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English-medium instruction: a study of lecturers' strategies for communication repair

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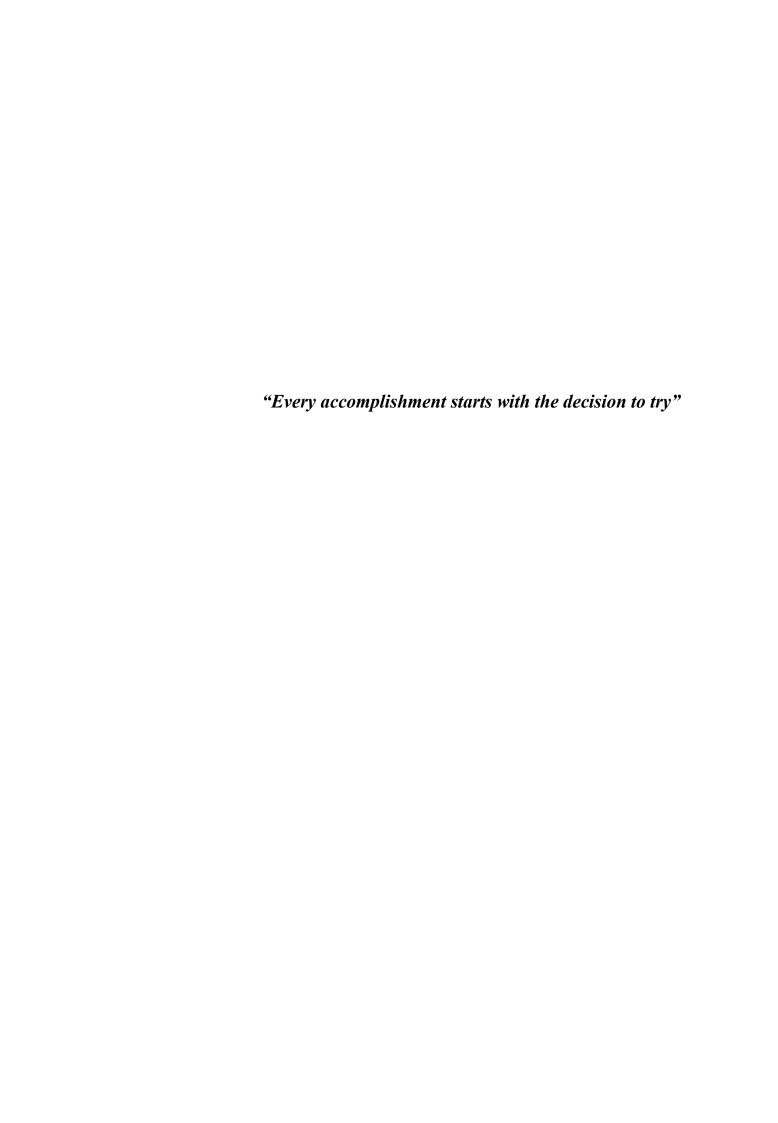
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"Every accomplishment starts with the decision to try"

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Introduction

The aim of the present dissertation is to investigate the use of communication repair strategies in EMI university lectures at the University of Padova. It is important to explain that there are two main focuses: English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) and lecturing strategies adopted to solve or prevent communication breakdowns that might occur during a lecture. Firstly, EMI is defined by Macaro (2018: 1) as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English". Secondly, I have investigated how ten lecturers at the University of Padova make use of lecturing strategies and how frequently.

This dissertation is divided into four chapters. The first chapter, which is the most general part, aims to explain what EMI is. For this reason, it provides the definition of EMI given by Macaro (2018) and Dearden (2014). As EMI is consider a new field of research, scholars use different terminologies to label it. The most frequently used labels are: English medium instruction, English medium of instruction, English as a medium of instruction, English-medium education and English as the lingua franca medium of instruction. Briggs, Dearden and Macaro (2018) also use another label, i.e. EMEMUS (English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings) but this label does not seem to be as specific as the others. Scholars believe that even though there are many different labels to call this phenomenon, the term EMI is the most used. In this first chapter I will also explain the difference between EMI and CLIL, i.e. EMI is usually employed at the tertiary level, while CLIL takes place at the primary and secondary level. Dearden (2014) also explains that while EMI makes clear that the language of education is English, CLIL does not mention which language is to be studied. Dearden (2014) ultimately states that EMI does not necessarily have an objective, while CLIL has a specific objective that is also specified in its title: *content* and *language.* Then, I will talk about the origins of EMI that can be found in Europe. In Europe, the major move towards EMI was motivated by the Bologna Process, also known as the Bologna Declaration

(1999) that contributed to facilitating the mobility of students across countries (Kirkpatrick, 2014). The Bologna Process was signed by 29 countries and it is a four-page document that stressed "the need to collectively work towards an internationally competitive European Higher Education Area that would promote mobility and employability of its citizens, and would aim at greater compatibility and comparability of the higher education systems" (Huisman et al., 2012: 1). After describing what EMI is and its origins, I will proceed to describe its positive and negative characteristics. Some positive aspects are, for example, linguistic development, global connectedness, preparing students for experiences abroad (e.g. facilitating the pursuit of postgraduate degrees abroad), improving students' proficiency and work/career prospects. On the contrary, EMI brings several challenges that concerns the quality of learning and instruction. For example, a lack of English proficiency might reduce students' ability to understand the content of the lecture. Finally, I will describe the situation of EMI in Europe with a particular focus on Italy where I explain how EMI increased over the years. I will conclude the first chapter with a section that is related to EMI in non-European countries (i.e. Southeast Asia, East Asia and the Middle East) where for example, in China, Japan and South Korea, governments started to adopt several EMI courses to compete in the global market and to make their universities more internationalised.

The use of English as the major language in university lectures has had an impact on what might be considered a traditional lecture. For this reason, in the second chapter, I will start by describing what a lecture is. Following Björkman (2010), I will distinguish between monologic and dialogic classes. A monologic class requires "listeners to focus on long stretches of talk with few opportunities, if any, to negotiate meaning", while a dialogic class "allows itself to the negotiation of meaning" (Björkman, 2010: 79). Other scholars make a further distinction. Morell (2004) classifies lectures as conventional non-interactive and interactive. Morell (2007) found that interactive lectures might be more useful as they improve students' comprehension, linguistic and communicative competence. The distinction between conventional non-interactive and interactive style can be found in the number of students' interventions and in the degree of formality (Morell, 2004). For instance, Morell (2007) labels interactive lectures when more than

half of the total number of the students intervene in a university lecture of fifty minutes. Then, I will provide a distinction based on the type of text, i.e. the distinction between lectures and conversations. They have different structures as in conversations students can ask for clarifications and repetitions and in many cases they are informal. On the other hand, lectures are usually formal and elaborated (e.g. complex syntax, subordinate clauses) and students usually listen to an uninterrupted speech and they might have less opportunities to ask for clarifications and repetitions. After this distinction, I will describe the different communicative functions of lectures. According to Deroey and Taverniers (2011) there are six main functions that can be summarised as follows: (1) informing, i.e. describing, recounting, reporting, interpreting and demonstrating; (2) elaborating, i.e. exemplifying and reformulating; (3) evaluating, i.e. indicating attitude and indicating degree of commitment; (4) organising discourse, i.e. orientating, structuring and relating; (5) interacting, i.e. regulating interaction, involving the audience and establishing a relationship with the audience; and (6) managing the class, i.e. managing organisational matters, managing delivery and managing the audience.

Then, since listening comprehension is important during a lecture, I will provide its definition. In particular, it is defined by Darti and Asmawati (2017: 211) as "the ability to identify and understand what others are saying" and its aim is to comprehend what people say, i.e. "to understand the native conversation at normal rate in a spontaneous condition". Listening comprehension involves bottom-up and top-down processes. According to Vandergrift (2004: 4) listeners use bottom-up processes when they "construct meaning by accretion" and top-down processes when they "use context and prior knowledge (topic, genre, culture […]) to build a conceptual framework for comprehension. However, during a lecture students might encounter some challenges. For this reason, in the last section of the second chapter, I will explain what the challenges in listening comprehension are. Problems can be related to the listener (e.g. students might lose concentration when they hear a new word), to the physical setting (e.g. students who sit next to a window might also be disturbed by the noise that come from the outside), to the speaker's accent (e.g. students find difficulties in understanding the different varieties of accents, for example, they might confuse British English with American English). Other problems can be related to the lack of vocabulary (e.g. unfamiliar words including

idioms and jargon, the use of reduced forms and difficult grammatical structures interfere with the students' listening comprehension), to the length of the spoken text (e.g. long oral passages increase the difficulty because it might not be easy to store everything in mind), to the speed of the speaker (e.g. if a speaker speaks too fast, students might face problems to understand L2 words and consequently weaken the students' listening comprehension) and to the speaker's pronunciation (e.g. the speaker can use reductions such as in the phrase *I'm gonna go* instead of *I am going to go*).

Although there are many problems concerning listening comprehension, there are some strategies that can be adopted by lecturers to make comprehension more manageable. The third chapter investigates these strategies. First of all, the definition of strategy is given. Listening skills can be developed by adopting general learning strategies that are defined as "methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information" (Brown, 1994: 104). Listening strategies can be defined as "specific methods and behaviours [that] the listeners adopt in order to listen effectively and comprehensively". (Bao, 2017: 188). In order to help students make sense of the listening text, Solak (2016) lists several types of listening sub-skills. These are: listening for gist, i.e. listening to get a general idea; listening for specific information, i.e. listening to get a specific piece of information, listening in detail, i.e. listening to every detail and try to understand as much as possible; listening to infer, i.e. listening to understand how students feel; listening to questions and responding, i.e. listening to answer questions; and listening to descriptions, i.e. listening for a specific description. Students can also use metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies to facilitate comprehension and to make their learning more effective. In addition, students can also use other strategies such as note-taking, compensation strategies (i.e. substitution, that is substituting a word or concept or proposition for one that is not understandable), bottom-up strategies (that include for instance, recognizing word-order patterns) and top-down strategies (an example of this activity is when students listen to some of the words mentioned by their lecturer in order to recognise the topic and activate their previous knowledge about it and so they feel at ease). In this context, the role of the lecturer is very important. Lecturers

should, for example, identify students' listening problems and try to find a strategy to help and make students better listeners. Lecturers can use several strategies during their discourse, such as repair strategies, repetition, discourse markers, redundancy, visuals, code-switching and translanguaging.

The fourth and last chapter of this dissertation investigates the strategies adopted by lecturers in EMI classes at the Università degli Studi di Padova. First of all, I describe the tools of my analysis, i.e. the corpus that I have created and the concordance programme, *AntConc*. Secondly, I introduce my study, explaining how I have carried out the research. I specify how I created my corpus, i.e. selecting and manually transcribing some lessons. The fourth chapter also describes the procedure that I have used for the analysis of my corpus. In total, I analysed 10 lessons and I analysed the strategies used by the ten lecturers. Those strategies are repetitions (repetition for emphasis, voluntary and involuntary repetition), defining, checking comprehension, self-repair, class engagement, soliciting agreement, giving examples and code-switching.

CHAPTER 1
EMI: English-Medium Instruction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the phenomenon of English-Medium Instruction (EMI). I will start by explaining the definition of EMI given by Dearden (2014) and Macaro (2018). I will then proceed to clarify the distinction between EMI and CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning) as scholars often employ this latter term to refer to EMI. Thirdly, I will describe the origins of EMI, which are placed in Europe in 1992 with the Maastricht Treaty. According to Macaro (2018), its origins are linked with four initiatives (the mother-tongue plus two other languages' policy, CLIL, the Erasmus programme and the Bologna Process) that have tried to develop language-related policy. The following section concerns the problems and benefits that are related to EMI, e.g. scholars have criticised EMI because it creates social inequalities and it negatively affects the L1 (e.g. Venezuela, Israel and Senegal resisted to the EMI phenomenon to preserve their official languages). On the other hand, it seems that EMI is desired by students and staff because of the many benefits that it can offer. Galloway et al. (2017) state that the benefits are, for instance, English proficiency and better career opportunities. The following section deals with EMI in Europe. In this respect, I will provide a distinction between Nordic and Mediterranean countries and I will give a particular focus to EMI in Italy. I will also take into consideration EMI policies in non-European countries, e.g. in Southeast Asia, with its five members: Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand and they all have adopted English as their official language; in East Asia, which includes South Korea, China and Japan. East Asia offers many EMI courses, but they are trying to focus on promoting their universities at an international level and not sending their excellent students to study abroad. Finally, the last section concerns the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC).

