directed to the language, it requires a positive and purposeful attitude towards the language, and a willingness to engage in collaborative knowledge construction (Svalberg 2009, 2016a). The three dimensions are not easily distinguishable, given that they interact and influence each other, forming a complex system (Larsen-Freeman, Cameron 2008).

A pedagogical implication of this conceptualization is that language teaching should be designed in a manner that fosters high-quality EWL, in order to ensure the creation of new or enhanced LA. According to Svalberg's study, cognitive conflict, i.e. when the learner's knowledge is "in some way insufficient to analyse the language to the group's, or the individual's satisfaction" (Svalberg 2015, 541), is among the factors that increase the learner's engagement, by initiating focused attention, and creating occasions for collaborative reflection on language and knowledge construction. The concept of cognitive conflict, and its role in fostering EWL, seems to be related to the concept of noticing in second language acquisition (Schmidt 2001; Mackey 2006), referring to episodes that trigger the learner's attention on a "gap between what they produce/know and what is produced by the speakers of the L2" (Mackey 2006, 408). Both concepts focus on the importance of triggering selective attention, directed to specific aspects of language, as a prerequisite to knowledge construction through social interaction.

To sum up, the studies reviewed in the present section point towards a conception of language awareness instruction as knowledge construction rather than knowledge transmission and emphasize the role of the learner's agency and focused attention. This approach promotes the exploitation of the learner's existing LA and curiosity towards language, by guiding them during the creation of new or enhanced LA.

1.2 Language Awareness in the INVALSI Tests

The questions focusing on knowledge about language in the INVALSI tests are formulated with the aim of stimulating an explorative approach to language, reflection on linguistic data and analysis of form-meaning connections (INVALSI 2018). Consistent with the principles formulated by Lo Duca (2004, 2018a) and the language awareness approach (Svalberg 2016b), they require the student to exploit both their explicit knowledge about language and their implicit linguistic competence.

As pointed out by several scholars (Jessner 2017; Ellis 2017), there are different conceptualizations of explicit and implicit competences, frequently based on a distinction between procedural and declarative knowledge. While earlier research questioned the possibility of an interface between explicit and implicit competence (e.g., Paradis 2009), recent research (Ellis 2017; Rebuschat 2015) has come to the conclusion that the two knowledge systems influence each other. This idea is consistent with Bialystok's (2001) conceptualization of metalinguistic processing as a gradable concept, based on the idea that there is "no absolute threshold beyond which processing can be claimed to be 'metalinguistic'" (Bialystok 2001, 130).

e-ISSN 2280-6792

Consistent with the idea that explicit and implicit knowledge can mutually influence each other (Ellis 2017, 118), and that language awareness is "partly conscious and partly intuitive" (Svalberg 2016b, 399), the linguistic tasks in the INVALSI tests aim to motivate students to exploit both their implicit and explicit knowledge. Tasks implying less explicit analysis require students to understand logical-semantic relations between clauses forming a sentence, or morphosyntactic relations between sentence components, without having to make this understanding explicit. Their answer may be intuitive, based on their linguistic sensitivity. For instance, students may be asked to substitute a conjunction without changing the overall meaning of a sentence, or to replace a synthetic relative pronoun with an analytical form, respecting the concordance in gender and number with the antecedent. Other tasks require a more explicit analysis and a reasoning in abstract terms, by taking into account both morphosyntactic and semantic features. For instance, in order to distinguish between the passive and active voice, especially in non-prototypical sentences, students need to direct their attention to the syntactic structure of the sentences and the semantic role of the constituents, and be familiar with abstract concepts, such as transitivity. This type of task requires a higher level of abstraction than tasks focusing on manipulation of linguistic data.

3 Study Objectives

The present study aims to examine how secondary school students reflect on language when solving language awareness tasks administered within the INVALSI tests. Thus, the over-arching research question that guided the present study is "How do students from different school types approach language awareness tasks from the INVALSI tests?".

Consistent with the view advocated by the language awareness movement (Svalberg 2016b), the present study assumes that knowledge about language is primarily observable in interactions. The study is therefore based on data collected from instances of group work and focus group interviews, analysed with the aims of examining what kind of language awareness emerges from these interactions. In addition, the study aims to examine to what extent are the kind of LA emerging from students' interactions and the quality of engagement with language shown by the students influenced by the type of secondary school they are attending. Thus, the main research question can be broken divided into three subordinate questions:

1. How do students engage with language during a collaborative task and a focus group interview?
2. What kind of language awareness emerges from students' reflection on language?

3. To what extent does students' engagement with language and language awareness differ in relation to school type?

1.3 Data Collection Methods

The data collection was directed to elicit reflection on linguistic tasks in order to examine students' language awareness and engagement with language. Work with peers was initiated in order to obtain data that were as least likely as possible to be influenced by the presence of the researcher, by asking selected groups of students to make a tutorial video in which they explain how to answer a series of eight INVALSI questions representing various levels of explicitness and difficulty. The data collection took place in two classes, each of approximately 20 students, one in a general upper secondary school and one in a vocational upper secondary school. Each class of students was divided into four groups, by asking their teacher to create groups that should be able to collaborate well together.

While students were working on their tutorials, both the teacher and the researcher were in the class and made themselves available for technical support and clarifications but did not intervene in the students' work. The researcher was not part of the school staff and has never met the students before the day of data collection.

It was assumed that, contrary to the interviews, which were produced jointly by the interviewer and the interviewee (Talmy 2010, 141-2), group work data would mirror how participants engage with language when working with peers. For the same reason, the guidance given to the students was as generic as possible. They were asked to imagine making a tutorial video for their friends who have to take the INVALSI tests, indicate the correct answer for each question, explain why the given answer is correct and, in the case of multiple-choice tasks, explain why the other options should be excluded. In addition, the students were requested to make sure that each question was commented on by at least three students and that each member of the groups had the possibility to comment on at least two or three questions. The latter request aimed at eliciting peer interaction on the videos, without explicitly asking students to film the whole working process, which could have biased their conversations.

When the students completed the tutorials, the videos were discussed within focus group interviews, moderated by the researcher, which aimed to deepen the analyses proposed on the videos, by pushing students to the limits of their ability to reflect on language (Watson, Newman 2017, 392). Since interviews present a case when meaning is co-constructed by the researcher and the interviewee, they were analysed separately from the video data.

1.4 Data Analytical Methods

Consistent with the research questions, the analysis of the data aimed to extract information relating to the students' engagement with language and their language awareness. The data were analysed by means of qualitative content analysis, following the principles described by Mayring (2014). Since "content analysis requires a written text as a basis" (Mayring 2014, 44), both the interview data and the videos were transcribed and analysed as textual data. The transcription followed the conventions formulated for the corpus VOICE (VOICE Project 2007), with some adjustments related to the specificities of the Italian language.

The data coding followed a deductive-structuring approach (Mayring 2014, 95-102), classifying segments of interactions according to the set of codes reported in Appendix, developed in a pilot study, in deductive and inductive cycles (Toth 2019). Thus, the system of categorization presented here is based on previous research on language awareness and engagement with language, described in the theoretical introduction to the present study, integrated with categories generated from the data, collected and analysed during the pilot study.

In the present study, a total number of 508 data segments were coded: 141 for socio-affective engagement and 367 for cognitive engagement. The whole dataset was coded by the researcher, while 30% of the data were coded simultaneously by a research fellow, who was working with a more detailed version of the code system (Appendix), with a definition and an anchor example provided for each code. The material coded by the two researchers was compared, and differences were discussed until agreement on code-assignment was reached. Subsequently, the two researchers recoded the data independently and the two versions of the coding were compared for a second time. The second comparison showed that the codes assigned by the two researchers were consistent, with 96% intercoder agreement. The rest of the data was subsequently coded by the researcher.

4 The Findings

The description of the findings focuses on the students' engagement with language and the language awareness emerging from their reasonings, aiming to identify to what extent students from general upper secondary schools differ from those attending vocational secondary schools.

4.1 Engagement with Language

Although EWL is a multidimensional construct (Svalberg 2016a, 11), with a social, an affective, and a cognitive component, several studies (e.g., Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, Kim 2016; Philp, Duchesne 2016) observe these dimensions individually, before turning attention to their interaction.

In the present study, the social and affective dimensions were condensed into a single category, to code sections containing explicit indications of particularly low or high socio-affective engagement. The latter was evidenced from an increased number of turn-takings, student's asking each other questions and reacting to the ideas of their peers, collaborative hypothesizing, initiation of ideas, etc. In contrast, low socio-affective engagement was deduced from discouraging comments, lack of reaction to peers' ideas, lack of supporting peers in their reasoning and explicit comments expressing boredom or frustration. Segments labelled as cognitive engagement showed students talking about language, noticing a linguistic feature, completing peers' utterances, justifying an argument, etc. (Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, Kim 2016; Philp, Duchesne 2016).

4.1.1 Socio-Affective Engagement

One of the most evident features emerging from the transcripts of the tutorial videos was the students' scant adherence to the guidelines suggested by the researcher. Instead of working together, most of the groups assigned one or two questions to each group member and students completed the task on their own. Only two groups, one in the vocational school and another in the general school, endeavoured to solve the tasks and comment on the questions together.

In spite of the scarcity of interaction data, some information about students' EWL evidenced from the video material points towards differences in their socio-affective engagement in relation to school types. Students in the general education school answered all the questions they were assigned and registered their answers on a video. In contrast, students in the vocational school skipped several questions. Thus, the total number of tasks commented on the videos was 32 in the general education school, 16 in the vocational school. Apart from the quantity, there were significant differences in the quality of the videos made in the two school types.

Videos made by the students of the general education school show that even though they preferred working autonomously, the other group members kept focusing their attention on the task. This is evidenced from interventions following small mistakes such as misspelling of a word or an imprecise answer, where students correct or complete their peers' utterances. In addition, only a very limited background noise was observable in the videos made in this school, indicating that the whole class was working on the task; students used a quiet voice and did not disturb each other.

This contrasts with the videos made in the professional school, which are characterized by a constant background noise made by students who refused to collaborate. On the videos, these students are seen walking around the class, disturbing their peers and sometimes interrupting their work. In addition, low socio-affective engagement is evident from some really hasty reasonings recorded on the videos, where students justify their answer by saying that they felt like it was correct, as observable in Excerpt 1. The ironic comment of the second student suggests that they realize the incompleteness of their answer, but they do nothing to complete it, just rush to the next task.

Excerpt 1

Student 1	[la risposta è] *a causa di a causa DI* perché: perché suona BEne ed è anche quello giusto, me lo sento
	[the answer is] *because of because OF* because: because it sounds GOod and and it is the correct one, I can feel it
Student 2	ottima spiegazione
	excellent explanation

To sum up, the most evident difference between students from the general education school and the professional school emerging from the tutorials appears to be the stability of their socio-affective engagement. While students from general education school maintain a stable engagement throughout the work, students from the vocational school fluctuate between low and high engagement.

The analysis of students' socio-affective engagement during the interviews confirms the same pattern that emerged from the tutorial videos. While the general education school students maintain a fair level of engagement throughout the interviews, the vocational school students sometimes interrupt the discussion with impertinent conversation. The focus on the task can be maintained only if the interviewer keeps asking questions and guiding their attention.

4.1.2 Cognitive Engagement and Knowledge about Language

The present section examines the episodes when students display cognitive engagement, in the sense that they talk about the language as object, notice linguistic features, reflect on linguistic data and develop hypotheses (Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, Kim 2016, 222). The code-system used for the classification of these episodes **[tab. 1]** is composed of ten codes, referring to the way students' reasonings are structured. These codes can be grouped into two broad categories: codes 1-5 refer to cases when students' reasoning is incomplete, while codes 5-10 describe more elaborate reasonings. 367 data segments were coded; Table 1 shows how each code was distributed across school types and data types.

Table 1 Classification of episodes of cognitive engagement

		Video tutorials		Interviews	
		Vocational school	General education	Vocational school	General education
1.	lack of analysis	2	0	4	0
2.	analysis not made explicit	13	17	45	2
3.	attempt to analyse	2	0	22	10
4.	unclear focus	1	3	13	3
5.	lack of explicit knowledge	5	3	10	1
6.	focus on morphosyntactic features	1	22	16	29
7.	focus on meaning and semantics	9	15	27	17
8.	reference to metalinguistic knowledge or a definition	2	7	10	8
9.	manipulation of data	0	8	5	9
10.	noticing	0	0	16	10
	Total	**35**	**75**	**168**	**89**

The code *lack of analysis* refers to cases when students do not give any explanation for their answer and suggest, or explicitly state, that their choice was random; on the other hand, if students limited themselves to indicating their answer without giving an explanation for it, but neither stating nor suggesting that their answer was random, the segment was coded as *analysis not made explicit*. Episodes coded as *attempt to analyse* show that students started an explanation, but they could not complete it, possibly because they lost their train of thoughts or were not able to verbalize their intuition. *Unclear focus* refers to reasonings where students' attention seems to fluctuate between different linguistic features and disconnected information, without developing a coherent line of argument, while *lack of explicit knowledge* was attributed to episodes where students revealed an erratic assumption or misconception about the language.

The codes *focus on morphosyntactic features* and *focus on meaning* were used to classify more elaborate answers, by indicating which level of linguistic analysis they focused on: meaning and semantics or morphosyntax. In other cases, students' reasoning was based on a reference to a metalinguistic knowledge or definition (code 8), or on the manipulation and observation of linguistic data (code 9). Finally, the code *noticing* was applied to episodes where students acknowledged the incompleteness of their reasoning. As a consequence, they often directed their attention to linguistic features that were relevant for the analysis but had been neglected until then.

4.1.3 Incomplete Reflection on Language

The frequency of codes describing incomplete reasonings shows major differences between the students from the two school types. On the video tutorials, students from the general education school seem more likely to indicate the answers to the tasks without explaining the reason behind their choices (N=17). This tendency is exemplified in Excerpt 2, referring to a question where the students have to observe various occurrences of a polyfunctional word in Italian (*lo*) and indicate whether the word has the function of a determinate article or a pronoun.

Excerpt 2

Student 2:	*qualcuno lo potrebbe definire* è pronome
	somebody may define it [it is] a pronoun
Student 4:	sì
	yes
Student 3:	*lo smartphone* articolo
	the smartphone article
Student 4:	ok (1) pronome articolo {indica le parole nel testo con la mano}
	ok (1) pronoun article {indicates the words on the paper}
Student 3:	lo superano <1> pronome </1>
	[*they*] *overtake it* <1> pronoun </1>
Student 1:	<1> pronome </1>
	<1> pronoun </1>

As Excerpt 2 shows, students' answers are limited to indicating the morphosyntactic function of the word *lo* in the various contexts, without making any reference to the criteria they used to analyse the sentences. This tendency, however, is almost absent in the interviews made with the same students, during which students demonstrate their ability to identify the linguistic features they need to focus on in order to justify their choices. The interviewer's questions are answered extensively, and no prompting is necessary to develop a complete reasoning.

Table 1 might suggest that vocational school students are less likely to omit explicit analyses on their tutorial videos than general education school students. However, the lower frequency of this code should be interpreted by taking into account the discrepancy in the number of tutorial videos made in the two school types; 32 in the general education school and 16 in the professional school. Thus, the lower frequency of the code is related to the lower quantity of videos. In fact, the frequency of the code increases significantly in the interviews made in the vocational school, showing that, when confronted with questions targeting grammatical phenomena, students often avoid explicit analyses (N=45). In some cases, they make unsuccessful attempts to analyse the data (N=22), their reasoning does not have a clear focus (N=13) or they formulate an answer that demonstrates lack of explicit knowledge (N=10). In Excerpt 3, for instance, Student 1 cannot produce an answer to a question requiring the identification of a nominal predicate. When the interviewer explicitly addresses the difference between nominal and verbal predicates, the student makes reference to semantic criteria used to distinguish between active and passive voices, rather than referring to the characteristics of predicative and copulative verbs.

Excerpt 3

Student 1:	no però secondo me è la D no in my opinion it is the [option] D
Moderator:	perché? why?
Student 1:	perché subisce un'azione because it undergoes an action
Moderator:	e secondo voi? cos'è un predicato nominale? and what do you think? what is a nominal predicate?
Student 1:	invece di compiere l'azione lo subisce instead of undertaking an action, it undergoes it
Moderator:	e che cosa è un predicato verbale? and what is a verbal predicate?
Student 2:	è un verbo it is a verb
Student 1:	un verbo che compie l'azione a verb that undertakes an action

To sum up, the distribution of incomplete answers suggests that the reason behind them may be different in the two school types. General education school students give some hasty answers on their video tutorials; however, when asked to provide further explanation, they show good analytical skills. On the other hand, vocational school students seem to be struggling when trying to analyse linguistic data, and the interviewer's scaffolding is necessary to direct their attention to relevant linguistic features and elicit more in-depth reflections on language.

4.1.4 In-Depth Reflection on Language

The most substantial differences between the two groups of students emerge when analysing episodes showing in-depth reasonings. As can be observed in Table 1, students from the vocational school nearly never refer to morphosyntactic features in their tutorials. They reflect on morphosyntax during the interviews, but only when their attention is guided by the interviewer's questions (N=16). In contrast, students from the general education school carry out morphosyntactic analyses when working with peers as well as during the interviews. Thus, the code *focus on morphosyntax* occurs 51 (22+29) times in the data from the general education school, while only 17 (1+16) times in the data from the vocational school.

When vocational school students are confronted with a task that requires a focus on morphosyntax, they often limit themselves to giving an answer without explaining the reason for their choice or, in some cases, they explicitly state that they were guessing. When trying to make an explicit analysis, they show a strong tendency to focus on meaning and semantics (N=36 [9+27]) rather than morphosyntax, and sometimes demonstrate lack of explicit knowledge.

Excerpt 4, for instance, refers to a question focusing on the passive voice, and requires students to identify the sentence where the particle *si*, a polyfunctional word in Italian, is part of a passive construction. In the distractors there are sentences in which *si* occurs as part of an impersonal construction with an intransitive verb and as a reflexive pronoun. In their tutorial, lasting a few seconds, vocational school students indicated the option C [*In questa trattoria si mangia benissimo* / *In this restaurant one can eat very well*], where "si" is part of an impersonal construction, without giving any further explanation. Therefore, during the interview, students were requested to transform the sentence which they claim to be passive into the active voice. As exemplified in Excerpt 4, their attempts to transform the sentence focus on the level of semantics, by changing the word order and transforming the impersonal construction into a personal clause with an implied subject. Their reflections lack any reference to morphosyntactic features, such as the concept of transitivity and the syntactic roles of subject and direct object, essential to considering active and passive voices.

Excerpt 4

Moderator:	come sarebbe la forma attiva di questa frase? how would the active form of this sentence be?
Student 1:	ehm ehm
Student 2:	ah no ah no
Student 3	come Anna mangia la mela like Anna eats the apple
Student 2:	in questa trattoria. aspetta in this restaurant wait
Student 1:	in questa trattoria facciamo mangiare benissimo in this restaurant we make [sure] you eat well
Student 2:	si mangia benissimo in questa trattoria one eats well in this restaurant

Excerpt 4 suggests that if the students had considered morphosyntactic criteria, they would have noticed that the sentence cannot be transformed into the passive voice, because in this case the verb is used with an intransitive meaning. However, Excerpt 5 shows that the interviewer's scaffolding is necessary to guide the students' attention to the concept of transitivity, by asking them to analyse a more prototypical intransitive sentence (*Anna cucina bene* / *Anna cooks well*). Thanks to this example, the students notice that both verbs (*mangiare* [to eat] and *cucinare* [to cook]) can be used with both transitive and intransitive meaning, and finally conclude that sentence C, where *mangiare* has an intransitive value, cannot be passive.

As exemplified in Excerpt 5, students refer to the concepts related to transitivity by means of periphrastic descriptions and examples, instead of using a grammatical terminology. For instance, they explain that the verb *cucinare* does not have a direct object by claiming that the sentence does not say what is being cooked. This episode suggests that students are able to notice morphosyntactic features, even though they do not possess the metalanguage necessary to label them.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 367-388 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

Excerpt 5

Moderator:	se io dico: Anna cucina bene if I say: Anna cooks well
Student 1:	ehm ehm
Student 2:	è attiva it is active
Moderator:	è attiva. ha una forma passiva? questa frase? it is active. does it have a passive form? this sentence?
Student 1:	NO NO
Student 2:	no no
Moderator:	perché no? why not?
Student 1:	perché non dice il soggetto, cioè non dice cosa cucina se no cucina il cavolo il cavolo è cucinato bene da Anna because it does not say the subject I mean that it does not tell what Anna cooks, otherwise Anna cooks the cabbage the cabbage is cooked well by Anna
[…]	
Student 2:	[In questa trattoria si mangia benissimo] è la stessa cosa di Anna [In this restaurant one can eat very well] is the same as [the sentence] with Anna
Student 3:	qua non specifica. si mangia bene it is not specified here. one can eat well

To sum up, Excerpt 5 demonstrates how guided discussion can foster students' metalinguistic understanding (Watson, Newman 2017, 392), by directing their attention on relevant linguistic features and enabling them to identify differences and similarities among linguistic data. As suggested by the concepts of noticing (Mackey 2006) and cognitive conflict (Svalberg 2015), perceiving a gap in their analysis and noticing a new feature seems to trigger students' focused attention and enhance their engagement with language. In fact, the tutorial video made by the students on this task lasted 12 seconds, while the reasoning guided by the interviewer lasted 6 minutes and 26 seconds, and consisted of 83 turn takings, where students made purposeful comments and drew on each other's ideas.

Students from the general education school, on the other hand, show a good ability to switch their attention between the level of morphosyntax and the level of semantics, and to direct their attention to the linguistic features relevant for the analysis. Their answers tend to be based on multiple criteria, as exemplified by Excerpt 6, where students reflect on the function of the conjunction *se*, which in Italian introduces both indirect interrogative clauses and hypothetical clauses.

Excerpt 6

Student 1:	invece la seconda frase <legge ad alta voce> se mi chiedessero la strada per il Duomo non saprei rispondere </legge ad alta voce> abbiamo detto che è un periodo ipotetico perché il SE si può in ehm sostituire con *nel caso in cui* e: anche: il fatto che ci sia il congiuntivo imperfetto e il condizionale ci: fa capire che è un periodo ipotetico
	by contrast the second sentence <reading aloud> if they asked me the way to the Cathedral, I would not be able to answer </reading aloud> we said that it is a hypothetical period because *se* may be replaced by *in the case* and: also: the fact that there is an imperfect subjunctive and a conditional it makes us clear that it is a hypothetical period
Student 2:	anche: la terza frase [Vogliono partire oggi, ma se non si sbrigano…] abbiamo deciso di mettere un periodo ipotetico siccome (.) ehm (.) la: l'apodosi è sottintesa (.) vogliono partire oggi? ma (.) se non si sbrigano puntini puntini quei puntini puntini indicano l'apodosi (1)
	also the third sentence [They would like to depart, but if they do not hurry…] we decided to say hypothetical period because (.) ehm (.) the apodosis is implied (.) they want to depart today? but (.) if they do not hurry three dots those three dots indicate the apodosis

As can be observed in Excerpt 6, students take into consideration both the level of semantics, i.e. the meaning of the conjunction in the given context, and the level of morphosyntax, i.e. the verbal morphology and the syntactic structure of the sentence. In addition, they also try to manipulate one of the sentences, by replacing the word *se* with a different hypothetical conjunction. Their explanations are concise but extensive, suggesting a multi-layered analysis of linguistic data, and the ability to accurately select the relevant criteria to focus on.

To sum up, the most marked differences between the students from the two school types, emerging from episodes of in-depth reflections on language, relate to their ability to select the linguistic features relevant for the analysis, and the ability to focus on morphosyntactic features. Professional school students show a strong tendency to focus on meaning; they avoid manipulation of linguistic data and never refer to morphosyntactic features during the group work. On the other hand, general education school students are able to select the relevant linguistic features on the basis of the task and alternate their attention between various levels of linguistic analysis.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

5 Discussion

The data presented in this study provide insights into students' engagement with language during the work on language awareness tasks, and the kind of knowledge about language that emerges from their reasonings. The results corroborate the interrelatedness of the three dimensions of engagement with language, as emphasized in Svalberg's studies (e.g., Svalberg 2009, 2015, 2016a), and point towards the existence of school type-related differences in the quality of students' EWL and their LA.

Consistent with the observations of Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss and Kim (2016, 234), the data show that low socio-affective engagement may reduce cognitive engagement and hamper full exploitation of students' existing LA. This phenomenon is particularly observable in episodes displaying lack of analysis, when students give random answers to the questions, without careful examination of the linguistic data presented in the task (Excerpt 1). However, an increase in one of the three dimensions of engagement may positively affect the others, as can be observed during the interviews, especially when the students' attention is guided to incongruences in their analyses and/or linguistic features which escaped their attention. These episodes are often accompanied by increased cognitive and socio-affective engagement, deducible from the purposefulness of students' comments and collaborative knowledge construction, as observed in Excerpt 5. In cases when students do not possess the metalinguistic terminology necessary to label the linguistic forms and structures noticed during the interview, they use colloquial terms or give examples to illustrate the linguistic phenomenon they noticed.

The interviews demonstrate the students' ability to notice new linguistic features in linguistic data, especially within the domain of morphosyntax. A didactic implication of this finding is to exploit this ability when introducing a new metalinguistic concept, by adopting a guided-inductive methodology. Metalinguistic terminology may be introduced when students perceive the need to label the patterns they found in the data. The role of guided discussion in the development and enhancement of LA emerging from the present data has also been observed in studies conducted on L1 Italian (Lo Duca 2004; 2018a) and L1 English (e.g., Galloway, Stude, Uccelli 2015; Watson, Newman 2017).

One of the most evident differences between students from the two school types appears to be the stability of their engagement. Students from the general education school maintain a fair level of engagement during both group work and the interview, while students from the vocational school tend to demonstrate low engagement during the work with their peers and are more likely to fluctuate between low and high engagement during the interview.

With respect to the kind of language awareness, a significant difference between the students from the two school types seems to be their ability to select the relevant linguistic features to focus on, a fundamental component of metalinguistic competence according to Bialystok (2001). When working autonomously, professional school students show a tendency to focus on meaning (N=9) or to answer the tasks without any explanation (N=13). They almost never try to address morphosyntactic features (N=1) or to manipulate linguistic data (N=0), unless their attention is guided by the interviewer's questions. In addition, during the interviews they show a strong tendency to give hasty answers without making their analysis explicit (N=45). In other cases they make unsuccessful attempts to analyse the data (N=22), formulate reasonings that lack a clear focus (N=13) or demonstrate lack of explicit knowledge (N=10). These findings echo the outcome of psycholinguistic and educational studies on language awareness, pointing towards the difficulty of analysing language with a level of abstraction, not only in L1 Italian (Lo Duca, Ferronato, Mengardo 2009; Lo Duca, Polato 2010, Lo Duca, Cristinelli, Martinelli 2011), but also in L1 English (Bialystok 2001; Galloway, Stude, Uccelli 2015; Myhill 2000; Watson, Newman 2017, etc.) and L1 Dutch (Van Rijt et al. 2019).

General education school students tend to omit explicit explanations on their videos (N=17). However, when encouraged to justify their answers, they demonstrate explicit knowledge about language, ability to focus attention on relevant linguistic features and analyse them in abstract terms, i.e. competences that characterize language awareness and explicit knowledge about language. They refer to both morphosyntactic (N=51 [22+29]) and semantic (N=32 [15+17]) features in their linguistic reflections, demonstrating their ability to switch back and forth between different levels of linguistic analysis, as exemplified by Excerpt 6.

6 Future Development

The data analysed in the present study suggest that the way students approach LA tasks may be influenced by the complex interaction of factors such as the quality of students' EWL, as well as the kind of language awareness they have developed. Further research is needed to examine in more detail how these factors interact, by examining whether and to what extent students' EWL improves thanks to enhanced language awareness and, vice versa, how language awareness can be enhanced through tasks and activities triggering engagement with language. The present study suggests that guided discussion is one of the activities that initiate EWL, by creating opportunities for cognitive conflict and noticing, i.e. when students' ideas and statements about language are challenged by linguistic data, and their attention is directed to specific aspects of language.

Moreover, further research addressing these topics should overcome the methodological limitations of the present study, by observing the development of students' EWL and LA over a period of time, combining data from classroom observations during guided discussion, group work and learner diaries.

Bibliography

Balboni, P.E. (1993). "Language Awareness in the National Curriculum for Language Education in Italy". *Language Awareness*, 2(4), 187-93. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.1993.9959833.

Baralt, M.; Gurzynski-Weiss, L.; Kim, Y. (2016). "Engagement with the Language. How Examining Learners' Affective and Social Engagement Explains Successful Learner-Generated Attention to Form". Sato, M.; Ballinger, S. (eds), *Peer Interaction and Second Language Learning. Pedagogical Potential and Research Agenda*. Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 209-40. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.45.09bar.

Bialystok, E. (2001). *Bilingualism in Development. Language, Literacy, and Cognition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511605963.

Cenoz, J.; Gorter, D.; May, S. (eds) (2017). *Language Awareness and Multilingualism. Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, vol. 6. 3rd ed. New York: Springer.

Cots, J.M. (2017). "Knowledge about Language in the Mother Tongue and Foreign Language Curricula". Cenoz, Gorter, May 2017, 31-42.

Ellis, N.C. (2017). "Implicit and Explicit Knowledge about Language". Cenoz, Gorter, May 2017, 113-24.

Galloway, E.P.; Stude, J.; Uccelli, P. (2015). "Adolescents' Metalinguistic Reflections on the Academic Register in Speech and Writing". *Linguistics and Education*, 31, 221-37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.10.006.

INVALSI (2018). "Quadro di riferimento delle prove INVALSI di Italiano". https://invalsi-areaprove.cineca.it/docs/file/QdR_ITALIANO.pdf.

Jessner, U. (2017). "Language Awareness in Multilinguals. Theoretical Trends". Cenoz, Gorter, May 2017, 19-30.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2013). "Introduction. Complexity Theory: A New Way to Think". *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, 13(2), 369-73.

Larsen-Freeman, D.; Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex Systems and Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lo Duca, M.G. (2004). *Esperimenti grammaticali. Riflessioni e proposte sull'insegnamento della grammatica dell'italiano*. Roma: Carocci.

Lo Duca, M.G. (2011). "Parti del discorso". Berruto, G.; D'Achille, P. (a cura di), *Enciclopedia dell'Italiano*. Roma: Istituto dell'Enciclopedia Italiana. http://www.treccani.it/enciclopedia/parti-del-discorso_(Enciclopedia-dell%27Italiano).

Lo Duca, M.G. (2012a). "Tra competenza metalinguistica e curricolo grammaticale: una lezione inascoltata di Monica Berretta". Bernini, G.; Lavinio, C.; Valentini, A.; Voghera, M. (a cura di), *Competenze e formazione linguistiche. In memoria di Monica Berretta*. Perugia: Guerra, 311-37.