1.2 Definition of English-Medium Instruction

Dearden (2014: 2) defines English-Medium Instruction as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English". Macaro (2018: 1) defines EMI as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English". However, Macaro (2018) says that this definition of EMI is open to challenges, e.g. if we take the word *use* in *the use of the English language* we might ask: "the use of English by whom? Do we mean that English is being used by the teacher of an academic subject, by the learners, or by both?" (Macaro, 2018: 1). Macaro questions whether English is used in the interaction between the lecturer and the students. If so, is English the only language that is used in the classroom or are other languages being used? He wonders whether English is *the* medium of instruction or it is *a* medium of instruction. Another problem in his definition of EMI is which English is being used? In other words, "is it a native-speaker variety of English? […] is it one of the varieties of English that is spoken in countries where the L1 of the majority of the population is English (for example, Australia, Britain, Canada, New Zealand, the USA)? Or is it another variety of English, such as Indian or Nigerian English? Or is it a mixture of both?" (Macaro, 2018: 2). There's a lack of specification in Macaro's definition of EMI, which he attributes to the hypothesis that EMI is a new field of research. He empowers his belief by saying that "its newness is illustrated by the vast majority of papers referenced in this book being written post-2000" (Macaro, 2018: 15).

Jenkins (2018: 7) shares Macaro's idea about the newness of the term: "the term English medium instruction itself is relatively new and no universally accepted definition exists". That EMI is a relatively new field of research can be noted from the fact that scholars and researchers use different terminologies to label EMI (Macaro, 2018). Briggs, Dearden and Macaro (2018) say that the most frequently used labels are: English medium instruction, English medium of instruction, English as a medium of instruction, English-medium education and English as the lingua franca medium of instruction.

However, scholars also use another label, i.e. EMEMUS (English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings), but this label "does not specify any particular pedagogical approach or research agenda" (Dafouz and Smit, 2014: 3). Dafouz and Smit (2014) state that EMEMUS is a term which refers to English-medium education because of the important role that English plays both in teaching and learning. Dafouz and Smit (2019: 4) say that they use EMEMUS or EME[1] for short, when "reporting on or discussing higher educational scenarios in which English is used as an additional language for education". Despite the use of these terms, the term EMI is usually adopted in order to cover all these other labels (Briggs et al., 2018). Schmidt-Unterberger (2018: 529) says that the label EMI is "the more appropriate choice for most university settings in which English is primarily used as the medium of instruction".

1.3 The difference between EMI and CLIL

Macaro (2018: 1) says that EMI is an elusive term because "it can be deployed as a broad umbrella term for a number of other teaching approaches or categorizations of educational systems, such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Immersion". Jenkins (2018) says that CLIL is sometimes used as a synonym of EMI.

One point could usefully be clarified at this stage: the distinction between EMI and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Jenkins (2018: 5) points out that CLIL refers to "the learning of any second language along with academic content, in practice, the language learnt in this way is most often English". Other authors share Jenkins' definition. For example, Marsh (2002: 58 in Macaro, 2018: 26) proposes to define CLIL as "a generic umbrella term which would encompass any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint curricular role".

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[1] Dafouz and Smit (2019) affirm that the labels EMEMUS and EME are conceptually identical and they use them interchangeably. They explain that they often shorten EMEMUS to EME for stylistic reasons, i.e. to facilitate reading.

In order to distinguish CLIL from EMI, Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013: 546 in Jenkins, 2018: 6) describe the parameters of CLIL as follows:

- It [CLIL] is about using a foreign language or a lingua franca, not a second language [….]. It is not regularly used in the wider society they live in.

- It is usually implemented once learners have already acquired literacy skills in their mother tongue.

- CLIL teachers are normally non-native speakers of the target language and are typically content rather than foreign language specialists.

- CLIL lessons are usually timetabled as content lessons […] while the target language normally continues as a subject in its own right […] taught by language specialists.

Jenkins (2018) notes that the major difference between EMI and CLIL is that EMI *never* involves an explicit language component to support the content teaching, while CLIL does. However, according to Jenkins (2018: 6) "this does not mean that EMI students are not expected to develop their subject language and disciplinary/discursive practices during their content courses. It is also not to suggest that those studying content in English medium never access language support". The point is very simple: any language support is always very useful for the students to improve their English and to be better equipped to learn the content.

Jenkins (2018: 6) notes a further difference between EMI and CLIL: "EMI takes place most often at tertiary level, whereas CLIL is more often to be found at secondary and, increasingly, also primary level". Having said this, Jenkins (2018: 7) clarifies that "EMI courses are not necessarily English only courses" since outside Anglophone settings, EMI might take place "alongside the national language on bilingual programmes, as often happens in the Nordic region" (Jenkins, 2018: 7) or it can also be part of a trilingual policy, for instance the case where the regional and national languages as well as English are involved.

However, even though one may think that an EMI setting may be a place where only English is theoretically used, in practice this is not what usually happens. According to Costa and Coleman (2012: 14 in Jenkins, 2018: 6) "administrations may in fact be ignorant about what is taking place in the classroom and of the teaching habits of their

academic staff". They reflect on teachers' choice that can lead to translanguaging[2] in class, i.e. they can use "a combination of the local language and English" (Jenkins, 2018: 6). Therefore, although teachers may opt for using only English in class, the students may choose to use their native language or other languages (e.g. during group activities) regardless the lecturer's wish to speak only English.

Dearden (2014: 4) provides more explanations to clarify the difference between CLIL and EMI. She says that "CLIL is contextually situated (with its origins in the European ideal of plurilingual competence for EU citizens), EMI has no specific contextual origin". Dearden (2014) also explains that while EMI makes clear that the language of education is English, CLIL does not mention which language is to be studied. Dearden (2014) ultimately states that EMI does not necessarily have an objective, while CLIL has a specific objective that is also specified in its title: *content* and *language*.

By contrast, Macaro (2018) seems to take a different direction from the above authors' opinions. He is convinced that "CLIL is nonetheless as much a general term as EMI, one that needs definition, specification, and contextualization" (Macaro, 2018: 28). From his point of view, EMI makes fewer claims than CLIL does, so for this reason, it can be affirmed that EMI is less subject to variation.

1.4 The origins of EMI

Macaro (2018) places the origins of EMI in Europe. He says that "EMI has been introduced in Europe partly to fall in line with CLIL, the Bologna Declaration and so on, its origins can be traced back to much earlier geopolitical and historical events" (Macaro, 2018: 32).

Since the establishment of the European Union in 1992 with the Maastricht Treaty, there have been four initiatives that have tried to develop language-related policy.

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[2] It was Cen Williams who coined the Welsh term "Trawsieithu" that was later translated into English as "translanguaging". According to Conteh (2018: 445) "it was constructed as a purposeful cross-curricular strategy for the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson".

According to Macaro (2018: 46) these initiatives are: "the mother-tongue plus two other languages' policy, Content and Language Integrated Learning, the Erasmus programme, and the Bologna Process.

The first policy which was introduced in 2003 by the Commission of European Communities (CEC) is framed in "the context of extending benefits of language learning to all its citizens; it perceives language learning as a core skill […] and one that enables cultural exchange among the member nations". This policy also advises that a second language should be learnt and its learning should begin as soon as possible, i.e. "the younger, the better" (Macaro, 2018: 46).

CLIL is considered a predecessor of EMI because "it has been in place for some years across primary and secondary education levels, as well as across European countries" (Ament and Pérez-Vidal, 2015: 48). It is believed to have its origins in the mid-1990s and it "has increasingly become a European trend" but it "has never been adopted officially as European Union policy" (Macaro, 2018: 47). However, many articles and documents have been published in connection with CLIL between 1995 and 2016 (Macaro, 2018).

Jenkins (2018) affirms that research on EMI in Europe started with the rise of the Erasmus programme and it was subsequently strengthened by the Bologna Declaration. Erasmus is the European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University students and it was launched in 1987, aiming to increase student mobility including L2 learning. According to the European Commission (2015), in its first year, i.e. in 1987, nearly 3,500 students spent a period of study abroad in one of the 11 countries that initially agreed to participate. This programme has grown since that year, in fact in 2011 more than 3 million students joined the Erasmus programme. This data led the European Commission (2015: 6) to claim Erasmus to be "the world's most successful student mobility programme". Thanks to Erasmus, students can study for a limited period of time (usually 6 months or one academic year) in a foreign but European university and they have the opportunity to study their subjects in the L1 of their host country. The European Commission (2015) states that the most popular countries where students choose to spend their year abroad are France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the UK and only a small proportion of students chooses countries such as Luxemburg, Latvia and Lithuania. The mobility of students has

enabled universities to offer partial or whole degree programmes in languages other than the L1 of the country and they mainly adopted English (Ament and Pérez-Vidal, 2015: 48).

In Europe, the major move towards EMI was motivated by the Bologna Process, also known as the Bologna Declaration (1999) that contributed to facilitating the mobility of students across countries (Kirkpatrick, 2014). In fact, the year 1999 is considered to be a key moment in the European higher education. Huisman et al. (2012: 1) say that the representatives of 29 countries signed the Bologna Declaration, a four-page document that stressed "the need to collectively work towards an internationally competitive European Higher Education Area that would promote mobility and employability of its citizens, and would aim at greater compatibility and comparability of the higher education systems".

The Bologna Process has been considered a successful strategy by Macaro (2018) because it has been able to boost student mobility, in particular from "undergraduate (UG) level to postgraduate (PG) level" (Macaro, 2018: 50). However, that process is considered to "have run counter to the European Union's aim of plurilingualism" because it has created situations where "student mobility necessitates a lingua franca for the purposes of teaching academic subjects to mixed groups of students and, of course, the main candidate for that lingua franca is English" (Coonan et. al., 2018: 17). Smit (2010: 3) also says that English has become the lingua franca of tertiary education "amongst multilinguals in non-English speaking areas".

Macaro (2018: 51) believes that all these aforementioned initiatives that were mainly designed to promote student mobility within the EU and the internationalisation of institutions have contributed to the spread of the English language, that has become the "lingua franca of education in European HE". Internationalisation in Higher Education (HE) is defined by Moncada-Comas and Block (2019: 2) as "an explicit policy adopted by a university with the aim of increasing the number of alliances and agreements with universities based in different nation-states around the world".

1.5 Positive and negative approaches to EMI

According to Galloway et al. (2017) there are both positive and negative approaches to the EMI phenomenon. On one hand, scholars have criticised EMI because it creates social inequalities and it negatively affects the L1. On the other hand, it seems that EMI is desired by students and staff because of the many benefits that it can offer (Galloway et al., 2017). Çağatay (2019) highlights that the positive aspects are linguistic development, global connectedness, preparing students for experiences abroad (e.g. facilitating the pursuit of postgraduate degrees abroad), improving students' proficiency and work/career prospects. Galloway et al. (2017: 06) say that the benefits are:

1) "English proficiency in addition to content knowledge"
2) "intercultural understanding and global awareness / citizenship"
3) "enhanced career opportunities"
4) "staff employment"

For the first point, Galloway et al. (2017) say that EMI creates a favourable environment, where students have the opportunity to increase their English skills and they can acquire the necessary skills to publish, e.g. articles in English. This idea is also shared by Moncada-Comas and Block (2019) who say that EMI might be an opportunity for students to improve their English. For the second point, Galloway et al. (2017) affirm that EMI can provide an opportunity to make foreign friends. Mixing with international students and staff might promote international understanding and this can also lead to increase students' employment opportunities. For the third point, Galloway et al. (2017) think that students have a positive attitude towards EMI courses because they might be beneficial for their future career. For the fourth point, Galloway et al. (2017: 6) note that EMI creates many jobs opportunities in many different contexts, e.g. they might be able to participate in international conferences, better opportunities for their career (more probability to find a job and the opportunity to work in an international environment), and getting to know different cultures. Bradford (2016: 340) believes that teaching modules and entire degree programmes in English "is regarded by governments and institutions in many non-native English-speaking countries as advantageous for both domestic and

international students, individual HEIs [Higher Education Institutions], and national education systems". EMI can attract international scholars and students, prepare students for the global workforce and "raise the profile of HEIs in international ranking schemes and increase the global visibility of national education systems" (Bradford, 2016: 340).