Lo Duca, M.G. (2012b). "Congiuntivo a scuola: che cosa possiamo imparare dalle riflessioni degli studenti?". Bracchi, R.; Prandi, M.; Schena, L. (a cura di),

Passato, presente e futuro del congiuntivo. Studi in onore di Livio Dei Cas. Bormio: Centro Studi Storici Alta Valtellina (CSSAV), 195-244.
Lo Duca, M.G. (2018a). *Viaggio nella grammatica. Esplorazioni e percorsi per i bambini della scuola primaria*. Roma: Carocci.
Lo Duca, M.G. (2018b). "Le prove di grammatica dell'INVALSI e la progressione dei contenuti grammaticali: il caso del soggetto". Calarescu, E.; Dal Negro, S. (a cura di), *Attorno al soggetto. Percorsi di riflessione tra prassi didattiche, libri di testo e teorie*. Milano: AItLA, 123-38.
Lo Duca, M.G.; Ferronato, M.; Mengardo, M. (2009). "Indicazioni per il curricolo e obiettivi di apprendimento sulle categorie lessicali: il riconoscimento del nome". Baratter, P.; Dallabrida, S. (a cura di), *Lingua e grammatica. Teoria e prospettive didattiche*. Milano: FrancoAngeli, 11-27.
Lo Duca, M.G.; Polato, S. (2010). "Dalle elementari alle soglie dell'università: indagine sul riconoscimento della categoria lessicale del nome". Fiorentino, G. (a cura di), *Perché la grammatica? La didattica dell'italiano tra scuola e università*. Roma: Carocci, 78-92.
Lo Duca, M.G.; Cristinelli, A.; Martinelli, E. (2011). "Riconoscere le voci verbali: indagine su una categoria complessa". Corrà, L.; Paschetto, W. (a cura di), *Grammatica a scuola*. Milano: FrancoAngeli, 153-71.
Mackey, A. (2006). "Feedback, Noticing and Instructed Second Language Learning". *Applied Linguistics*, 27(3), 405-30. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami051.
Mayring, P. (2014). *Qualitative Content Analysis. Theoretical Foundation, Basic Procedures and Software Solution*. Klagenfurt: SSOAR. https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-395173.
Myhill, D. (2000). "Misconceptions and Difficulties in the Acquisition of Metalinguistic Knowledge". *Language and Education*, 14(3), 151-63. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780008666787.
Myhill, D.; Jones, S.; Wilson, A. (2016). "Writing Conversations. Fostering Metalinguistic Discussion About Writing". *Research Papers in Education*, 31(1), 23-44. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2016.1106694.
Paradis M. (2009). *Declarative and Procedural Determinants of Second Language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Philp, J.; Duchesne, S. (2016). "Exploring Engagement in Tasks in the Language Classroom". *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36, 50-72. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190515000094.
Rebuschat, P. (ed.) (2015). *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Schmidt, R. (2001). "Attention". Robinson, P. (ed.), *Cognition and Second Language Instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 3-32.
Svalberg, A.M.-L. (2009). "Engagement with Language. Developing a Construct". *Language Awareness*, 18, 242-58. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410903197264.
Svalberg, A.M.-L. (2012). "Language Awareness in Language Learning and Teaching. A Research Agenda". *Language Teaching*, 45(3), 376-88. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000079.
Svalberg, A.M.-L. (2015). "Understanding the Complex Process in Developing Student Teachers' Knowledge about Grammar". *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(3), 529-45. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12241.

EL.LE | e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 367-388

Svalberg, A.M.-L. (2016a). “Language Awareness Research. Where We Are Now”. *Language Awareness*, 25(1), 4-16. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2015.1122027.
Svalberg, A.M-L. (2016b). “Language Awareness”. Hall, G. (ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching*. New York: Routledge, 399-412.
Svalberg, A.M.-L. (2017). “Researching Language Engagement. Current Trends and Future Directions”. *Language Teaching*, 40, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2017.1406490.
Svalberg, A.M.-L.; Askham, J. (2014). “Student Teachers’ Collaborative Construction of Grammar Awareness. The Case of a Highly Competent Learner”. *Language Awareness*, 23 (1-2), 123-37. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.863897.
Talmy, S. (2010). “Qualitative Interviews in Applied Linguistics. From Research Instrument to Social Practice”. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 128-48. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190510000085.
Toth, Z. (2019). “Grammatica col cellulare. L’uso di video per esaminare i fattori che influenzano la difficoltà di compiti linguistici”. Viale, M. (a cura di), *Tecnologie dell’informazione e della comunicazione e insegnamento dell’italiano*. Bologna: Bononia University Press, 31-47.
Van Rijt, J.H.M. et al. (2019). “When Students Tackle Grammatical Problems. Exploring Linguistic Reasoning with Linguistic Metaconcepts in L1 Grammar Education”. *Linguistics and Education*, 52, 78-88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.06.004.
VOICE Project (2007). “VOICE Transcription Conventions [2.1]”. https://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/transcription_general_information.
Watson, A.M.; Newman, R.M.C. (2017). “Talking Grammatically. L1 Adolescent Metalinguistic Reflection on Writing”. *Language Awareness*, 26(4), 381-98. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2017.1410554.

Appendix. Code System Applied to Data Analysis

Codes related to students’ EWL
Low socio-affective engagement
High socio-affective engagement
Low cognitive engagement
High cognitive engagement
Codes related to episodes of reflection on language
Lack of analysis
Analysis not made explicit
Attempt to analyse
Unclear focus
Lack of explicit knowledge
Focus on morphosyntactic features
Focus on meaning and semantics
Reference to metalinguistic knowledge or definition
Manipulation of data
Noticing

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Una ricerca quali-quantitativa sul Portfolio europeo delle lingue con studenti universitari

Giulia Tardi
Università degli Studi di Firenze, Italia

Abstract This article presents a research study on the European Language Portfolio (ELP) that involved students attending a course in Didactics of Modern Languages at the University of Florence. The main objective of the course was to provide students with practical experiences on ELP with a view to merging ICT with language learning. The research method was based on both qualitative and quantitive aspects assessed through a survey collecting the participants' views of aims, principles, and pedagogic function. This was intended to guide and support learners in the language learning process, also reporting the functions of ELP to record proficiency in languages.

Keywords European Language Portfolio. Language Learning. ICT. Self-assessment. Autonomy. Plurilingualism. Higher Education.

Edizioni
Ca'Foscari

Peer review

Submitted 2020-02-24
Accepted 2020-05-10
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Tardi, G. (2020). "Una ricerca quali-quantitativa sul Portfolio europeo delle lingue con studenti universitari". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 389-406.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/004

1 Una ricerca sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue. Inquadramento e scopi

Il contributo presenta una parte dei risultati di una ricerca condotta con studenti universitari sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue (PEL), uno dei dispositivi europei per la trasparenza inserito in Europass (Unione Europea 2004), sfociata nell'elaborazione di un modello di PEL in Rete per giovani e adulti.

Il PEL sta attraversando una fase di stasi: nonostante l'Unione Europea abbia cercato di offrire e sostenere strumenti e servizi in grado di favorire la trasparenza e agevolare la mobilità, tali strumenti non hanno dispiegato tutto il loro potenziale, non si sono evoluti nel tempo per recepire in modo adeguato i mutamenti avvenuti nelle modalità di apprendimento, lavoro e comunicazione dei cittadini e non sono al passo con le tecnologie emergenti. Si rende necessario un ammodernamento di strumenti e servizi per allinearli all'attuale necessità di informazioni complete, aggiornate, facilmente accessibili e interoperabili e per favorirne l'adattabilità a esigenze e sviluppi futuri. È in corso un'innovazione profonda, che renderà i documenti Europass interconnessi, interoperabili, adattabili e compatibili con nuove tendenze quali l'uso dei social media, i dispositivi mobili, l'analisi dei *big data* e il *crawling* del web per mappare e anticipare la domanda di competenze e le tendenze del mercato del lavoro. Questo approccio consentirà agli utenti di avere a disposizione strumenti calibrati sulle proprie esigenze attuali e future e assicurerà la diffusione dei servizi Europass verso gruppi di utenti più ampi possibile (Commissione Europea 2016).

1.1 Principi e obiettivi del PEL

Come stabilito dal Consiglio d'Europa, il PEL si basa sui seguenti principi (Council of Europe 2000, 2004, 2011):

- è uno strumento che promuove il plurilinguismo e il pluriculturalismo;
- è di proprietà del discente;
- valorizza l'intera gamma di competenze linguistiche e interculturali, indipendentemente dal fatto che vengano acquisite all'interno o all'esterno di un sistema formale di educazione;
- è uno strumento che promuove l'autonomia;
- ha sia una funzione pedagogica, poiché guida e supporta il discente nel processo di apprendimento della lingua, sia funzione di documentazione, poiché registra i livelli di competenza raggiunti;

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 389-406

- incoraggia il processo di autovalutazione nei discenti (solitamente combinato con la valutazione dell'insegnante) e la valutazione da parte di autorità educative e commissioni d'esame;
- incorpora una serie di caratteristiche comuni che lo rendono riconoscibile e comprensibile in tutta Europa;
- può rappresentare uno di una serie di modelli che il singolo discente possederà nel corso della sua formazione permanente;
- è uno strumento per la promozione del plurilunguismo e del pluriculturalismo.

In accordo con i *Principi e linee guida* (Council of Europe 2004), il PEL ha due obiettivi principali:
- motivare i discenti riconoscendo i loro sforzi nell'ampliare e diversificare le abilità linguistiche a tutti i livelli;
- fornire un archivio delle abilità linguistiche e culturali che hanno acquisito (da consultare o far consultare, ad esempio, quando accedono ad un livello di apprendimento superiore o cercano lavoro, in patria o all'estero).

Gli obiettivi sopraindicati si riferiscono rispettivamente alle due funzioni fondamentali del PEL: la funzione pedagogica e quella di documentazione.

Per quanto riguarda la funzione pedagogica, il PEL vuole motivare il discente a migliorare le proprie abilità nel comunicare in varie lingue e a perseguire nuove esperienze interculturali e di apprendimento. Deve inoltre aiutare a riflettere sui propri obiettivi, nonché a programmare le tappe di apprendimento, promuovendo l'autonomia. Nei confronti dell'apprendente il PEL:
- accresce la motivazione verso il miglioramento della competenza comunicativa in lingue diverse, l'apprendimento di più lingue e la ricerca di nuove esperienze interculturali;
- supporta nella riflessione sulle modalità di apprendimento e sull'identificazione dei propri stili favorendo l'autonomia;
- incoraggia l'autovalutazione;
- incoraggia il rafforzamento e l'ampliamento di esperienze plurilingue e interculturali in contesti e con modalità differenziati;
- insiste sulle caratteristiche di processo dell'apprendimento linguistico (Schneider, Lenz 2001).

Per quanto riguarda la funzione di documentazione, obiettivo del PEL è documentare e attestare le conoscenze linguistiche in modo completo, informativo, trasparente e attendibile aiutando il discente a fare un bilancio del livello di competenze conseguite in una o più lingue straniere e consentendogli di informarne terzi in modo dettagliato e internazionalmente comparabile. Il PEL quindi:

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 389-406 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

- presenta testimonianze di competenza linguistica secondo standard che utilizzano descrittori condivisi a livello europeo (il QCER);
- propone modelli di documentazione, descrizione e presentazione comparabili a livello internazionale anche per le esperienze meno formali;
- rende trasparenti ad altri soggetti il percorso formativo seguito dal proprietario del PEL attraverso canali formali e/o informali;
- insiste sugli esiti e i risultati del percorso di apprendimento linguistico.

1.2 La struttura del PEL

Numerose sono le versioni sviluppate dagli Stati membri ma tutti i PEL si compongono di tre sezioni: Passaporto delle lingue, Biografia linguistica (BL) e Dossier (Council of Europe 2004).

Il Passaporto delle lingue documenta i risultati formali (certificazioni, diplomi, esami, titoli di studio), le esperienze di apprendimento linguistico e interculturale significative e le autovalutazioni sulle proprie competenze linguistiche e interculturali, indicando il grado di conoscenza raggiunto e fornendo quindi una panoramica sulle competenze – anche parziali e specifiche – del discente, nelle diverse lingue, in uno specifico momento (Council of Europe 2000, 2004, 2011). La Biografia Linguistica ha un ruolo cardine poiché costituisce l'elemento di raccordo tra le varie componenti del PEL ed è quella che più propriamente riflette la funzione pedagogica dello stesso. La BL consente di registrare le fasi, i tempi e le modalità del proprio processo di apprendimento, incoraggiando a definire ciò che si sa fare con le lingue e fornendo informazioni su esperienze linguistiche e interculturali acquisite anche in contesti diversi da quelli formali. Questa sezione si basa sulla convinzione che la riflessione cosciente sul proprio processo di apprendimento (cosa è stato imparato e come), sulle esperienze linguistiche presenti e passate – dai primi contatti con le lingue studiate alle occasioni di esposizione alla/e lingua/e, anche in ambienti esterni a scuola o università (in vacanza, in famiglia, attraverso programmi televisivi, cinematografici) – favorisca una maggiore motivazione allo studio, abbia implicazioni positive sui risultati raggiunti e quindi una precisa funzione pedagogica. Il Dossier è una raccolta di materiale comprovante quanto è stato dichiarato nel Passaporto e nella BL. Offre l'opportunità di selezionare e presentare materiali che documentano e illustrano competenze ed esperienze linguistiche e interculturali; può includere attestazioni di frequenza a corsi di lingua, certificazioni acquisite, schede di valutazione di lavori svolti, elaborati esemplificativi e significativi di ciò che è stato fatto o si sa fare in lingue diverse.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

2 Lo strumento di raccolta dei dati

Per la costruzione dello strumento di indagine ci si è avvalsi di una pluralità di fonti: le indicazioni provenienti dalla metodologia della ricerca educativa (Demetrio 1992; Cohen, Manion, Morrison 2000), la letteratura tematica sulla ricerca sulle lingue seconde (Tarone, Gass, Cohen 1994; Dörnyei 2003), i documenti preesistenti sull'impatto del PEL (Schärer 2000, 2004, 2005, 2007, 2008; Stoicheva, Hughes, Speitz 2009).

Per la condivisione del questionario e la raccolta dei dati è stato utilizzato Google Moduli,[1] strumento gratuito e accessibile da qualunque dispositivo. La strutturazione delle domande – di tipo aperto, strutturato/chiuso, semichiuso e multiplo – è ad imbuto, con una successione che passa dalle domande generali a quelle particolari per dare tempo al rispondente di focalizzare l'attenzione sul tema proposto.

Per valutare le risposte alle domande aperte si è scelto, in alcuni casi, di suddividere quelle simili tra loro in categorie o gruppi di affermazioni per poterle rappresentare numericamente; in altri casi si è preferito lavorare su una struttura di pareri, idee, osservazioni, affermazioni-chiave che ci hanno consentito di svolgere un'analisi qualitativa che chiarisse il *perché* e il *come* piuttosto che il *quanto*.

In accordo con Dörnyei (2003), secondo il quale i questionari di ricerca sulle lingue seconde si compongono di tre tipologie di domanda, il questionario sul PEL è articolato in:

- *Factual questions*. Sono le domande di classificazione che rilevano chi sono gli intervistati coprendo caratteristiche demografiche quali età, livello di istruzione, occupazione, residenza, stato civile e socioeconomico, religione nonché altre informazioni di base che possono essere rilevanti per interpretare i risultati dell'indagine. Nella ricerca sull'acquisizione linguistica includono fatti sulla storia di apprendimento delle lingue, la quantità di tempo trascorso in un ambiente L2, il livello di competenza L2 dei genitori, i libri di testo utilizzati.
- *Behavioural questions*. Le domande comportamentali vengono utilizzate per scoprire cosa stanno facendo o hanno fatto in passato i partecipanti focalizzandosi su azioni, stili di vita, abitudini e storia personale. In relazione all'acquisizione linguistica le domande sono volte a rilevare il complesso delle strategie di apprendimento passate e presenti.
- *Attitudinal questions*. Le domande attitudinali sono volte a rilevare cosa pensano le persone e comprendono *atteggiamenti*, *opinioni*, *credenze*, *interessi* e *valori*. Gli *atteggiamenti* riguar-

1 Cf. Google Moduli: `https://www.google.it/intl/it/forms/about`.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

> dano risposte valutative riferite a persone, istituzioni, situazioni. Sono profondamente incorporati nella mente umana, radicati nel passato e modellati da persone significative incontrate durante il proprio percorso di vita; per questo motivo sono pervasive e resistenti al cambiamento. Le *opinion*i sono altrettanto soggettive ma sono basate su accadimenti e fatti e quindi sono più mutevoli rispetto agli atteggiamenti. Le persone sono sempre consapevoli delle proprie opinioni, ma non possono essere pienamente consapevoli dei propri atteggiamenti (Aiken 1996). Le *credenze* hanno un supporto fattuale più forte delle opinioni e spesso stabiliscono se qualcosa è vero, falso o giusto per un individuo. Gli *interessi* sono preferenze per attività particolari. I *valori* riguardano da un lato obiettivi e modi di vivere, dall'altro descrivono l'utilità, l'importanza o il valore attribuiti a particolari attività, concetti od oggetti (ad esempio il valore strumentale della competenza in una lingua straniera).

Il questionario,[2] costituito da 19 domande, si compone di due sezioni:
- *Conosciamoci*, composta da *factual questions* volte a rilevare fatti demografici e linguistici;
- *Ragioniamo insieme sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue*, contenente *behavioural* e *attitudinal questions* per osservare comportamenti, atteggiamenti, opinioni, interessi dei partecipanti.

3 Le domande di classificazione: i risultati

Hanno risposto complessivamente 109 studenti, di età compresa tra i 19 ed i 45 anni, l'86,2% iscritti al corso di laurea in Lingue, Letterature e Studi Interculturali; il 9,2% è in Erasmus; il 2,8% è iscritto a un modulo singolo; l'1,8% ad altro corso di laurea universitario.

L'82,6% è di madrelingua italiana, seguita da quella tedesca (8,3%); russa (2,8%); albanese, rumena, croata (1,8%); giapponese e svedese (0,9%). Il 41,3% degli studenti conosce 3 lingue; il 32,1% ne conosce 4; il 18,3% 5 lingue; il 4,6% degli studenti 2 lingue; il 3,7% ne conosce ben 6.

Agli studenti è stato chiesto poi di autovalutarsi nelle lingue conosciute, sulla base dei livelli del QCER. Le più conosciute sono risultate: italiano (100%), inglese (98,2%), francese (56,9%), spagnolo (63,3%) e tedesco (37,6%). Emerge, a differenti livelli di conoscenza, un vasto patrimonio, composto da ben 47 diverse lingue all'interno della classe.

2 Il questionario è allegato in appendice.

La prospettiva del QCER, come quella del Consiglio d'Europa e di conseguenza del PEL, non distingue né fa preferenze tra lingue. La competenza plurilingue e interculturale non consiste in una serie di competenze distinte, separate e disaggregate ma include tutto il repertorio linguistico che si ha a disposizione (Council of Europe 2001, 205; Coste, Moore, Zarate 1997). Durante il corso si è insistito molto sul fatto che chi possiede competenze plurilingui e interculturali non è chi raggiunge il livello C2 in una o più lingue straniere, ma chi sa usare, nei contesti opportuni e per le proprie finalità di autorealizzazione, lingue e culture diverse, conosciute a livelli di competenza diversi, e sa servirsi delle proprie conoscenze linguistiche, culturali e interculturali e delle strategie linguistico-comunicative che possiede per attribuire significato a testi e situazioni nuovi (Luise 2013, 532). Ogni parlante è così potenzialmente in grado di costruirsi un articolato e ampio repertorio linguistico e culturale comprendendo la/e lingua/e o maggioritaria/e o ufficiale/i di scolarizzazione e le culture trasmesse nel contesto educativo; le lingue regionali o minoritarie o di origine dei migranti e le loro corrispondenti culture; le lingue straniere moderne o classiche e le culture insegnate attraverso di esse (Beacco et al. 2016, 24).

4 Le domande comportamentali e attitudinali: i risultati

La seconda sezione del questionario, *Ragioniamo insieme sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue*, è incentrata sull'esperienza fatta dagli studenti con il PEL durante il corso.

Il 90,8% dei partecipanti non conosceva il PEL prima della frequenza al corso. Tra i 10 studenti (9,2%) che già lo conoscevano 6 ne avevano sentito parlare ma non lo avevano mai utilizzato, 2 lo avevano incontrato compilando il proprio curriculum Europass, 2 avevano iniziato ad usarlo durante la scuola secondaria di secondo grado e continuano ad aggiornarlo ancora oggi riconoscendone l'utilità.

Per rilevare l'opinione sugli obiettivi che, in piena sintonia con le raccomandazioni del Consiglio d'Europa per l'insegnamento/apprendimento delle lingue, stanno alla base del PEL (Council of Eue rope 2000) e soprattutto su quanto il PEL abbia contribuito al raggiungimento di tali obiettivi, è stato chiesto agli studenti di indicare se la compilazione del PEL li abbia avvicinati a tali obiettivi, se glieli abbia semplicemente fatti scoprire o se invece non riescano a ravvisare come tali obiettivi possano essere perseguiti attraverso l'uso del PEL. Evidenziamo come il PEL abbia, nella maggior parte dei casi, avvicinato o fatto scoprire gli obiettivi connaturati alla sua implementazione:

- rafforzamento della comprensione e conoscenza reciproca tra i cittadini europei;
- rispetto per la diversità linguistica e culturale;
- protezione e promozione della diversità linguistica e culturale;
- sviluppo del plurilinguismo come processo aperto lungo tutto l'arco della vita;
- sviluppo dell'autonomia nel processo di apprendimento;
- promozione della trasparenza e coerenza nei programmi linguistici;
- descrizione puntuale delle competenze linguistiche per facilitare la mobilità.

Il questionario si focalizza poi sul Dossier chiedendo agli studenti di immaginare cosa inserirebbero al suo interno. Riscuotono molte preferenze, in ordine decrescente:
- mappe per mostrare i soggiorni all'estero (63,3%);
- librerie e recensioni di libri, testi, poesie letti in lingua straniera (62,4%);
- traduzioni e trascrizioni di testi, articoli, filmati, video musicali, tutorial (58,7%);
- strumenti di creazione e condivisione di documenti, produzioni personali in lingua straniera, lavori di gruppo (54,1%);
- calendari in cui inserire le occasioni d'uso della lingua straniera, incontri, tandem, partecipazione ad eventi (50,5%);
- file audio o video in cui mostrare le proprie competenze di produzione orale in lingua straniera (32,1%);
- sillabi in cui annotare le nuove parole imparate (16,5%).

Si chiede poi di spiegare le ragioni dell'importanza di inserire nel Dossier gli elementi indicati. Le motivazioni addotte sono: mostrare, attestare in modo più esaustivo, essere valutati in modo più veritiero (60%); dimostrare e dare prova di ciò che si sa fare (30%); esprimersi e mettere in luce la propria creatività (10%).

Quando si chiede se vi siano aspetti delle competenze ed esperienze linguistiche che il PEL non consente di inserire il 66,1% risponde di sì indicando gli elementi che vorrebbe poter inserire:
- sezioni che valorizzino l'utilizzo e l'esposizione alle lingue straniere, app per l'apprendimento linguistico; radio e televisione; quotidiani, riviste, fumetti e siti letti in lingua originale; libri e opere letterarie letti in lingua originale; cinema, teatro, danza; arte e architettura; moda; cucina (57,5%);
- contatti continuativi con nativi (57,5%);
- desideri, esigenze, programmazione di obiettivi (46,6%);
- attività riflessive guidate sui propri stili di apprendimento (26%).

La domanda successiva si focalizza sulle due funzioni principali del PEL e chiede agli studenti di raccontare come potrebbe avere una funzione informativo-documentaria e una funzione pedagogica. Si riportano le espressioni chiave raccolte dalla disamina delle risposte.

Per quanto riguarda la funzione informativo-documentaria:
- mostrare;
- documentare;
- rendere visibili;
- presentare;
- fornire informazioni;
- attestare;
- organizzare le competenze e le esperienze;
- testimonianza;
- accesso al lavoro.

In riferimento alla funzione pedagogica:
- conoscermi;
- autovalutarmi;
- auto-analizzarmi;
- riflettere e capire;
- porsi obiettivi;
- individuare carenze;
- migliorare;
- sviluppare consapevolezza;
- valorizzazione di esperienze e competenze;
- costruire un percorso storico del proprio apprendimento;
- scoperta di nuovi interessi linguistici;
- ruolo di guida e sostegno;
- maturazione.

Quando si è chiesto di indicare l'aspetto più positivo del PEL, la maggior parte delle risposte fornite ne ha individuati molti. Circa il 50% indica come aspetto più positivo del PEL la funzione informativo-documentaria, la possibilità di creare un inventario chiaro ed esaustivo di competenze linguistiche, acquisite in vari contesti, per presentare sé stessi. L'altra metà indica invece la funzione pedagogica come aspetto positivo principale e quindi il coinvolgimento nella progettazione del proprio apprendimento, lo sviluppo di capacità riflessive, di autovalutazione e di comprensione dei propri livelli di competenza linguistica, lo sviluppo dell'autonomia, l'aumento della motivazione ad apprendere.

Il 10% circa vede il PEL come uno strumento che permette di superare i propri limiti, aumenta l'autostima, rispecchia la conoscenza effettiva delle lingue indipendentemente dai tradizionali voti scolastici e/o universitari, valorizza l'apprendente nella sua unicità e soggettività.

Alla domanda volta a rilevare l'aspetto più negativo del PEL, rispondono di non riuscire ad individuarne 48 studenti (44%); 10 (9,2%) ritengono che il PEL sia poco conosciuto e poco diffuso. Lamentano sinteticità del documento 16 studenti (14,7%), limiti dovuti al fatto che sia prevalentemente in versione cartacea 8 studenti (7,3%). L'autovalutazione rappresenta per 11 studenti (10,1%) un potenziale aspetto negativo poiché il soggetto potrebbe sovra- o sottostimare le proprie competenze. Per 9 studenti (8,3%) il PEL non consente di descrivere competenze di tipo extralinguistico o pragmatico, per 7 (6,4%) non prevede livelli parziali o intermedi di competenza linguistica.

Le domande successive chiedono se vi siano strumenti ritenuti più adatti del PEL per raccogliere competenze ed esperienze linguistiche e di indicare quali siano. L'85,3% dei partecipanti (93 studenti) ritiene non ve ne siano. Il restante 14,7% dei partecipanti indica:

- siti che consentano di effettuare test dettagliati di autovalutazione online;
- genericamente documenti che possano accogliere un maggior numero di dati e più specifici;
- un PEL online, aggiornabile e accessibile a tutti;
- documenti che possano consentire di raccogliere testimonianze di enti istituzionali o accademici e datori di lavoro circa le competenze effettive del soggetto.

Quando si chiede di provare a immaginare un PEL ospitato in una piattaforma online e di indicare quale grado di importanza assegnerebbero ad una serie di caratteristiche date, molto importanti sono considerate:

- la possibilità di aggiornarlo con semplicità (85,3%);
- la gratuità (80,8%);
- la possibilità di entrare in contatto con altri apprendenti (50,5%);
- la necessità di disporre di descrittori del QCER più articolati che aiutino sia a identificare meglio le proprie competenze, sia a selezionare documenti e produzioni personali che possano documentare che si è raggiunto uno specifico livello (42,3%);
- la possibilità di condividere, mostrare, pubblicare (38,5%);
- avere la proprietà dello spazio web in cui è ospitato il proprio PEL (21,1%);
- avere una veste grafica accattivante (12,8%).

Le caratteristiche aggiunte liberamente dagli studenti sono:

- la presenza di un forum;
- la presenza di esempi concreti di supporto ai descrittori del QCER;
- la pubblicizzazione per aumentarne conoscenza e diffusione;

– la tutela della privacy;
– la possibilità di inserire file multimediali.

All'ultima domanda del questionario, in cui si chiede se pensano di continuare ad utilizzare il PEL in futuro, l'88,1% risponde 'sì'; l'1,8% 'no'; il 10,1% non sa. Vediamo quali sono le motivazioni addotte. Le risposte sono state raggruppate in categorie:

– *lavoro* (46,9%): si riferisce all'utilità percepita per accedere al mercato del lavoro presentando, in modo esaustivo e completo, le proprie competenze ed esperienze linguistiche;
– *autovalutazione* (20,8%): raggruppa le risposte in cui la priorità è stata data all'importanza che il PEL riveste nello sviluppo di capacità di autovalutazione;
– *apprendimento* (20,8%): è la categoria che raggruppa le risposte in cui si fa un chiaro riferimento all'utilità del PEL per l'apprendimento delle lingue;
– *rilevanza personale* (10,4%): identifica le risposte di chi afferma che continuerà a usare il PEL per il proprio sviluppo personale e culturale;
– *mobilità* (4,2%): è la categoria individuata per le risposte che si focalizzano sulla necessità di avere un PEL aggiornato per stabilirsi in uno dei paesi dell'UE;
– *plurilinguismo* (4,2%): raggruppa le risposte che hanno preso in considerazione la dimensione europea del PEL e il suo supporto allo sviluppo del plurilinguismo.

Le motivazioni addotte dagli studenti che hanno risposto 'no' o 'non so' sono sostanzialmente ricollegabili all'imponderabilità del proprio futuro lavorativo, al ritenere di non avere competenze linguistiche sufficienti, all'assenza di un modello di PEL online, alla mancanza di tempo e motivazione per aggiornarlo con continuità.

5 Conclusioni

Il Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue riflette tutte le principali preoccupazioni del Consiglio d'Europa in merito alle lingue: si basa sulla convinzione che l'apprendimento delle lingue deve avere scopo comunicativo; fornisce uno strumento per documentare le competenze linguistiche che trascende i limiti dei sistemi nazionali; incoraggia studenti e autorità a valutare anche competenze parziali; sottolinea l'importanza del plurilinguismo e dello scambio culturale; supporta lo sviluppo dell'autonomia del discente, in parte per un impegno alla democrazia in materia di istruzione e in parte perché l'autonomia dello studente è la garanzia più probabile per l'apprendimento permanente (Little, Goullier, Hughes 2011, 24).

I dati raccolti mostrano come il PEL sia affatto o poco conosciuto dagli studenti; quello che è sicuramente mancato è un disegno unitario che lo rendesse uno strumento di riferimento e di continuità, che non si esaurisse al termine del percorso scolastico, che non si limitasse ad esperienze e sperimentazioni territoriali e che fosse liberamente fruibile da chiunque decidesse di crearsene uno.

Il PEL costituisce un salutare ponte tra apprendimento, insegnamento e valutazione linguistica ma il Consiglio d'Europa è sempre stato consapevole del fatto che, se studenti e docenti non sono adeguatamente preparati in merito alla filosofia di base e se il suo utilizzo non è integrato, incorporato, immerso nei programmi di insegnamento e apprendimento formali, la sua costruzione può essere percepita come un lavoro inutile, una burocratica compilazione di moduli. Dietro all'utilizzo del PEL deve esservi un progetto istituzionale educativo, formativo e lavorativo che ne garantisca conoscenza, uso, diffusione, riconoscimento e consultazione.

Dalle percezioni degli studenti emerge come l'utilizzo del PEL sia ampiamente legittimato sia nella sua funzione formativa che in quella documentaria. Gli studenti sono risultati motivati nel continuare ad utilizzarlo per finalità lavorative, per presentare, in modo esaustivo e completo, le proprie competenze ed esperienze linguistiche; per lo sviluppo di capacità di autovalutazione; per il proprio sviluppo personale e culturale; per la mobilità in altri Paesi e per la sua dimensione europea e di supporto allo sviluppo del plurilinguismo.