However, EMI brings several challenges. The aforementioned benefits are not guaranteed and there is a fear that EMI can cause negative expectations (Galloway et al., 2017). Bradford (2016: 340) says that EMI might bring "potential unintended consequences". Those who are involved in EMI implementation (e.g. staff, policy makers and faculty members) must consider a myriad of issues, including, for instance, the goal of EMI (why is it used?) and the quality of learning and instruction. The challenges that Galloway et al. (2017: 6) provide are, for example, "language-related issues" which refer to English proficiency and the impact on national language(s), then "cultural issues" (e.g. Westernisation), "social issues" that can lead to inequalities and finally, "management, administration and resources" that deal with staffing and the support for international students.

Galloway et al. (2017: 6) divide language-related issues, or linguistic challenges, into: "challenges related to English proficiency of staff and students" and "impact on national language(s)". As noted, one of the main benefits of EMI is that students are likely to improve their English proficiency. However, in order to achieve this goal, students and staff need support. In other words, "simply teaching in English and requiring students to submit their work in English will not automatically lead to improved proficiency in English" (Galloway et al., 2017: 6). Although many courses have entry requirements that demand a specific level of English, these are not enough to ensure that students have an adequate level of proficiency to be able to understand the academic content (Galloway et al., 2017). Munteanu (2014) says that opponents of EMI brought forward other negative reasons, e.g. EMI might reduce students' ability to understand concepts. EMI is also time consuming because language problems often lead to misunderstandings which might force the lecturer to stop and give further explanations that can slow down the teaching process. Low language proficiency might also discourage students to actively participate in classes. Studies have shown that due to the lack of English proficiency, students might also reduce their ability to understand the content of the lecture (Çağatay, 2019). A lack

of English proficiency has negative effects and Galloway et al. (2017: 6) say that these are: "detrimental effects on subject learning and understanding lessons and lectures, longer time to complete the course, chance of dropping out, problems communicating disciplinary content, asking/answering fewer questions, code-switching[3], resistance to EMI". Çağatay (2019) adds that the use of EMI can be perceived as a threat for the local language. Çankaya (2017) believes that it can also be perceived as a threat to the home culture and she provides the example of Israel, Venezuela and Senegal, countries that resisted to the EMI expansion because of their wish to protect their languages, their education systems and their home cultures.

As regards the quality of instruction, English proficiency influences staff performance in many ways, including: "avoiding asking/answering questions, code-switching, impoverished classroom discourse, increased pressure, extra time needed for preparation/instruction, simplifying disciplinary content and difficulty, interacting less with students and developing a weaker rapport with them" (Galloway et at., 2017: 07). In fact, one of the main issues regards staff skills, since an important concern is the English proficiency of those who are recruited (Galloway et al., 2017). Dearden (2014: 02) shares this idea by affirming that: "there is a shortage of linguistically qualified teachers; there are no stated expectations of English language proficiency; […] there is little or no EMI content in initial teacher education (teacher preparation) programmes and continuing professional development (in-service) courses".

Jenkins (2018) states that insufficient visibility is given to those most affected, i.e. staff and students and more attention should be paid on lecturers. They not only need to possess the ability to communicate their knowledge in English to their students, but they also need to know their discipline very well. Jenkins (2018: 09) found that "research into EMI has demonstrated that lecturing in English is a problem for many NNES" (non-native

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[3] The term code switching (or, as it is sometimes written, code-switching or codeswitching) is defined by Milroy and Gordon (2003: 209) as a term that "can describe a range of language (or dialect) alternation and mixing phenomena whether within the same conversation, the same turn, or the same sentence-utterance". According to the latter experts, the act of code-switching is a tool that facilitates interaction and learning. More recently, Sebba et al. (2012: 68) have given a simpler definition of code switching, stating that "code-switching – the alternating use of two (or more) languages – is a natural occurrence in the speech of bilingual individuals".

English speakers) teachers because of reasons, such as, doubts about their own English proficiency and their students' English capability and the availability of relevant teaching materials (Jenkins, 2018). Consequently, one might think that non-native English lecturers might not always feel confident with teaching in English. There are also mixed feelings from the students and lecturers' perspectives, who doubt about "underperforming in a language other than their mother tongue" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 178).

According to Galloway et al. (2017), some scholars have pointed out that there are cultural issues related to EMI. For example, "EMI, has been criticised for creating a dependency culture and reinforcing the US-dominated hegemony" (Mok, 2007: 43 in Galloway et al., 2017). Galloway et al. (2017: 08) point out that not only there is the native English stereotype, i.e. it is "the best variety of English to learn", but also there is the Western style stereotype, i.e. "having a Western style education is superior and something that is necessary for a successful future" (Galloway et al., 2017: 08).

With regard to social issues, i.e. inequalities, Galloway et al. (2017: 08) say that some people have more benefits than others because "EMI teaching positions favour those who have studied abroad and who speak English". Macaro (2018) also believes that EMI creates social inequalities, and/or it contributes to consolidate an existing elite because, for instance, only wealthy families can afford to pay expensive university fees for a postgraduate course that might cost less in other contexts (e.g. mainland Europe). Macaro (2018: 7) thinks that "social inequalities are linked to English proficiency because EMI courses stipulate English proficiency requirements". In order to understand what social inequality means, Li and Shum (2008) bring the case of the Philippines where English is used as the medium of instruction in private elite institutions at all levels. This mainly attract richer families and by contrast, underprivileged families with little exposure to English are likely to be left behind in their community and as a consequence, their children will possibly have less possibilities to find prestigious jobs.

1.6 EMI in Europe

Dearden (2014: 4) affirms that "EMI is increasingly being used in universities, secondary schools and even primary schools". Dearden (2014) says that there are few studies about why and when EMI is being introduced and how it is delivered, nor are the consequences of using English rather than the L1 on learning, teaching and lecturers' professional development.

Jenkins (2018: 2) states that the rise in EMI universities:

> "entails bringing together on any one university campus students (and to a lesser, but growing extent, staff) from a wide range of nationalities, and thus a wide range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, who carry out their daily activities primarily in English".

The shift towards EMI in Northern European countries started in Sweden and in the Netherlands as early as the 1950s, whilst in Hungary, Norway and Finland it began in the 1980s (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014). In Italy, EMI only appeared in the 1990s.

Universities develop EMI programmes so that they can build academic prestige and make their universities internationalised (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014). From the universities' point of view there are the following benefits: the opportunity to attract more international students, raising the status of the university, the competitiveness in the global market. Macaro (2018: 6) adds other advantages, that are: "to attract lucrative foreign students, to internationalize the profile of the institution and that of its faculty, thereby enhancing its reputation, to encourage student mobility".

Campagna and Pulcini (2014) explain that universities with an international academic profile, i.e. universities that offer EMI courses tend to be situated in Northern Europe rather than in Southern Europe. According to Campagna and Pulcini (2014: 177) this distinction reflects "unequal levels of language proficiency as a consequence of different linguistic policies adopted at the national level". More specifically, in the North of Europe, English is considered a routine because people are exposed to English outside the classroom. For instance, in the Netherlands, people watch the tv in English, they have more opportunities to listen to spoken English, while in Southern European countries the

exposure to English outside the classroom is still limited (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014). Wächter and Maiworm (2014) found that Nordic universities also provide relevant documents in English for foreign students (e.g. information about admission, requirements and application procedures, student accommodation and financial support, and career and alumni services). In Southern European universities, the provision of these documents in English is less frequent, i.e. South West Europe "records the highest share of respondents that don't offer any documents in English. Central West and Central East Europe are more or less in a similar position with regards to the provision of relevant documents in English, while South East Europe follows them closely" (Wächter and Maiworm, 2014: 127). EMI programmes are implemented in Northern European universities to boost the institution's reputation, to foster student mobility, to attract foreign students from other countries (e.g. African and Asian countries) and to prepare students to compete in the global job market.

EMI is especially activated in scientific subjects, where the majority of literature published academic articles in English. These disciplinary areas include: "Economics, Business Administration and Management, Science, Engineering, Medicine and IT" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 178).

1.6.2 EMI policy in Italy

Wächter and Maiworm (2014) conducted a study concerning the number of English-Taught Programmes (ETPs) available in European universities. They found that only 0.5% of Italian students are enrolled in EMI programmes, and they rank the country 21st in the EU with regard to the number of programmes offered through English. In 2015, UniversItaly[4], provided a list of 55 Italian universities which offer EMI. In Italy, the latest figures provided by CRUI (Conference of Italian University Rectors) that consider the

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[4] UniversItaly is an Italian website which allows access to the world of degree courses and higher education in Italy. It is aimed at students and families of students who attend high schools and who have to choose university, at university students who want to continue their studies. Official site: https://www.universitaly.it/

years 2016 and 2017 show that 81 universities offer EMI programmes at masters and doctoral level (Macaro, 2018). Today, Italian universities want to accelerate their internationalisation and there are more than 500 English-taught study programmes available in the country. This exponential increase has led to controversy in Italy. For example, in 2014 the Rector of the *Politecnico di Milano* decided to introduce EMI in postgraduate courses, but this went against staff and students' wishes. It started in 2012, when the Rector of the *Politecnico di Milano* announced that "all post-graduate and doctoral courses would be taught entirely in English as of the academic year 2014-15, thus abandoning Italian as a medium of instruction in second degree courses" (Molino and Campagna, 2014: 156). This change was motivated by "the need to respond to the demands of global competition in Higher Education" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 173). Therefore, offering courses entirely taught in English would boost academic prestige and be competitive at an international level (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014).

However, this drastic change towards using an English-only policy caused reactions not only within the academic community but also beyond (Macaro, 2018). Molino and Campagna (2014) point out that many staff members signed a petition opposing the Rector's decision and they appealed to the *Tribunale Amministrativo Regionale* (TAR), (Regional Administrative Court) of Lombardy in order to "cancel the Academic Senate resolutions in favour of the English-only formula" (Molino and Campagna, 2014: 156). The *Accademia della Crusca*, which is the most important research institution of the Italian language, took part in the debate and posed the following question: "is it useful and appropriate to adopt English monolingualism in Italian university courses?" (Molino and Campagna, 2014: 156).

In Italy the importance of EMI programmes can be found in a report issued by the Conference of Italian University Rectors (CRUI) in 2012 which states that "the provision of English-medium programmes is one of the key strategies to promote internationalisation in the Italian tertiary level" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 181). The CRUI report also says that the use of English makes Italian universities more attractive to foreign students and they prepare Italian students for the labour market at an international level (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 181).

Campagna and Pulcini (2014: 180) say that Italy is "one of those nations where English is considered an opportunity rather than a threat". They found that, according to a European survey (2012), "70% of Italians indicate English as the most important language for their personal development" and "84% indicate English as the most important language for their children's future" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 180). In the past, the language that was most studied at school was French, but in the Italian education, the decline of French in favour of English started in the 1960s (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014). This change towards English might be due to the several reforms that have been introduced over the last twenty years, and reformers have paid specific attention to the field of foreign languages. In fact, Costa and Coleman (2013: 6) say that "since the beginning of the 1990s several educational reforms have been instituted to improve English learning skills".

However, despite these improvements, at the moment in Italy "the level of English proficiency among Italians is not very high in comparison with other Europeans" (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014: 180). This idea is also shared by Costa and Coleman (2013: 6) who affirm that "Italy lags behind other European countries in terms of multilingualism and in particular the learning of English". According to Campagna and Pulcini (2014: 181) this is confirmed by the Special Eurobarometer Report "Europeans and their languages" as it reports the following figures:

> "34% of Italians declare that they can speak English well enough to be able to have a conversation. This places Italy in a better position than, for instance, Spain (22%), Portugal (27%) and Romania (31%), but worse off than other countries such as France (39%), Greece (51%), Germany (56%), and definitely a long way behind Finland (70%), Denmark (86%), Sweden (86%) and the Netherlands (90%)".

Within the Italian contexts, great differences lie between the North, the Centre and the South in terms of EMI programmes offered and international links. For example, in the North, universities have more international links than Southern universities (Campagna and Pulcini, 2014). Costa and Coleman (2013: 7) say that "Italy has been

slow to internationalise its universities" and that the South falls well behind the North and the Centre.