I limiti riscontrati in merito alla sinteticità del documento, all'impossibilità di inserire competenze parziali, intermedie, di tipo extralinguistico o pragmatico, di nuovi elementi, di attività riflessive, desideri, esigenze, obiettivi possono, a nostro avviso, essere superati attraverso la diffusione di modelli in Rete aprendo di fatto il PEL ad una processualità, ad un contesto educativo globale con infinite possibilità di personalizzazione, di condivisione, di uso ricorsivo, di inserimento di elementi digitali e multimediali, di reperimento di risorse didattiche, di svolgimento di attività comunicative con scopi precisi, di inserimento di effettive prestazioni in compiti realistici sulla base di bisogni ed esigenze attuali e potenziali, dei contesti educativi e/o lavorativi e culturali.

Sono in atto nuove dinamiche nei progetti del Consiglio d'Europae non è ancora possibile prevedere quali saranno ruolo, contenuti e forma dei nuovi modelli di PEL. Quello che è indubbio è che la composita e ricca storia del Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue darà un fondamentale contributo nel fornire risposte concrete allo sviluppo di nuove competenze e nuove esperienze di apprendimento e di uso di tutte le lingue.

Bibliografia

Aiken, L.R. (1996). *Rating Scales and Checklists. Evaluating Behavior, Personality and Attitudes*. New York: John Wiley.

Beacco, J.-C.; Byram, M.; Cavalli, M.; Coste, D.; Cuenat, M.E.; Goullier, F.; Panthier, J. (2016). «Guida per lo sviluppo e lattuazione di curricoli per una educazione plurilingue e interculturale». *Italiano LinguaDue*, 8(2), 1-243. `https://rm.coe.int/guida-per-lo-sviluppo-e-l-attuazione-di-curricoli-per-una-educazione-p/16805a028d`.

Cohen, L.; Manion, L.; Morrison, K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge.

Coste, D.; Moore, D.; Zarate, G. (1997). *Plurilingual and Pluricultural Competence*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/168069d29b`.

Council of Europe (2000). *European Language Portfolio. Principles and Guidelines*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Council of Europe (2004). *European Language Portfolio. Principles and Guidelines with Added Explanatory Notes, Version 1.0*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/16804586ba`.

Council of Europe (2011). *European Language Portfolio. Principles and Guidelines with Added Explanatory Notes, 33 rev. Revised June 2004, January 2011*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/16804586ba`.

Demetrio, D. (1992). *Micropedagogia. La ricerca qualitativa in educazione*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research. Construction, Administration, and Processing*. Mahwah (NJ) : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Little, D.; Goullier, F.; Hughes, G. (2011). *The European Language Portfolio: the story so far (1991-2011)*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/16804595a7`.

Luise, M. (2013). «Plurilinguismo e multilinguismo in Europa per una educazione plurilingue e interculturale». *LEA. Lingue e letterature d'Oriente e d'Occidente*, 2, 525-35. Firenze: Firenze University Press. `http://dx.doi.org/10.13128/LEA-1824-484x-13843`.

Schärer, R. (2000). *A European Language Portfolio. Pilot Project Phase (1998-2000). Final Report*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/16804586bb`.

Schärer, R. (2004). *European Language Portfolio. From Piloting to Implementation (2001-2004). Consolidated Report. Final Version*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `https://rm.coe.int/16804586bc`.

Schärer, R. (2005). *European Language Portfolio. Interim Report 2005*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe `https://rm.coe.int/16804595b0`.

Schärer, R. (2007). *European Language Portfolio. Interim Report 2006*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe `https://rm.coe.int/16804595a5`.

Schärer, R. (2008). *European Language Portfolio. Interim Report 2007*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `http://rm.coe.int/09000016804595a6`.

Schneider, G.; Lenz, P. (2001). *European Language Portfolio. Guide for Developers*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `http://rm.coe.int/0900001680459fa3`.

Stoicheva, M.; Hughes, G.; Speitz, H. (2009). *The European Language Portfolio. An Impact Study*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. `http://rm.coe.int/09000016804595a9`.

Tarone, E.E.; Gass, S.M.; Cohen, A.D. (1994). *Research Methodology in Second-Language Acquisition*. Hillsdale (NJ) : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sitografia

Commissione Europea (2016). «Proposta di decisione del parlamento europeo e del consiglio relativa a un quadro comune per la fornitura di servizi migliori per le competenze e le qualifiche (Europass) e che abroga la decisione n. 2241/2004/CE». `https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2016/IT/1-2016-625-IT-F1-1.PDF`.

Consiglio d'Europa (2001). «Raccomandazione del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio del 10 luglio 2001 relativa alla mobilità nella Comunità, degli studenti, delle persone in fase di formazione e di coloro che svolgono attività di volontariato». `http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/IT/TXT/?uri=celex%3A32001H0613`.

Unione Europea (2004). «Decisione n. 2241/2004/CE del Parlamento europeo e del Consiglio, del 15 dicembre 2004, relativa ad un quadro comunitario unico per la trasparenza delle qualifiche e delle competenze, Europass». `http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/IT/TXT/?uri=celex:32004D2241`.

Appendice I. Questionario sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue

Il questionario è anonimo, i dati raccolti saranno trattati in modo aggregato nel rispetto della legge sulla privacy.

Conosciamoci

In questa prima parte del questionario ti rivolgerò alcune domande generiche per conoscerci meglio.

1) Di che sesso sei?
2) Quanti anni hai?
3) Quale corso di laurea universitario stai frequentando?
4) Quale è la tua madrelingua?
5) Quante lingue conosci?

5.1) Autovalutati in tutte le lingue che conosci:

Ragioniamo insieme sul Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue

6) Prima di frequentare questo corso, conoscevi il Portfolio Europeo delle Lingue?
   - ○ Sì
   - ○ No

6.1) Se hai risposto sì alla domanda precedente, raccontami in quali contesti, come lo hai utilizzato e se hai continuato ad aggiornarlo nel tempo.

7) Il PEL concorre al raggiungimento di alcuni obiettivi, in piena sintonia con le raccomandazioni del CoE per l'insegnamento/apprendimento delle lingue. Ne elencherò alcuni chiedendoti se, a tuo avviso, la compilazione del PEL ti ha avvicinato a tali finalità, te le ha fatte semplicemente 'scoprire' oppure se non riesci a ravvisare come, attraverso il PEL, tali finalità potrebbero essere perseguite.

	La compilazione del PEL mi ha avvicinato/a	La compilazione del PEL me le ha fatte 'scoprire'	Non riesco a ravvisare come potrebbero essere perseguite attraverso il PEL
rafforzamento della comprensione e conoscenza reciproca tra i cittadini europei			
rispetto per la diversità linguistica e culturale			
protezione e promozione della diversità linguistica e culturale			
sviluppo del plurilinguismo come processo aperto lungo tutto l'arco della vita			
sviluppo dell'autonomia del discente nel processo di apprendimento			
promozione della trasparenza e coerenza nei programmi linguistici			
descrizione puntuale delle competenze linguistiche del discente per facilitarne la mobilità			

8) Non abbiamo avuto tempo per sperimentare il Dossier. Come sai, il Dossier è la sezione del PEL che raccoglie documenti e produzioni personali che documentano e mostrano ciò che sai fare con le lingue straniere: raccoglie quindi materiali ed elaborati esemplificativi e dimostrativi di ciò che è stato fatto o si sa fare in lingue diverse e di ciò che hai dichiarato nel Passaporto delle Lingue e nella Biografia Linguistica. Prova a pensare cosa inseriresti nel tuo Dossier.
- Traduzioni e trascrizioni che hai fatto tu (di testi, articoli, filmati, video musicali, tutorial)
- File audio o video in cui mostri le tue competenze di produzione orale in lingua straniera
- Librerie in cui inserire testi/libri/poesie che hai letto in lingua originale ed eventualmente le tue recensioni
- Mappe per mostrare i tuoi soggiorni all'estero
- Calendari in cui inserire le occasioni d'uso della lingua straniera (incontri, tandem, partecipazione a eventi)
- Strumenti di creazione e condivisione di documenti (produzioni personali in lingua straniera, lavori di gruppo ecc.)
- Sillabi in cui annoti le nuove parole che hai imparato
- Altro:

8.1) Spiegami perché è importante, per te, poter inserire nel Dossier quello che hai selezionato.

9) Ci sono aspetti delle tue competenze ed esperienze linguistiche che, secondo te, il PEL non ti consente di inserire?
   ○ Sì
   ○ No

9.1) Se hai risposto Sì alla domanda precedente, raccontami quali sono le competenze ed esperienze che vorresti poter inserire nel PEL? Di seguito alcune opzioni e una opzione ‘altro’ in cui puoi inserire ciò che vuoi.
   - Sezioni che valorizzino l’utilizzo e la tua esposizione alle lingue straniere (app per l’apprendimento linguistico; radio e televisione; quotidiani, riviste, fumetti e siti letti in lingua originale; libri e opere letterarie letti in lingua originale; cinema, teatro, danza; arte e architettura; moda; cucina)
   - Contatti continuativi con nativi
   - Attività riflessive guidate sui tuoi stili di apprendimento (come quelle svolte durante il corso volte ad identificare i tuoi stili di apprendimento)
   - Sezioni in cui inserire desideri, esigenze, obiettivi linguistici e programmare come poter soddisfare tali esigenze e/o perseguire gli obiettivi che hai intenzione di raggiungere
   - Altro:

10) A lezione abbiamo visto come il PEL abbia due funzioni: una informativo-documentaria e l’altra pedagogica. Adesso che hai provato a compilare un Passaporto Europeo delle Lingue e una Biografia Linguistica, riesci a spiegarmi, anche con esempi concreti, come il tuo PEL potrebbe avere una funzione informativo-documentaria e una funzione pedagogica?

11) Qual è, per te, l’aspetto più POSITIVO del PEL? Illustralo e spiegami la/e motivazioni.

12) Qual è, per te, l’aspetto più NEGATIVO del PEL? Illustralo e spiegami la/e motivazioni.

13) Ci sono, a tuo avviso, strumenti che potrebbero essere più adatti del PEL raccogliere competenze ed esperienze linguistiche?
   ○ Sì
   ○ No

13.1) Se hai risposto Sì alla domanda precedente, dimmi quali sono e spiegami perché, secondo te, sono più adatti.

14) Prova ad immaginare adesso un PEL che, anziché cartaceo, sia ospitato in una piattaforma online. Quali caratteristiche dovrebbe avere? Dai una valutazione per ciascuna delle caratteristiche riportate di seguito (molto importante, importante, poco importante, non rilevante).

	Molto importante	Importante	Poco importante	Non rilevante
Dovrebbe essere uno spazio web di mia proprietà				
Dovrebbe essere uno spazio gratuito				
Dovrebbe essere uno spazio che mi consente di aggiornare con semplicità il PEL, sostituire, eliminare, aggiungere sezioni				
Dovrebbe essere uno spazio web che mi consente di mostrare pubblicamente e condividere ciò che io decido di mostrare				
Dovrebbe essere uno spazio web che mi mette in contatto con altri apprendenti e mi permette di condividere esperienze, competenze, necessità, riflessioni, lacune, idee, risorse				
Dovrebbe contenere descrittori del QCER più articolati che mi aiutino sia ad identificare meglio le mie competenze sia a selezionare documenti e produzioni personali che possano documentare che ho raggiunto quel livello				
Dovrebbe avere una veste grafica accattivante				

14.1) Vuoi aggiungere qualche caratteristica che non è stata inserita nell'elenco precedente? Se vuoi, puoi farlo qui.

15) Credi che utilizzerai il PEL in futuro?
- ○ Sì
- ○ No
- ○ Non so

15.1) Spiegami perché

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Stakeholders' Perceptions over the Integration of CLIL and Museum Education and Methodological Implications

Fabiana Fazzi
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Abstract The aim of this article is to investigate stakeholders' perceptions as regards the integration of CLIL and museum education and outline the main methodological implications. Lately, Italian museums have started offering CLIL learning programmes aimed at school groups. However, there is very little research on the affordances, issues and practical implications of integrating CLIL and museum-based pedagogies. To help fill this gap, an action research project was initiated, which involved university experts, museum staff and upper secondary teachers and students. This study focuses on the museum staff's interview data, and reveals that successful design of CLIL museum programmes depends on different elements, such as a shared vision for CLIL and strong school-museum collaboration.

Keywords CLIL. Out-of-School. Non-Formal. Museum. Pedagogical Model. Action Research.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Peer review

Submitted 2019-12-03
Accepted 2019-04-23
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Fazzi, F. (2020). "Stakeholders' Perceptions over the Integration of CLIL and Museum Education and Methodological Implications". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 407-436.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/005

1 Introduction

Interdisciplinarity and the ability to capitalize upon and validate learning across different learning contexts (formal, non-formal and informal) is at the core of the present and future educational agenda of the European Union (CEDEFOP 2009). The assumption is that to really promote lifelong learning we need to create synergies among different educational providers and implement models that help teachers bridge the gap between learning at school and beyond. This is true for any type of learning, including language learning (European Council 2014, 2019; Reinders, Benson 2017). From this perspective, it is important to underline that while Content and Language Integrated Learning (henceforth CLIL) is now widely recognized has having a positive impact on both students' learning and affective factors (Seikkula-Leino 2007; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit 2010; Coyle 2011, 2013; Lasagabaster 2011, 2017), research on its effects and teaching/learning frameworks has mainly concentrated on its implementation in the formal context. Thus, the questions we would like to answer here are: what happens when CLIL is implemented outside of the classroom and what methodological implications should we draw? In answering these questions we particularly focus on CLIL in the museum. The reason for this being that museums in Italy have recently emerged as alternative settings of content and language integrated learning, probably following the recent reform which made CLIL mandatory in the final year(s) of upper secondary school (*Riforma degli Ordinamenti della Scuola Superiore* 2009, and subsequent decrees d.P.R. 15/3/2010, n. 88-9;[1] Fazzi 2018). Several studies have already shown that engaging with museum objects has a positive impact on students' language learning and affective factors, such as increased vocabulary and positive self-concept as language users (Fazzi, Lasagabaster 2020; Díaz 2016; Parra, Di Fabio 2016; Ruanglertbutr 2016; Rohmann 2013; Wilson 2012). However, apart from our research, which we partially report on here, no study has yet fully investigated the affordances and issues of integrating CLIL and museum-based pedagogies and its methodological implications.

The current article aims to fill this gap by discussing the Researcher-practitioner and museum staff' reflections, comparisons, and evaluations as regards the integration of CLIL and museum teaching during a three-year doctoral research project in the field of language education carried out in collaboration with the Civic Museums of Venice Foundation. The article starts with a brief overview of the princi-

1 https://archivio.pubblica.istruzione.it/riforma_superiori/nuovesuperiori/index.html#regolamenti.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 407-436 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

ples at the basis of CLIL and museum education. Thus, it outlines the main aspects characterising the 'CLIL in the Italian museums' phenomenon, before delving into the presentation and discussion of the results of the current study. Finally, it presents some key methodological implications for the design and implementation of CLIL learning programmes in the museum setting.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 CLIL

The term CLIL was first developed by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) in the mid 1990s and indicates:

> A dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. That is, in the teaching and learning process, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language. Each is interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time. (Coyle, Hood, Marsh 2010, 1)

As Coyle, Hood, and Marsh point out, "there is no one model for CLIL" (2010, 14) as the contextual variables (i.e. teacher availability, language level on the part of both students and teachers, time, assessment processes) are so different across countries, and across schools within the same country, that CLIL can be implemented through a wide variety of curricular models. However, whatever the model, efficient language-medium instruction should be based on the integration of learning theory (content and cognition) and language learning theory (communication and culture; Coyle 2008). This is in line with Mohan's (1986) *Knowledge Framework*, which has been used by Coyle (2006, 2008) as the starting point for her *4Cs Framework*. In CLIL, this framework starts with content (such as subject matter, themes, cross-curricular approaches) and focuses on the interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking) and culture (awareness of self and 'otherness') (Coyle 2008, 103). Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010) affirm that these elements need to be integrated when planning CLIL, so as to balance the linguistic and cognitive demands. In order to accomplish this task, teachers have a variety of methods, teaching tools and strategies at their disposal, such as:

- evaluation and design of materials (Coyle, Hood, Marsh 2010; Meyer 2010);

- scaffolding and feedback (Bentley 2010; Ball, Kelly, Clegg 2015; Menegale 2008; Lyster 2007; European Commission 2014);
- supporting listening and reading (Coonan 2012, 2016; Ball, Kelly, Clegg 2015);
- pushed output (Coonan 2008; Swain 2000);
- cooperative learning (Guazzieri 2009);
- task-based teaching (Coonan 2008; Ellis 2003; Willis 1996), and
- project-based learning (Lasagabaster, Beloqui 2015; Serragiotto 2014b).

2.2 Museum Education

On the basis of the International Council of Museums (ICOM) museum definition,[2] Vuillaume (2016, 8) claims that:

> The ultimate goal of museums (which may sound naïve or presumptuous) is to help people to grow as individuals, become more critical of our society and more involved, learn to appreciate dialogue, feel empathy, be tolerant, become more educated and more civilised, to stand against ignorance and extremism.

In this sense, museums are much more than stiff repositories of objects aimed at experts. Instead, they act as public forums where both education and enjoyment can take place (Falk, Dierking [2000] 2018). Indeed, when investigating the educational value of school field trips to museums, researchers have indicated that student groups that visit a museum often show cognitive gain (Stronck 1983, cited in Griffin 2004, 59), and a more positive attitude towards learning (Orion, Hofstein 1994) than those who do not. This is due to the fact that museum learning is based on engagement with objects,[3] whose realness "enables the possibility of an arousal of interest or a focus of attention that is qualitatively different from the attention given to the written word" (Hooper-Greenhill 1994a, 98). When talking about museum-based pedagogies, we thus refer to the array of approaches, strate-

2 "A non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment" (ICOM 2007).

3 With the term 'object' we refer to a variety of cultural expressions – both tangible, such as artefacts, made or modified by a person or persons, and specimens, natural objects, and intangible, such as oral traditions and performing arts – "collected" by museums (Dudley 2009). In the current research, most of the objects students engaged with were tangible, mainly art works (frescoes, paintings, sculptures, etc.) and animal specimens. However, intangible objects can also be used in devising foreign language learning activities in the museum context.

gies, and tools that are used to learn about or through tangible and intangible museum objects (see van Veldhuizen 2017 for a more detailed description), such as:

- questions (Hooper-Greenhill 1994b, 158 for a list of types of questions, and Shuh 1982 for practical examples);
- activities and worksheets (see Moma online course[4] for a full list of activities and discussion of aims and procedures; Bamberg, Tal 2007 for how to design museum worksheets);
- visual thinking strategies (Yenawine 2013; Housen 1997);
- discovery learning and Inquiry-based Science Education (IBSE; Pedaste et al. 2015).

It is also important to point out that 'museum learning' does not equal to 'interaction with objects'. Visiting a museum is a very complex semiotic and social experience, and what one learns from it is the result of the "never-ending interaction" of three contexts (Falk, Dierking [2000] 2018) – personal, sociocultural and physical. Indeed, according to Falk and Dierking ([2000] 2018), what a visitor learns in a museum depends on a number of factors, such as his/her personal interests and previous knowledge (personal), the people with whom he/she visits the museum (sociocultural), the design elements of the halls and reinforcing events after the museum experience (physical). However, in the case of school groups, one has also to consider the instructional context (Orion, Hofstein 1994), which refers to, for example, students' participation in pre-visit activities, teachers' motivation, school-museum collaboration and communication, travel logistics, and, even, weather conditions on the day of the visit.

3 Why CLIL and Museum Education in Italy?

The emergence of CLIL in museums in Italy is a grassroot and multifaceted phenomenon, by which museums use and adapt CLIL principles and practices to devise educational programmes that likely complement CLIL delivery at school. Interestingly, these programmes result from the need to:

- align to the internationalization of the Italian school curriculum, via the formal introduction of CLIL in the final year(s) of upper secondary school (*Riforma degli Ordinamenti della Scuola Superiore* 2009, and subsequent decrees, d.P.R. 15/3/2010, n. 88-9);

4 See Moma online course "Art and Activity. Interactive Strategies for Engaging with Art" at: https://www.coursera.org/learn/art-activity/home/welcome.

– respond to national and European policies (ICOM 2007; Conclusions on Multilingualism and the Development of Language Competences 2014/C 183/06;[5] National Plan for Heritage Education 2015, 2017, 2018;[6] Law 107, The Good School[7]), which encourage schools and museums to strengthen their collaboration.

As regards the first point, the need to align to the school curriculum is an aspect that characterizes museum educational provisions across the world. In fact, as Hooper-Greenhill highlights, school groups "are unlikely to make much use of museums unless their provision relates fairly closely to the areas which are being studied" (1994b, 165). This means that museums are always in search of innovative ways to support teachers' delivery of the school curriculum (Xanthoudaki 2015). Considering the effect that CLIL has had on all school stakeholders (e.g. teachers, headmasters) in Italy (Aiello, Di Martino, Di Sabato 2017), it was only a matter of time before CLIL crossed the school borders and spread to the museum field.

However, while there are certain aspects that are similar across CLIL museum programmes, there are also many differences. For example, a similarity is that most of the CLIL museum learning activities on offer are grassroot experimentations, which often involve the collaboration of other local institutions (e.g. private language institutions, schools). On the other hand, the way CLIL is conceptualized differs across museums, depending on factors such as the museum mission and targets.

Further research is certainly needed to investigate this phenomenon so as to understand better its rationale, characteristics, and repercussions at both organizational and practical level (see also Fazzi 2018).

4 The Research Project

This study was part of a three-year doctoral research project (2015-18), whose aim was to understand the impact of integrating CLIL and museum-based pedagogies on students' learning and attitudes (Fazzi, Lasagabaster 2020), and develop a model to support teachers and museum educators co-design and implement CLIL projects across the school and museum setting. In particular, we initiated an action

5 https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52014XG0614(06)&from=IT.

6 https://dger.beniculturali.it/educazione/piano-nazionale-per-leducazione-al-patrimonio/.

7 https://www.gazzettaufficiale.it/eli/id/2015/07/15/15G00122/sg.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 407-436
e-ISSN 2280-6792

research project in collaboration with the Civic Museums of Venice Foundation and planned and delivered several CLIL museum learning programmes (see section 4.1 for a brief description) – *Looking for the Right Words* at Ca' Rezzonico and Ca' Pesaro (first year), *Animal Classification* at the Natural History Museum of Venice (second year), *Exploring the Lagoon* at the Natural History Museum of Venice, and the *The Stones of Venice* at the Doge's Palace (third year). Moreover, we also liaised with a local *liceo artistico*[8] (partner school) and designed pre- and post-visit activities,[9] integrating the museum visit on *Animal Classification* into the science school curriculum of 1st and 2nd year classes.

We thought that an action research methodology[10] could support these goals as it allows to put in practice a series of actions with an end-result of improving the situation and of learning from the consequences of those actions through collaborative, structured and reflective inquiry (Burns 1999). We collected both quantitative and qualitative data using eight research instruments, and adopted an embedded mixed methods design (Ivankova, Creswell 2009, 143-4), as well as triangulation procedures.

In this article, we only focus on the stakeholders' perceptions of integrating CLIL and museum-based pedagogies, and thus report and discuss the qualitative results collected through the Researcher-practitioner's journal, museum staff's fruitful discussions, and interviews. Moreover, we draw some methodological implications for the empirically-based model under construction.

8 Following the Reform in 2003, the Italian upper secondary school system is currently structured in: Lycée system (*Licei*), technical schools (*istituti tecnici*), and vocational schools (*istituti professionali*). The *Licei* are generally directed at students aged 14 to 19, and are divided in sub-types with different curricula and specializations: *liceo artistico* specializes in arts (i.e. fine arts, design, sculpture), *liceo linguistico* specializes in languages (i.e. foreign languages, cultures and literatures), *liceo scientifico* specializes in sciences (i.e. biology, chemistry, physics and maths). For a full description see Cinganotto 2016, 384 and INDIRE, MIUR 2014.

9 Pre- and post-visit activities as developed in collaboration with the partner school are described in detail in Fazzi, Lasagabaster 2020.

10 According to Burns, 'action' "involves putting deliberate practical changes or 'interventions' in place to improve, modify, or develop the situation", while 'research' "involves a systematic approach to collecting information, or data, usually using methods commonly associated with qualitative research" (2009, 114).

4.1 Outline of the CLIL Museum Programmes at the Civic Museums of Venice Foundation

All the CLIL museum programmes specifically devised for the project aimed at offering middle and upper secondary students the opportunity to use English to engage with art or science contents in an alternative and stimulating environment. At the macro-level, we developed a structure, which integrated Willis' (1996) *Task-Based Approach* and Johnson's (1995, 2009) *Touring Strategies*:

WELCOME STAGE
(ice-breaker)

TASK(s)
(pre-task, task-cycle, post task)

FINAL REMARKS

Figure 1 Macro-level structure of the CLIL museum visit

At the micro-level, we used scaffolding strategies and materials, such as questions, visuals, worksheets, which included different types of cooperative activities, and a glossary, with the aim of balancing linguistic and cognitive demands. In so doing, we followed Coyle, Hood, and Marsh's (2010, 43-4) *CLIL Matrix* (adapted from Cummins 1984), and designed a progression of different types of activities, from easier to more difficult, which could flexibly be adapted according to students' cognitive and language level. However, we also made sure that the task at Ca' Rezzonico and Ca' Pesaro followed Hooper-Greenhill's (1994) suggestions on how to engage with objects, starting from close observation, to analysis and shared discussion. On the contrary, the task at the Natural History Museum of Venice followed the stages of the scientific method: data collection, hypotheses creation and testing, and observation formulation (Pedaste et al. 2015).

4.2 Participants

The study involved the following participants:

Museum staff (Civic Museums of Venice Foundation) and roles

- Education Director: oversaw the design, implementation, and management of all the educational programmes on offer at the Civic Museums of Venice Foundation. She had an art history

background and several years of experience in museum education.
- Director of the Natural History Museum (MSN Director): was the key person responsible for the running of the Natural History Museum of Venice. He had a science background and several years of experience in science communication and museum management.
- Education Manager 1 and 2: were responsible for the design of the educational provision of the Natural History Museum of Venice. They both had a background in science and several years of experience in devising non-formal science educational activities.
- Museum Educator 1: was a very experienced science educator, having a strong scientific background, and a B2 level in English. He took part in two training workshops on CLIL. He also job-shadowed the Researcher-practitioner while delivering a couple of CLIL workshops on Animal classification. In the third year of the project (2017-18) he co-delivered with the Researcher-practitioner the programme on *Animal Classification*, and was the only educator responsible for the delivery of the programme on the Lagoon at the Natural History Museum of Venice.
- Museum Educator 2: had an art history background, several years of experience in museum teaching, and a C2 level in English. In the third year of the project (2017-18), she co-delivered with the Researcher-practitioner the *Looking for the Right Words* programmes at Ca' Rezzonico and Ca' Pesaro.

Researcher-practitioner

The Researcher-practitioner (RP) was a doctoral student in the Department of Linguistic and Comparative Cultural Studies at Ca' Foscari University of Venice, but has also been a museum educator and a teacher of English for several years. She delivered the museum visits, and also collaborated as a teacher assistant for the partner school during the project.

4.3 Research Question

Our research question was: "What are stakeholders' perceptions as regards the integration of CLIL and museum-based pedagogies?".

4.4 Methodology

4.4.1 Research Instruments

We used four types of qualitative instruments and methods, with the aim of collecting participants' perceptions and reflections about the aspects that need to be taken into consideration when integrating CLIL and museum education.

As regards the fruitful discussion,[11] the Researcher-practitioner provided the MSN staff with a questioning route, which only offered inputs for discussion.

Museum Educator 2's oral interview was semi-structured, as the Researcher-practitioner prepared a questioning route, but left the format open-ended so as to allow the participant to "elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei 2007, 136).

Two written interviews were sent via e-mail to the Education Director and Museum Educator 1, because of both time constraints and the difficulty encountered in scheduling face-to-face meetings. The questioning route for the Education Director was similar to that used for the fruitful discussion between the MSN staff and the Researcher-practitioner, while that for Museum Educator 1 followed the one used for Museum Educator 2.

The Researcher-practitioner kept a journal in which she recorded both the descriptive and reflective aspects of her observations regarding the CLIL museum visits, to better focus her analysis and interpretations (Burns 1999, 90). With this introspective method, she was able to collect her on-going interpretations and reflections on the weaknesses and strengths of the CLIL museum learning programmes. The journal also enabled the Researcher-practitioner to record her emotions in relation to her practice, allowing her to draw hypotheses on the profile a museum educator involved in CLIL museum learning programmes should have.

4.4.2 Data Analysis Procedures

The analysis was based on Thematic Analysis (Liamputtong 2011). We first read through the participants' open-ended responses to find repeated patterns of meaning (Liamputtong 2011). Then, we read through each transcript and combined the interview data with the open-ended responses data. We performed initial and axial coding, working from a more descriptive to a more analytical perspective.

11 According to Foreman-Peck and Travers (2013), fruitful discussions are group discussions in which the moderator and the participants share equal responsibilities.

During the initial coding, we grouped the data and assigned labels, which we then further categorized. In so doing, we looked for the most significant and frequent initial codes. Finally, we conducted axial coding by making connections between major categories and their respective sub-categories (Liamputtong 2011). N-vivo was used to assign the codes to the focus group segments and open-ended responses, and to keep track of how the codes were organized and represented in the transcripts during both coding stages. In analysing the focus groups, we considered three levels of analysis: the individual, the group, and the group interaction.

5 Results

To answer the research question, we conducted an integrated analysis of the stakeholders' perceptions. Four different categories emerged from the data analysis: Vision, Context, Methodology, and the CLIL museum Educator Profile.

5.1 Vision

In explaining the reasons behind her interest in CLIL, the Education Director claimed that museums can play an important role in supporting teachers to implement changes in their delivery of the school curriculum:

> **Education Director:** The introduction of CLIL involved and is still involving a great effort on the part of teachers to respond to the curriculum changes, and not always they have been able/are able to do so. Museums, when the appropriate pedagogical approach is used, can be incredible tools to support learning.

However, CLIL was also seen by the MSN staff as a tool to address the mission of the museum, by supporting students' knowledge and communication of the local territory from an international perspective:

> **Education Manager 1:** I've always liked the fact that students could tell about their territory also in English, given the fact that they more and more take part in exchange programmes, so to be able to tell where they live, it's nice… and I think this works… to have a vocabulary that can narrate the territory where you live is certainly an added value.