However, despite the slow start in Italy, especially if compared with the Nordic universities, EMI is increasing.

1.7 EMI in non-European countries

1.7.1 EMI policy in Southeast Asia

EMI has been adopted in ASEAN countries (the Association of Southeast Asia Nations) whose formation dates back to 1967 with its five founding members: Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand. Kirkpatrick (2010 in Macaro, 2018: 55) underlines the surprising fact that "English has been adopted as the official language of ASEAN with virtually no discussion or controversy". Walkinshaw et al. (2017: 2) also underline that English is "the de facto *lingua franca* of the ASEAN".

For ASEAN member nations, EMI "becomes a geopolitical phenomenon designed to drive forward an economic agenda" (Macaro, 2018: 55). For instance, in 2016 the Indonesian Minister for Higher Education announced that all the national universities were going to offer bilingual programmes of both Bahasa Indonesian and English. The Indonesian policy is intended to "encourage English fluency among all students and teaching staff", and it is expected that they will "communicate in English and all academic references would use English terms" (Walkinshaw et al., 2017: 4).

Malaysia has tried to compete in the global market by strengthening its education and investing in EMI programmes (Le Ha, 2013). For instance, in higher education it has consistently offered science and mathematics subjects in English, thereby Malaysia is considered "the most successful country in internationalising its higher education" (Le Ha, 2013: 163).

1.7.2 EMI policy in East Asia

South Korea, China and Japan now offer several EMI courses, mainly, but not exclusively, at postgraduate level and they are trying to develop best-quality universities. Their aim is to prevent their excellent students from studying overseas, especially in anglophone countries and they want to promote their universities for international students. Walkinshaw et at. (2017: 3) say that Asian universities have actively begun to promote themselves as "higher education *destinations* markets". For instance, in 2001, the Chinese Ministry of Education identified EMI as

> "one of 12 key policy objectives. It required that within three years, EMI should represent between five and ten per cent of undergraduate courses in its most prestigious universities […] by 2006, 132 of these institutions were offering an average of 44 EMI courses each".

<div align="right">(Macaro, 2018: 58)</div>

Since the introduction of EMI in China in 2001, the trend has been rising as institutions have started offering more and more courses taught in English. Among the reasons that contributed to the EMI growth in China there are: the belief that EMI in HE is "among the methods of improving quality" and that is seen as "an important strategy to gain access to cutting-edge knowledge and to enhance national competitiveness in innovation and knowledge production" (Munteanu, 2014: 4). In China, another important development is "the establishment of Western university campuses which operate in English", e.g. the Nottingham University's Ningbo campus (Walkinshaw et al., 2017: 4).

Hong Kong also presents a good example of the rise of English in higher education as "of the eight government-funded universities, six are English medium [and] only the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) has a bilingual policy" (Kirkpatrick, 2014: 5). However, the use of EMI at the CUHK seems to violate the university's charter because the Chinese language should be the primary medium of instruction, as "the university was founded in 1963 with the express aim of providing a Chinese medium tertiary education" (Kirkpatrick, 2014: 5).

1.7.3 EMI policy in the Middle East

In 1981 the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), an economic and political alliance of six countries: Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Qatar, Bahrain and Oman was established. Education and the mobility of students within the member countries do not appear in the alliance's objectives, which include, for instance, the fields of trade, religion and tourism.

Macaro (2018: 65) says that in these countries, "EMI may be considered not as an option to be debated in the face of international competition, but as a necessary solution for dealing with scarcity of L1 resources and workforce". For example, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), English is on the increase, being taught in 25 government universities and 27 private universities (McMullen, 2014 in Macaro, 2018). Although English is not recognised as an official language, it is considered an important tool to develop the KSA at an international level. Ryhan (2014) says that the Ministry has decreed that English should be the MOI [medium of instruction] in all the higher education institutions across the kingdom, while Arabic continues to be the only MOI permissible in secondary schools. This shift has brought many challenges because students do not know English until "they enter the post-secondary program" (Ryhan, 2014: 141). Consequently, students with no prior English knowledge struggle to understand instructions in English and they end up confused, demotivated and threatened and "the results are often poor grades, dropouts, and low achievers" (Ryhan, 2014: 141).

The situation is slightly different in the UAE because "the UAE government is proactively endeavouring to safeguard the Arabic language and culture" (Belhiah and Elhami, 2015: 5). However, according to Randall and Samimi (2010: 43) "English in Dubai is replacing Arabic" and this spread of English has led to socio-political issues. In Dubai, for instance, the National Strategic Plan for 2016 placed the promotion of the Arabic language at the top of its priorities for social reform (Belhiah and Elhami, 2015). The National Strategic Plan for 2016 "specifically emphasizes the need to enhance Arabic language and local culture in society" (Randall and Samimi, 2010: 45).

1.8 Conclusion

The use of English has increased at an international level and countries acknowledge English as a powerful resource and/or tool that can be employed in education to improve students' linguistic skills and to increase their work opportunities. This has led governments to adopt strategies, e.g. EMI, that can enable people to achieve these goals (e.g. better job opportunities, enhanced language skills).

It might be said that, if on one hand, EMI is seen as a positive and beneficial strategy that can bring many advantages (e.g. English proficiency, intercultural understanding and global awareness/citizenship, boosting the institution's reputation, fostering student mobility, preparing students to compete on the global job market), on the other hand, there are a number of challenges that EMI brings, for instance, a lack of English proficiency can lead to negative effects, e.g. students might face difficulties in understanding the content of the lecture, and the use of English as the medium of instruction can be perceived as a threat to the local language. This can be noted in countries such as Venezuela, Israel and Senegal that resisted to the EMI phenomenon because their purpose is to protect their official languages and in Dubai, where the government developed a plan to preserve Arabic and wants it as the only language of instruction.

Within the European context, Nordic universities started to adopt EMI much earlier than Mediterranean universities (for example, in Sweden it appeared in the 1950s, in Finland it began in the 1980s, but in Italy the shift towards EMI started in the 1990s). In Italy EMI is on the increase and it would seem that there is a generally positive approach towards EMI because it is seen as a key strategy to promote internationalisation, even though there are differences between the North of Italy and the South of Italy.

The last section of this chapter has explored EMI policy in non-European countries, i.e. it has considered Southeast Asia with its five members: Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand and in this area, English has been adopted as the official language. Then, East Asia, which includes South Korea, China and Japan offer many EMI courses, but their goal is to promote their universities and they are trying to do their best not to sending their students abroad. In the Middle East it can be noted

that there are major differences among these countries. In particular, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, EMI is on the increase, while in the United Arab Emirates it seems that there is a negative attitude towards the use of English as a medium of instruction because this country wants to maintain Arabic as the only language of instruction.

CHAPTER 2

Listening comprehension in university lectures

2.1 Introduction

This chapter starts by describing what a lecture is. It is suggested that monologic lectures are the most common types of lectures. However, in these types of lectures students might have few opportunities to check their understanding because monologic lectures are generally characterised by little or no talk between the lecturer and the students. Then, the different functions of lectures are examined. It can be affirmed that there are six main functions, i.e. informing, elaborating, evaluating, organising discourse, interacting and managing the class. They can further be divided into different subfunctions because of their different roles.

Following the definition of listening comprehension and the explanation of bottom-up and top-down processes, this chapter mainly focuses on listening comprehension challenges faced by students. More specifically, these challenges concern, for instance, problems that are related to the listener (e.g. lack of concentration, negative feelings such as anxiety and worry), the physical setting (e.g. noise, bad quality of the sound system), the speaker's accent, the lack of vocabulary, the length of the spoken text and the speed and pronunciation of the speaker and finally, the lack of cultural knowledge.

However, even though students struggle with all these issues, scholars (e.g. Darti and Asmawati, 2017; Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016; Saraswaty, 2018; Goh, 2000) indicate that if lecturers are aware of students' learning difficulties, they can help them develop effective listening strategies and solve their difficulties in listening. In the next chapter, I will discuss the strategies that can be used by students to improve their listening comprehension abilities and those that can be used by lecturers to help their students.

2.2 The type of lecture

Lectures have been studied not only to determine what can facilitate students' comprehension, but also to understand their role as "events that can be beneficial for the linguistic and communicative competence of second and foreign language students" (Morell, 2007: 223). Lectures are "the main form of communicating content knowledge to students in higher education" (Björkman, 2010). Lectures play a pivotal role in educational settings where English is the medium of instruction. The use of English as the major language in university lectures has had an impact on what might be considered a traditional lecture (Morell, 2007). Conversational lectures (also known as participatory, give-and-take or interactive) where lecturers deliver the lecture from notes in an informal style "are becoming more common, especially where non-native listeners are concerned" (Morell, 2007: 223). These non-native speakers might be classified as either English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) students, i.e. L2 speakers.

Björkman (2010) distinguishes between monologic and dialogic classes. A monologic class requires "listeners to focus on long stretches of talk with few opportunities, if any, to negotiate meaning", while a dialogic class "allows itself to the negotiation of meaning" (Björkman, 2010: 79). Moreover, Björkman (2010: 85) states that "monologic events, where the listener has very few opportunities, if any, to check his/her own understanding, are where misunderstandings and general comprehension problems are most likely to occur". Morell (2004) classifies lectures as conventional non-interactive and interactive. Goffman (1981: 165 in Morell, 2004: 327) defines conventional lectures as "institutionalized extended holdings of the floor in which one speaker imparts his views on a subject […]. The style is typically serious and slightly impersonal, the controlling intent being to generate calmly considered understanding, not mere entertainment, emotional impact, or immediate action". On the other hand, Northcott (2001: 19-20 in Morell, 2004: 327) describes interactive lectures as lectures "used to signify a classroom event for a large (more than 20) group of students primarily controlled and led by a lecturer and including subject input from the lecturer but also including varying degrees and types of oral participation by students". Therefore, the

distinction between conventional non-interactive and interactive style can be found in the number of students' interventions and in the degree of formality (Morell, 2004). For instance, Morell (2007) labels interactive lectures when more than half of the total number of the students intervene in a university lecture of fifty minutes. Morell (2007) found that interactive lectures benefit EFL students' comprehension and they also improve their communicative and linguistic competence.

2.2.1 The type of text: lectures vs conversations

Bloomfield et al. (2010) point out that lectures and conversations have different structures. In a conversation, students can ask for clarifications and repetitions. Conversations do not usually require specialised knowledge (as lectures do) and in most cases, they are informal. On the other hand, when students attend a lecture, they usually listen to an uninterrupted speech and they might have less opportunities to ask for clarifications. In addition, they must be able to distinguish relevant information from irrelevant information. Lectures tend to be more formal and elaborated (e.g. presence of contractions, subordinate clauses, complex syntax) than conversations. However, lectures differ in style. It can be said that there are four types of lectures: *formal lectures* that "are read from written copy (also called reading-style lectures)", *less formal conversational-style lectures*, *rhetorical lectures* where "the lecturer acts more as a performer using a wide intonational range, many digressions, and shifts in key and tempo" and finally *participatory lectures* where "the lecturer interacts with the audience, asking questions and soliciting input" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 41). They say that the first three types of lectures are monologues where the listener is not encouraged to participate, while the last type of lecture is processed in real time by the speaker.

2.3 Functions of lectures

Lectures have different communicative functions. Deroey and Taverniers (2011: 5) describe these functions as "a means of transmitting knowledge". Secondly, lectures aim to "facilitate learning by generating understanding and stimulating thought and interest". Finally, "by transmitting knowledge, teaching skills and promoting particular attitudes, they help socialize novice students into their academic, disciplinary and professional communities". More specifically, table 1 shows the functions and subfunctions of lectures based on Deroey and Taverniers (2011).