During the fruitful discussion, the MSN staff drew a comparison with another museum programme called *Treasure Hunt*, run by an external cooperative, and underscored the importance to balance content and language objectives:

> **Education Manager 2:** It was a workshop that had young children as the target, but we wanted something in English targeted at older students, and they sort of adapted it, but it was too simple, it didn't provide you with new contents nor with new words.
> **Education Manager 1:** [Overlapping] It was poor in terms of contents
> **Education Manager 2:** Yeah, exactly… It wasn't working.
> **Education Manager 1:** And I also feel that it wasn't based on an efficient English teaching methodology… I mean, after we understood what CLIL modules look like, we also understood what the language objectives should be… while that one [the previous workshop] lacked both, it was like a taste of… of creating a language… but maybe it was also because of the rooms chosen […]. It was a bit poor when compared to the school curriculum.

From this perspective, the MSN Director claimed that the only way to design multidisciplinary experiences is through bottom-up partnerships. Indeed, according to him, it is through collaborating with different institutions, and especially with the university, that museums can become aware of new tools, such as CLIL, and of how to use them to design, test and validate new learning programmes:

> **MSN Director:** So I'm starting to believe that [bottom-up] relationships is an added value of efficient museums and schools… [it's important] to build a web of relationships, and be able to communicate with the university, with research… we can build collaborations through which tools can be designed, tested, and validated and can become important and be disseminated and later acquired and recommended by the Ministry or whatever… so […] thanks to our experience, we're now aware that [it's not that important where the idea comes from], because sometimes if you don't know the tool you don't know it exists, but when you encounter it a light goes on and you start thinking "this is an instrument that I can use to speak to a certain audience, to make them use English, to do things that I wanted to do but I couldn't, to do it with older students in a certain way".

5.2 Context

According to the MSN staff, the collaboration with the Researcher-practitioner, who had different but complementary skills, was pivotal when designing the CLIL museum programme on *Animal Classification*:

Education Manager 1: I really think the value lied in the fact that we planned it together, the fact that we had different competences.
Education Manager 2: [Overlapping] True [nodding].
Education Manager 1: Ours and yours [addressing RP], and so to reflect together from the beginning [...], then you can focus more or less strongly on the contents [...]. It was useful to have both the competences so as to create a product that addresses both objectives, otherwise you miss one.

However, Education Manager 1 also expressed the need to involve teachers when designing a new educational programme, especially when a second or foreign language is involved:

Education Manager 1: For example, there's this educator that teaches Italian as a second language and she came with a group of migrants to the museum and now, even just to choose the right topic, before we even think about it, [it would be good] to meet up with her and listen to their needs, it would add value to our [work]... I mean, this is the first step I would now take if I had to think about [a new educational programme].

The data analysis also revealed that there are certain differences between the museum and school context, which have an impact on the learning experience. For example, the Researcher-practitioner reported the invigilators' comments and behaviour as sometimes disruptive of the positive learning atmosphere:

RP: I also found it really heavy not to be able to allow them to sit on the floor [for security reasons]. Half of my mental energy goes into keeping an eye on how students move around the objects, making sure they don't irritate the invigilators. "Don't get too close to the art works, don't lean on the walls".

Similarly, Museum Educator 2 claimed that CLIL delivery in the museum also has to consider the size, and design of the rooms, as well as the tourist flow:

ME2: Yes, I'd say that all museum are appropriate if they don't have many people crammed together, but it also depends on the design of the exhibition… I'd never do it in the [name of museum], for example, because it's sort of a *Wunderkammer*, and there's no space to move.

As regards the school-museum collaboration, participants reported that teachers often played a passive role during the museum visit in both CLIL and non-CLIL museum learning activities:

ME1: Most of the time, they mind their own business and leave the workshop. Then in the end, they pay you compliments for the little they've seen/experienced. They very rarely participate in an active way, supporting students' [understanding].

Another important aspect to consider is the fact that teachers often underestimated the demands of participating in a CLIL museum visit for students and failed to capitalize on its educational value by booking multiple visits to other museums and institutions on the same day:

ME2: I'd never consider to do another activity after this one… I think the students already accomplished what they were supposed to… it's not [feasible] that "yes, after this we take them to the Guggenheim and then to the Biennale" [laughing in astonishment].
RP: [Laughing].
ME2: How can they do it? It's impossible, right?!

From this perspective, the MSN staff pointed out that, given the one-off nature of any museum learning experience, the CLIL museum visit should work as a supplement to CLIL delivery at school:

Education Manager 2: But also because I think that here in the museum we can give a "taste" of CLIL.
Education Manager 1: [Overlapping] True.
Education Manager 2: That they should already – I mean, we are the "added value" of a module that they should already be developing […], I mean, we deliver two-hour CLIL.
Education Manager 1: But it's two hours [in dialect with emphasis].
Education Manager 2: But it's two hours [in dialect with emphasis], so we have the specimen that is cool, but it's part of a longer [educational] path, so [the teachers] have their goals and [our role is] to help them.

5.3 Methodology

When reflecting on the positive aspects of the CLIL museum programmes, the Education Director said that she was particularly proud of the materials developed and the balance obtained between content and language:

Education Director: The added value of the museum experience, the right balance we were able to establish between language and contents, and the materials [worksheets] we designed.

However, despite the efforts, the activities and worksheets created were not always exempt of problems. The stakeholders reported that some activities originally planned were later modified because they were both cognitively and linguistically too difficult. An example is the definition of homologous and analogous structures in the CLIL museum programme on *Animal Classification*. In fact, in her journal, the Researcher-practitioner claimed that:

> **RP:** In relation to the second part, building the definitions of homologous and analogous structures with the students resulted too complex and too time-consuming. Thus, Education Manager 1 and 2 suggested to use the keywords I used to scaffold the definitions and design a cloze in which to insert them.

Other activities were modified because they did not support students' engagement with the museum objects. Indeed, the Researcher-practitioner reported that the activities that were most successful across age groups and language levels were those involving a discovery element. For example, the activity which asked students to look for the corresponding shapes of Arturo Martini's sculptures in the CLIL museum programme at Ca' Pesaro:

> **RP:** The activities on the comparison of styles based on Casorati and Martini's artworks went better. There was much more interaction on the part of the students and I asked them to make a list of all the differences they noticed. There were two Spanish girls who were enthusiastic about the visit and kept asking questions. Same with a couple of Italian girls. They were able to identify the majority of the differences, which I later systematized in plenary and expanded.

Interestingly, what also emerges as important from the analysis is the way the worksheets and activity books were used to both facilitate students' comprehension and promote their vocabulary acquisition:

For example, the Researcher-practitioner explained how she used the activity book as a first step to promote students' outputs, and how she would then systematize and expand them according to students' interest and cognitive-language level:

> **RP:** Every time we approached a new work of art, I would ask students first to work on the group activities in the worksheets, then I'd build on the outputs of the group activities to develop further discussion. I was also able to build multidisciplinary connections, which is what they needed in preparation for the final exam of upper secondary school (especially the *tesina*).

Indeed, what emerges from the data is that museum educators placed great effort in facilitating students' comprehension and use of vocabulary during the visit:

> **ME1:** You need to change your approach completely in comparison to a "normal" activity. You need to reduce the concepts you want to convey and continue to repeat the same words to fix the few [concepts] you've chosen to focus on.

As regards the structure of the CLIL museum visit, Museum Educator 2 highlighted that the first two stages, the *Welcome stage* and the *Ice-breaker*, were fundamental not only in lowering students' anxiety, but also in creating a positive relationship with the teachers and thus a positive learning atmosphere:

> **ME2:** Maybe the most difficult part is to jump in the void as you're asking them to do something and to test themselves, and it's not the most amazing thing ever "do this exercise, test yourself"… you can also sell it to them like it's a game, but they know that it's not a game [emphasis].
> **RP:** Ha ha.
> **ME2:** So the ice-breaker at the beginning is fundamental.
> **RP:** Mmh, why do you say so?
> **ME2:** First of all because you tell them something about yourself, because I always choose three things about myself, two are true and one is false, and they think of you as a human being, and not as a teacher, and this is very important afterwards… and it's also something that encourages discussion, something fun, a bit nonsense but they like it, and it always ends with a good laugh.

She also suggested that the *Final remarks* stage is a step that cannot be missed to reinforce students' self-esteem and encourage them to return to the museum:

> **ME2:** Anyway, I think it's very important to thank them at the end [of the workshop], because they understand that you had fun as well, that they did something nice, and that they worked well, because it was a test for them and I thank them for the time they've dedicated to interacting with me.

5.4 The CLIL Museum Educator Profile

As regards the skills needed by a museum educator when delivering a CLIL museum visit, the Education Director claimed that he/she should have both excellent language- and content-related knowledge and skills and should be able to actively engage students with the museum contents:

Education Director: He/she should know the museum contents, so as to be able to also answer the unforeseen questions; he/she should adopt the cooperative/active methodology in a critical way, and have an excellent competence in the FL.

Interestingly, Museum Educator 2 claimed that, when acting as a CLIL museum educator, she perceives herself as a language "model":

RP: So you feel like you have to be also a language model?
ME2: Yes, absolutely… I'd never deliver a CLIL museum workshop in French with my language level… I've got a B2 level in French but I don't think it's sufficient.
RP: But you would deliver the visit in French if tourists were the target.
ME2: Yes, but because they understand me… I speak French well, but my French is no way perfect… it's not like I never make mistakes, I have doubts on the pronunciation […] especially to know the little exceptions, who knows what I say… I mean "help".

However the MSN staff highlighted that it is not only a matter of language competence:

MSN Director: In my opinion this is the important message... knowing the methodology is a professional competence in itself.
Education Manager 1: Now it's more clear to us that it's not only the English competence [that matters].
RP: Yeah exactly, it's the methodological competence... to be able to use the facilitation strategies.
Education Manager 1: Yes.
MSN Director: Absolutely.

Indeed, Museum Educator 2 highlighted the differences between a traditional museum visit delivered to tourists and a CLIL museum visit:

ME2: I'm less instinctive, I follow more of a structure and [pause] and I tend to observe more how they react… and I try to understand if they're following me, because… one thing is to adapt the contents on the basis of the group you have in front of you and that… maybe it's because I've been working [as a museum educator] for a long time, but I mean… with [CLIL] is totally different because I need to pay attention to what they say and how they say it, if they can understand me, I also pay attention to how they react to what I say because I need to adapt to their English level… recently at Ca' Pesaro I had students that had already passed the C1 level and students that had never spoken in English before in their life.

Flexibility in approaching students by adapting his way of speaking and scaffolding students' understanding was also acknowledged by Museum Educator 1, who drew a parallel between CLIL and good museum-based pedagogy:

ME1: It's necessary to ask lots of questions or ask them to complete sentences to make sure that they understand. However, this is something that is normally done also during the non-CLIL museum workshops.

However, Museum Educator 2 also indicated other soft skills as pivotal for any museum educator delivering a CLIL museum workshop. In fact, in building a profile of the perfect CLIL museum educator, Museum Educator 2 claimed that empathy and being able to build a relationship of trust with students is also incredibly important in terms of students' engagement:

ME2: Perfect knowledge of English, perfect knowledge of the museum and related to it; mmh, to be really nice, great empathy, to be an excellent listener [pause], great patience, lots of it [laughing].

Interestingly, when considering the array and multidisciplinary knowledge and skills required by a CLIL museum educator, the MSN Director claimed that museums need to consider that both designing a CLIL museum programme and training the person to deliver it takes much more time than it would for any other type of museum-learning programme:

MSN Director: This is the most difficult thing to explain when you propose a CLIL museum programme to an institution that has never worked with it before... there are certain objectives, but what do I need to deliver them? eh-h [sighing] you need quite a lot of professional training, in the sense that... you need the people that are available, because [pause] what I see as a possible critical point is that it requires people that have a very complex professional expertise, which you can't develop in a quick way, also because a good scientific background needs to be developed through a degree and not a series of short courses, [then you need] the English language competence, which also requires time, and then you also need a methodological [CLIL]

> competence… all these competences that a museum educator needs to develop need to be worth it from an economical point of view [in terms of professional opportunities], otherwise why should someone make such a life investment?

6 Discussion

6.1 Creating a Shared Vision for CLIL in the Museum

The results of our research show that the reasons underpinning museums' decision to learn about and implement CLIL are mainly two: supporting teachers' delivery of the school curriculum, and addressing their mission of promoting lifelong learning in the 21st century.

As regards the former, the Education Director said that, besides the financial agenda, she perceived the need to introduce CLIL in her institution as fundamental to help teachers face the challenges of CLIL training and delivery.[12] The Education Director's perception is supported by Xanthoudaki's assumption that "museums can make a difference because they are able to *instill* a methodology which is part of their very nature, integrated in the things they do well, do for a long time, and are unique at doing" (2015, 252; italics in the original).

As regards the latter, the interest of the MSN staff towards CLIL was due to it being the right tool to engage a specific audience, and, at the same time, to focus on what is contemporary and relevant for the museum to be sustainable (Di Pietro et al. 2014).

We need to keep in mind that CLIL is not mandatory in museums and that the reasons behind why museums are interested in its implementation may differ dramatically from those of schools.

6.2 Collaboration across Institutions

According to Hooper-Greenhill (1994b, 93), "the success of museum and gallery education services is closely geared to the efficacy of relations outside the museum". Indeed, our results show that the integration of CLIL and museum-based pedagogies depends on the collaboration with other institutions. In particular, while Coyle, Hood, and Marsh advice teachers to create communities of "fellow professionals" (2010, 69), what emerged as necessary in our project was to build a bottom-up partnership across contexts – the museum, the

12 See Cinganotto 2016 and Aiello, Di Martino, Di Sabato 2017 on the challenges of CLIL teacher training in Italy.

school, and the university. In fact, the MSN staff highly valued the collaboration with the Researcher-practitioner both as regards designing the programmes, and training the other museum educators on the principles of CLIL learning and teaching.

However, in reflecting on how we came to design the CLIL museum programme on *Animal Classification*, the MSN staff claimed that an important lesson they had learnt regarded the need to involve teachers in the designing process. Education Manager 1 underlined that if a museum is committed to support teachers' CLIL delivery in the classroom, then it has to 'learn' from the teachers themselves what they need and expect from a CLIL museum visit. In fact, according to DeWitt and Osborne,

> teachers' perceived needs for resources, his or her agenda or goals for the school trip, and the context in which he or she operates should be a primary consideration in the development of resources for school trips. (2007, 689)

However, which teachers to involve is still an open question: language teachers, content teachers, teachers trained in the CLIL methodology?

When reflecting on how to integrate CLIL and museum education, the MSN Director himself highlighted the need to collaborate with the university to experiment methodological approaches that are inherently cross-disciplinary. This is the only way they can really embark on a journey, which the MSN Director defined as challenging and requiring more effort and time than any other kind of innovation/experiment in the museum.

As regards museum-school collaboration, the museum educators perceived the role played by most teachers as passive at best. As widely reported in the literature in museum studies, this seems to be a common feature of school trips to museums. For example, Mathewson-Mitchell (2007, 7) claims that teachers often assume they have a marginal role on the realization or value of museum experiences, and this might be the reason why most of them simply focus on "following the museum guide, helping with keeping the order, and watching their students" (Falk, Dierking [2000] 2018, 932; see also Griffin 2004, 37). In fact, some of them wrongly assume that, once in the museum, "meanings will be transmitted in a naturalistic manner" (Mathewson-Mitchell 2007, 7). In our study, museum educators also reported that there were multiple occasions in which teachers did not understand the demands for students of participating in a museum visit through English, and booked several other activities in the same day. The museum educators involved in our research reported how students were sometimes exhausted before even starting the CLIL museum visit, simply because they had just finished another activity in another museum.

6.2.1 Learning Context

The findings in our research show that in designing and implementing CLIL museum programmes there are at least two aspects to take into consideration in relation to the learning context:

- the specific characteristics of the museum setting;
- CLIL museum educator profile.

In considering the first aspect, museum educators highlighted how museums have specific characteristics, which may impede learning. Indeed, being public spaces, one needs to consider aspects such as the design of the exhibition, the size of the room(s) in which the visit takes place, and the fact that the visit might be interrupted by the presence of other visitors or by the invigilators enforcing security regulations.

As regards the second aspect, while both the Italian law (see Decree D.D. n. 6 dated 16 April 2012[13]) and the literature on CLIL (see Coonan 2012; Balboni, Coonan 2014; Cinganotto 2016; Ludbrook 2014) have clearly established the profile required by a CLIL teacher, there are currently no criteria to follow for museum educators involved in CLIL teaching. First, we need to consider that the profession of the museum educator still needs to be formally recognized (ICOM 2008). Second, our results suggest that a CLIL museum educator should have a *hybrid* profile, integrating both CLIL and museum-based teaching principles. In particular, in exploring the knowledge, skills, and competences required, the participants in our research affirmed that a CLIL museum educator should:

- have a high competence in the FL, and be familiar with subject-specific and classroom management vocabulary in the FL;
- be familiar with the museum context, and subject-specific contents in relation to the museum collection;
- be familiar with the principles of museum-based pedagogy, facilitating inquiry, thinking, problem-solving, and observation skills, encouraging students' interaction, and promoting their interest and curiosity;
- be able to use different strategies to scaffold students' understanding and interaction;
- be able to exploit the potential of the materials devised, by flexibly adapting them to the specific audience;
- be positive, emphatic, and a great communicator.

13 https://www.miur.gov.it/documents/20182/0/Decreto+del+direttore+generale+n.+6+del+16+aprile+2012/222ce6bb-98be-4818-b266-aa20c196c803?version=1.1.

6.2.2 Methodology

When discussing the positive and negative aspects of the methodology adopted in the CLIL museum programmes, the museum staff claimed that finding the right balance between content and language was not an easy task. Indeed, the issue with teaching in CLIL in the museum is that the design of the visit/programme does not have a specific group of students in mind. In fact, we realized that what we needed was a standard visit format with standard activity books and worksheets that could be flexibly used and adapted on the spot by the museum educators. From this perspective, we also found that the true challenge was to use questions (Menegale 2008) and practical activities/experiments to scaffold students' learning through English, but also to capitalize upon students' engagement with museum objects and expand/integrate their learning (Hooper-Greenhill 1994a). Only in this way we were able to face the challenge of engaging students with different language and content competences (Caon 2008), and prior knowledge.

However, the results of our inquiry show that some of the tasks originally designed (e.g. definition of homologous and analogous structures; CLIL programme on *Animal Classification*) were too demanding, both linguistically and cognitively. The difference between CLIL at school and in the museum is that, unlike classroom learning,

> which is composed of linear sequences units that rely on prior knowledge and previously learned scientific concepts, museum-based learning occurs in short time units, does not require continuity, and relies on curiosity, intrinsic motivation, choice and control. (Bamberger, Tal 2007, 77)

In this sense, we realised that the combination of the short duration, one-off experience of the museum visit, and the use of CLIL made it necessary to revise some of the tasks, and reduce the objectives initially set.

On the other hand, when analysing the activities of the CLIL museum programmes, while they were successful in following a "route from low linguistic and cognitive demands to high linguistic and cognitive demands" (Coyle, Hood, Marsh 2010, 68), they did not always meet the conditions of museum-based pedagogy, as outlined by Falk and Dierking ([2000] 2018, 24). From this perspective, we need to highlight that for museum tasks to be successful, whatever the medium of communication, they have to promote students' close observation of objects, curiosity, and a sense of discovery.

As regards the format of the visit, our findings suggest that the introduction and learning agreement in the *Welcome stage* at the beginning of the visit are fundamental in both explaining the methodology and the structure of the visit, and in encouraging students' engagement and the use of English. The literature on classroom CLIL underlines the importance of sharing with students learning objectives, expectations, and responsibilities (Serragiotto 2014a, 59; Coonan 2012; Coyle, Hood, Marsh 2010). However, in the context of CLIL teaching in the museum, the extra challenge is represented by the fact that the visit is led by the museum educator, who has very little time to bond with the students. In this context, the museum educators agreed that the *Ice-breaker* was very important, both to give students the chance to get familiar with the museum educator, and to encourage them to interact in English by lowering their affective filter (Krashen 1982; Balboni 2015). Our findings also suggest that praising students' work and performance in English during the *Final remarks* at the end of the visit is important, as it promotes their positive self-concept as users of English and motivates them towards engaging in similar experiences.

7 Conclusion

More and more museums in Italy have become interested in CLIL and its potential to support formal education as well as to address their social agenda. However, we still know very little about the potential and issues of integrating CLIL and museum-based pedagogies.

Our article aimed at helping filling this gap, by investigating the reflections, evaluations, and comparisons of multiple actors involved in the design and implementation of CLIL learning activities at the Civic Museums of Venice Foundation. In doing so, we came to define the following methodological implications.

First of all, designing successful CLIL museum programmes requires the creation of a shared vision for CLIL across different institutions, including museums, schools, and university. In fact, it is only through long-term partnerships, which combine different competences and share aims, that professionals can exploit the potential of CLIL beyond the four-walled classroom.

Second, museums need to establish a successful collaboration with schools through providing teachers with both training and supporting documents (e.g. lesson plan of the CLIL museum visit, examples of pre- and post-visit activities). Teachers and museum educators have different agendas, and these need to be made clear beforehand the CLIL museum visit, so that teachers act in a supporting capacity during the visit.

Third, the designer(s) need to carefully think about the design and size of the museum rooms in which the activities will take place, and how to redirect students' attention and/or facilitate their comprehension in the case of interruptions caused by either other visitors or by the museum staff.

Fourth, in terms of methodology, at the macro-level, the CLIL museum visit should consist of four main moments: a *Welcome stage*, also including an *Ice-breaker*, to introduce the aims of the visit, and allow students and museum educator to get to know each another; a *Task*, consisting of activities that balance content and language, while at the same time promoting students' engagement with the objects and conversation with their peers; *Final remarks*, in which the museum educator praises students' efforts and encourage them to come back to the museum. At the micro-level, materials should be designed so as to be flexibly adapted to groups of different ages and language levels, and several scaffolding strategies should be applied (e.g. questions, glossary).

Finally, as regards the profile of the CLIL museum educator, the right person should have a great knowledge of the museum context and contents, as well as excellent language skills and knowledge of CLIL learning and teaching principles. He or she should also be a good communicator, and an emphatic educator. Unfortunately, as the MSN Director said, such a hybrid profile requires training and sacrifices, which are rarely repaid either economically or professionally in the museum sector.

Our findings are far from being generalizable. However, we think that they can be of help in unveiling a still rather unexplored field of research. Certainly, further research is needed to deepen the understanding of each of the aspects here presented.

Bibliography

Aiello, J.; Di Martino, E.; Di Sabato, B. (2017). "Preparing Teachers in Italy for CLIL. Reflections on Assessment, Language Proficiency and Willingness to Communicate". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(1), 69-83. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1041873.

Balboni, P. (2015). *Le sfide di Babele. Insegnare le lingue nelle società complesse*. Torino: Utet.

Balboni, P.; Coonan, C.M. (eds) (2014). *Fare CLIL. Strumenti per l'insegnamento integrato di lingua e disciplina nella scuola secondaria. Quaderni della Ricerca*, vol. 14. Torino: Loescher.

Baldry, A.C. (2007). *Focus group in azione*. Roma: Carrocci Faber.

Ball, P.; Kelly, K.; Clegg, J. (2015). *Putting CLIL into Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bamberger, Y.; Tal, T. (2007). "Learning in a Personal Context. Levels of Choice in a Free Choice Learning Environment in Science and Natural History Museums". *Science Education*, 91(1), 75-95. https://doi.org/10.1002/sce.20174.

Bentley, K. (2010). *TKT Course CLIL Module*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bier, A. (2016). "An Inquiry into the Methodological Awareness of Experiences and Less-Experienced Italian CLIL Teachers". *EL.LE*, 5(3), 395-414. http://doi.org/10.14277/2280-6792/ELLE-5-3-4.

Bier, A. (2018). *La motivazione nell'insegnamento in CLIL*. Venezia: Edizioni Ca' Foscari. SAIL 13. http://doi.org/10.30687/978-88-6969-213-0.

Bloom, B. (1984). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Byalistok, E. (1981). "The Role of Conscious Strategies in Second Language Proficiency". *The Modern Language Journal*, 65(1), 24-35.

Byram, M.; Nicols, A.; Stevens, D. (eds) (2001). *Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice*. Clevendon: Multilingual Matters.

Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A. (2009). "Action Research". Heighann, J.; Croker, R.A. (eds), *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, 112-34.

Caon, F. (2008). *Educazione linguistica e differenziazione. Gestire eccellenza e difficoltà*. Torino: Utet.

Cataldo, L.; Paraventi, M. (2007). *Il museo oggi. Linee guida per una museologia contemporanea*. Milano: Hoepli.

CEDEFOP, European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (2009). "Council Conclusions of 12 May 2009 on a Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training (ET 2020)". *Official Journal of the European Union*, 28 May 2009. https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/files/education_benchmarks_2020.pdf.

Cinganotto, L. (2016). "CLIL in Italy. A General Overview". *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, 9(2), 374-400. https://doi.org/10.5294/laclil.2016.9.2.6.

Ciocca, A. (2006). "Origini ed evoluzioni della didattica museale". *Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca*. https://archivio.pubblica.istruzione.it/didattica_musealenew/intro.shtml.

Coonan, C.M. (2012). *La lingua straniera veicolare*. Torino: Utet.

Coonan, C.M. (2008). "Taking the Matter to Task". *Studi di Glottodidattica*, 4, 53-65. https://ojs.cimedoc.uniba.it/index.php/glottodidattica/article/download/190/61.

Coonan, C.M. (2016). "Il potenziale del CLIL per l'innovazione nella scuola". Janfrancesco, E. (ed.), *Metodologia CLIL e competenze dei docenti*. Ariccia: Aracne Editrice, 63-86.

Coyle, D. (2006). *Developing CLIL. Towards a Theory of Practice*. Barcelona: APAC.

Coyle, D. (2008). "CLIL. A Pedagogical Approach from the European Perspective". Hornberger N.H. (ed), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. Boston: Springer, 1200-14. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_92.

Coyle, D. (2011). "Post-Method Pedagogies: Using a Second or Other Language as a Learning Tool in CLIL Settings". Zarobe, Y.R.; Sierra, J.M.; Puerto, F.G. (eds), *Content and Foreign Language Integrated Learning: Contributions to Multilingualism in European Contexts*. Bern: Peter Lang, 49-73.

Coyle, D. (2013). "Listening to Learners. An Investigation into 'Successful Learning' across CLIL Contexts". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16, 244-66. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2013.777384.

Coyle, D.; Hood, P.; Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL. Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and Special Education. Issues in Assessment and Pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dalton-Puffer, C.; Nikula, T.; Smit, U. (2010). "Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL. Current Findings and Contentious Issues". Dalton-Puffer, C.; Nikula, T.; Smit, U. (eds), *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 279-92. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.7.14dal.

Dewey, J. (1907). *The School and Society. Being Three Lectures by John Dewey Supplemented by a Statement of the University Elementary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

DeWitt, J.; Osborne, J. (2007). "Supporting Teachers on Science-Focused School Trip. Towards an Integrated Framework of Theory and Practice". *International Journal of Science Education*, 29(6), 685-710. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500690600802254.

Díaz, E.M. (2016). "Expanding the Spanish Classroom. The 'Art' in Liberal Arts". *Hispania*, 99(3), 436-48.

Di Pietro, L. et al. (2014). "An Audience-Centric Approach for Museums Sustainability". *Sustainability*, 6(9), 5745-62. https://doi.org/10.3390/su6095745.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dudley, S. (2009). *Museum Materialities. Objects, Engagements, Interpretations*. London: Routledge.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford University Press.

European Commission (2014). *Improving the Effectiveness of Language Learning CLIL and Computer-Assisted Language Learning*. https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/resources/Articles%20and%20publications%20on%20the%20ECML/CLIL%20and%20CALL%20report_July.2014.pdf?ver=2017-07-11-151504-977.

European Council (2014). *Conclusions on Multilingualism and the Development of Language Competences*. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52014XG0614(06)&from=EN.

European Council (2019). *Council Recommendation on a Comprehensive Approach to the Teaching and Learning of Languages*. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32019H0605(02)&from=EN.

Falk, J.H; Dierking, L.D. [2000] (2018). *Learning from Museums. Visitor Experiences and the Making of Meaning*. Plymouth: Altamira Press.

Fazzi, F. (2018). "Museum Learning through a Foreign Language. The Impact of Internationalization". Coonan, C.M.; Ballarin, E.; Bier, A. (eds), *La didattica delle lingue nel nuovo millennio. Le sfide dell'Internazionalizzazione*. Venice: Edizioni Ca' Foscari, 519-37. http://doi.org/10.30687/978-88-6969-227-7/031.

Fazzi, F.; Lasagabaster, D. (2020). "Learning *beyond* the Classroom. Students' Attitudes towards the Integration of CLIL and Museum-Based Pedagogies". *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2020.1714630.

Foreman-Peck, L.; Travers, K. (2013). "What Is Distinctive about Museum Pedagogy and How Can Museums Best Support Learning in Schools? An Action Research Inquiry into the Practice of Three Regional Museums". *Ed-*

ucational Action Research, 21(1), 28-41. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2013.761924.
Griffin, J. (2004). "Research on Students and Museums. Looking More Closely at the Students in School Groups". *Science Education*, 88(S1), 59-70. https://doi.org/10.1002/sce.20018.
Guazzieri, A. (2009). "CLIL e apprendimento cooperativo". *Studi di Glottodidattica*, 2, 48-72.
Hooper-Greenhill, E. (1994a). *The Educational Role of the Museum*. London: Routledge.
Hooper-Greenhill, E. (1994b). *Museum and Gallery Education*. London: Leicester University Press.
Housen, A. (1997). "Eye of the Beholder. Researcher, Theory, and Practice". Paper presented at the conference *Aesthetic and Art Education. A Trandisciplinary Approach sponsored Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, Service of Education* (Lisbon, 27-9 September 1999). https://vtshome.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/Eye-of-the-Beholder.pdf.
ICOM, International Council of Museums (2007). *Museum Definition*. https://icom.museum/en/resources/standards-guidelines/museum-definition/#:~:text=%E2%80%9CA%20museum%20is%20a%20non,THE%20WAY%20FORWARD.
ICOM ITALIA (2008). "Carta delle professioni museali". http://www.icom-italia.org/professioni-museali/.
INDIRE; MIUR (2014). *The Italian Education System*. I Quaderni di Eurydice 30. http://www.indire.it/lucabas/lkmw_img/eurydice/quaderno_eurydice_30_per_web.pdf.
Ivankova, N.V.; Creswell, J.W. (2009). "Mixed Methods". Heigham, J.; Crooker, R.A. (eds), *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: a Practical Introduction*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 135-61.
Johnson, A. (1995). "Using Transitions to Teach Touring". *The Docent Educator*, 5(1), 14-15.
Johnson, A. (2009). "Building Effective Tours". Johnson, A. et al. (eds), *The Museum Educator's Manual. Educators Share Successful Technique*s. Plymouth: Altamira Press, 47-72.
Kiely, R. (2011). "Understanding CLIL as an Innovation". *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153-71. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2011.1.1.9.
Kohonen, V. et al. (2014). *Experiential Learning in Foreign Language Education*. London: Routledge.
Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
Lasagabaster, D. (2011). "English Achievement and Student Motivation in CLIL and EFL Settings". *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 5(1), 3-18. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2010.519030.
Lasagabaster, D. (2017). "Integrating Content and Foreign Language Learning. What Do CLIL Students Believe?". *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 5(1), 4-29. https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.5.1.01las.
Lasagabaster, D.; Beloqui, R.L. (2015). "The Impact of Type of Approach (CLIL versus EFL) and Methodology (Book-Based versus Project Work) on Motivation". *Porta Linguarum. Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lená*

guas Extranjeras, 23, 41-57. https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=5188930.
Liamputtong, P. (2011). *Focus Group Methodology. Principle and Practice*. London: Sage.
Liubinienė, V. (2009). "Developing Listening Skills in CLI". *Kalbų studijos*, 15, 89-93.
Ludbrook, G. (2014). "Challenges Teaching Content through English. Language Abilities and Strategic Competences". Balboni, Coonan 2014, 105-13.
Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and Teaching Languages through Content. A Counterbalanced Approach*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Mathewson-Mitchell, D. (2007). "A Model for School-Based Learning Informal Settings". Paper Presented at the AARE (Australian Association for Research in Education) Conference (Fremantle, 25-9 November 2007), 1-14. https://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2007/mat07094.pdf.
Menegale, M. (2008). "Tipi di domande utilizzate durante la lezione frontale partecipata e output degli studenti". *RILA. Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 1(1-2), 117-45. https://doi.org/10.1400/188465.
Met, M. (1998). "Curriculum Decision-Making in Content-Based Language Teaching". Cenoz, J.; Genesee, F. (eds), *Beyond Bilingualism. Multilingualism and Multilingual Education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 35-63.
Meyer, O. (2010). "Towards Quality CLIL. Successful Planning and Teaching Strategies". *PULSO. Revista de Educación*, 33, 11-29. https://dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/3311569.pdf.
MIUR (2016). *Piano nazionale per la formazione dei docenti 2016-2019*. http://www.istruzione.it/allegati/2016/Piano_Formazione_3ott.pdf.
Mohan, B. (1986). *Language and Content*. Michigan: Addison-Wesley.
Nunan, D.; Richards, J.C. (2015). *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. London: Routledge.
Orion, N.; Hofstein, A. (1994). "Factors that Influence Learning during a Scientific Field Trip in a Natural Environment". *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 31(10), 1097-119. https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.3660311005.
Parra, M.L.; Di Fabio, E.G. (2016). "Languages in Partnership with the Visual Arts. Implications for Curriculum Design and Training". Parkes, L.; Ryan, C.; Bourns, S.K. (eds), *Issues in Language Program Direction. Integrating the Arts. Creative Thinking About FL Curricula and Language Program Direction*. Boston: Cengage, 11-36.
Pedaste, M. et al. (2015). "Phases of Inquiry-Based Learning. Definitions and the Inquiry Cycle". *Educational Research Review*, 14, 47-61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2015.02.003.
Reinders, H.; Benson, P. (2017). "Research Agenda. Language Learning beyond the Classroom". *Language Teaching*, 50(4), 561-78. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000192.
Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
Rohmann, H. (2013). "Historical Museums as Learning Sites in Foreign Language Education and Cultural Studies". Rymarczyk, J. (ed.), *Foreign Language Learning Outside School. Places to See, Learn, Enjoy*. Bern: Peter Lang, 147-58.
Ruanglertbutr, P. (2016). "Utilising Art Museums as Learning and Teaching Resources for Adult English Language Learners. The Strategies and Benefits".

English Australia Journal, 31(2), 3-29. https://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=109038592028583;res=IELHSS.
Seikkula-Leino, J. (2007). "CLIL Learning. Achievement Levels and Affective Factors". *Language and Education*, 21(4), 328-41. https://doi.org/10.2167/le635.0.
Serragiotto, G. (2014a). "L'organizzazione operativa di un modulo CLIL". Balboni, Coonan 2014, 53-61.
Serragiotto, G. (2014b). "Valutazione e CLIL". Balboni, Coonan 2014, 71-5.
Shoemaker, M.K. (1998). "Art Is a Wonderful Place to Be'. ESL Students as Museum Learners". *Art Education*, 51(2), 40-5. https://doi.org/10.1080/00043125.1998.11654321.
Shuh, J.H. (1982). "Teaching Yourself to Teach with Objects". *Nova Scotia Journal of Education*, 7(4), 8-15.
Sylvén, L.K.; Sundqvist, P. (2015). "Extramural English in Relation to CLIL. Focus on Young Language Learners in Sweden". Marsh, D.; Pérez Cañado, M.L.; Ráez Padilla, J. (eds), *CLIL in Action. Voices from the Classroom*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 47-62.
Sylven, L.K.; Sundqvist, P. (2017). "Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in Extracurricular/Extramural Contexts". *Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) Journal*, 34(1), i-iv.
Talboys, G.K. (2011). *Museum Educators' Handbook*. London: Routledge.
Turgut, Y.; Pelin, İ. (2009). "Young Learners' Language Learning via Computer Games". *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 760-4. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.135.
Swain, M. (2000). "The Output Hypothesis and beyond. Mediating Acquisition through Collaborative Dialogue". Lantolf, J.P. (ed), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 97-114.
Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum. Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. New York: Longman.
van Veldhuizen, A. (2017). *Education Toolkit. Methods & Techniques from Museum and Heritage Education*. Utrecht: Stichting LCM. http://network.icom.museum/fileadmin/user_upload/minisites/ceca/Annual_Conference_Docs/2017-10-08_Education_toolkit_-_e-book_EN.pdf.
Vuillaume, D. (2015). "Introduction". *Revisiting the Educational Value of Museums. Connecting to Audiences = Nemo 23rd Annual Conference 5-7 November Pilsen* (Czech Republic, 5-7 November 2015). Berlin: NEMO, 8-9. https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/read/55376233/connecting.
Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Harlow: Longman.
Wilson, B.C. (2012). *Making Human Rosetta Stories. Museums and Foreign Language Learning* [MA Dissertation]. South Orange (NJ): Seton Hall University. https://scholarship.shu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.com/&httpsredir=1&article=1227&context=theses.
Xanthoudaki, M. (2015). "Museums, Innovative Pedagogies and the Twenty-First Century Learner. A Question of Methodology". *Museum and Society*, 13(2), 247-65. https://doi.org/10.29311/mas.v13i2.329.
Yenawine, P. (2013). *Visual Thinking Strategies. Using Art to Deepen Learning across School Disciplines*. Cambridge (MA): Harvard Education Press.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Motivation, Pleasure and a Playful Methodology in Language Learning

Fabio Caon
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Abstract Motivation is a fundamental motor for meaningful learning, or that which is stable and lasting in our memory. It can be defined as a motor because it etymologically 'moves' us toward a goal, while also determining the intensity and duration of the movement. This aspect is key as it reveals the didactic necessity to continuously sustain motivation. This article analyses these elements to present the playful methodology as one of the possible solutions to help students develop a passion for learning a new language.

Keywords Motivation. Language. Learning. Pleasure. Playful methodology.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Peer review

Submitted 2020-08-09
Accepted 2020-08-20
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Caon, F. (2020). "Motivation, Pleasure and a Playful Methodology in Language Learning". *EL.LE*, 9(3), 437-460.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/006

1 Introduction

Motivation is a fundamental motor for meaningful learning, or that which is stable and lasting in our memory. It can be defined as a motor because it etymologically 'moves' us toward a goal, while also determining the intensity and duration of the movement. This aspect is key as it reveals the didactic necessity to continuously sustain motivation.

Furthermore, teaching methodology is one of the main ways to strengthen student motivation and guide students toward the pleasure of language learning. According to a humanistic perspective (Arnold 1960; Austin 1962; Rogers 1969; Goleman 1995; Schumann 1994, 1997; a survey of humanistic language teaching can be found in Balboni 2014), pleasure is the ultimate goal when fostering a type of motivation that is consistent and not excessively conditioned by external factors (like a transient investment in scholastic success).

In this article, we will analyse these elements to present the playful methodology as one of the possible solutions to help students develop a passion for learning a new language.

2 Studies on Motivation: An International Overview

The studies on motivation belong to the field of psychology and psycho-pedagogy. There is a wide range of literature concerning motivation in language learning, including Deci (1975; Deci, Ryan 1985; Deci et al. 1994; Deci, Ryan 2000) and Atkinson 1964; Mitchell 1982; Harter, Jackson 1992; Vallerand et al. 1993; Baumeister, Leary 1995; Dickinson 1995; Csikzentmihalyi 1997; Dai, Moon, Feldhusen 1998; Boekaerts, Nenninger 1999; Murphy, Alexander 2000; Järvelä, Niemivirta 2001; Stipek 2002; Barr 2016.

In regards to the psychological and psycho-pedagogic studies on motivation in general, at a national level we can cite: Boscolo 1997; De Beni, Moè 2000; Cisotto 2005.

Concerning the focus of this article, the motivational factor has been investigated in numerous international studies of glottodidactics, especially by Dörnyei (1994, 1998, 2001, 2005, 2007, 2009a, 2009b, 2010, 2014; Dörnyei, Csizér 2002; Dörnyei, MacIntyre, Henry 2015; Dörnyei, Ottó 1998; Dörnyei, Ushioda 2011; Csizér, Dörnyei 2005; Shoaib, Dörnyei 2005; Ushioda, Dörnyei 2009; Cheng, Dörnyei 2007). Along with the numerous essays and volumes written by the Hungarian scholar, in this overview, we can also mention Arnold 2006; Crookes, Schmidt 1991; Koestner, Losier 2002; Noels 2003; Ryan, Deci 2007; Sarrazin et al. 2011; Ushioda 2009; Chen, Warden, Chang 2005.

Since the 1970s, motivation has gained attention in the field of educational linguistics thanks to Titone (1973, 1986, 1993), Freddi, (1990, 1993, 1994) and Balboni (1994, 2013, 2014): they all belong to the Venetian School of glottodidactics. Furthermore, we can mention Cardona 2001; Bosco 2004; Caon 2008; Mezzadri 2010; Coonan 2011; Cavaliere 2013; Bier 2014.

3 Motivation: A Definition

Deci and Ryan (2000, 69) provide a general definition of motivation by saying that "motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence and equifinality – all aspects of activations and intention". Using this definition, we can affirm that a 'motivated' student is a subject who activates themselves for an internal or external cause and follows a specific path to reach a goal. Yet, there are two variables: intensity and persistence. They are connected to factors which determine the effort dedicated to achieve a goal and the ability to maintain motivation over time.

Each student has their own motivations, at school or in relation to a specific subject, which activate emotions and different cognitive processes (such as serenity or anxiety, positive or negative relationships with the teacher or topic, affinity with personal interests). As a consequence, they influence linguistic learning. According to Dörnyei, "it provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (2005, 65).

Intensity can be generated by factors which are external to school and vary according to the type of language studied. For example, the motivation connected to the study of a Foreign Language (FL) like English is different in comparison to French or other languages because English is supposed to offer, at least *a priori*, more opportunities to work in different sectors at an international level. According to an interview that we carried out among students and teachers of FL, it is clear that future projections significantly influence one's dedication to study and their extra-scholastic investment in terms of time and money (Caon 2008).

Regarding persistence, it is possible to find in methodology and activities some resources that can help the language teacher to modify the 'natural' motivational trends of students (cf. Schumann 1997; Balboni 2014; Coppola 2000; Caon 2016). This will be the focus of the second part of this article.

4 Types of Motivation

Traditionally, there are two types of motivation, often considered couples in antinomy: intrinsic/self-directed vs. extrinsic/other-directed, instrumental vs. integrative (cf. De Beni, Moè 2000). In fact, we must remember that motivation is an integrated system of variables influenced by socio-cultural contexts and by types of relations. Therefore, they cannot provide a unique and constant frame. As Deci and Ryan state, "although motivation is often treated as a singular construct, even superficial reflection suggests that people are moved to act by very different types of factors, with highly varied experiences and consequences" (2000, 69).

On these bases the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is particularly interesting for language teaching from a humanistic point of view: we can define intrinsic motivation as the condition in which a student autonomously finds interest, need, desire, curiosity, and pleasure in learning. On the other hand, we can define motivation as extrinsic when the reasons for learning are not rooted in personal factors, but they have ties with external factors such as, for example, gratification or reward from the teacher (cases in which the reasons are connected with other directed incentives).

For Deci,

> extrinsic motivation refers to any instance in which the reasons for one's actions are some separable consequences, whether they be interpersonally administered (e.g. praise, monetary payments, or the opportunity to do other, more interesting tasks) or self-administered (e.g. praising self-statements or presents to oneself). (Deci, Grolnick, Ryan 1997, 161)

On the contrary, according to the author,

> when intrinsically motivated, people engage in activities out of interest and enjoyment, out of the satisfactions that accrue spontaneously as they involve themselves in the activities… the rewards of the activities are the spontaneous feelings of engagement, excitement, accomplishment, or awe which accompany them. (161)

If the aim of humanistic language teaching is to valorize all individuals for their unique characteristics and help them to foster and develop their talents, then it is obvious that the kind of motivation coherent with our goal is the intrinsic one in which the very subject activates because, for instance, they can see their academic work as a means of personal achievement.

According to McCombs and Pope:

> Human beings are naturally motivated to learn when they are not in a state of anxiety for failing, when they perceive what they are learning as meaningful and important from a personal point of view, and when they have a relationship with their teachers based on esteem and support… Students are motivated to learn when teachers offer them the chance to take autonomous decisions and take control on their process of learning. (1996, 17-18)

Although we acknowledge the need of many students to have extrinsic forms of motivation, we believe that, as Cardona claims, we risk creating a "strong dependence between the teacher (who reinforces) and the student (which is reinforced)" (2001, 17). This can prevent the development of the pupil's personal cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and the development of autonomous parameters of judgment as their choices depend on the teacher's reinforcement.

To promote meaningful language learning that is stable and lasting, the language teacher should favour the development of intrinsic motivation through:

a. content, meeting the interests or needs of the students,
b. methodologies, which, though mediating the very content, may activate more or less complex and meaningful cognitive processes in the students. A specific way of presenting a topic (for example through problem solving) may trigger motivation in students, like: to win a challenge, to fill in missing information through interaction, to draw on previous knowledge in another language, to actively take part in complex activities such as work projects, experiments, cooperative exercises, fun and playful activities that are challenging from a cognitive point of view,
c. resources and teaching materials,
d. relationships, built over time through transparency, trust, clarity, effective communication (requiring intentional mediation and strategic facilitation), active listening to both interests and needs, a sense of duty (which can be generated by shared responsibility among classmates and teachers), and the authority of the teacher.

In regards to relationships, a study on stress and English as a Foreign Language teachers, Mousavi highlighted that teachers and students "are constantly interacting with each other, [and] we cannot consider the emotional state of one group whilst ignoring the concerns of the other. The general outcome of the lesson depends on the quality of such interactions" (2007, 33). In this article we will focus on the relational and methodological elements of motivation, which find a synthesis in the playful Language Teaching Methodology (LTM)

5 Meaningful Language Learning

According to Carl Rogers (1969), 'meaningful' learning must be able to arouse the interest of the student, who, as well as a need to feel totally involved (from the cognitive, affective, and emotional points of view) in the process, is also able to perceive that the experience is capable of filling certain knowledge gaps felt as such by the student. Roger's pillars or basic principles of education science have been adopted and in part redefined by other scholars, notably Ausubel and more recently, Novak.

For Ausubel (1968) 'meaningful' learning is a process through which new information enters into relation with pre-existing concepts in the cognitive structure of the brain, but it is only the student who can decide to implement this process. Novak (1998), for his part, while confirming the necessity of a constructive integration of thoughts, feelings, and actions in the pupil, also refers to the necessity of a constructive relationship between pupil and teacher. In his opinion, this educative relationship is based on shared actions that permit an exchange of meanings and emotions between the student and the teacher.

Regarding this concept, we can now list some concise observations that render the instruction of second, foreign and ethnic languages in school problematic. For instance:

a. the fact that many students feel that the foreign language does not readily connect with their spontaneous need for communication, it is therefore necessary, through choices of content and/or didactic methodologies, to 'create' or contribute to the creation of knowledge gaps in order to promote a need or an interest to learn;
b. new information is often discordant with the information already existing in the mother-tongue of the student: this discordance can be both grammatical/conceptual (Italian divides the world in masculine and feminine, German, into masculine, feminine, and neuter), and/or semantic (In Italian and Spanish *casa* includes both meanings of *house/home* in English or *haus/heim* in German)

The idea of meaningful language learning clearly calls into question many traditional approaches wherein the interest in the form of the language takes priority over the interest in the exchange of personal meanings. Conversely, in fact, it is precisely this latter process that is capable of activating the cognitive, affective, and emotional spheres of those involved in the didactic act.

To conclude the characteristics of 'meaningful' learning that we have so far identified may be paraphrased as follows:

a. learning is *total*; it involves the cognitive, emotive, affective, and social sphere;

b. learning is a *constructive* process, one of integrating new information with the student's pre-existing concepts;
c. the quality of learning, in terms of memory persistency, is conditioned in a positive or negative way by *motivation*, which in turn largely depends upon factors internal to the student.

6 Neurobiological Bases of Motivation and Meaningful Learning

Among the most recent contributions from the neurosciences confirm the idea that in negative emotional situations (fear, anxiety, stress) there is the formation of a chemical mechanism that stops the production of adrenaline (a neurotransmitter that favours memorisation) and therefore also prevents the activation of the frontal lobes for memorization/learning.

Cardona writes that this negative phenomenon occurs:

> When the stress is not positive, [but] a feeling of anxiety and discomfort takes place. In this case the suprarenal glands produce a steroid hormone, called the stress hormone, that prepares the body to react to difficult situations. Controlling the production of such a hormone is the palatine tonsil, that in a stressful or dangerous situation signals for an increased production of this hormone, which eventually reaches the hippocampus and the prefrontal cortex of the brain. In essence, in a stressful situation (like, in our case, a language test, an oral examination, dictation, etc.), there is conflict between, the palatine tonsil, which requests more introduction of the hormone into the blood to cope with the situation, and the hippocampus, that instead tries to regulate and limit the quantity of it. However, if the situation continues, the hippocampus' control functions cannot work properly, nor can it carry out its normal tasks (note that the hippocampus is the appointed area for long-term memory). Therefore, the result is that information is deficiently recovered and the explicit or declarative memory does not work as it should. (Cardona 2001, 39-40; Author's trans.)

J.H. Schumann, in *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language* (1997), asserts that no cognitive process is generated without an emotional process being generated and that, also from the neurobiological point of view, the pleasant emotion plays a fundamental role in the activation of the cognitive processes that permits the stable and lasting acquisition of information. A confirmation of the value of this statement comes also from within the medical-neurolinguistic discipline: according to Franco Fabbro, "the emotive structures of the nervous system of mammals are strongly involved in the process of fixing the memory recollections" (1996, 110; Author's trans.); moreover, he notes that, "Mc Ewen and Sapolsky's researches have shown that stressful situations… determine over time a selective destruction of the median temporal lobe system… with a consequential impoverishment of the capacity of fixing the information in the episodic and semantic memory" (110; Author's trans.).

To conclude this essential survey, the main contribution of the sciences that study the brain and the mind is that:

Memory is of course a key factor in learning, not only as far as language is concerned. The language input provided at a lesson and the activities carried out to work on it are stored in working memory, that is existing synapses are temporarily re-used. In order to create new synapses, that is, to acquire an information permanently, a molecule (CREB, Camp Response Element-Binding molecule) creates the protein which is necessary to synapsis stabilization. In order to work, CREB molecules require the activation of emotional experiences during teaching ("meaningful teaching", to use Ausubel's words) and/or in the teaching environment.

For further reading on CREB and language acquisition see Contreras Asturias (2016)

7 The Role of the Teacher in Developing Meaningful Learning

The teacher, who is up to the task of interrogating himself in an (auto-)critical way about the relation between teaching and learning, stands a good chance of avoiding the embarrassment inherent in this paradoxical question by:

a. recognizing that it is the student who carries out the fundamental role in the teaching/learning process and that every student learns and remembers in a unique way;
b. having the objective of promoting an intrinsic motivation in the student by drawing together the extremes of their relationship, by connecting the content he teaches with the ongoing and meaningful histories of the students in terms of their possessed competences, interests, and formative needs (real and present or possible and future);
c. creating a working environment, that is serene, challenging and pleasant in the broad sense described above, through the search for a meaningful relationship;
d. facilitating – through didactic methodology – the process of acquiring an autonomy in critical thought and in the learning strategies by resorting to a metacognitive didactic.

These points are fundamental in the conception of a general education as well as the daily didactic activity according to which the purpose of the education is to help the students to become responsible and to let them carry the burden of their own constructions of meanings and other, existential meanings.

With the objective of forming, as Montaigne stated, "well made heads instead of well filled heads", we can bring to the surface in the students a "sense of duty" that is both extrinsic and intrinsic in nature and that can generate a full and profound pleasure; a pleasure that can also be derived from the labour of studying. It is important to emphasize that a meaningful relationship must not be characterized by permissiveness, because, being so characterized, in the name of adapting to the spontaneous needs and interests of the students, the teacher is forced to give up his role and his statutory duties that impose also discipline, respect for rules and scholastic or ministerial directives. It is instead in the ability to mediate between these two realities (the students' interests and the school's 'interests') and to draw them together, owing to the capacity of negotiation and growing joint-responsibility, that the teacher, in the perspective of the progressive autonomy of his students, can investigate the profound meaning of the educative relationship: *non scholae sed vitae*.

Summarizing the main concepts, we saw that:

a. the intrinsic motivation, based on need and even more on pleasure, is fundamental to the student being profoundly activated;
b. such a motivation has not only a conscious dimension but also an unconscious one: it is primed on a biochemical level and it generates pre-conscious emotive reactions that can favour or make more difficult the mnemonic fixation of information;
c. the task of the teacher, coherent with the nature of meaningful learning, is to avoid anxiety or fear and to create certain favourable conditions for the active, interested, and self-motivated participation of the student in the life of the class;
d. such a task is made easier by aiming for a meaningful relationship between teacher and student and between student and student. Attributing to the teacher a professional and personal authoritativeness, (that, in a humanistic context, cannot be achieved by being dictatorial), facilitates in the students the activation of a motivation connected to a 'sense of duty' based on the sense of trust and mutual respect and maintained by joint-responsibility. The relation that becomes established between teacher and students, as well as between student and student, is fundamental to the concept of meaningfulness.

8 Playful Language Teaching: A Methodology to Promote the Pleasure of Studying

In the preceding chapters we discussed the fundamental importance of intrinsic motivation and meaningful relationship, and we proposed pleasure as the best state of mind for a stable and durable way to learn a language.

In this chapter, we will present a methodological proposal – the playful language teaching methodology[1] – that translates into practice both the presuppositions and the purposes of the humanistic and communicative approach, and the presuppositions and purposes of socio-cultural constructivism.

A methodology that can foster pleasure during in-class learning is 'social mediation', which is intended to build knowledge, rather than encourage the passive reception of information. It places the student at the centre of the learning process as students are considered resources and origins of learning, actively involved in building their knowledge base. Social mediation methods do not exclude transmission, but they are not exclusively focused on using this methodology, as commonly seen in traditional lectures. If, as said, learning is a global and constructive fact ("learning is total" and "learning is a constructive process"), then it is fundamental that we utilize a didactic methodology which can promote the contemporary development of the linguistic-communicative, social, metacognitive and meta-emotional, cultural and intercultural competences.

The main social mediation methodologies are:

- Cooperative learning
- Playful and playful-linguistic teaching (Caon, Rutka 2004; Mollica 2010)
- Peer tutoring

In this article, we cannot present all methodologies; but Caon offers a detailed list in his book from 2008. Here we will briefly present the playful methodology, which has affinities with the concept of pleasure in class. Playful didactics is based on two concepts: game and play.

1 The main references in dealing with play in language learning are Lee 1979 and Rixon 1981. More recent views of play in language teaching can be found in Caon, Rutka 2004; Wright, Betteridge, Buckby 2005; Chen 2005; Meyer 2010: Talak-Kiryk 2010; Ryu 2013; Thorne, Black, Sykes 2009; Mollica 2010; Thorne, Watters 2013; Pasovic 2014. Literature about play in language teaching usually focuses the student, while Golombek and Klager (2015) focus the role of play in a teacher's formation. A general view of research in gamification in education can be found in Kamp 2012. Research about gamification in language teaching has been increasing over the years, above all in dissertation repositories. Some recent studies that can provide a guideline are: Lombardi 2013; De Moraes Sarmento Rego 2015; Figueroa Flores 2015.

To avoid understanding in a reductive way the playful language teaching methodology as a methodology actuated only though didactic games, let us broaden the operational horizon by presenting the concept of playfulness. By this term we mean *the vital charge in which strong intrinsic motivational inducements become integrated with affective-emotive, cognitive and social aspects of the learner.* Such a vital charge can obviously be emitted also in activities that, even though games, can completely absorb the attention and the interest of the students because they are supported by an intrinsic motivation, they are challenging and exacting.

8.1 Play and Meaningful Learning

To introduce the playful language teaching methodology, it is worth noting again the key words, *total*, *constructive*, *holistic*, that are characteristic to the concept of meaningful learning. Accordingly, the playful language teaching methodology clearly calls to mind – by its very name – the game, and it is specifically in this dimension that we would like to initially and briefly concentrate our attention. All of this because, in full coherence and similarity with the above mentioned key words, we can also infer that the game is defined as a *total* and *holistic* experience in which are integrated, at different levels of prevalence depending on the game's typologies, the components listed below:

a. *affective* (amusement, pleasure)
b. *social* (team, group)
c. *motor and psychomotor* (movement, coordination, balance)
d. *cognitive* (elaboration of a game strategy, learning of rules)
e. *emotive* (fear, tension, sense of liberation)
f. *cultural* (specific rules and modalities of relationships)
g. *trans-cultural* (the necessity of rules and the necessity, in order for the game to take place, of respecting them)

The game, like meaningful learning, emerges as a complex and engaging experience because, as we noted, it completely activates the student and allows them to consistently and naturally learn through its practice, increasing their knowledge and competence. Hence, the student's involvement in playful activity is two-fold: on a synchronic plane (during the game) they are engaged and motivated by a multisensory experience; on the diachronic plane (by repeating the game) their competence continuously evolves and their motivations are renewed because they tend to surpass the achieved aim. Then, there is a third factor especially relevant for our perspective: the game, if perceived and experienced as such, both occupies attention and amuses. This way, the harmonic match of diligence with amusement refers to the intrinsic pleasure of the activity without denying the cognitive and psycho-physical effort.

8.2 Games for Language Learning: Which Games at School?

As playing is a totalizing experience for students, it follows that a game is useful for learning in general and especially for language learning because almost all games demand the use of words to begin negotiating rules. With the objective of translating the above potentialities into a language teaching methodology and to avoid falling into dangerous prejudicial visions wherein the game at school is a moment of relaxation to be put before the "serious" learning moment, it is fundamental first of all to introduce a clarifying distinction between free games (practiced by the students in an extra-scholastic or non-controlled environment) and teaching games (proposed by the teacher in the context of learning).

Hence, we now need to note two terms introduced by the educationalist Aldo Visalberghi (1980): playful activity (corresponding to free games) and play-like activity (corresponding to teaching games). According to Visarberghi, the playful activity has four characteristics:

a. *it is exacting*: it demands a psycho-physical, cognitive and affective involvement;
b. *it is continuous*: it is a constant presence in childhood and continues to have a role in adulthood;
c. *it is progressive*: it is not static, it renews itself, it is a cognitive, relational and affective growth factor, it enlarges knowledge and competences;
d. *it is not functional*, it is auto-framing, which means it has purpose-in-itself.

Conversely, in the play-like activity, although having exacting, continuous and progressive characteristics, the 'purpose' of the game does not correspond with the completion of the activity: in the didactic game it consciously achieves a purpose that is beyond the game itself. Thus, play-like activities are didactic games because the achieved purpose is not internal, is not auto-framing and does not end upon the completion of the game. Rather, the purpose remains external to the game and is determined by the adult. Therefore, play-like activities are "intentionally built to give an amusing and pleasant shape to certain forms of learning" (Staccioli 1998, 16). Coherent with what the Venetian scholars cited in the first chapter and asserted about intrinsic motivation, Aldo Visalberghi (1980, 476; Author's trans.) declares that "only the auto-motivated activities, because they are *exacting*, *continuous* and also in a certain way *progressive*, that are playful or at least play-like ones, are capable of developing human behaviour in both an innovative and flexible way. The activities that are compulsory, routine, hetero-directed or in any way such to sacrifice too much of a present gratification at the expense of future advantages, have no spiritual fecundity. Man explores his world for the enjoyment in so doing, not for some calculated advantage, immediate or otherwise. This is the divine spark that is present within him".

Mario Polito has mainly the same opinion in that:

> the game has enormous educative potentialities that facilitate learning and socialization. The playful capacity, being involved and creative with experience and with life, has to be developed in every person.
>
> The game, in fact, ignites the enthusiasm, fires the interest, primes the involvement, favours social activities, increases expression, stimulates learning, and reactivates affections, emotions and thoughts. By valorizing the playful dimension of learning we avoid orientating the school solely towards the cognitive plane to the detriment of other formative dimensions, such as the affective, interpersonal, corporeal and manual ones". (2000, 333; Author's trans.)

Hence, the didactic game, the play-like experience, (projected and facilitated by the teacher for didactic, educative and not shallow recreational purposes) can emerge as an efficient 'mediator' in the transmission of concepts, as a consequence of which the student can appropriate structures, lexicon and new cognitive strategies through a total and intrinsically motivated experience (the pleasure of the game, of the challenge) that involves him from the cognitive and also affective, social, and creative point of view. Therefore, such spontaneous integration of the intra and inter-personal spheres, peculiar to the playful activity (confirmed as we saw by many scholars), can simultaneously favor, from the didactic point of view, the development of linguistic-cognitive competences along with social and educative ones.

8.3 Games for Children, Adolescents and Adults: Affinities and Differences

Considering the frequent and almost spontaneous association of the game with childhood, it seems important to us to deconstruct this prejudice (that is, that the playful activity belongs only to infancy and/or that the didactic game can be practiced solely in the primary school) and expand the horizon of the playful LTM in order for it to be proposed to adolescents and adults alike, with the obvious differentiations in the modalities and in the activities themselves in accordance with the age of the player.

In our own didactic practice and experimentations with adolescents and adults (cf. Caon, Rutka 2004) we noted an efficacy of the playful methodological proposal, provided that it is:

a. explained and negotiated by the teacher;
b. valorized in regards to the psycho-pedagogical and didactical motivations of LTM that support it and the complex cognitive processes it can activate (for example, group problem-solving games);
c. proposed through activities with a cognitive and linguistic complexity adequate to the cognitive development and linguistic competences of the students.

Apart from this, there are other elements that assume relevance for the older adolescents and therefore can obviously represent valid motivational stimulations with which to initiate a process of linguistic acquisition and the development of transversal abilities. Next to pleasure and amusement, the adolescents gain a heightened capacity for recognizing and respecting the rules coupled to the capacity – experienced as a stimulating challenge to elaborate strategies and new rule systems – to search for logical and creative solutions to different problems (real or hypothetical), to plan actions, and, to discover new combinations among their pre-existing knowledge base.