Table 1: lecture functions and subfunctions

Functions	Subfunctions
Informing	Describing, recounting, reporting, interpreting and demonstrating
Elaborating	Exemplifying and reformulating
Evaluating	Indicating attitude and indicating degree of commitment
Organising discourse	Orientating, structuring and relating
Interacting	Regulating interaction, involving the audience and establishing a relationship with the audience
Managing the class	Managing organizational matters, managing delivery and managing the audience

2.3.1 Informing

Lectures are recognised as "a means of disseminating subject information to students" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 5). The informing function equips students with the information they need, and it aims to improve students' subject skills and knowledge. In this category, five main subfunctions can be identified. They are: describing, recounting, reporting, interpreting and demonstrating. The first subfunction is describing. It is usually associated with lexis reflecting the subject and present tenses. Descriptions

are defined as "statements of the features or function of, for instance, things, people and procedures" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 6). The second subfunction is recounting, i.e. "the lecturer presents information about past actions, events or situations, thus providing a historical context" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 6). The recounting subfunction is often linked to past tenses and time indications. Reporting is the third subfunction. It occurs when lecturers report someone's ideas, words or research. This subfunction is characterised by reporting signals that include the source (e.g. *Smith*) that might also be vague (e.g. *some people*) or missing (e.g. *what is found*) and a communication verb (e.g. *say*). The second to last subfunction is interpreting, i.e. "lecturers inform students of the significance of something" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 8). Interpretations can be indicated by verbs (e.g. *suggest*), even though in many cases it is the context that helps to identify interpretations. Lastly, when demonstrating, the lecturer gives students an example by showing them "ways in which disciplinary experts may reason or tackle a particular problem" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 8). It is connected with "language addressing the audience", such as directives and deictics (e.g. *this*) pointing to what was previously demonstrated (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 8).

2.3.2 Elaborating

The elaborating function gives lecturers the possibility to help their students to understand information. Elaborations reflect "the lecturer's assessment of the students' needs" and they can be considered a form of interaction (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 8). Hyland (2007) suggests that elaborating can be divided in two subfunctions that are exemplifying and reformulating. Exemplification is "a communication process through which meaning is clarified or supported by a second unit which illustrates the first by citing an example" (Hyland, 2007: 270). It is used to enhance understanding (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011). In this case, a couple of exemplificatory words can be used: *such as*, *e.g.*, *like*, *for example* and *for instance* (Hyland, 2007; Deroey and Taverniers, 2011). Reformulation is defined as "a discourse function whereby the second unit is a restatement or elaboration of the first in different words, to present it from a different

point of view and to reinforce the message" (Hyland, 2007: 269). In other words, reformulation is a function that enables the speaker to re-elaborate an idea in order to facilitate comprehension and to clarifies the meaning of, for example, a term (Hyland, 2007; Deroey and Taverniers, 2011). In reformulation, some key words can be used, such as *or*, *put another way*, *that is*, *so you are telling*, *what you are saying is* and *I mean* (Hyland, 2007; Deroey and Taverniers, 2011).

2.3.3 Evaluating

Evaluation is "the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about" (Thompson & Hunston, 2000: 5 in Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 11). However, evaluation might present some difficulties and its interpretation and identification is not always straightforward because "there is no set of language forms, either grammatical or lexical, that encompass the range of expressions of evaluation (Hunston, 2011: 3). Two main types of evaluation can be distinguished. The attitudinal evaluation expresses "the lecturer's personal feelings", whereas the epistemic evaluation "conveys the degree of commitment to the certainty of a proposition" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011).

2.3.4 Organising discourse

The organising discourse is a function that reflects the "pre-planned nature of the lecturer's talk and his or her attempts at guiding the listeners through the dense instructional message which is processed in real time" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 9-10). Studies have highlighted the important role of discourse organising signals that facilitate comprehension and note-taking (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011; Jung, 2003). Three subfunctions emerge from the organising discourse. Firstly, the orientating subfunction orientates "listeners to upcoming discourse by providing a lecture frame onto which the information they receive can be mapped" (Deroy and Taverniers, 2011: 10).

Secondly, the structuring subfunction reveals "the delineation and order of points" while the relating subfunction indicates "how points are related", e.g. by establishing a parameter of relevance or importance (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 10).

2.3.5 Interacting

The relationship between the speaker and the listener is generally distant because lectures tend to be monologic. For this reason, "there is little space for interaction" (Ackerley, 2017: 278). The interacting function aims to create "an atmosphere that is conducive to learning (i.e. promoting understanding, focusing attention and stimulating thought)" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 14). Three main categories can be distinguished: interaction (e.g. to reduce the distance between the speaker and the listeners), the involvement of the audience (e.g. by asking questions to the audience) and the relationship with the audience (e.g. by creating an atmosphere of trust and compliance so that the audience is attentive to the speaker's message or the speaker can use colloquial language and humour to create a relationship with the audience).

2.3.6 Managing the class

The lecture can be viewed as "an event which is managed in regard of its organization, delivery and audience" (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 16). Organisational matters help students to have the necessary course information (e.g. assessment guidelines and timetables) and materials. Then, "lecturers manage different aspects of the lecture delivery", e.g. timing and communication of the message (Deroey and Taverniers, 2011: 16). As regards the audience, the lecturer tries to direct the audience, for instance, to look at visuals, do an exercise, take notes or interact with the speaker.

2.4 Definition of listening comprehension

Listening comprehension is defined by Darti and Asmawati (2017: 211) as "the ability to identify and understand what others are saying" and its aim is to comprehend what people say, i.e. "to understand the native conversation at normal rate in a spontaneous condition". This involves understanding the speaker's pronunciation and accent, the grammar and vocabulary and grasping the meaning. Darti and Asmawati (2017) summarise the features of listening as follows: coping with sounds, redundancy and noise, predicting, understanding intonation, stress, colloquial vocabulary and different accents.

Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016: 123) define listening comprehension as "one's ability to recognize another through sense, aural organs and allocate a meaning to the message to understand it" and its goal is to "comprehend the language at normal speed in an automatic condition". Rost (2002: 53) states that "comprehension is often considered to be the first-order goal of listening, the highest priority of the listener". Bingol (2014: 2) says that "listening involves hearing, transforming, absorbing, accumulating and retrieving data".

2.4.1 Bottom-up and top-down processes

Vandergrift (2004: 4) affirms that listening is the most difficult language skill to learn because it involves "physiological and cognitive processes at different levels". Martín del Pozo (2017: 57) says that "physiological processes, cognitive processes and contextual information processing converge in listening". L2 listeners need to learn how to use bottom-up and top-down processes. According to Vandergrift (2004: 4) they use bottom-up processes when they "construct meaning by accretion" and top-down processes when they "use context and prior knowledge (topic, genre, culture […]) to build a conceptual framework for comprehension". Vandergrift also points out that the effectiveness at which listeners carry out these processes depends on "the degree to which the listener can efficiently process what is heard". While native language listeners do it

automatically, beginning-level L2 listeners "have limited language knowledge" and therefore, "little of what they hear can be automatically processed" (Vandergrift, 2004: 4). Bloomfield et al. (2010: 16) affirm that L2 listeners rely more on processing when "they have a weaker command of the phonology and grammar, factors that enable accurate bottom-up processing". In spoken language, since words are not heard in isolation, Bloomfield et al. (2010: 13) explain that "both L1 and L2 listeners will use top-down processing strategies such as inferencing and elaboration to help make sense of a passage, particularly when they do not recognize every word in the input". More specifically, expert listeners use both strategies: "they are able to accurately make sense of the speech signal (bottom-up information) and integrate this information with background knowledge (top-down information)" while, on the contrary, non-expert listeners often unsuccessfully attempt to "use background knowledge to compensate for failure to understand speech sounds" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 1-2).

2.5 Challenges in listening comprehension

Listening is a complex active mental process that involves attention, memory, cognition and perception (Hamouda, 2013). Rost (2002: 53) states that "listening is primarily a cognitive activity, involving the activation and modification of concepts in the listener's mind". Various factors might affect the learner's listening ability during the process of listening comprehension. Some of these factors are related to the listening text, task and activities and listeners and lectures' methodology (Hamouda, 2013; Darti and Asmawati, 2017).

Students face many listening difficulties when they listen to a foreign language. This may be because lecturers are likely to pay more attention to vocabulary, reading and writing (Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016; Hamouda, 2013). Listening is not considered an important part of many course books and lecturers do not often take this skill into account when they plan their lectures (Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016; Hamouda, 2013). In addition, lecturers are "primarily concerned with delivering course content" (Ackerley, 2017: 258), and they "are not specifically using instructional techniques to improve the language

proficiency of students" (Rogier, 2012: 32). Also, many language lecturers believe that listening will "develop naturally within the process of language learning" (Hamouda, 2013: 114).

Listening problems will now be discussed below.

2.5.1 Listening problems related to the listener

Listening is a process that requires concentration. Listeners need to concentrate and pay attention to, for example, the speaker's intonation and pronunciation in order to grasp the meaning. "Failure to concentrate will result in the students missing some of the lecture content, which will eventually affect their understanding of the whole lecture" (Hamouda, 2013: 129). Listening involves real-time processing and listeners do not generally have the option to go back to previous sections of the passage. For this reason, they might miss some information and "once the information is lost, it can be difficult to understand the rest of the passage" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 3). They may also lose concentration when they hear a new word and they think too much about it. According to Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016) and Bingol (2014), concentration is easier and/or comprehension might be facilitated if the listening passage is interesting for the listeners. Bingol (2014: 4) states that students can find it difficult to maintain concentration in a foreign language lecture and "in listening comprehension, even the smallest pause in attention may considerably spoil comprehension".

However, listeners might be distracted when they feel anxious, worried or nervous. If this happens, they may lose attention and concentration. MacIntyre et al. (1994: 284) define anxiety as "the feelings of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts". The effects of anxiety on the students include, for example, negativity and forgetting previously learned material. Anxiety can impact the listeners' ability to understand what the speaker says. Bloomfield et al. (2010) believe that if listeners are anxious, they will be unable to pay attention to the speaker and consequently, it will be difficult for them to determine what was said in the spoken message. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 17) reveal that "anxiety can negatively affect

comprehension, but may be ameliorated by testing conditions (e.g., the ability to take notes)". In other words, the ability to take notes might decrease anxiety during L2 listening comprehension. Darti and Asmawati (2017) affirm that most foreign language learners feel fatigue and get distracted, especially when they listen to a long spoken text because of their effort to try to understand unfamiliar sounds. When someone feels uncomfortable, his/her ability to listen is reduced (Hamouda, 2013). Frustration and boredom might be other barriers, as they affect the extent to which attention is paid to listening. This might occur when the listener is not stimulated, motivated or s/he is not interested in the topic (Hamouda, 2013).

Lack of confidence and practice in listening might be other factors that negatively affect the listeners. The initial lack of self-confidence might be caused by a perceived insufficient level of English (Moratinos-Johnston et al., 2018). Students might also lose confidence if they cannot participate in discussions, because of, for instance, lack of opportunities (Yildiz et al. 2017). According to Moratinos-Johnston et al. (2018: 78) the concept of linguistic self-confidence has a cognitive component, i.e. the perceived L2 proficiency: "the more positive ourself-perceived proficiency and the lower our anxiety levels, the higher our levels of linguistic self-confidence will be". Linguistic self-confidence also enables students to be willing to communicate in a foreign language classroom. It is believed that self-confidence plays an important role in those lectures that demand interaction, e.g. group work (Moratinos-Johnston et al., 2018). Linguistic self-confidence is thought to have a positive effect on, for instance, students' motivation.

2.5.2 Listening problems pertinent to the physical setting

Bingol (2014: 4) describes the physical setting as a place that might affect listening comprehension. In large classrooms, students who sit in the back rows might not hear as much as those who sit in the front. Students who sit next to a window might also be disturbed by the noise that come from the outside. The size and layout of the classroom might also make it difficult to manage, for instance, group activities. Bingol's (2014) observations go in accordance with Saraswaty (2018) and Bloomfield et al. (2010) who

state that the presence of noise hinders comprehension. Noise interferes with listening comprehension for L1 and L2 listeners, though the effect is larger for L2 listeners (Bloomfield, 2010).

Saraswaty (2018) says that listening problems might come from the environment, i.e. the physical setting. For example, poor quality of audio devices and the lack of visual support (e.g. PowerPoint slides) might disturb students in listening comprehension.