The adolescent student often does not accept activities perceived as too infantile, or of little significance, that frustrate his intellectual capacities because they are cognitively too simple. In his new identity – fragile and confused – as a 'boy', he often identifies the game as a typical 'childish' activity of an age group he wants to demonstrate he has definitely passed. Added to this difference, there is also one deriving from inheriting cultural conventions that distinctly separate the school, (synonymous with hard work and diligence), from the game (perceived as relaxation and recreation, or wrongly, as solely an infantile activity). Inherited conventions, promoted by the family and the school alike, that never fail to emphasize how the game belongs to the 'recreational' sphere (further reading: Caon, Rutka 2004).

Thus, the objective is to encourage students to experience this pleasure through challenging activities (for instance, problem solving or certain creative activities where their talents are valorized) and to encourage intellectual and emotive understanding through feedback, through post-experiential discussion and the valorization of their intellectual conquests, personal and/or collective. The teacher has to create the conditions so that:

a. on the one hand, difficulties are understood as proportionate to the competence and the cognitive maturity of his students;
b. on the other hand, the class is organised (by group cooperation and by the valorization of the different personal abilities and talents) so that it can, with him functioning as an expert

helper, overcome the 'challenges' he initiated or those that spontaneously arise from within the group.

Therefore, the activities being proposed must be playful, defined thus far as pleasurable and also challenging in a cognitive sense, so as to initiate a desire to surpass oneself, to embark upon challenging oneself prior to any challenge directed at others.

The activities must act on what Vygotskij calls the "proximal development zone", namely, the distance between the present level of development, (as it is determined by autonomous problem-solving), and the level of potential development, (as it is determined through problem-solving under the guide of an adult or in collaboration with more capable equals).

Exposing the student to stimulating activities, furnishing him with direct help through a meaningful relationship as well as an indirect one through cooperative working modalities, is fundamental in achieving meaningful learning, in developing a sense of self-effectiveness, in improving self-esteem, and in strengthening social abilities.

The play-like activity, if challenging because it is exacting, presents the advantage of being naturally complex and of generating pleasure in its operation as well as in its completion. If the teacher succeeds in encouraging his students to understand (through the expressive potency of the concrete experience) that the game is not recreational but is a way to acquire new knowledge and competences, and personal and social abilities, he can then make it didactically proposable, and thus more acceptable to the typology of more 'diffident' students.

The didactic game, that is sustainable in terms of linguistic complexity, that is adequate to the cognitive maturity of the student, and that is precisely explained in its manifold formative functions, can also encourage adolescents and adults to recover the auto-framing pleasure, the pleasure of the activity that in itself is amusing, absorbing, and gratifying.

8.4 What is the Playful Language Teaching Methodology?

The playful LTM is a methodology that coherently realizes, in operative models and in LTM techniques, the founding principles of humanistic, affective and communicative approaches, and those of socio-cultural constructivism. These principles may be summarized as:

a. the attention to the communicative needs of the student (with particular regard for the psycho-affective and motivational components that influence the learning process);
b. the importance of the language as an instrument of personal expression and social interaction (with particular atten-

tion to the socio-cultural, intercultural, para and extra-linguistic aspects);

c. the conception of learning as a constructive process wherein the pupil has to be actively committed in the creation of his knowledge. Such creation occurs by the connection between what he has learned on one hand, and his pre-existing knowledge on the other;
d. the consciousness and valorization of those differences among students that derive from their personal histories, their social ambience, their specific interests, their existential and scholastic objectives, and their cognitive and learning styles;
e. the conception of the role of the teacher as a facilitator with respect to learning (cf. § 3).

Hence, the teacher/facilitator who applies the playful LTM has as principal objectives:

a. the creation of a learning/teaching environment characterized by calmness, serenity (play) and in which a frequent and purposeful use of teaching games is expected; an environment wherein the student is indeed the centre of the teaching/learning process, in which special attention is paid to the students' interests and formative needs, and to the teaching/learning modalities that are most effective with regard to the specific characteristics of the individual and/or the group;
b. the promotion of a playful approach to the didactic activity, in which the cooperation in achieving clear objectives for learning is valorized, in which competitiveness is controlled so as not to generate anxiety and stress in the students, and in which taking pleasure in the challenge is promoted.

To reach these objectives, the teacher proposes every activity in a playful form, thus attenuating, hopefully, all resistance and difficulties of a psychological nature, which in turn permits the student to serenely face studying the language and involve all his cognitive, affective, social and sensory-motor capacities in the learning process. Furthermore, the teacher uses the game as a strategic modality for the achievement of educative aims and linguistic abilities peculiar to linguistic education (regarding linguistic abilities, cf. Balboni 2014; regarding linguistic education, cf. Titone 1993). Through the game the facts of reality become internalized and re-elaborated, and knowledge inside increasingly complex conceptual nets is expanded and organized. All of which occurs in a dynamic *continuum* that witnesses the student becoming intrinsically motivated as well as becoming the protagonist of their own formative path.

8.5 The Potentialities of the Playful LTM for Intercultural Education

In an increasingly multicultural educational context, it is fundamental to propose certain pedagogical models that educate the students not only to accept and respect diversity, but also to recognize and valorize various cultural identities within the lens of mutual enrichment. In order for this proposal to become meaningful for the students, that is to say, to arise from a real and profound desire for them to know and put themselves in a relation with the 'other', it is necessary to actuate it though a search for personal and mutual comprehension, (me of myself, me of the other, the other of themselves, the other of me), and for an active collaboration among the students to occur.

The objective is ambitious and certainly must transverse all disciplines and be promoted by all teachers. However, of course, the language teacher can have a privileged role in this shared search for an intercultural dialogue that is attentive to, respectful of, and interested in, difference. The motives behind this privileged role are easily understandable; for his part, Titone, in his "humanistic recovery of language" (1993, 54) locates two general motives to which we now add a more specifically intercultural one:

a. "language is the person… The consciousness of being able to translate yourself into a word gives substance and security to the individual as a human being, both in his essential identity and in his social expansion" (1993, 54). Language is communication and expression, it is the primary means through which we enter into a profound contact with the other and though which we manifest our feelings and individuality. Therefore, the teacher has the task and the responsibility to facilitate communication among people and to facilitate the expression of the individual (though different linguistic codes and through perfecting those of one's mother-tongue);
b. "every education operates by means of a language, and every teaching is language teaching… Any formative intervention regarding the person is translated into verbal stimulations… in school, every didactic act is centered on the informative and illuminating word, even if it subordinately makes use of the help of other signs" (Titone 1993, 54). Therefore, the language teacher has the task of:
c. facilitating the learning of a foreign language, or a classic language, or a second language, and also has the task of proposing cultural models in part similar and in part different from the one of reference: The capacity of the teacher to make these affinities and differences recognised and appreciated permits the student to create a 'critical estrangement' from his own point of view, with the ultimate objective of making

his personal view relative. In an intercultural perspective, the teaching also of the first language or the ethnic language demands an explicitness and a criticalness of the cultural models that have linguistic correspondences (the use of the formal register, or real, communicative purposes that involve forms of courtesy, or idiomatic expressions).

Games that, as we noted, demand the frequent use of language while being played, present two characteristics that can favour intercultural didactic proposals. They are, simultaneously:

a. *trans-cultural*; all children, independently from their geographical and cultural origin, play and share some aspects belonging to a "universal playful grammar", as, for instance, the respect for rules or the ritual of the initial "count". Thus, the game is an experience that creates fraternization, creates contact and establishes an equal relationship among different sets of knowledges and among different competences;
b. *culturally determined*; as Staccioli (1998, 151) notes, "a game is a mirror/image of the society wherein it gets developed and every player 'plays' (consciously or not) within rules, symbols, aspirations, and fantasies peculiar to his culture".

The teacher can use this peculiarities of games as a vehicle for promoting intercultural educational values (besides, obviously, making it an exercise for learning the language) in a playful and communicative context. Dialogue and collaboration appear spontaneously and linguistic-cultural understanding is necessary so that the motivation for success or the pleasure taken in the challenge (characteristic to the game) are satisfied. Pursuing the objective of intercultural education, the teacher can discover, in the dimension of the game, a meaningful context because it implies the recognition of some implicit trans-cultural values and regulations (like, for instance, the respect for rules and for whose turn it is, so to speak) and encourages in an absolutely natural way the interaction among students by totally involving them completely in the assigned task. The game, as we noted, permits an activation of the cognitive and emotive spheres in the learning process by stimulating capacities and abilities that, in mere verbal communication, would stay unexpressed. D'Andretta (1999, 24; Author's trans.), notes:

> interactive techniques and games are very useful in favouring the interaction with people and cultural contents that are "other", in inducing an empathy towards "diversity", in suggesting unusual languages that help us travel along unknown paths, and also in recognising that our languages and habits are partial and relative.

Therefore, games supply the teacher with occasions to modify the possible ethnocentric visions of the students,

> they allow, in fact, to live in the first person the experience of "decentralisation", the dizziness of loss that bursts forth from perceiving as relative what we used to consider as absolute, or from perceiving as cultural what we used to consider as natural. (24; Author's trans.)

In concluding the playful experience, the teacher can then, in the phase of cognitive reconstruction of what has occurred in the game, encourage the students to ponder the characteristics of games and the value of their contribution, though reflection that stems from their experiences and confrontations. The objective of such common reflection and confrontation is:

a. to critically examine the ethnocentric approach to culture and the deviating simplifications implicit in stereotypes;
b. to recognise the value of cultural pluralism;
c. to stimulate an interest in otherness and trans-cultural identity though pleasant and motivating interactions.

This last phase represents the ideal terminus of a didactic path that unites the linguistic-communicative objectives of the playful LTM with the transversal ones of intercultural education: namely, cultural decentralisation, deconstruction of prejudices, and overcoming xenophobic and racist attitudes. The teacher who wants to be 'playful and intercultural' will have the task of creating playful-educative contexts that are rich in exchanges, wherein the talents of the students are valorized and wherein the group enriches itself from the pre-existing experiences of each student. The teacher would likewise have to make the students aware of these values though direct experience by encouraging them to understand that, as Claude Lévi-Strauss said, "the discovery of otherness is the discovery of a relation, not of a barrier".

8.6 Beyond Language Teaching Games: The Concept of Playfulness

To avoid understanding in a reductive way the playful LTM as a methodology actuated only though didactic games, let us broaden the operational horizon by presenting the concept of playfulness. By this term we mean *the vital charge in which strong intrinsic motivational inducements become integrated with affective-emotive, cognitive and social aspects of the learner*. Such a vital charge can obviously be emitted also in activities that, even though games, can completely absorb the attention and the interest of the students because they are supported by an intrinsic motivation, they are challenging and exacting.

By adopting a playful language teaching methodology, we locate in playfulness the founding principle that promotes the total development of the student and, in consequence, creates learning situations that are complex and rich in stimulations (experiential and creative activities, problem solving activities, and ones that demand multisensory involvement) that are followed by moments of linguistic formalization, reflection, and the systemization of grammar.

Bibliography

Arnold, M.B. (1960). *Emotion and Personality*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Arnold, J. (2006). “Comment les facteurs affectifs influencent-ils l’apprentissage d’une langue étrangère?”. *Études de linguistique appliquée*, 144(4), 407-25.

Atkinson, J.W. (1964). *An Introduction to Motivation*. Princeton (NJ): Van Nostrand.

Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to Do Things with Words*. Oxford: Clarendon.

Ausubel, D.P. (1968). *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View*. New York: Holt, Rinehart &Winston.

Balboni, P.E. (1994). *Didattica dell’italiano a stranieri*. Roma: Bonacci.

Balboni, P.E. (2013). “Il ruolo delle emozioni di studente e insegnante nel processo di apprendimento e insegnamento linguistico”. *EL.LE*, 2(1), 7-30. http://doi.org/10.14277/2280-6792/1063.

Balboni, P.E. (2014). *Le sfide di Babele*. Torino: UTET.

Barr, J.E. (2016). “Self-Determination Theory and the Educational Motivations of the Recently Incarcerated”. *Educational Foundations & Leadership Theses & Dissertations*, 33. https://doi.org/10.25777/nh88-fb06.

Baumeister, R.F.; Leary, M.R. (1995). “The Need to Belong: Desire for Interpersonal Attachments as a Fundamental Human Motivation”. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), 497-529. https://doi.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0033-2909.117.3.497.

Bier, A. (2014). “The Motivation of Second/Foreign Language Teachers: A Review of the Literature”. *EL.LE*, 3(3), 505-21. http://doi.org/10.14277/2280-6792/119p.

Boekaerts. M.; Nenninger, P. (1999). “Introduction to the Special Theme: Advances in Motivation from the European Viewpoint”. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 14(1), 3-9.

Bosco, O. (2004). “Le motivazione degli immigrati stranieri all’apprendimento della lingua italiana in contesto scolastico”. Vedovelli, M.; Massara, S.; Giacalone Ramat, A. (a cura di), *Lingue e culture in contatto. L’italiano come L2 per gli arabofoni*. Milano: FrancoAngeli, 141-51.

Boscolo, P. (1997). *Psicologia dell’apprendimento scolastico. Aspetti cognitivi e motivazionali*. Torino: UTET.

Caon, F. (2008). *Educazione linguistica e differenziazione*. Torino: UTET.

Caon, F. (ed.) (2016). *Educazione linguistica nella classe ad abilità differenziate*. Torino: Bonacci.

Caon, F.; Rutka, S. (2004). *La lingua in gioco.* Perugia: Guerra.
Cardona, M. (2001). *Il ruolo della memoria nell'apprendimento delle lingue*. Torino: UTET Libreria.
Cavaliere, S. (2013). "Motivazione e apprendimento dell'italiano LS. Una ricerca azione condotta all'Università di Banja Luka". *EL.LE*, 2(1), 221-42. https://edizionicafoscari.unive.it/media/pdf/article/elle/2013/1/art-10.14277-2280-6792-1076_LJq5KzV.pdf
Chen, I-J. (2005). "Using Games to Promote Communicative Skills in Language Learning". *TESL Journal*, 2, 125-32.
Cheng, H.-F.; Dörnyei, Z. (2007). "The Use of Motivational Strategies in Language Instruction: The Case of EFL Teaching in Taiwan". *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153-74. https://doi.org/10.2167/illt048.0.
Chen, J.F.; Warden, C.A.; Chang, H. (2005). "Motivators That Do Not Motivate: The Case of Chinese EFL Learners and the Influence of Culture on Motivation". *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(4), 609-33. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588524.
Cisotto, L. (2005). *Psicopedagogia e didattica*. Roma: Carocci.
Contreras Asturias, C.C. (2016). "La neurolingüística aplicada a la didáctica de lenguas extranjeras: los sistemas de memorias y sus implicaciones didácticas". *Entreculturas*, 7-8, 139-49.
Coonan, C.M. (2011). "Affect and Motivation in CLIL". Marsh, D.; Meyer, O. (eds), *Quality Interfaces: Examining Evidence and Exploring Solutions in CLIL*. Eichstätt: Eichstaett Academic Press, 53-66.
Coppola, D. (2000). *Glottodidattica in prospettiva pragmatica*. Pisa: ETS.
Crookes, G.; Schmidt, R.W. (1991). "Motivation: Reopening the Research Agenda". *Language Learning*, 41(4), 469-512. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00690.x.
Csikzentmihalyi, M. (1997). "Intrinsic Motivation and Effective Teaching: A Flow Analysis". Bess, J.L. (ed.), *Teaching Well and Liking It: Motivating Faculty to Teach Effectively*. Baltimore (MA): Johns Hopkins University Press, 72-89.
Csizér, K.; Dörnyei, Z. (2005). "The Internal Structure of Language Learning Motivation: Results of Structural Equation Modeling". *Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), 19-36. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2005.00263.x.
D'Andretta, P. (1999). *Il gioco nella didattica interculturale*. Bologna: EMI.
Dai, D.Y.; Moon, S.M.; Feldhusen, J.F. (1998). "Achievement Motivation and Gifted Students: A Social Cognitive Perspective". *Educational Psychologist*, 33(2-3), 45-63. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.1998.9653290.
De Beni, R; Moè, A. (2000). *Motivazione e apprendimento*. Bologna: il Mulino.
Deci, E.L. (1975). *Intrinsic Motivation*. New York: Plenum.
Deci, E.L.; Eghrari, H.; Patrick, B.C.; Leone, D.R. (1994). "Facilitating Internalization: The Self-Determination Theory Perspective". *Journal of Personality*, 62, 119-42. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1994.tb00797.x.
Deci, E.L.; Grolnick, W.S.; Ryan, R.M. (1997). "Internalization Within the Family: The Selfdetermination Perspective". Grusec J.E.; Kuczynski , L. (eds), *Parenting Andchildren's Internalization of Values: A Handbook of Contemporary Theory*. New York: Wiley, 135-61.
Deci, E.L.; Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.
Deci, E.L.; Ryan, R.M. (2000). "The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior". *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 68-78. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01.

De Moraes Sarmento Rego, I. (2015). "Mobile Language Learning: How Gamification Improves the Experience". Zhang, Y. (ed.), *Handbook of Mobile Teaching and Learning*. Berlin; Heidelberg: Springer, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-41981-2_76-1.
Dickinson, L. (1995). "Autonomy and Motivation: A Literature Review". *System*, 23, 165-74.
Dörnyei, Z. (1994). "Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom". *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273-84. https://doi.org/10.2307/330107.
Dörnyei, Z. (1998) "Motivation in Second and Foreign Language Learning". *Language Teaching*, 31(3), 117-35. https://doi.org/10.1017/s026144480001315x.
Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. Harlow: Longman.
Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The Psychology of the Language Learner. Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. New York; London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410613349.
Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
Dörnyei, Z. (2009a). *The Psychology of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Dörnyei, Z. (2009b). "The L2 Motivational Self System". Dörnyei, Z.; Ushioda, E. (eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 9-42.
Dörnyei, Z. (2010). "Researching Motivation: from Integrativeness to the Ideal L2 Self". Hunston, S.; Oakey, D. (eds), *Introducing Applied Linguistics: Concepts and Skills*. London: Routledge, 74-83.
Dörnyei, Z. (2014). "Motivation in Second Language Learning". Celce-Murcia, M.; Brinton, D.M.; Snow, M.A. (eds), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Boston: National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning, 518-31.
Dörnyei, Z.; Csizér, K. (2002). "Some Dynamics of Language Attitudes and Motivation: Results of a Longitudinal Nationwide Survey". *Applied Linguistics*, 23(4), 421-62. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.4.421.
Dörnyei, Z.; MacIntyre, P.; Henry, A. (2015). "Introduction: Applying Complex Dynamic Systems Principles to Empirical Research on L2 Motivation". Dörnyei, Z.; MacIntyre, P.; Henry, A.(eds), *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 1-7.
Dörnyei, Z.; Ottó, I. (1998). "Motivation in Action: a Process Model of L2 Motivation". *Working Papers. Applied Linguistics*, 4(4), 43-69.
Dörnyei, Z.; Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and Researching: Motivation*. Harlow: Longman Pearson.
Fabbro, F. (1996). *Il cervello bilingue*. Roma: Astrolabio.
Figueroa Flores, J.F. (2015). "Using Gamification to Enhance Second Language Learning". *Digital Education Review*, 27, 32-54. https://doi.org/10.1344/der.2015.27.32-54/.
Freddi, G. (1990). *Azione gioco lingua. Fondamenti di una glottodidattica per bambini*. Padova: Liviana.
Freddi, G. (1993). *Glottodidattica Principi e Tecniche*. Canada: Canadian Society for Italian Studies.
Freddi, G. (1994). *Glottodidattica: fondamenti, metodi e tecniche*. Torino: UTET Libreria.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam.
Harter, A.; Jackson, B.J. (1992). "Trait vs. non trait Conceptualizations of Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivational Orientation". *Motivation and Emotion*, 16, 209-30. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00991652.
Järvelä, S.; Niemivirta, M. (2001). "Motivation in Context: Challanges and Possibilities in Studying the Role of Motivation in New Pedagogical Cultures". Volet, S.; Järvelä, S. (eds), *Motivation in Learning Contexts: Theoretical Advances and Methodological Implications*. Amsterdam: Pergamon; Elsevier, 105-27.
Kamp, K. (2012). *The Gamification of Learning and Instruction*. San Francisco (CA): Pfeiffer.
Koestner, R.; Losier, G.F. (2002). "Distinguishing Three Ways of Being Highly Motivated: a Closer Look at Introjection, Identification, and Intrinsic Motivation". Deci, E.L.; Ryan, R.M. (eds), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*. Rochester: The University of Rochester Press, 101-22.
Lee, W.R. (1979). *Language Teaching Games and Contests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Lombardi, I. (2013). *Game (not) over. I videogiochi come strumento per la glottodidattica ludica.* Perugia: Guerra.
McCombs, B.; Pope, J.E. (1996). *Come motivare gli alunni difficili*. Trento: Erickson.
Meyer, B. (2010). "Learning English Through Serious Games – Reflections on Teacher and Learner Performance" *Transactions on Edutainment III*. Berlin: Springer, 82-92. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-11245-4_8.
Mezzadri, M. (2010). "Motivare a comprendere. Riflessioni sullo sviluppo dei meccanismi e delle abilità di comprensione". Caon, F. (a cura di), *Facilitare l'apprendimento dell'italiano L2 e delle lingue straniere*. Torino: UTET, 71-85.
Mitchell, T.R. (1982). "Motivation: New Directions for Theory, Research, and Practice". *Academy of management review*, 7(1), 80-8.
Mollica, A. (2010). *Ludolinguistica e glottodidattica*. Perugia: Guerra.
Mousavi, E.S. (2007). "Exploring 'Teacher Stress' in Non-Native and Native Teachers of EFL". *English Language Teacher Education and Development*, 10, 33-41. http://www.elted.net/uploads/7/3/1/6/7316005/v10mousavi.pdf.
Murphy, P.K.; Alexander, P.A. (2000). "A Motivated Exploration of Motivation Terminology". *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 3-53. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1019.
Novak, J. (1998). *Learning, Creating and Using Knowledge: Concept Map as Facilitative Tools in Schools and Corporations*. Mahwah (NJ): Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410601629.
Polito, M. (2000). *L'apprendimento cooperativo*. Trento: Erickson.
Reinders, H. (2012). *Digital Games in Language Learning and Teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.
Rixon, S. (1981). *How to Use Games in Language Teaching*. London: Macmillan.
Rogers, C.R. (1969). *Freedom to Learn.* Columbus (OH): Charles Merril.
Ryan, R.M.; Deci, E.L. (2007). "Active Human Nature: Self-Determination Theory and the Promotion and Maintenance of Sport, Exercise, and Health". Hagger, M.S; Chatzisarantis, N.L.D. (eds), *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Exercise and Sport*. Champaign (IL): Human Kinetics, 1-19.
Ryu, D. (2013). "Play to Learn, Learn to Play: Language Learning through Gaming Culture". *ReCALL*, 25(2), 286-301. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344013000050.

Sarrazin, P.; Pelletier, L.; Deci, E.; Ryan, R. (2011). “Nourrir une motivation autonome et des conséquences positives dans différents milieux de vie: les apports de la théorie de l’autodétermination”. Martin-Krumm, C.; Tarquinio, C.(éds), *Traité de psychologie positive*. Bruxelles: De Boeck, 273-312.
Schumann, J.H. (1994). “Where is Cognition? Emotion and Cognition in Second Language Acquisition”. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(2), 231-42. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100012894.
Schumann, J.H. (1997). *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language*. Malden: Oxford: Blackwell.
Shoaib, A.; Dörnyei, Z. (2005). “Affect in Lifelong Learning: Exploring L2 Motivation as a Dynamic Process”. Benson, P.; Nunan, D. (eds), *Learners’ Stories: Difference and Diversity in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 22-41.
Staccioli, G. (1998). *Il gioco e il giocare*. Roma: Carocci.
Stipek, D.J. (2002). *Motivation to Learn: Integrating Theory and Practice*. 4th ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
Talak-Kiryk, A. (2010). “Using Games In A Foreign Language Classroom”. *MA TESOL Collection*, Paper 484. http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1488&context=ipp_collection.
Thorne, S.L.; Black R.; Sykes, J.M. (2009). “Second Language Use Socialization and Learning in Internet Communities and Online Gaming”. *Model*, 974, 802-21.
Thorne, S.L.; Watters, E. (2013). “Review of Language at Play: Digital Games in Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning”. *Language Learning & Technology*, 17, 47-51.
Titone, R. (1973). “The Psycholinguistic Definition of the ‘Glossodynamic Model of Language Behavior and Language Learning’”. *R.I.L.A.*, 3.
Titone, R. (1986). *Psicolinguistica applicata e glottodidattica.* Roma: Bulzoni.
Titone, R. (1993). *Psicopedagogia e glottodidattica*. Padova: Liviana.
Ushioda, E. (2009). “A Person-in-Context Relational View of Emergent Motivation, Self and Identity”, Dörnyei, Z.; Ushioda, E. (eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 215-28.
Ushioda, E.; Dörnyei, Z. (2009). “Motivation, Language Identities and the L2 Self: A Theoretical Overview”. Dörnyei, Z.; Ushioda, E. (eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 1-8.
Vallerand, R.J. ; Pelletier, L.G.; Blais, M.R. ; Brière, N.M. ; Senécal, C. ; Vallières, E.F. (1993). “On the Assessment of Intrinsic, Extrinsic and a Motivation in Education: Evidence on the Concurrent and Construct Validity of the Academic Motivation Scale”. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 159-72. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0013164493053001018.
Visalberghi, A. (1980). “Gioco e intelligenza”. *Scuola e città*, 11.
Wright, A.; Betteridge, D.; Buckby, M. (2005). *Games for Language Learning*. 3rd ed. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Yip, F.W.M.; Kwan, A.C.M. (2006). “Online Vocabulary Games as a Tool for Teaching and Learning English Vocabulary”. *Educational Media International*, 43(3), 233-49. https://doi.org/10.1080/09523980600641445.

Recensioni

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Gilles Kuitche Talé
Les langues étrangères en Afrique

Vicky Mazoua Megni Tchio
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Revue de Kuitche Talé, G. (2017). *Les langues étrangères en Afrique. Eléments de sociodidactique*. Yaoundé: Clé, 151 pp.

Dans un contexte mondial marqué par la mondialisation, les échanges commerciaux et les contacts interculturels et interpersonnels, la connaissance des langues étrangères est devenue une nécessité pour tout État. Dans ce sillage, on remarque qu'il y a dans les universités africaines un regain d'intérêt pour les langues étrangères dont l'enseignement est désormais une réalité, répondant non seulement à la volonté des politiques de doter les générations actuelles et futures d'outils linguistiques leur permettant de s'ouvrir au monde, mais surtout de faciliter la participation de leurs pays au dialogue global. L'ouvrage que nous délivre Gilles Kuitche Talé et qui s'intitule *Les langues étrangères en Afrique. Eléments de sociodidactique* est non seulement opportun au vu des enjeux actuels en matière de dialogue global, mais surtout pertinent en raison des problématiques qu'il traite. Il s'agit en effet d'un ouvrage qui tente de concilier global et local, en se fondant sur de solides théories de glottodidactique, c'est-à-dire de la didactique des langues, explore les défaillances des systèmes éducatifs en vogue en Afrique, et puise à la source des réa-

Le premier projet de cette revue a été présenté oralement à l'Université de Maroua (Cameroun) le 13 février 2018 lors de la cérémonie d'inauguration du livre précité. Le texte est publié sur le site personnel de l'auteur: `https://bit.ly/3oZwFXn`.

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2019-01-23
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Mazoua Megni Tchio, V. (2020). Review of *Les langues étrangères en Afrique: Eléments de sociodidactique*, by Kuitche Talé, G. *EL.LE*, 9(3), 463-466.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/007

lités contextuelles et endogènes, les ressources susceptibles de servir de ferment à l'éclosion d'approches formatives adaptées, en cohérence avec les exigences socioculturelles et les défis qui interpellent la jeunesse africaine aujourd'hui.

Paru à Yaoundé aux éditions Clé en octobre 2017, l'ouvrage *Les langues étrangères en Afrique. Éléments de sociodidactique* s'articule en trois parties assorties chacune d'un approfondissement s'abreuvant aux sources historiques de la discipline et surfant avec dextérité dans les méandres et les subtilités conceptuelles des théories encadrant l'univers des langues en général et des langues étrangères en particulier. La préface de la professeur Pierangela Diadori, spécialiste de la didactique des langues modernes, suivie d'un avant-propos de l'auteur parfaitement maîtrisé, donnent à l'ensemble de l'ouvrage l'aspect d'un véritable chef-d'œuvre. Bien plus, la riche bibliographie constituée de références disponibles en ligne et à accès libre pour d'éventuels approfondissements, annonce un essai fortement documenté.

La première partie est le lieu d'un cadrage théorique où les précisions des notions clés de 'didactique', de 'pédagogie', de 'glottodidactique', de 'sociodidactique', de 'langue maternelle', de 'langue seconde' et de 'langue étrangère', lèvent les ambiguïtés conceptuelles récurrentes dans ce champ disciplinaire. A cet effet, il convoque par exemple des réformateurs comme Amos Komensky dit Comenius, des didacticiens tels que Martinet et Puren, les hypothèses de Krashen, les contributions de Hymes. En définissant la didactique comme discipline ayant pour objet l'optimisation des apprentissages en identifiant les solutions aux problèmes liés à cet apprentissage, l'auteur établit avec clarté la différence entre la didactique générale et la didactique spéciale et débouche sur une idée forte selon laquelle un cours de didactique des langues étrangères ne saurait être substitué par un cours de didactique générale comme c'est la coutume dans certaines écoles de formation de formateurs au Cameroun.

En ce qui concerne la glottodidactique, élément clé de l'ouvrage, l'auteur fait le constat selon lequel tous les documents de politique linguistique qui régissent les pratiques dans l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des langues étrangères depuis les années 1970 et dont la plupart des chercheurs africains s'inspirent dans leurs travaux, font explicitement référence au continent européen. Il relève pour le regretter que l'Afrique continue de rester en retrait dans la mouvance générale qui voudrait que l'on considère la glottodidactique comme une discipline à part entière. La plus grande illustration de cet état de fait est qu'au sein des institutions universitaires camerounaises par exemple, et particulièrement dans les Ecoles Normales Supérieures dont la vocation est la formation des futurs enseignants des collèges et lycées d'enseignement secondaire général, il n'existe pas de départements spécialisés en didactique des disci-

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 463-466

plines et, plus spécifiquement, en didactique des langues. L'auteur insiste, vu les défis actuels, sur l'importance d'un département de glottodidactique qui tienne en compte les spécificités linguistiques des pays africains (30).

La deuxième partie de l'ouvrage s'intéresse aux différentes méthodologies qui ont marqué l'histoire de la glottodidactique. L'auteur s'appuie notamment sur le contexte historique qui a marqué le développement de la méthodologie, les théories qui l'ont inspirée et les modèles opératoires qu'elle propose. En nous inspirant du « Babel » du didacticien vénitien Paolo Balboni, on constate que le fil rouge qui conduit sa description tient sur un certain nombre de questions :

1. Dans quel contexte historique naît la méthodologie ?
2. Le processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage est-il inductif ou déductif ?
3. La langue est-elle un ensemble de règles à respecter scrupuleusement ou bien essentiellement un instrument de communication qui vise l'efficacité ?
4. L'élève est-il une *tabula rasa* à remplir ou bien un protagoniste de son apprentissage ?
5. L'enseignant de langue, natif ou non, est-il le maître incontesté, détenteur de tous les savoirs ou alors un facilitateur de l'apprentissage ?

A la suite de cette présentation, l'auteur démontre qu'il n'existe pas de « méthode magique qui fonctionne à merveille dans toutes les situations didactiques » (66) et d'ailleurs, écrit le philosophe Morin, même si « la morale non complexe obéit à un code binaire bien/mal, juste/injuste [,] l'éthique complexe conçoit que le bien puisse contenir le mal, le mal un bien, le juste de l'injuste, l'injuste du juste ».[1] Ce qui compte c'est bien cette éthique-là, c'est l'éthique du concepteur des programmes et des manuels d'apprentissage des langues étrangères, qui, au-delà de la qualité, doit viser un apprentissage qui conduise l'apprenant à une « autoréalisation », une « autopromotion » ; c'est aussi l'éthique de l'enseignant de langue étrangère qui, dans la logique de la glottodidactique moderne, « n'a pas pour mission d'obtenir à tout prix des élèves qu'ils apprennent, mais bien de créer des conditions qui favorisent l'apprentissage » (104).

La troisième articulation, intitulée « Enseigner les langues étrangères en Afrique », explore tout d'abord le paysage multilingue africain comme un facteur déterminant à toute politique et démarche d'enseignement/apprentissage dans ce milieu. L'un des postulats fondateurs de la mise en œuvre des formations en langue étrangère en Afrique est la nécessité pour les chercheurs, les experts et les déci-

1 Morin, E. (2004). *La méthode*. Tome 6, *Éthique*. Paris: Seuil, 60.

deurs de construire et de promouvoir « des réflexions endogènes en cohérence avec les réalités et les exigences locales » (45) ; car pour l'auteur, le contexte jouant un rôle déterminant dans les processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage des langues en général, il devient urgent d'adapter des modèles didactiques calibrés selon les nécessités et les besoins de l'Afrique. Dans sa posture de sociodidacticien, l'auteur n'oublie pas de relever l'influence que peut avoir la culture éducative traditionnelle africaine, caractérisée par la distance psychologique et spatiale qui existe de façon presque naturelle entre l'enseignant adulte et le jeune élève. Au vu de ces éléments contextuels, une compétence communicative en langue étrangère est-elle un objectif raisonnable ? Les perspectives de l'auteur sont plutôt positives : une mobilisation des ressources infrastructurelles et technologiques, une révision des variables telles les quotas horaires réservés à l'enseignement des langues étrangères, la quantité, la qualité et la fréquence de l'input langagier auquel est exposé l'apprenant, le nombre d'apprenants par classe, semblent être à inscrire sur la liste des priorités pour une dynamisation toujours plus féconde de ce champ disciplinaire.

L'auteur de cet ouvrage s'insurge énergiquement contre les greffes conceptuelles et méthodologiques dont fait preuve la plupart des contextes éducatifs africains. Il parle en l'occurrence du placage pure et simple des APC (Approches Par les Compétences) comme méthodologie d'enseignement dans nos écoles, sans considération aucune du contexte socio-économique africain. Il incite à ce sujet, comme nous l'avons déjà mentionné plus haut, les experts africains de la glottodidactique et pas seulement, à développer et à proposer des « démarches méthodologiques endogènes », qui s'arriment aux réalités et aux exigences locales. La promotion de ces modèles endogènes passe nécessairement par la revalorisation de l'édition locale. Le chercheur camerounais, voire africain, ne pourrait se faire connaître en publiant dans les éditions lointaines et inaccessibles non seulement du point de vue physique, c'est-à-dire de la disponibilité sur le marché local, mais aussi du point de vue financier, en rapport avec le ratio coût du livre/pouvoir d'achat local.

L'ouvrage de Gilles Kuitche Talé se laisse lire aisément non sans inspirer ce que Roland Barthes appelle « plaisir du texte ». Son style simple et clair, ainsi que sa langue suave, constituent entre autres les multiples atouts qui rendent l'ouvrage hautement intelligible. On retiendra de cet ouvrage qu'il ouvre la voie à une réflexion sur les nouvelles théories d'enseignement des langues étrangères adaptées au contexte éducatif africain et plus spécifiquement camerounais. L'ouvrage constitue à n'en point douter un document de référence aussi bien pour les universitaires, formateurs des formateurs et autres chercheurs de haut vol que pour les étudiants de tous les niveaux.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Paolo Nitti
Didattica dell'italiano L2

Giovanni Favata
Università per Stranieri di Siena, Italia

Recensione di Nitti, P. (2019). *Didattica dell'italiano L2. Dall'alfabetizzazione allo sviluppo della competenza testuale*. Brescia: Editrice La Scuola, 123 pp.

Pubblicato nella collana *I Quaderni* della Casa Editrice La Scuola di Brescia, il volume di Paolo Nitti offre un nuovo contributo alla glottodidattica italiana relativamente a uno dei temi che negli ultimi quarant'anni è stato sul tavolo delle discussioni nell'ambito dell'insegnamento linguistico: la didattica dell'italiano per stranieri.

Il volume, in formato digitale, si rivolge a insegnanti in servizio in scuole di ogni ordine e grado, anche se altri destinatari privilegiati potrebbero essere quanti aspirino alla carriera scolastica e vogliono formarsi per sostenere le prove dei concorsi a cattedra per il reclutamento dei docenti banditi dal MIUR.

Dopo un'introduzione in cui viene descritta, con dati alla mano, la situazione scolastica italiana in merito alla presenza di alunni stranieri e alla formazione dei docenti al riguardo, da un capitolo all'altro, il lettore è condotto lungo i temi più importanti che animano il dibattito scientifico in merito alla didattica dell'italiano come lingua seconda.

Nel capitolo 1 troviamo una definizione della glottodidattica in quanto disciplina dal carattere multidisciplinare e interdisciplinare. Nel definire la glottodidattica, inoltre, l'autore fornisce una chiara spiegazione dei termini chiave di essa, quali 'metodo', 'teoria', 'approccio', 'interlingua', 'interferenza', ecc. Successivamente, Nitti offre un *excursus* storico della disciplina, in cui passa in rassegna, e

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2019-04-19
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Favata, G. (2020). Review of *Didattica dell'italiano L2. Dall'alfabetizzazione allo sviluppo della competenza testuale*, by Nitti, P. *EL.LE*, 9(3), 467-476.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/008

con dovizia di particolari, i vari metodi e gli approcci che, dall'antichità ad oggi, si sono susseguiti per l'insegnamento delle lingue classiche e delle lingue vive. Nel capitolo, inoltre, è presente un'attenta descrizione del contesto italiano a partire dal periodo a cavallo tra gli anni Ottanta e Novanta, in cui la nostra Nazione ha conosciuto il fenomeno dell'immigrazione e, di conseguenza, la Scuola ha dovuto fare i conti con una realtà in continua evoluzione, grazie alla presenza di alunni non italofoni. Nel delineare tale pagina della glottodidattica italiana, Nitti sottolinea altresì l'inesperienza e l'inadeguatezza di quanti hanno iniziato ad insegnare la lingua italiana agli immigrati e ai figli di questi ultimi. In quei periodi, infatti, tale compito era affidato ai docenti della scuola elementare (oggi scuola primaria), i quali, erroneamente, trasferivano le loro competenze acquisite nell'insegnamento della lingua italiana come lingua materna nel campo dell'insegnamento della lingua seconda. Non mancavano casi in cui tale compito veniva affidato anche ai docenti di lingue straniere, che mettevano in atto strategie didattiche utilizzate solitamente in aula per insegnare le proprie discipline linguistiche. È tra la fine degli anni Novanta e i primi anni del Duemila che si ha una svolta decisiva in tale campo: il MIUR prende consapevolezza dei cambiamenti in corso nella scuola italiana e chiede agli Atenei di istituire delle cattedre di didattica dell'italiano L2. Le basi per questa nuova disciplina sono state ritrovate nei preziosi studi della linguistica applicata e della linguistica acquisizionale, grazie ai quali è stato messo in evidenza quanto complessi siano i processi di insegnamento e di acquisizione di una lingua seconda. Sebbene venga elogiata la ricerca condotta in Italia, anche confrontandola con quella di altri Paesi europei, nel capitolo non mancano certamente i riferimenti ai punti deboli che purtroppo la contraddistinguono: Nitti, infatti, denuncia da un lato la situazione di arretratezza glottodidattica in cui versano alcune zone della nostra Nazione e, dall'altro, la mancata attivazione in ambito scolastico di cattedre della classe di concorso, la A023, recentemente istituita per l'insegnamento dell'italiano L2. Vengono, inoltre, delineati i metodi didattici principalmente applicati in aula (e.g. 'metodo deduttivo' e 'metodo induttivo'), senza tuttavia tralasciare aspetti decisamente più complessi, quali i risultati della ricerca nel campo della neurolinguistica, con riferimento agli studi di Krashen, Porcelli, Balboni, Danesi, Bettoni, ecc., sottolineando, allo stesso tempo, i contrasti e le contraddizioni presenti nella ricerca.

Nel capitolo 2 l'asse di interesse è spostato verso gli studi di linguistica acquisizionale, facendo riferimento ai lavori monumentali di autori di fama nazionale e internazionale. In particolar modo, vengono delineati i principi fondamentali dei suddetti studi, spiegando altresì nei dettagli i termini specifici della disciplina, quali 'interlingua', 'interferenza', 'fossilizzazione'. Facendo leva sugli studi di Marina Chini, Nitti spiega le varie fasi dell'apprendimento dell'italiano come lingua seconda, tenendo in considerazione quelli che sono stati i modelli di riferimento per l'acquisizione delle lingue seconde (innatisti, cognitivi, ambientali, integrati). Di fondamentale importanza, quindi, sono le scelte effettuate dal docente di italiano L2 affinché la sua prassi didattica sia condotta in armonia con i suddetti studi acquisizionali.

Nel capitolo 3 l'autore offre un quadro generale, ma al contempo efficace e completo, del contributo dato dalla sociolinguistica alla ricerca e delle sue ricadute sulla glottodidattica: entrambe le discipline fanno leva su vere produzioni linguistiche, vale a dire sui reali usi della lingua nei diversi contesti reali e non astratti. Un paragrafo molto interessante di questo capitolo è dedicato alla variazione linguistica, molto spesso avvertita dai parlanti non nativi solo relativamente al diverso accento presente nei parlanti nativi. Tuttavia, la spiegazione del fenomeno diventa più complessa se si osservano le varie dimensioni (diafasica, diatopica, diastratica, diamesica). Per chiarire meglio tali questioni molto complesse, Nitti affronta gli argomenti offrendo esempi concreti di variazione linguistica tratti sia dalla lingua italiana sia dalla lingua spagnola. Il capitolo si conclude con riflessioni pratiche sui punti di incontro tra la sociolinguistica e la didattica delle lingue. Introducendo il delicato argomento della standardizzazione della lingua, Nitti affronta la questione della scelta della lingua da insegnare, facendo altresì riferimento ai tratti substandard che, soprattutto in contesti di insegnamento di lingue seconde, risultano di fondamentale importanza.

Il capitolo 4 analizza il significato che sovente viene attribuito alla grammatica, ponendo l'attenzione sulle differenti modalità con cui si può considerare una nozione di tale complessità. Prendendo in prestito le definizioni che illustri linguisti italiani hanno fornito relativamente al termine 'grammatica' (e.g. Andreose, Ciliberti, De Mauro), Nitti sottolinea il ruolo fondamentale che alla grammatica stessa viene attribuito in ambito glottodidattico relativamente alla competenza comunicativa. In particolar modo, l'autore si sofferma sui contributi che la ricerca accademica ha fornito sulla dimensione grammaticale, concentrandosi, in maniera attenta e precisa, sui due modelli di riferimento che attualmente risultano più innovativi, declinandoli anche in chiave glottodidattica: 'la prospettiva valenziale', 'i modelli tematici' e 'la grammatica delle costruzioni'. Il capitolo, inoltre, è corredato da una descrizione dei diversi tipi di grammatiche (normative, descrittive e pedagogiche), sottolineando il ruolo primario che esse rivestono per la ricerca scientifica o per l'istruzione scolastica. Un discorso a parte viene fatto, invece, per il ruolo che l'insegnamento della grammatica riveste nell'ambito dell'insegnamento dell'italiano ad apprendenti non nativi, vale a dire un argomento sempre presente nel dibattito scientifico. La grammatica ad apprendenti stranieri si insegna, dunque, in modo deduttivo o induttivo? A tale quesito Nitti

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 467-476

risponde fornendo chiare indicazioni sui modi e sui tempi in cui entrambi i metodi andrebbero applicati, affrontando inoltre la difficile questione relativa al forte distacco esistente tra i modelli applicati in ambito accademico e scientifico nello studio della lingua e i metodi, ormai definibili arcaici, ancora oggi applicati precipuamente in ambiente scolastico. Sempre per il contesto scolastico, Nitti denuncia i continui riferimenti alla 'norma' da parte dei docenti, i quali, concentrandosi su una varietà standard della lingua, tralasciano le altre 'varietà substandard', ignorando del tutto gli studi della sociolinguistica. Spiegazioni di tratti non standard della lingua, accompagnati da un'attenta riflessione sugli usi concreti dei parlanti, aiuterebbero invece gli alunni a sviluppare uno spirito critico sulla loro condizione di locutori di quella stessa lingua. Il capitolo si conclude con una trattazione più dettagliata di un modello precedentemente citato: la grammatica valenziale. Nello spiegare tale modello, oltre a delinearne un breve *excursus* storico, Nitti fornisce agli insegnanti degli esempi concreti, anche ludici, da affrontare in aula con i propri alunni: cercando gli argomenti che saturano il verbo, gli apprendenti impareranno a costruire dei testi corretti sul piano della coerenza e della coesione.

Con il capitolo 5 entriamo nel vivo della didattica dell'italiano L2. L'autore, infatti, introduce l'argomento relativo all'organizzazione di un corso di lingua, chiamando in causa tutti i fattori che lo determinano. Troviamo, quindi, una descrizione dei differenti tipi di corsi di lingua italiana, tenendo in considerazione il fattore tempo. Interessanti, inoltre, sono i consigli pratici e le riflessioni su una didattica rivolta ad apprendenti con diversa attitudine allo studio e, quindi, nei confronti del materiale di studio. Considerando lo statuto privilegiato di una seconda lingua, ossia il fatto di essere parlata anche al di fuori degli spazi in cui ha luogo l'istruzione, i docenti possono fare in modo di creare delle situazioni in cui gli allievi possono ricreare delle situazioni comunicative *ad hoc*. Una tecnica consigliata da Nitti, a tal proposito, è il *cooperative learning*, da sfruttare per organizzare, ad esempio, delle visite guidate. Seguono numerosi accorgimenti sui parametri da prendere in esame nel momento in cui si organizza un corso di italiano per stranieri: la formazione pregressa dei discenti, la loro motivazione, la distanza tipologica tra la L1 e la lingua target, l'età, il numero dei partecipanti alle lezioni. Questi dati risultano di grande importanza per il docente ancor prima di iniziare le lezioni, pertanto, come suggerisce Nitti, un questionario sociolinguistico somministrato ai corsisti può permettere al docente di recuperare le informazioni per meglio selezionare i contenuti del suo corso e fare in modo che il suo ciclo di lezioni assuma valore scientifico.

All'organizzazione della lezione di lingua è dedicato il capitolo 6. Dopo un'attenta analisi, anche etimologica, del termine 'lezione', nel capitolo troviamo la ricostruzione di un quadro ricco di dettagli sul-

e-ISSN 2280-6792

la lezione e della sua importanza nell'antichità, soprattutto in ambito religioso. Nitti delinea i ruoli svolti dall'insegnante, dal testo e dal pubblico all'interno della *lectio* anche in ambito accademico e scolastico, facendo prima riferimento al 'deduttivismo', corrente che maggiormente ha incarnato tale approccio, e successivamente alla glottodidattica e alla linguistica acquisizionale, discipline che per prime lo hanno invece relegato al passato. Il docente, infatti, non è più il detentore del sapere – nel nostro caso linguistico – ma, attraverso il processo tecnologico, tutti possono avere accesso alla lingua in modo diverso, mettendo anche in discussione il modello fornito dal docente. Sebbene molti docenti, in Italia, continuino a basare la propria didattica appoggiandosi su modelli arcaici, tale atteggiamento rischia di risultare insignificante sia dal punto di vista glottodidattico sia dal punto di vista glottomatetico nel momento in cui la classe è disomogenea e le aspettative e i bisogni linguistici degli apprendenti sono, di conseguenza, molto differenti gli uni dagli altri. Nitti allora mette a fuoco le diverse tipologie di incontri formativi che hanno sostituito la lezione: 'l'unità didattica', 'l'unità di lavoro', 'l'unità di apprendimento', 'il modulo', 'i *learning object*'. Visti gli studi neurolinguistici e psicolinguistici di Danesi e di Marini, che hanno ribadito il valore scientifico del modello dell'unità didattica di Freddi, Nitti dedica un intero paragrafo a tale modello, delineandone tutte le fasi che lo costituiscono, aggiungendo, tuttavia, altre fasi successivamente introdotte al modello da Balboni. Nell'approfondire tutti gli aspetti relativi ad ogni fase dell'unità didattica, Nitti sottolinea la necessità di attività che mirino allo sviluppo della competenza comunicativa, declinata, a sua volta, in diverse sottocompetenze. Nel precisare la natura di queste sottocompetenze, Nitti mette in luce quelle che sono le criticità del sistema scolastico italiano, in cui l'insegnamento della lingua viene spesso incardinato all'interno di studi di letteratura o di realtà intrinsecamente scolastiche che poco hanno a che fare con il mondo dell'extra-scuola, in cui sono necessarie forti competenze comunicative per il soddisfacimento di bisogni linguistici concreti. In tal senso, pertanto, Nitti consiglia l'uso di testi autentici, soprattutto dialogici, in cui sono presenti situazioni comunicative più vicine ai contesti reali.

Il capitolo 7 è dedicato all'uso delle tecnologie nella glottodidattica. Nel capitolo Nitti sottolinea un punto fondamentale: i dati statistici affermano che un numero considerevole di alunni possiede un computer, mentre nella scuola secondaria di primo grado la didattica delle lingue non è quasi mai orientata verso l'utilizzo di tale strumento. L'uso delle glottotecnologie, tuttavia, richiede una rivisitazione totale del concetto tradizionale della lezione. In tal senso, Nitti chiama in causa il ruolo che il costruttivismo ha avuto nel mettere l'alunno al centro della didattica: grazie all'apertura che si ha attraverso l'uso delle tecnologie, diventa sempre più possibile tenere in consi-

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 467-476

derazione gli interessi degli apprendenti durante l'azione didattica. Anche se non sono da considerare come scelte da fare *a priori*, nel capitolo è presente un elenco esaustivo di consigli per i docenti affinché possano recuperare materiali che difficilmente si trovano nei testi scolastici, per uno sviluppo delle abilità ricettive della lingua orale.

Nel capitolo 8 l'attenzione è rivolta verso forme di apprendimento supportate da dispositivi fissi e mobili: *E-learning* e *M-learning*. Pur mettendo in risalto la complessità dell'argomento, Nitti focalizza il ruolo attivo che gli apprendenti hanno in questa modalità di insegnamento delle lingue straniere. Con le attività online, infatti, gli apprendenti diventano co-costruttori del sapere, lavorando insieme sui testi multimediali attraverso blog, wiki e podcast. Interessante, inoltre, è la proposta di creazione di ambienti costruttivisti in cui i discenti possono lavorare in aula, ma con un forte legame con il mondo esterno: un esempio potrebbe essere il laboratorio di traduzione condotto con l'ausilio di app presenti sul proprio dispositivo portatile. Tuttavia, anche se il ruolo degli apprendenti è decisamente più attivo in queste situazioni rispetto ad altre più tradizionali, la figura del docente rimane sempre fondamentale per dare indicazioni di fronte a strumenti tecnologici così potenti.

Il ruolo del vocabolario nella classe di italiano L2 è il focus del capitolo 9, in cui l'autore mette in risalto l'importanza della scelta delle parole effettuata da docenti e da apprendenti. Tra le numerose informazioni che si possono recuperare attraverso la consultazione di un vocabolario troviamo la frequenza delle parole. Facendo riferimento agli studi di De Mauro in merito, l'autore spiega con dovizia di particolari in che modo le parole possono essere suddivise, dando altresì preziose indicazioni didattiche per uno sviluppo di competenze metalinguistiche negli studenti. Un paragrafo interessante, inoltre, è dedicato ai dizionari e ai traduttori online, non sempre amati dagli insegnanti visto l'uso errato che gli studenti ne fanno: a questo punto risulta, quindi, necessaria una mediazione sia da parte dei docenti sia da parte degli apprendenti.

Il capitolo 10 è interamente dedicato all'acquisizione della letto-scrittura. Nel capitolo vengono date indicazioni puntuali sulla didattica rivolta sia ad apprendenti analfabeti sia ad apprendenti altralfabeti, facendo riferimento a metodi e a strategie da applicare in aula con bambini, con adolescenti e con adulti. Quest'ultimo aspetto è di grande importanza, dato che molto spesso l'alfabetizzazione è associata ad un'attività didattica rivolta a bambini frequentanti la scuola primaria. Tale aspetto viene molte volte sottolineato da Nitti, che mette in evidenza la necessità di differenziare le pratiche didattiche per evitare di frustrare gli apprendenti più adulti con attività infantili.

Nel capitolo 11 l'attenzione si focalizza sullo sviluppo della competenza testuale, che l'autore definisce come «uno dei traguardi più importanti per la glottodidattica» (76). Relativamente a tale assunto, tuttavia, Nitti chiama in causa la scuola italiana, dove, molto spesso, il concetto di testualità viene circoscritto al solo testo letterario, quando, in realtà, al di fuori del contesto scolastico ogni individuo si trova a doversi confrontare con innumerevoli testi che esulano dalla letteratura. A tal proposito, quindi, Nitti propone un discorso che tenga in conto lo sviluppo di abilità di comprensione e produzione del testo, che consideri pur sempre l'enciclopedia del parlante.

Alla punteggiatura e alla sua importanza nella didattica dell'italiano L2 è dedicato il capitolo 12. In esso l'autore presenta il ruolo svolto storicamente dai segni di interpunzione nell'antichità sino ad arrivare al loro uso in alcuni scritti odierni: si pensi, a titolo di esempio, al punto di domanda accostato al punto esclamativo nelle chat e negli scritti dei *social network*. Vengono inoltre richiamate le due funzioni della punteggiatura: da un lato quella che spesso viene ritenuta valida dai comuni parlanti, ossia la 'funzione prosodica-intonativa', e dall'altro 'la funzione logico-sintattica', che tiene in considerazione l'organizzazione del testo. Nel capitolo, inoltre, l'autore prende in considerazione anche le libertà che spesso alcuni scrittori si concedono nell'uso non propriamente canonico della punteggiatura, come avviene ad esempio negli articoli giornalistici in cui gli autori dei testi vogliono sottolineare maggiore espressività. Non mancano suggerimenti di natura didattica. Grazie alla disamina dei dati di una ricerca condotta dall'autore stesso, nel capitolo troviamo dei consigli rivolti agli insegnanti, affinché affrontino in classe l'uso della punteggiatura durante le lezioni sulla sintassi e sulla testualità.

Il capitolo 13 offre un quadro aggiornato e completo sulla ricerca relativa allo sviluppo delle abilità linguistiche di base. Nitti sottolinea *in primis* le difficoltà degli apprendenti in fase di produzione di un testo scritto, fatto che spesso conduce i docenti a concentrare le attività di scrittura nei livelli più alti. Tuttavia, l'autore elenca una serie di attività da proporre anche ai discenti di livello iniziale, purché si tenga sempre conto del principio di gradualità dell'insegnamento della lingua. Dopo la produzione scritta, Nitti affronta l'argomento relativo alla comprensione della lingua scritta, lo sviluppo della quale viene presentato dall'autore come l'attivazione di importanti processi cognitivi, facendo esplicito riferimento alla grammatica dell'anticipazione. In merito alla produzione orale, invece, l'autore mette in luce il completo ribaltamento al quale si è assistito in ambito glottodidattico: se agli albori della didattica delle lingue la produzione orale aveva come punto di riferimento il testo scritto, con il quale si trasmettevano esclusivamente contenuti, oggigiorno la produzione orale è stata messa al centro del dibattito glottodidattico perché vede l'interazione dei parlanti come un evento che ha luogo in contesti reali e non soltanto in ambito scolastico per la trasmissione di contenuti. Per l'abilità di comprensione orale, Nitti sottolinea la grande importanza affinché abbia luogo l'interazione tra i parlanti. Altrimenti detto, a poco vale saper parlare con altri locutori se non si è in grado di capire le loro produzioni. Rileggendo questo aspetto in chiave glottodidattica, quindi, l'autore sostiene che, se non vi è comprensione dell'input, non potrà aver luogo alcun apprendimento. Per sviluppare tale concetto l'autore spiega la teoria della 'comprensibilità dell'input', basandosi sugli studi di autorevoli glottodidatti italiani e stranieri.

Il capitolo 14 offre un quadro aggiornato della didattica delle lingue attraverso il testo letterario. A tal merito Nitti richiama *in primis* gli studi di Balboni, che vede il testo letterario come «intertesti culturali». Grazie alla dimensione testuale, alla quale ormai molti insegnanti di lingue si sono uniformati, accogliendo le riflessioni degli accademici, in ambiente scolastico la didattica delle lingue avviene anche attraverso il testo letterario, favorendo l'incontro tra l'apprendimento linguistico e il piacere di leggere. Il testo letterario ovviamente potrebbe creare problemi di noia e di frustrazione negli alunni se viene sfruttato solamente a livello superficiale, ma se esso viene selezionato tenendo in considerazione le competenze dei discenti, il filtro affettivo si abbassa, favorendo l'apprendimento linguistico-culturale. Dopo aver elencato i vari approcci utilizzati in aula per fare letteratura, Nitti sottolinea che lo scopo del docente di lingua è lo sviluppo delle abilità linguistiche e che la pratica didattica deve concentrarsi su attività da svolgere nelle diverse fasi della didattica, proposte dall'autore stesso, che mirano alla crescita linguistica e interculturale dei propri apprendenti.

Se nei capitoli precedenti sono state affrontate tematiche relative allo sviluppo delle abilità linguistiche di base, nel capitolo 15 l'autore espone delle riflessioni importanti sullo sviluppo delle abilità integrate. In particolar modo, Nitti insiste sulla complessità di carattere cognitivo che concerne queste ultime abilità: un esempio potrebbe essere la 'transcodificazione', vale a dire la trasformazione di un contenuto in base a differenti codici comunicativi. Per meglio delineare la complessità dello sviluppo delle abilità integrate, Nitti presenta l'esempio della recensione, in termini di riassunto corredato da un giudizio. Anche in questo caso vengono presentate numerose attività da svolgere in aula anche, e soprattutto, per uno sviluppo di competenze testuali.

Il capitolo 16 prende in esame un interessante argomento, sebbene ancor poco esplorato: il ruolo del fumetto nella didattica dell'italiano L2. In queste pagine l'autore presenta il lettore di fumetti come colui che costruisce e negozia il senso del testo. In particolare, vengono altresì date indicazioni in merito all'uso del fumetto in classi in cui sono presenti alunni con disturbi specifici dell'apprendimento. Il fumetto, inoltre, ha la caratteristica di essere un testo scritto che tuttavia presenta i tratti dell'oralità all'interno di vignette che aiutano nelle fasi di comprensione del testo grazie all'inferenza. Per una migliore comprensione, Nitti consiglia una serie di attività utili affinché gli apprendenti possano cominciare ad avere dimestichezza con il testo a fumetti.

Con il capitolo 17 Nitti arricchisce il volume, grazie alla messa a fuoco di nozioni fondamentali relative alle microlingue. Dopo una definizione di 'microlingua', ci si sposta sul piano glottodidattico. Interessante, a tal proposito, è il punto di vista dell'autore, che vede nella didattica delle microlingue non solo il modo per sviluppare le abilità di comprensione del testo, ma anche un'opportunità per lo sviluppo delle abilità produttive. In questo capitolo, inoltre, Nitti avanza una proposta in merito: introdurre lo studio delle microlingue già a partire dalla scuola secondaria di primo grado, per far sì che gli apprendenti possano essere avvezzi a questo tipo di studio anche nel momento in cui si troveranno a studiare in contesti CLIL nella scuola secondaria di secondo grado.

Il capitolo 18 presenta delle riflessioni interessanti sulla traduzione, presentata come un'abilità testuale avanzata. Nitti introduce il discorso facendo menzione dei processi traduttivi che spesso accompagnano le produzioni dei parlanti stranieri che si esprimono nella lingua seconda traducendo dalla loro lingua madre. A tal proposito, l'autore non manca di sottolineare i problemi che i suddetti apprendenti incontrano in tali situazioni: si pensi, a mo' d'esempio, al caso in cui vengono a mancare le parole in una lingua per esprimere un concetto in un'altra lingua, soprattutto quando, oltre alla distanza linguistica, ci si trova di fronte ad una distanza culturale. Sempre relativamente alla distanza culturale, Nitti dedica un paragrafo ai problemi con cui deve confrontarsi il traduttore nel momento in cui a uno stesso termine, in diverse lingue, corrispondono elementi culturali totalmente differenti. Problemi maggiori nascono negli studenti che devono svolgere dei compiti di traduzione nella classe di lingua. In questo caso, secondo l'autore, è necessario far sì che negli studenti si affinino sensibilità linguistiche che vadano al di là della semplice traduzione della parola attraverso l'uso del dizionario. Le difficoltà della traduzione, infatti, non emergono soltanto nella scelta lessicale, ma anche nella struttura di frasi intere quando l'ordine degli elementi non coincide tra una lingua e l'altra o quando ci si trova a dover tradurre delle locuzioni idiomatiche senza tuttavia alterare il significato nel passaggio da una lingua all'altra.

Concludono il volume osservazioni e commenti su un tema molto interessante, ma allo stesso tempo poco indagato in ambito glottodidattico: gli usi sessisti della lingua. Il capitolo 19, infatti, inizia con una spiegazione dei numerosi studi sul sessismo nelle lingue, che, tuttavia, trovano poco riscontro in contesti didattici. Allo stesso tempo, Nitti mette in evidenza come idee sessiste siano veicolate all'intero dei manuali di lingua attraverso immagini o frasi stereotipate in cui gli uomini hanno dei ruoli sociali elevati e le donne sono relegate a svolgere i lavori domestici. A tal merito, Nitti sostiene che materiali che ripropongono ancora oggi una società così fortemente sessista non sono da utilizzare in una classe di lingua, in cui possono sorgere problematiche di vario genere. L'argomento viene trattato con dovizia di particolari, ma soprattutto con dettagliati suggerimenti sulle pratiche da trattare in aula, tenendo in considerazione i diversi livelli linguistici dei discenti.