2.5.3 Listening problems related to the speaker's accent

Students find difficulties in understanding the different varieties of accents (Darti and Asmawati, 2017; Saraswaty, 2018; Walker, 2014). Students might confuse British English with American English. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 50) say that "accented speech has been found to affect both the extent to which listeners successfully retrieve a speaker's message and the effort involved as listeners identify particular words in the message". Even when listening to native speakers of their own language, listeners might face comprehension difficulties if the speaker has an accent that differs from their own. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 50) affirm that "recent data suggest that difficulty for native speakers with unfamiliar accents may be overcome through repeated exposure". According to Saraswaty (2018: 142), "unfamiliar accents both native and non-native can cause serious problems in listening comprehension and familiarity with an accent helps learners' listening comprehension". In other words, "when listeners hear an unfamiliar accent such as Indian English for the first time after studying only American English, they will encounter critical difficulties in listening" (Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016: 127). This will lead to an interruption of the listening comprehension process due to the unfamiliar accent and the listeners' inability to comprehend the content. Goh (2000) says that students might also experience problems related to recognising sounds as distinct words. They may also forget what they just hear as soon as they start listening to another part of the spoken message.

According to Ackerley (2017: 264) "the way lecturers speak also helps students to cope with understanding lectures in a second language". Students might find the speech

easier to understand if lecturers possess an "international accent […] clear pronunciation […] confidence in speaking […] appropriate volume […] and speech rate" (Gundermann, 2014: 235).

2.5.4 Problems related to the lack of vocabulary

Other problematic aspects are unfamiliar words, limited vocabulary and difficult grammatical structures (Darti and Asmawati, 2017; Hamouda, 2013; Yildiz et al., 2017). Vocabulary might be considered the biggest obstacle of listening comprehension. Unfamiliar words (including idioms and jargon), the use of reduced forms and difficult grammatical structures interfere with the students' listening comprehension. When students encounter an unfamiliar word, they are likely to stop listening and start thinking about the meaning of the new word. Consequently, "this interrupts the flow of speech and thus the students may miss some essential information" (Hamouda, 2013: 129). Unfamiliar vocabulary might also lead to confusion. On one hand, known words can have a positive impact on students' listening ability, but on the other hand, unknown words might confuse students. Many words have more than one meaning and if they are not appropriately interpreted, students will get confused (Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016). Hamouda (2013) believes that lack of English proficiency, limited vocabulary, poor grammar (complex grammatical structures) and unfamiliar topic diminish the listening comprehension of students. For instance, "the uses of colloquial and slang expressions are likely to cause problems for non-native speakers in understanding a lecture" (Hamouda, 2013: 128).

When considering the vocabulary size, Nation (2001) says that listeners must possess an adequate vocabulary in order to understand an oral passage in another language. The adequate vocabulary can be measured by the estimated number of words (i.e. around 5,000) that a listener needs to know. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 12) say: "the 5,000 most frequent words yield a coverage of 90 to 95 percent of the word tokens in an average passage in many languages, including Russian, French, English and Dutch". So, if listeners know more than 5,000 words, they might have a strong probability of

understanding the oral passage. Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016: 127) state that "listeners do not have high vocabulary knowledge" and speakers might select words that listeners are not familiar with. As a consequence, that unfamiliar word can stop them and lead them to think about the meaning of that word and they might miss the next part of the speech.

According to Bloomfield et al. (2010), the complexity of the passage might influence L2 listening comprehension. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 2) state that "the presence of infrequent vocabulary may increase difficulty" and so, even though the syntax of that passage can be simplified, it does not improve L2 listening comprehension. Culturally specific vocabulary and idioms decrease comprehension. For example, in a study conducted at the University of Padova that examined students' challenges and attitudes towards EMI, Ackerley (2017: 269) found that "missing concepts [and] lacking specialist terminology" were among those aspects that hindered the students' comprehension. Bingol (2014: 4) also says that unfamiliar vocabulary is an issue because "many words have more than one meaning and if they are used their less common usage students get confused". The use of metaphors can lead to misunderstandings by L2 listeners "resulting in misinterpretation of the lecture" (Vandergrift, 2004: 15).

In addition, listeners might lack contextual knowledge, i.e. "listeners can sometimes comprehend the surface meaning of a passage but they can have substantial problems in understanding the whole meaning of a passage unless they are familiar with it" (Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016: 127). Graham (2006) affirms that misinterpretations of listening tasks, poor grammar and restricted vocabulary are other factors that increase learners' listening comprehension problems. Grammar and vocabulary tend to be less formal and more colloquial in the spoken discourse and the student might not be accustomed to that. Likewise, Walker (2014: 168) points out that "unlike reading, listening requires instantaneous processing with little or no option to access the spoken input again, making the skill arguably more complex than, for example, reading".

2.5.5 Listening problems related to length of the spoken text

The length of the listening text can play a significant role in the students' comprehension (Hamouda, 2013; Bingol 2014). Bloomfield et al. (2010) state that a long length of the oral passage increases difficulty. It is not easy to listen to more than a three-minute audio, because, for instance, if the text contains many information, it might be difficult to store everything in mind (Bingol, 2014). According to Bingol (2014: 4) "short listening texts facilitate listening comprehension and diminish boredom, keep learners' concentration alive". Saraswaty (2018: 142) also says that "short listening passages make easy listening comprehension for learners and reduce their tiredness". Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016) and Saraswaty (2018) then confirm that students find it difficult to listen to a three-minute audio and complete the listening task.

2.5.6 Listening problems related to speed of the speaker

The speed of delivery might negatively influence students' comprehension (Ackerley, 2017). When the lecturer speaks too fast, student might find difficult what is being said. With regard to the speaker's speed, it is believed that if a speaker speaks too fast, students might face problems to understand L2 words and consequently weaken the students' listening comprehension (Saraswaty, 2018; Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016). Saraswaty (2018: 142) says that in these situations "listeners are not able to control the speed of speakers and this can create critical problems with listening comprehension". In addition, even though fast speech rates hamper comprehension, slower speech rates do not necessarily help as "L2 listeners may mistakenly attribute difficulties caused by other factors to a too-fast speech rate" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 2). However, Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016: 127) affirm that there are some barriers concerning the listening comprehension process: "listeners cannot control the speed of speech". In other words, students cannot control how quickly speakers speak. A further critical aspect is that "listeners cannot have words repeated" because, for instance, they cannot replay a recording audio. It is the lecturer who decides whether and when to repeat listening texts.

2.5.7 Problems related to the speaker's pronunciation

Moratinos-Johnston et al. (2018) say that students at university level might have problems in understanding lectures because of the lecturer's pronunciation. Bloomfield et al (2010: 3-4) express that a significant issue that can decrease students' comprehension is related to the pronunciation of words because "the pronunciation of words may also differ greatly from the way they appear in print and may be affected by the words with which they are presented (e.g., assimilation results in the word *ten* being pronounced *tem* in the phrase ten *bikes*, reductions result in the phrase *I'm gonna go* instead of *I am going to go)*. Reduction can be classified into three categories: *phonological* ("*Djedoit*? for *Did you do it*?"), *morphological* (contractions like "*Ill…*"), or *syntactic* ("elliptical forms like the answer to *When is the paper due*? *Next Monday*.") (Hamouda, 2013: 128). These reductions might pose difficulties, especially when learners have been exposed to the full forms of the English language and they might be problematic because they interfere with listening comprehension for non-native speakers. Walker (2014) affirms that spoken language varies from written language and the identification of the words that constitutes the oral discourse might be problematic for the students. Vandergrift (2007: 296) says that "listeners, unlike readers, do not have the luxury of regular spaces that signal where words begin or end". This means that students not only have to try to recognise the unfamiliar words that they hear, but they also have to "decipher which linguistic unit belongs to which word" (Walker, 2014: 168). In addition to the identification of word boundaries and pronunciation, the prosodic features of the spoken discourse (e.g. intonation and where the stress falls) might influence the comprehension of the oral passage (Walker, 2014).

2.5.8 Problems related to cultural knowledge

Cultural differences might be another negative factor that can have a significant effect on the students' understanding. Students should be familiar with the cultural knowledge of the language involved. As a consequence, "if the listening part is about

Easter Day and it is not common in the area that language is being taught students cannot catch some points" (Bingol, 2014: 3). Saraswaty (2018: 142) also says that "learners should be familiar with the cultural knowledge of language" to avoid problems in comprehension. In other words, students might have critical problems in comprehension if, for instance, the listening task completely involves different cultural materials.

Listening's sociolinguistic elements (e.g. the student's knowledge of the cultural background of the foreign language and the student's general cultural background) might influence the student's comprehension of the verbal discourse. Walker (2014: 168) suggests that, for example, a "general understanding of the country's culture and history can also help to avoid conversational impasses". For example, if Spanish learners listen to a text that is related to the Franco era, a basic knowledge of the historical period and the main themes should help them to predict the content of the text and their understanding in the case of some imperfections in the students' reception of the message.

2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be affirmed that students may have several problems with listening. Many problems include the speaker's accent (e.g. unfamiliar accents can negatively affect the students' listening comprehension), the speaker's pronunciation and speed of delivery, the students' lack of confidence. Many learners do not have enough vocabulary knowledge and they are often in trouble when they encounter an unfamiliar word. These issues lead to different consequences as listeners stop paying attention to the oral passage and begin to reflect on the meaning of that word. They also lose concentration and they might start feeling worried or anxious. For this reason, they should start to continuously train their listening skills, e.g. at home. They should be more exposed to varieties of listening and accents and learn the strategies (see third chapter) that can help them to overcome those problems.

CHAPTER 3

Students' and lecturers' strategies

3.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates the strategies that can be developed to make difficult listening tasks more manageable (Keller 2016). First of all, the definition of strategy will be given. Secondly, metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies are explained. Then, listeners' strategies are described. More specifically, these strategies concern note-taking, compensation, bottom-up and top-down strategies. Thirdly, this chapter focuses on the role of the lecturer and the strategies that can be used by lecturers to help students improve their listening skills. The lecturer has an important role to play because s/he can adopt repair strategies (e.g. repetition and self-initiated repair), use discourse markers, redundancy and visuals to enhance students' comprehension. In addition, it is believed that code-switching is a tool that, if used, can clarify misunderstandings, the meaning of tasks and instructions. Moreover, if the L1 and L2 are used (i.e. translanguaging), the use of both languages can be beneficial for students to develop their language skills and contribute to a deeper understanding of the matter.

3.2 Definition of strategy

Listening skills can be developed by adopting general learning strategies that are defined as "methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information" (Brown, 1994: 104). Listening strategies can be defined as "specific methods and behaviours [that] the listeners adopt in order to listen effectively and comprehensively". (Bao, 2017: 188).

Learners listen for comprehension and language acquisition. While learning to listen (comprehension) involves "enhancing comprehension abilities in understanding the language process", listening to learn (acquisition) involves "creating new meaning and form linking and then repeating the meaning and form linking, thus this helps learners to be ready for paying more attention to the syntax and lexis of the language through listening" (Solak, 2016: 40). For this reason, lecturers should view listening skills as "a kind of enhancement to language acquisition rather than comprehension" (Solak, 2016: 40). Listeners are not only expected to understand the spoken messages, but also to make connection between ideas and create new meaning.

It is also worth mentioning that "strategies do not only occur as a response to a communicative breakdown but are used to enhance communication" (Khan, 2018: 66).

3.2.1 Listening sub-skills

There are several types of listening sub-skills "to help listeners make sense of the listening text" (Solak, 2016: 35). Solak (2016) provides the following list:

Listening for gist	listening to get a general idea
Listening for specific information	listening just to get a specific piece of information
Listening in detail	listening to every detail, and try to understand as much as possible
Listening to infer	listening to understand how listeners feel

Listening to questions and responding	listening to answer questions
Listening to descriptions	listening for a specific description

Field (1998 in Al-Nafisah, 2019) distinguishes between listening strategies and sub-skills. He states that "sub-skills are perceived as abilities that the native listeners naturally enjoy, and which second language learners must learn to achieve competency in the language they are learning" (Al-Nafisah, 2019: 102). However, as students' listening abilities get better, listeners should then acquire stronger listening sub-skills. There are three areas that have to be encouraged: "types of listening, the structure of the conversation, and techniques" (Al-Nafisah, 2019: 102). The practice of notation is also encouraged to assist language students to improve their ability to predict what would follow in the listening text.

There are several strategies thanks to which students can enhance their listening comprehension skills. These strategies are described below and can be summarised in metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective strategies, note-taking, compensation, bottom-up and top-down strategies used by students and the use of repair strategies, discourse markers, redundancy, visuals, code-switching and translanguaging provided by lecturers.