Come si evince dal contenuto dei singoli capitoli, con il suo volume, Nitti contribuisce a fare il punto della situazione su numerosi temi della glottodidattica, partendo dall'alfabetizzazione e giungendo ai temi più complessi, quali la testualità e i linguaggi specialistici. Tutti gli argomenti sono stati ben inquadrati nei loro assetti teorici, ma sempre arricchiti di risultati delle nuove ricerche condotte nel campo della didattica delle lingue, sia dall'autore stesso sia da altri studiosi di fama nazionale e internazionale.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 467-476 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Marcel Danesi, Pierangela Diadori, Stefania Semplici
Tecniche didattiche per la seconda lingua

Benedetta Garofolin
Università degli Studi di Padova, Italia

Recensione di Danesi, M.; Diadori, P.; Semplici, S. (2018). *Tecniche didattiche per la seconda lingua. Strategie e strumenti, anche in contesti CLIL*. Roma: Carocci, 334 pp.

Come suggerisce il titolo, l'ultima opera di Danesi, Diadori e Semplici fornisce al lettore uno sguardo d'insieme sulle principali tecniche glottodidattiche per la seconda lingua. Marcel Danesi è professore ordinario di semiotica all'Università di Toronto; Pierangela Diadori è professoressa ordinaria di linguistica italiana all'Università per Stranieri di Siena, dove dirige il Centro DITALS (Docenti di italiano a stranieri. Certificazione di competenza in didattica dell'italiano a stranieri); Stefania Semplici è dottore di ricerca in linguistica e didattica dell'italiano a stranieri e coordinatrice del centro DITALS.

La panoramica, offerta dal volume, procede dalle tecniche suddivise in base ai metodi per l'insegnamento della L2, alle tecniche per lo sviluppo delle competenze generali e delle competenze linguistico-comunicative in L2, passando per le tecniche per la realizzazione delle attività linguistico-comunicative, fino alle tecniche in contesti CLIL, tecniche ludiche e tecniche e modelli di gestione della classe. Il volume è corredato di numerosi esempi tratti da manuali di italiano come lingua straniera e si conclude con due appendici: la prima è un quadro sinottico con le 50 tecniche didattiche ritenute più signi-

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2019-05-06
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Garofolin, B. (2020). Review of *Tecniche didattiche per la seconda lingua. Strategie e strumenti, anche in contesti CLIL*, by Danesi, M.; Diadori, P.; Semplici, S. *EL.LE*, 9(3), 477-482.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/009

ficative per l'insegnamento della seconda lingua e la seconda sintetizza tecniche, modelli operativi e operazioni didattiche.

Il primo capitolo propone una sintesi degli approcci e dei metodi per l'insegnamento della L2. Gli autori mettono in luce che fino agli anni Novanta la visione didattica operava all'interno di un sistema intellettuale 'chiuso' in quanto si favoriva una particolare filosofia dell'apprendimento (strutturalismo, comportamentismo, generativismo, ecc.) con la conseguente elaborazione di formule, metodi e tecniche didattiche. Si è poi passati ad un sistema psicodidattico operativo 'aperto' in quanto è «sensibile a fattori di apprendimento linguistico documentati da diverse discipline, cioè a fattori biologici, cognitivi, sociali, culturali, affettivi, motivazionali» (17).

Da qui si è sviluppato il *proficiency movement*. Dopo aver illustrato i principali metodi e approcci che si sono susseguiti nel corso degli anni, gli autori affermano che le prassi didattiche del XX secolo possono essere raggruppate in quattro categorie: i metodi deduttivi, i metodi induttivi, gli approcci comunicativi e gli approcci affettivi. Inizialmente si parlava di metodi ma dagli anni Sessanta il concetto di metodo è stato messo in discussione e si è prediletto quello di approccio. Ma, attorno agli anni Ottanta, anche il concetto di approccio è risultato limitato, poiché si è passati ad una visione interdisciplinare che è alla base del *proficiency movement* «che cercò di delineare quali fossero le abilità necessarie per portare uno studente a essere veramente *proficient*» (41). Il capitolo si chiude con una tabella di sintesi dei metodi e degli approcci a partire dal metodo grammaticale-traduttivo per arrivare ai vari metodi affettivi.

Nel secondo capitolo sono illustrate le tecniche didattiche nei vari metodi per l'insegnamento della L2. L'*excursus* è preceduto dal contributo di Danesi, il quale divide le tecniche in strutturali, visive, ludiche e umoristiche; si passa poi al contributo di Balboni, il quale suddivide le tecniche in base alle abilità linguistiche e propone dei parametri per la valutazione delle stesse; infine, il contributo di Diadori, la quale analizza le tecniche dal punto di vista dell'apprendente, del docente e in relazione agli obiettivi. Per ciascun metodo analizzato nel precedente capitolo viene messa in luce la concezione dell'oggetto di insegnamento – cioè della lingua –, il ruolo del docente, l'obiettivo e le relative tecniche glottodidattiche necessarie per il suo raggiungimento. Tutte le tecniche sono presenti anche nelle tabelle nelle appendici del volume.

Il terzo capitolo affronta le tecniche per lo sviluppo delle competenze generali e delle competenze linguistico-comunicative in L2. Ciò è strettamente legato al CEFR (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*), un documento che ha molto influenzato la didattica delle lingue moderne in Europa, del quale viene presentato un quadro sinottico degli aspetti che concorrono al raggiungimento della padronanza linguistica in L2. In questo capitolo si affrontano le tecniche collegate con le *general competences* e le *communicative language competences*, mentre nel quarto capitolo quelle connesse con le *communicative language activities* e le *communicative language strategies*. Entrambi i capitoli sono corredati di schemi molto chiari per ciascun aspetto. Per quanto riguarda il primo aspetto, le tecniche vengono suddivise a seconda che aiutino a sviluppare: le conoscenze dichiarative, cioè il sapere (lingua, cultura, conoscenze di tipo umanistico, tecnico e scientifico); le capacità procedurali, cioè il saper fare (aspetti cognitivi, prosodia, gestualità, scelte sociolinguisticamente adeguate e pragmaticamente efficaci); lo sviluppo del sé, cioè il saper essere, che «riguarda la percezione di sé e il modo in cui questa può essere modificata nel contatto con un'altra lingua/cultura» (74); la competenza di imparare a imparare, cioè il saper apprendere, la cosiddetta competenza glottomatetica. Il CEFR elenca anche gli aspetti che concorrono allo sviluppo delle competenze linguistico-comunicative, che includono: le competenze linguistiche legate all'imparare a conoscere e usare il lessico e i suoi significati, la grammatica, la fonologia, la corretta pronuncia e grafia; le competenze sociolinguistiche, «che si riferiscono all'uso della L2 determinato da variabili temporali, spaziali, sociali, contestuali e dall'uso di canali comunicativi diversi (scritto, parlato, trasmesso)» (79); le competenze pragmatiche, che consentono allo studente di essere consapevole degli effetti che le sue scelte linguistiche comportano in una certa situazione.

Come anticipato, il quarto capitolo si focalizza sulle «Tecniche per la realizzazione delle attività linguistico-comunicative in L2 e lo sviluppo delle relative strategie». In questo capitolo, e nel precedente, vengono illustrate anche alcune novità portate dal CEFR e riguardanti: i descrittori di competenza su sei livelli; la distinzione tra competenze generali e linguistico-comunicative; l'inserimento della mediazione, intesa come traduzione nella didattica L2; l'utilizzo del termine *activities* e non *skills* o *abilities*; il concetto di strategia, cioè le scelte compiute dal soggetto per raggiungere il proprio scopo comunicativo. Si passa poi alle tecniche per le attività di ricezione orale e scritta in lingua seconda con un'attenzione anche per la comprensione audiovisiva, alle tecniche per la produzione orale e scritta, alle tecniche per l'interazione orale e scritta e l'interazione online, alle tecniche per la mediazione orale e scritta (a livello testuale, concettuale, comunicativo).

Il quinto capitolo è dedicato alle tecniche in contesti CLIL. Questa metodologia si è sviluppata quasi contemporaneamente alla prima versione del CEFR e nella prima parte del capitolo vengono esposti i principi della stessa: la teoria dell'*input* (comprensibile, modificato e interattivo), la distinzione fra acquisizione e apprendimento, la *noticing hypothesis*, la teoria dell'interlingua, la teoria dell'*iceberg* e i concetti di BICS e CALP, le competenze parziali in L2 e la teoria delle 4C. Le tecniche correlate con questa metodologia vengono divise tra: strategie di *scaffolding* che si manifestano come supporto per rendere più comprensibile l'*input*, per facilitare l'*output*, come momento per focalizzarsi sulla lingua o sul contenuto; strategie di mediazione concettuale riguardanti sia la capacità dello studente di cooperare in gruppo sia di sviluppare le abilità di studio. Il capitolo presenta anche molte esemplificazioni di attività tratte da libri di testo.

Nel sesto capitolo gli autori si concentrano sulle tecniche ludiche che si rifanno al «principio enigmistico dell'apprendimento» (155) secondo il quale l'enigma è intrinseco alla cognizione umana e, in quanto tale, fa parte del sistema di apprendimento. Mollica ha applicato questo principio alla glottodidattica in ciò che lui ha definito «ludolinguistica applicata». Molteplici sono i vantaggi derivanti dall'utilizzo di tecniche ludiche, che vengono suddivise in formali, semantiche, logiche e comunicative. Le tecniche ludico-formali si focalizzano sulle forme strutturali della lingua target; le tecniche ludico-semantiche si concentrano sul significato; le tecniche ludico-logiche presentano delle situazioni enigmistiche che devono essere risolte con la logica; le tecniche ludico-comunicative pongono lo studente in situazioni interattive.

Il settimo capitolo propone «Tecniche e modelli di gestione della classe». L'obiettivo di questo capitolo è di «affrancare le tecniche da un legame troppo stretto con i diversi approcci e metodi osservandole in una prospettiva di tipo sincronico» (179). Nell'introduzione al capitolo si legge che la recente glottodidattica legittima tutte le tecniche, anche quelle che erano state escluse negli anni passati, a patto che vengano scelte e utilizzate in relazione all'obiettivo da conseguire e al momento del percorso didattico durante il quale la tecnica viene applicata. Oltre a questi due parametri, bisogna fare riferimento anche ai modelli di gestione delle attività in classe, che vengono divisi, da Diadori, in: modello a stella; modello a reticolo; modello a isolotti; modello a platea; modello a ferro di cavallo; modello laboratorio informatico e/o multimediale; modello tavolata (senza capotavola). Ogni modello prevede una diversa interazione tra docente e studente e a questo vengono collegate diverse tecniche glottodidattiche. Per i primi modelli vengono presentate anche alcune varianti. Per quanto riguarda il modello a stella, sono presentati il modello a stella tradizionale, quello a stella monodirezionale e quello a stella bidirezionale; per il modello a reticolo si fa riferimento al modello a reticolo con docente nel cerchio insieme agli apprendenti e quello con docente al centro del cerchio; per il modello a isolotti vengono spiegati il modello a isolotti composti da gruppi e quello a isolotti composti da coppie.

Nell'ultimo capitolo, le tecniche didattiche vengono classificate in base alle fasi del lavoro in aula, in una prospettiva lavorativa. Più volte gli autori chiariscono che l'elenco presentato non vuole essere

e-ISSN 2280-6792

esaustivo. Innanzitutto, vengono descritti i diversi modelli operativi con la distinzione tra unità didattica, unità di apprendimento, unità didattica/unità di lavoro centrata sul testo e unità di lavoro.

> La scelta sulla base della quale analizzare le tecniche didattiche è qui ricaduta sul modello suggerito da Diadori, in quanto quello in grado di ricomprendere tutte le altre proposte. (201)

Per ogni fase vengono presentate le tecniche in relazione alle operazioni che in esse è necessario eseguire. Inoltre, una tecnica può essere utilizzata per più di un'operazione, poiché può aiutare a conseguire più obiettivi. Per ciascuna tecnica sono riportati degli esempi concreti tratti da manuali di lingua. Per la fase di introduzione le operazioni per le quali sono spiegate le tecniche sono l'elicitazione e la presentazione; per la fase di svolgimento le operazioni sono la guida alla comprensione, l'analisi e l'induzione alla regola, la fissazione, il riutilizzo guidato, il riutilizzo 'produttivo' e la riflessione; per la fase di conclusione le tecniche fanno riferimento alla verifica, all'autovalutazione e al riutilizzo extra-aula. Infine, la fase di ampliamento prevede l'approfondimento e ampliamento socioculturale e culturale, il confronto interculturale e interlinguistico, il rinforzo e recupero e il rilassamento. Il volume termina con le due appendici precedentemente illustrate.

L'opera si presenta aggiornata e descrive in modo approfondito vari aspetti legati alle tecniche didattiche con l'ausilio di molteplici e chiari schemi riassuntivi. Le tecniche vengono presentate da più punti di vista per poi essere accompagnate anche da esempi nell'ultimo capitolo. Questi sono un aspetto positivo del volume, poiché ogni tecnica è spiegata sia da un punto di vista teorico sia da un punto di vista operativo, consentendo allo studioso o al docente di avere un chiaro esempio di quanto è stato presentato. L'opera risulta aggiornata poiché si fa, innanzitutto, riferimento al *Companion Volume with New Descriptors* del Council of Europe del 2018 e, inoltre, sono proposte anche delle tecniche che prevedono l'uso delle risorse online. In conclusione, un altro aspetto positivo è l'attenzione alla gestione della classe e all'organizzazione spaziale dell'aula, che è un aspetto che talvolta viene tralasciato ma è di fondamentale importanza e influisce notevolmente sull'acquisizione della lingua stessa.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Patrizia Zanelli
L'arabo colloquiale egiziano

Andrea Facchin
Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italia

Recensione di Zanelli, P. (2016). *L'arabo colloquiale egiziano. Corso pratico-teorico. Livello intermedio*. Venezia: Libreria Editrice Cafoscarina, 372 pp.

Il manuale di Patrizia Zanelli *L'arabo colloquiale egiziano. Corso pratico-teorico. Livello intermedio* è un'opera lungamente attesa dagli italofoni che desiderano studiare l'arabo egiziano, poiché ora hanno la possibilità di imparare la varietà parlata non dovendo più far ricorso ad una 'lingua ponte' come l'inglese o il francese. Se si escludono infatti l'ormai datato manuale *L'arabo parlato in Egitto* di Carlo Alfonso Nallino (1900) o i più recenti di Ahmed Fuad e Dionisi Pera (1982), difficile da reperire, e di Soravia (2001), mancante di ascolti audio, prima dell'opera qui recensita chi si avvicinava allo studio dell'arabo egiziano in Italia doveva far ricorso ai noti manuali per apprendenti anglofoni o talvolta francofoni (Jomier, Khouzam [1983] 2002). Si pensi ad esempio, nel recente periodo, al celebre *Kullu tamām!* di Woidich e Heinen-Nasr (2004), ai vari corsi realizzati da Abbas al-Tonsi, come *Kalaam Gamiil* (al-Tonsi, al-Sawi, Massoud 2010, 2013) o *Umm al-Dunya* (al-Tonsi, Salem, Korica Sullivan 2013), alla serie in vari livelli *Kallimni 'Arabi* di Louis (2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2009a, 2009b) o al recente *Kilma Hilwa* di Ossama (2015) per lo studio dell'arabo colloquiale egiziano attraverso la musica.

In tal senso il manuale di Zanelli risponde alla necessità sempre attuale per gli arabisti di apprendere una varietà di arabo colloquiale che – come afferma Antonella Ghersetti nella prefazione del manuale – è «tassello ineludibile di una formazione linguistica comple-

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2019-05-14
Published 2020-11-07

Citation Facchin, A. (2020). Review of *L'arabo colloquiale egiziano. Corso pratico-teorico. Livello intermedio*, by Zanelli, P. *EL.LE*, 9(3), 483-488.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/010

ta» (15). Attraverso lo studio dell'arabo parlato l'arabista compensa infatti la mancanza del registro orale a cui lo standard non gli permette di supplire, per lo meno in maniera realistica. È opportuno precisare che la lingua araba è caratterizzata da un panorama diglossico complesso, dominato dalla compresenza di due varietà funzionalmente differenziate: da un lato l'arabo standard moderno, lingua dei mass media, delle situazioni formali e diretta discendente dei registri classici, dall'altro le varietà colloquiali nazionali o locali, mezzo di comunicazione principale del registro informale e della quotidianità. In quest'ottica l'opera di Zanelli mostra un approccio orientato alla comunicazione, sia per la natura dei dialoghi, i relativi temi, o le tabelle lessicali, sia per alcuni espedienti metodologici, come ad esempio la presentazione della riflessione grammaticale direttamente in arabo egiziano, il quale passa da lingua obiettivo a lingua veicolare, latrice di contenuti utili per lo studio della lingua stessa. L'autrice propone inoltre alcuni testi autentici tratti da post di Facebook di note personalità egiziane di oggi; usa soluzioni metodologiche come la traduzione in italiano a fronte, che – se sfruttata in maniera sapiente – favorisce l'autonomia nello studio e la confidenza nelle competenze linguistiche dell'apprendente.

Come suggerisce il titolo, il volume è progettato per un livello intermedio nello studio dell'arabo colloquiale egiziano ed è quindi destinato a chi ha già conoscenze basilari di arabo standard, vale a dire l'aver acquisito in precedenza

> nozioni morfosintattiche elementari che nel caso specifico implica[no] le abilità di leggere testi vocalizzati e non, e di intrattenere conversazioni semplici su argomenti familiari e abituali. (17)

La varietà di arabo egiziano scelta da Zanelli per il suo manuale è quella cairota, poiché «gode di uno status di [...] lingua di prestigio in Egitto, nonché di una vasta diffusione a livello panarabo» (17) grazie al grande successo delle opere cinematografiche prodotte nel paese, ma anche il teatro, la narrativa, la musica, i programmi televisivi e di recente i blog e i social network.

L'opera è introdotta da una prefazione a cura di Antonella Ghersetti, alla quale segue l'introduzione dell'autrice, i ringraziamenti, la bibliografia di riferimento, una lista di simboli, abbreviazioni e la trascrizione scientifica. Subito dopo, il manuale si apre con la prima di 16 unità che insieme raggiungono un totale di circa 270 pagine e che sono seguite dalle appendici: le soluzioni degli esercizi, il glossario arabo-italiano, poi quello italiano-arabo e infine l'indice degli argomenti. Le unità, chiamate 'lezioni' nel manuale, presentano una struttura ripetitiva ad eccezione della prima, della seconda e dell'ultima. Queste infatti hanno la funzione di introdurre e chiudere l'opera e per questo motivo sono concepite diversamente. La prima unità delinea sinteticamente le caratteristiche principali del dialetto cairota mettendole a confronto con l'arabo standard, mentre la seconda presenta un 'rapido sguardo sul Cairo', esemplificando le peculiarità fonetiche del dialetto e descrivendo i tratti distintivi della megalopoli egiziana anche attraverso un corredo di immagini molto apprezzabile poiché dà informazioni visive utili e quindi input culturali solitamente tralasciati nella maggior parte dei manuali e relegati all'esperienza di viaggio personale dell'apprendente.

Ogni unità è calibrata – come afferma Zanelli – su due ore di lezione e si apre con la tabella del lessico, la quale non si limita ad enumerare i vocaboli in una lista, ma è arricchita anche da frasi esemplificative, per esempio *ḍalma* (buio, oscurità), *id-dinyā ḍalma* (fa buio). Le tabelle, 42 in tutto il manuale, risultano utili per la fase di pre-attivazione del lessico durante la quale si richiamano i vocaboli conosciuti, per poi concentrarsi su quelli sconosciuti e le parole chiave per la comprensione. Alla tabella del lessico seguono dunque i dialoghi, in tutto 40, sempre relativi a situazioni reali, dedicati a temi di vario tipo riguardanti la vita quotidiana e quella intellettuale, ma anche aspetti della cultura e della storia egiziane. Il manuale inizialmente narra dell'incontro tra un docente e degli studenti, poi passa a dialoghi tra personaggi egiziani, i quali all'altezza dell'undicesima unità incontrano Lisa, una studentessa italiana diretta in Egitto. La storia li porta a sbrigare formalità all'aeroporto, cambiare il denaro, spostarsi in taxi o a piedi, ma anche a fare acquisti in un negozio di alimentari e cercare un appartamento. Oltre ai dialoghi il manuale presenta una serie di testi sulla società e sulla cultura egiziane, soprattutto – ma non solo – nell'ultima unità. È questo un vero e proprio punto di forza dell'opera, frutto dell'esperienza dell'autrice, acquisita in 15 anni trascorsi al Cairo. In questo modo Zanelli introduce una serie di temi culturali dell'Egitto di ieri e di oggi utilissimi per l'arabista sempre in cerca di approfondimenti culturali al fine di interpretare al meglio le società arabe e i fenomeni che le riguardano. Tra i focus proposti si cita ad esempio la festa popolare di *Šamm in-Nisīm*, l'attivismo politico di Hodà Šaʿrāwī, la vita e le opere di Nagīb Maḥfūẓ, ma anche la recente rivoluzione egiziana e la nuova arte di strada.

Ai dialoghi seguono le spiegazioni grammaticali, talvolta con parallelismi tra arabo standard e il colloquiale egiziano. Sin dall'inizio la riflessione sulla grammatica parte da argomenti mediamente complessi poiché, come già detto sopra, si presuppone che l'apprendente possieda una conoscenza basilare dell'arabo standard e le sue regole grammaticali. Queste ultime sono successivamente verificate attraverso esercizi di vario genere presenti alla fine di ogni unità. Si tratta di traduzioni dall'italiano all'arabo egiziano, domande aperte con brevi produzioni scritte, esercizi di vocalizzazione, completamento e manipolazione come la trasformazione degli elementi della frase dal maschile al femminile, ecc.

EL.LE 9(3), 2020, 483-488 | e-ISSN 2280-6792

Tra le appendici del manuale si trova il glossario dall'arabo all'italiano e viceversa, il quale è degno di nota poiché raggruppa in tutto circa 1.400 lemmi funzionali alle situazioni comunicative in cui l'apprendente si potrebbe trovare immerso in Egitto e utili per l'apprendimento dell'arabo colloquiale egiziano a un livello intermedio. Oltre al glossario vi sono anche le soluzioni degli esercizi, componente ormai indispensabile nei manuali di lingue straniere poiché favorisce l'autonomia dello studente nel processo di apprendimento linguistico, aspetto per altro evidenziato da Zanelli nell'introduzione del suo manuale tra le finalità dell'opera stessa. Infine lo studente è incentivato anche grazie alla presenza del supporto audio scaricabile dal sito della casa editrice e contenente i dialoghi, il lessico, la riflessione grammaticale e i vari approfondimenti letti da madrelingua. Quest'ultimo aspetto fa dell'opera di Patrizia Zanelli il primo manuale per l'apprendimento dell'arabo colloquiale egiziano da italofoni comprensivo di numerose tracce audio, le quali lo rendono al passo con l'orientamento della teoria e della pratica glottodidattica contemporanea.

Bibliografia

Studi

Durand, O. (1995). *Introduzione ai dialetti arabi*. Milano: Centro Studi Camito-Semitici.

Woidich, M. (2006). «Cairo Arabic». Versteegh, K. et al. (eds), *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics*, vol. 1. Leiden: Brill, 321-3. `https://doi.org/10.1163/1570-6699_eall_eall_com_0048`.

Manuali

Ahmed Fuad, S.; Dionisi Pera, B. (1982). *Dispense per un corso di dialetto egiziano* (*I livello*). Il Cairo: Istituto Italiano di Cultura nella R.A.E.

Jomier, J.; Khouzam, J. [1983] (2002). *Manuel d'arabe égyptien*. Paris: Klincksieck.

Louis, S. (2007). *Kallimni ʻArabi. An Intermediate Course in Spoken Egyptian Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Louis, S. (2008a). *Kallimni ʻArabi Bishweesh. A Beginners' Course in Spoken Egyptian Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Louis, S. (2008b). *Kallimni ʻArabi Aktar. An Upper Intermediate Course in Spoken Egyptian Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Louis, S. (2009a). *Kallimni ʻArabi Mazboot. An Early Advanced Course in Spoken Egyptian Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Louis, S. (2009b). *Kallimni ʻArabi fi Kull Haaga. A Higher Advanced Course in Spoken Egyptian Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Nallino, C.A. (1900). *L'arabo parlato in Egitto: grammatica, dialoghi e raccolta di vocaboli*. Milano: Hoepli.

Ossama, B.E.-d. (2015). *Kilma Hilwa. Egyptian Colloquial Arabic through Songs. Intermediate Level*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Soravia, G. (2001). *Manuale di arabo parlato basato sul dialetto egiziano*. Bologna: CLUEB.

al-Tonsi, A.; Salem, H.; Korica Sullivan, N. (2013). *Umm al-Dunya. Advanced Egyptian Colloquial Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

al-Tonsi, A.; al-Sawi, L. (1990). *An Intensive Course in Egyptian Colloquial Arabic*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

al-Tonsi, A.; al-Sawi, L.; Massoud, S. (2010). *Kalaam Gamiil. An Intensive Course in Egyptian Colloquial Arabic*, vol. 1. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

al-Tonsi, A.; al-Sawi, L.; Massoud, S. (2013). *Kalaam Gamiil. An Intensive Course in Egyptian Colloquial Arabic*, vol. 2. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

Woidich, M.; Heinen-Nasr, R. (2004). *Kullu tamām! An Introduction to Egyptian Colloquial Arabic*. Cairo; New York: The American University in Cairo Press.

e-ISSN 2280-6792

EL.LE
Vol. 9 – Num. 3 – Novembre 2020

Daria Coppola *Educazione linguistica e insegnamento*

Catia Mugnani
Università per Stranieri di Perugia, Italia

Recensione di Coppola, D. (2019). *Educazione linguistica e insegnamento*. Pisa: Edizioni ETS, 214 pp.

Il volume è un'attualissima collettanea che fa il punto sulla situazione italiana rispetto all'argomento indicato dal titolo. La prima parte, che raccoglie cinque dei nove contributi totali, traccia un percorso volto alla ricerca di una risposta alla domanda primaria: «Quale educazione linguistica?». A tale scopo, la riflessione viene condotta attraverso una panoramica storica sull'idea di educazione linguistica che dai primi del Novecento si è sviluppata fino ai giorni nostri, toccando di volta in volta gli aspetti salienti del pensiero scientifico, gli esiti delle politiche linguistiche, sia italiane che europee, e gli effetti della pervasiva diffusione delle nuove tecnologie.

La seconda parte è specificatamente incentrata sulle metodologie e pratiche didattiche. I contributi si soffermano ampiamente sulle istanze che l'odierno concetto di 'educazione linguistica' richiede: l'uso delle tecnologie, l'insegnamento della grammatica, le tecniche per lo sviluppo della competenza lessicale e testuale, la progettazione curricolare per le classi con alunni con BES.

In particolare, grazie al primo contributo (Coppola), il lettore ha la possibilità di seguire il *fil rouge* del dibattito sviluppatosi in seguito alla lettera aperta firmata da seicento professori universitari nella quale si lamentava lo stato di declino dell'italiano a scuola e, più in generale, dell'istruzione scolastica a partire dal primo ciclo. L'au-

Edizioni Ca'Foscari

Submitted 2020-02-20
Published 2020-11-07

Open access

Citation Mugnani, C. (2020). Review of *Educazione linguistica e insegnamento*, by Coppola, D. *EL.LE*, 9(3), 489-492.

DOI 10.30687/ELLE/2280-6792/2020/03/011

trice riporta puntualmente le tappe essenziali della disputa accademica e dei riferimenti normativi che si sono susseguiti dal febbraio 2017, anno di pubblicazione della lettera, ad oggi.

Il secondo capitolo (Gallina) ha una funzione prettamente storica: l'autrice fornisce un quadro sintetico dell'evoluzione dell'idea di educazione linguistica. Idea che si è sviluppata nel tempo attraverso i contributi di personaggi di indubbio valore – per citarne alcuni: Lombardo Radice, Don Milani, Tullio De Mauro, così come gruppi di studiosi particolarmente attivi in associazioni e società quali GISCEL e DILLE – e che ha portato a ritenere l'educazione linguistica democratica il riferimento essenziale di un progetto di crescita linguistica e culturale per l'Italia. L'autrice non tralascia di presentare stimolanti riflessioni riguardanti le sfide del prossimo futuro.

Attraverso la rilettura di *Lettera a una professoressa*, nel successivo capitolo (Bonaccorsi), l'autrice presenta una riflessione sulla modernità delle strategie utilizzate da Don Milani nella scuola di Barbiana, sugli aspetti metodologici, sulle strategie e sull'efficacia delle stesse nella didassi, non limitandosi agli aspetti teorici, ma proponendo interessanti suggerimenti nell'ambito dell'insegnamento/apprendimento delle lingue straniere.

Nel quarto capitolo (Verdigi) l'autore presenta un'indagine conoscitiva sull'effettiva influenza nel contesto scolastico italiano delle politiche linguistiche europee che, attraverso documenti quali ad esempio il QCER, hanno contraddistinto l'educazione linguistica dagli anni Settanta ad oggi.

Il tema riguardante il rapporto tra tecnologie e didattica viene affrontato nel quinto contributo (Tavosanis), dove l'autore si interroga e cerca risposte alla domanda «La tecnologia modifica necessariamente la lingua?». Al momento attuale le risposte non costituiscono certo un assioma, ma sono interessanti le riflessioni che ne scaturiscono.

Con il sesto contributo (Coppola), il primo della seconda parte, si entra nel vivo delle metodologie e delle tecniche didattiche. L'autrice si sofferma diffusamente sulle caratteristiche dell'approccio dialogico e descrive accuratamente tecniche di lettura, narrazione, comunicazione strategica e uso cooperativo della tecnologia da poter utilizzare nella pratica didattica. A supporto delle proposte, vengono riportati i dati di un progetto sperimentale nel quale sono state impiegate le tecniche di matrice dialogica presentate.

Il focus del settimo capitolo (Peppoloni) è rappresentato dalla grammatica, vista in relazione alla consapevolezza metalinguistica e all'educazione linguistica stessa.

Sono numerose le domande che investono l'insegnante a proposito della grammatica, a partire da quella essenziale: «Come insegnarla?». L'autrice non si limita alla disseminazione di dubbi e perplessità, ma suggerisce possibili percorsi e modelli alternativi di insegnamento grammaticale sostenuti da robuste teorie scientifiche.

Nell'ottavo capitolo (Gallina), viene affrontato il tema dell'insegnamento/apprendimento del lessico. Oltre a far riflettere sui meccanismi di sviluppo della competenza lessicale, il contributo fornisce spunti utili per una didassi mirata.

Il nono contributo (Moretti) della seconda parte affronta il tema dell'eterogeneità dei livelli linguistici in classe e delle abilità linguistiche nelle classi con alunni con bisogni educativi speciali (BES). Tema assai delicato, che pone non pochi problemi di progettazione curricolare che l'autrice aiuta a dipanare con una proposta glottodidattica finalizzata al potenziamento della competenza testuale in grado sia di soddisfare i bisogni specifici dei discenti sia di valorizzare le diverse risorse linguistiche presenti in classe.

EL.LE e-ISSN 2280-6792
9(3), 2020, 489-492

Rivista quadrimestrale
Centro di Ricerca sulla Didattica delle Lingue, Dipartimento di Studi Linguistici e Culturali Comparati, Università Ca' Foscari Venezia

Università
Ca'Foscari
Venezia