3.3 Metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies

Listeners use metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies "to facilitate comprehension and to make their learning more effective" (Liubiniené, 2009: 91). Bloomfield et al. (2010: 1) affirm that "understanding a foreign language taps several general cognitive abilities". They say that listeners with a notable working memory[5] capacity, i.e. "those who are most efficient at attending to, temporarily storing, and processing incoming information" are likely to "understand more of what they hear when

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[5] Working memory is defined by Bloomfield et al. (2010: 7) as "a set of cognitive processes that all listeners use - with varying degrees of efficiency - as they attend to, temporarily store, and process incoming speech in L1 or L2"

they are listening to their non-native language" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 1). Furthermore, listeners who use metacognitive strategies, e.g. avoiding mental translation, planning, self-monitoring, paying attention to discourse markers, visuals and body language, tones and pauses, using selective attention and directed attention demonstrate a better L2 listening comprehension. These strategies are important because they regulate or direct the language learning process (Liubiniené, 2009).

Metacognition is defined as "thinking about one's own thinking" (Bingol, 2014: 2). According to Vandergrift (2004: 11), the use of metacognitive strategies helps listeners to "become more aware of how they can use what they already know to fill gaps in their understanding". Bloomfield et al. (2010: 7) believe that "listeners use metacognitive strategies when listening to their non-native language". Vandergrift (2004) says that there are five stages related to metacognitive strategies. *Planning/prediction* is the first stage where students try to predict information or words that they might hear. The second stage is called *first verification stage* where students "verify initial hypotheses […], note additional information understood […], compare what they have written with peers […], decide on details that still need special attention" (Vandergrift, 2004: 11). In the third stage, i.e. *second verification stage*, students make corrections, clarify points of disagreement, discuss with their peers and reflect on how they arrived at the meaning of some words or parts of the text. The fourth stage is *final verification stage* where "students listen for information that they could not decipher earlier in the class discussion" (Vandergrift, 2004: 11). The last stage is the *reflection stage* and in this last phase, students write down goals for their next listening activity and they think about the possible strategies they used to compensate for what they did not understand. Vandergrift (2004) suggests that this approach can be successfully used not only with beginning-level language learners, but also with advanced-level listeners that might face an unfamiliar variant of the target language or a difficult text. Bingol (2014: 2) suggests that in the metacognitive strategy, listeners "are conscious when listening to the text cautiously" and this method deals with "learning how to plan, monitor and asses the gathered information from the listening part the same as pre listening activities". Finally, "the development of metacognitive strategies […] in relation to listening can be particularly helpful and can be achieved through learner discussion of strategy use" (Graham, 2017: 2).

Cognitive strategies are, for example, elaboration, repetition, summarisation, contextualisation, problem identification, translation and predicting. They "manipulate the material to be learned or apply a specific technique to a listening task" (Liubiniené, 2009: 91). Bingol (2014: 2) adds that cognitive strategies are those strategies that are "used to understand linguistic input and obtain data". An example of cognitive strategy is when students do not know the meaning of a word and they try to guess its meaning from the context. In addition, cognitive strategies "operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning" (Bao, 2017: 187).

Socio-affective strategies are, for instance, reprise, feedback, paraphrase what speakers say to check understanding and clarification. These strategies describe "the techniques listeners use to collaborate with others, to verify understanding or to lower anxiety" (Liubiniené, 2009: 91). They also concern the ways in which students interact with other students and native speakers (Bao, 2017). The socio-affective strategy also "ensures and promotes positive emotional reactions and perspective of language learning", e.g. students might "reward themselves with a doughnut when they successfully complete some task in the target language" (Bingol, 2014: 2-3).

3.4 Listeners' strategies

3.4.1 Note-taking

Piolat et al. (2005) consider note-taking a difficult activity that demands selection of information, comprehension and writing skills. Bloomfield et al. (2010: 75) argue that "the effects of note-taking on L2 listening comprehension are not as easy to predict" because of factors such as time pressure (Piolat et al., 2005). Bloomfield et al. (2010: 75) state that note-taking is particularly difficult for L2 listeners and "because of the effort involved, taking notes in the L2 may actually hurt listening comprehension". However, Lin (2006) found that that note-taking might be beneficial for L2 listeners when they listen to a passage that is presented at a fast speech rate. Listeners who are allowed to take notes might perform better than those who are not allowed. Lin (2006) suggests that note-

taking should be used by L2 listeners in order to be helpful or at least not harmful to comprehension. Lin's (2006) finding contradicts the idea that L2 listeners require a large amount of cognitive effort when they use the note-taking strategy (Piolat et al., 2005). Bloomfield et al. (2010) say that note-taking and faster speech rates cannot be combined together because it is expected to hurt comprehension. Yildiz et al. (2017) also believe that students cannot listen to the lecture and take notes simultaneously.

It should be taken into account that good listeners often make notes on what the speaker is saying, e.g. they write down sentences or words and the most important ideas (Asemota, 2015). However, "note-taking by itself is not a sign of good listening" (Asemota, 2015: 29). Note-taking requires sensitivity to "both the verbal and the nonverbal elements of the message to get full meaning from what is said" (Asemota, 2015: 29). A good listener then absorbs all the speaker's meaning by being sensitive to the tone of the voice, body action, facial expression and to the words themselves (Asemota, 2015).

3.4.2 Compensation strategies

Listeners can use compensation strategies such as *skipping*, that is "omitting a part or a block of text from processing for comprehension", *approximation*, i.e. "using a superordinate concept that is likely to cover the essence of what has not been comprehended; constructing a less precise meaning for a word or concept than the speaker may have intended" (Rost, 2011: 70). A further compensation strategy is *filtering*, which means "compressing a longer message or set of propositions into a more concise one". The last two strategies are *incompletion*, i.e. "maintaining an incomplete proposition in memory, waiting until clarification can be obtained" and *substitution*, i.e. "substituting a word or concept or proposition for one that is not understandable" (Rost, 2011: 70).

3.4.3 Bottom-up strategies

Bottom-up strategies are "text/speech based" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 42). By using these strategies, listeners rely on "the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 42). Bottom-up strategies include, for example, "listening for specific details; recognizing cognates; recognizing word-order patterns; recognizing noun phrase as agent or object; recognizing verb phrase as action" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 42). Based on the use of these strategies it can be affirmed that memory plays an important role during "the process of identifying and imposing structures, recognizing sounds, inferring meaning and sometimes even anticipating idioms and phrasal verbs that may come next" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 42). In the bottom-up model, the listeners "develop their perception and knowledge by beginning to understand the smallest unit of the audio discourse, which can either be individual sounds or phonemes" (Al-Nafisah, 2019: 98). They join them into words, making clauses, phrases, sentences. Then, they meaningfully join these sentences to derive ideas and concepts (Al-Nafisah, 2019).

Bottom-up activities mainly focus on word-level and sentence-level processing. They aim to help students "to develop bottom-up processing aspects" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 43). Word-level activities focus on "different sounds and sound combinations which occur within single words", while sentence-level activities attempt to "remedy problems that occur when words are put together to make utterances: the distortion of sounds within common collocations, unclear word-division, and intonation". (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 43). A technique that can be used for the word-level activities is to repeat words after the lecturer or a recording. By contrast, sentence-level activities include, for instance, counting the number of words, repeating full utterances, identifying word stress and intonation patterns (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015).

3.4.4 Top-down strategies

The development of top-down strategies is important to help students to develop their listening (Graham, 2017). A top-down activity is defined as "a strategy that focuses on understanding the text as a whole [and] it gives a clear picture of the main idea of the text" (Al-Nafisah, 2019: 99). These activities might help students to improve their listening skills and their thinking and analysing abilities. Rost (2011) makes a list of six types of listening that students need to practise to become competent listeners. These are: *intensive listening* (i.e. the student focuses on phonology, syntax and lexis); *selective listening* (i.e. the student focuses on main ideas and attempts to extract key information); *interactive listening* (i.e. the student verbally interacts with other people to, for example, negotiate solutions); *extensive listening* (i.e. the student listens to longer extracts and the teacher gives instruction on comprehension strategies); *responsive listening* (i.e. the student seeks opportunities to response) and *autonomous listening* (i.e. the student selects own extracts and tasks and monitors own progress).

Azevedo and Buchweitz (2015) suggest that an example of a top-down activity is the use of lexical signals. Students listen to some of the words mentioned by their lecturer in order to recognise the topic and activate their previous knowledge about it and so they feel at ease. The aim of these activities is "to make the experience of listening to text more engaging and enjoyable […] by making relations to their own world" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 43).

3.5 The role of the lecturer

Lecturers should, first of all, identify students' listening problems and try to find a strategy to help and make students better listeners (Goh, 2000; Darti and Asmawati, 2017). It is believed that "for the EMI classroom to work well, the lecturer requires preparation […] that […] must go beyond linguistic skills to include teaching styles and methodology" (Clark, 2018: 564). For example, a non-native language lecture should speak proficiently otherwise the students' comprehension is compromised (Yildiz et al.,

2017). Ackerley (2017: 264) says that "the way lecturers speak also helps students to cope with understanding lectures in a second language". In relation to the type of accent, lecturers should familiarise students not only with British and American accent, but also with Australian, Indian etc. accent since English is spoken all over the world and the question of *what is the Standard English*? is an endless debate (Bingol, 2014).

Secondly, "lecturers practise with different lecturing behaviours by matching their behaviour to the needs of students and the objectives of their teaching courses" (Klaassen and De Graaff, 2001: 6). EMI lecturers should, for instance, inform students about the features of spoken discourse (that is characterised by, for example, weak forms, elisions, contractions) so that students are not surprised or stressed during a listening activity. The lecturer can then give background information needed for students to comprehend the text. As a consequence, students start predicting what they might hear (Saraswaty, 2018). In this way, students might familiarise key concepts before listening to the spoken text (Saraswaty, 2018).

Thirdly, it is also important that lecturers know how to teach and design courses and "how to deal with international students and introduce an international dimension in their teaching" (Klaassen, 2008: 33). Practice activities provided by lecturers can help students to cope with their difficulties "so that they can have better control over their listening comprehension" (Goh, 2000: 69). Bloomfield et al. (2010: 3) say that "the improvements may be greater for lower-proficiency listeners than higher-proficiency listeners, but only if they have the lexical and syntactic knowledge needed to comprehend the passage". Goh (2000: 71) affirms that another way to help students improve their listening comprehension is by "providing them with practice in perception of selected sounds, content words, pronunciation of new words and intonation features, such as prominence and tones". Goh's (2000) findings goes in accordance with Klaassen (2008: 35) who states that "explaining new terminology, explaining things in various ways, using clear examples, as well as liveliness, effective gestures, and maintaining eye contact" are among those factors that turn out to be important in an EMI classroom.

Finally, "effective language teaching should aim at showing students how they can adjust their listening behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and listening purposes" (Azevedo and Buchweitz, 2015: 43). As a result, students develop

different listening strategies and they might be able to match these strategies to each listening situation they may come across.

3.5.1 Lecturers' initiatives

Non-native English lecturers might feel insecure about their ability to teach their content subjects in English. To overcome this issue, Ploettner (2019) suggests the development of EMI training initiatives. The planning of EMI teacher initiatives is not enough as critical reflection is also needed "to assess the effectiveness of such programs and to orient ongoing improvement" (Ploettner, 2019: 264). These initiatives can include a wide range of activities such as individual or group activities, peer coaching, workshops, seminars and individual observation and reflection (Ploettner, 2019). Considering previous studies on teacher preparation for EMI, there are three areas that should be taken into account: "communication and specific language use; pedagogy and didactics; and issues related to multilingualism and multiculturalism" (Ploettner, 2019: 265).

In addition, collaboration between content lecturers and language specialists has been recommended for the preparation of English at university (Brown, 2017; Gustaffson et al., 2011). Forms of collaboration can be, for instance, tandem teaching experiences and online initiatives.

3.5.2 Repair strategies

Rabab'ah (2013: 124) states that "one of the common features of spoken discourse is repair, which results from the speakers' recognition of faulty plans". Schegloff et al. (1977: 361 in Rabab'ah, 2013: 124) defines repair as dealing with "recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding". Repair does not only concern linguistic problems (e.g. vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation), but it might also relate to "acceptability problems, such as saying something wrong in a broad sense, that is untrue, inappropriate or irrelevant" (Rabab'ah, 2013: 124).

3.5.2.1 Repetition and self-initiated repair

Repetition is "the most effective strategy used by non-native speakers" (Ardini, 2015: 57) and it aims to achieve efficiency and show cooperation among speakers (Cogo, 2009). Its role in communication is considered to be "one of the most effective strategies for promoting comprehension that a speaker can use" (Ardini, 2015: 57). Repetition is a type of repair strategy and it consists of "a particular set of repair strategies where the repairable and repairing segments occur in the same turn and the repair is performed by the initiator of the repairable" (Ardini, 2015: 57). In other words, it occurs when the lecturer repeats something previously said to make concepts clearer (Gotti, 2015). However, the clarification of meaning also implies "the adoption of cooperative strategies and interactive repairs by both the speaker and the interlocutors whenever difficulties or non-understanding occur" (Gotti, 2015: 85). In particular, listeners recur to "minimal incomprehension signals or direct questions when they encounter comprehension problems" (Gotti, 2015: 85).

It is also worth mentioning that repetitions are a "multifaceted phenomenon and can appear in various forms: they can occur as a whole, i.e. word-byword, or as partial" (Cogo, 2009: 260). In terms of functions, repetitions are "a powerful and versatile tool that can provide a linguistic resource for facilitating rhythm and group synchrony, providing time to catch up on the missed discourse (e.g. when attention has lapsed for a moment), or buying time to think of what to say next" (Cogo, 2009: 260).

Another strategy commonly employed is the self-initiated repair or self-repair which takes place when "words or expressions previously formulated are proposed in a different way by the same person to facilitate the hearers' comprehension" (Gotti, 2015: 85). Self-repair takes "the form of initiation with a non-lexical initiator, followed by the repairing segment" (Ardini, 2015: 57). Non-lexical initiators include, for example, cut-offs, lengthening of sounds and quasi-lexical fillers, e.g. "*uh*" and "*um*" (Ardini, 2015). This type of repair strategy can be confused with repetition because when the speaker tries to repair the errors, s/he combines "the non-lexical initiators with repeating words and using fillers to gain time and achieving their communicative goal" (Ardini, 2015: 58).

3.5.3 Discourse markers

Discourse markers can be divided into two types: macro-markers (e.g. *my first point is*, *in conclusion*) that "provide clues about the overall structure of the passage" and micro-markers (e.g. *in fact*, *because*, *yet*) that "establish links between adjacent utterances" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 47). Macro-markers are also defined as a type of lexical bundle, "a frequently occurring sequence of words with widespread use […] that is not idiomatic (e.g., *do you want to* is a lexical bundle, while *kick the bucket* is an idiom"; Bloomfield et al. 2010: 47). Discourse markers are usually used in lectures and not in conversations because lecturers need to organise their content classes. According to Bloomfield et al. (2010) both L1 and L2 listeners benefit from discourse markers. However, Jung (2003) found that L2 listeners who listened to a passage that contained discourse markers were able to obtain more information than listeners who heard a passage in which there was a lack of discourse markers. Jung (2003) states that macro-markers generally help the listener to comprehend the lecture more than micro-markers.

Hamouda (2013) states that discourse markers (e.g. *then*, *secondly*) are used in lectures or formal situations. In informal situations (e.g. spontaneous conversations) people mainly use signals, e.g. pauses, gestures, different intonations. Hamouda (2013: 128) clarifies that signal words might help the listener, e.g. if you hear *but* or *however*, you should be careful because these are signal words that indicate that a new idea is about to be introduced. Other examples are *as a result* or *to sum up* and they are said to summarise ideas previously explained. Camiciottoli (2004) states that particularly in academic lectures, comprehension might be enhanced if lecturers employ terms that signal to listeners what is going to happen (e.g. *first let's take a look at* […] *you'll see that in just a minute* or *what I will do now is* […]) Camiciottoli (2004: 40) defines these terms as "chunks based on first and second person pronouns and modal/semi-modal verbs, thus constituting a form of interaction between lecturer and audience that interrupts the flow of informational content". These terms are also defined as signposting. In other words, its function is "to structure the content by signalling to the listener what the speaker will talk about next or what they have just talked about, by organising the content

using sequencing words (firstly, next…) and by linking content either forwards or backwards in the discourse" (Khan, 2018: 76-77).

3.5.4 Redundancy

Redundancy "involves repeating key information through exact repetition, paraphrase, and elaboration" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 24). This strategy might be used by lecturers to check listeners' comprehension. Redundancy is classified as a form of simplification because it re-presents the information and thus give the listener another opportunity to comprehend that information. According to Bloomfield et al. (2010) the easiest form of redundancy is *repetition*, i.e. the speaker repeats the information using the exact words. Another form of redundancy is presenting a *synonym*, even though this might be more complex if the listener does not comprehend the given synonym or s/he does not know or cannot grasp its meaning. It is believed that lower-proficiency listeners benefit more when lecturers use the exact repetition technique, while higher-proficiency listeners can benefit from more difficult forms of redundancy such as synonyms or paraphrasing (Bloomfield et al, 2010). For instance, in paraphrasing, the lecturer "presents information using different language, by rephrasing" (Khan, 2018: 77). It is usually preceded by "*I mean…*", "*what I mean…*". Paraphrasing makes "the information more understandable through repetition and approximation with the use of alternative language, which gives students more time to pay attention to and process information" (Khan, 2018: 77).

Language proficiency is difficult to compare with other studies because it is defined in many different ways. One reason for this difficulty is due to the "the lack of standardized tests for determining proficiency level across languages" (Bloomfield et al., 2010: 12). Studies usually measure students' proficiency by using the lecturers' assessment, course level or a non-standard test.

3.5.5 Visuals

Visuals are considered a fundamental aid to listening (Vandergrift, 2004). Visuals can be divided into *context visuals*, i.e. "pictures that set the scene for the upcoming verbal exchange [that] prepare listeners for the text or verbal exchanges" and *content visuals*, i.e. "pictures related to the actual content of the verbal exchange [that] support the text" (Vandergrift, 2004: 5). According to Vandergrift (2004) it seems that context visuals are not helpful to the listeners. In turn, they decrease comprehension because they "require processing themselves, thereby consuming attentional resources and limiting the amount of working memory available to the listener for attending to the required information" (Vandergrift, 2004: 5-6). It should be taken into account that "beginning-level listeners are limited by working memory constrains" (Vandergrift, 2004: 6).

However, visuals catch the learners' attention and "help them relate to content of the spoken text, thus listeners overcome difficulties such as unknown words, minimal pairs of words" (Saraswaty, 2018: 146). Rost (2011: 50) thinks that "visual signals must be considered as co-text, an integral part of the input which the listener is able to use for interpretation". There are two types of visual signals that are classified as *exophoric* (e.g. when the speaker writes some words on the blackboard or when s/he holds up a photo) or *kinesic* (e.g. body movements) (Rost, 2011).

3.5.6 Code-switching

Code-switching can be considered a "usable tool in order to assist the English language teaching and learning process at the foundation level, especially where it is a skill being introduced to the pupils living in multilingual speaking environments" (Keller, 2016: 3). Studies have shown that the L1 can be useful for learners of English as a foreign or second language to develop strategies to make difficult tasks more manageable (Keller, 2016). According to Klaassen (2008: 43) "switching can occur between a second language (L2) and the first language (L1), or others (L3, LXs).

Code-switching can assist English language learners to clarify the meaning of tasks and instructions through L1, discuss about how the task should be completed,

discuss about lexical choices, grammar and definitions of words (Keller, 2016). In addition, "students may use another language (L3) they have in common with other learners for problem solving" (Klaassen, 2008: 43).

Redouane (2005: 1921) states that the earliest definition of code-switching dates back to Weinreich (1953) who defines bilingual people as "individuals who switch from one language to the other according to appropriate changes in speech situation". Recently, scholars started distinguishing between *code-switching* and *code-mixing*. Muysken (2000:1) refers to code-switching as "the rapid succession of several languages in a single speech event", while codemixing refers to "all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence". Although the terms code-switching and code-mixing are used interchangeably (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001), some differences between the two phenomena have been pointed out. Basnight-Brown and Altarriba (2007: 69) refer to code-mixing as "using words and phrases from one language in place of those in the other language within a single sentence" and code-switching as "switching between languages based on changes in the speech situation, where the topic or members of the conversation change". Redouane (2005: 1921) describes code-mixing as "the process of mixing of elements from two languages in one utterance" and codeswitching as "the product of this mix". Heredia and Altarriba (2001: 165) explain that bilinguals code-switch because they "compensate for lack of language proficiency". The reason is that bilinguals code-switch because they do not completely/fully know both languages. Code-switching is considered a strategy in order to be better understood as "some ideas are better communicated in one language than another. For example, the Spanish word "*cariño*" implies a combination of liking and affection. Neither of these English words alone truly conveys the meaning of the Spanish word." (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001: 165).

In addition, some studies have identified different functions of the use of code-switching: specifying an addressee, i.e. "directing one's speech to a specific addressee to invite her/him to participate in the conversation"; appealing for assistance, "by asking for the missing term/phrase or inquiring if a used form is correct"; introducing another idea, i.e. "resorting to code-switching with the implication that the language switched into is more appropriate to discuss a particular subject"; and signalling culture. This last function

can be fulfilled in two ways: implicitly or explicitly. In the latter case, "the speaker uses a foreign word to refer directly to concepts associated with a specific culture" (Gotti, 2015: 86). Code-switching is also employed by lecturers to explain technical concepts and specialised terms, or to overcome the comprehension's difficulties experienced by students (Gotti, 2015).

The topic of code-switching has also been investigated by Cogo (2009), who, contrary to Heredia and Altarriba (2001), takes this approach from a sociolinguistic perspective. She does not consider code-switching as a strategy that is adopted to compensate for the students' linguistic deficiency. It is then believed that "another way of researching code-switching sociolinguistically views language alternation itself as more important than the symbolic meanings that a language is associated with" (Cogo, 2009: 264). It is also suggested that code-switching is used as an additional tool to "achieve particular conversational goals in interactions with other intercultural speakers" (Cogo, 2009: 268). These are:

- "offering an extra tool in communication that is at the disposal of multilingual speakers and allows for meaning making and greater nuances of expression;
- ensuring understanding beyond cultural differences and the efficient delivery of talk;
- signalling solidarity and membership into the same community of multilingual speakers".

Cogo (2009: 268-269)

3.5.7 Translanguaging

The term translanguaging comes from the Welsh "*trawsieithu*" and it was coined by Williams (1994, 1996) to refer to a "pedagogical practice which sustains the development of language skills through the concurrent use of two languages in classroom activities" (Mazzaferro, 2018). He states that the use of both languages can be "beneficial for the development of language skills in both languages, and also contributes to a deeper understanding of the subject matter being studied" (Baker, 2001: 280). Translanguaging is considered a successful strategy that results in effective content learning (Baker, 2001;

Mazzaferro, 2018). For example, the listening or reading of a lecture is conducted in one language and the discussion is conducted in the other language. For this reason, Baker (2001: 281) affirms that "in translanguaging, the input (reading or listening) tends to be in one language, and the output (speaking or writing) in the other language". Translanguaging has several advantages. Firstly, it promotes a full and deep understanding of the subject. Secondly, it helps students to develop skills in their weaker language because students can decide to do activities in their strong language, but translanguaging attempts to "develop academic language skills in both languages" (Baker, 2001: 282).

3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be affirmed that even though students struggle with their listening skills (e.g. due to unfamiliar accents, unfamiliar words and lack of confidence), there are some strategies that can be adopted to overcome their listening comprehension problems.

Students have different possibilities to enhance their listening skills. For instance, they can start taking notes, although this activity demands a lot of effort and consequently, some scholars believe that it hurts listening comprehension. However, students can opt for using compensation strategies, e.g. skipping, that is omitting a part of the text. They can rely on bottom-up strategies, e.g. listening for specific details or top-down strategies, e.g. complete a sentence.

Lecturers, on the other hand, can adopt other strategies to help their students. They can rely on repair strategies (e.g. repetition and self-initiated repair). They can use discourse markers (e.g. then, secondly, as a result). They can also check listeners' comprehension by using redundancy. Visuals are also considered an important aid to comprehension. Whenever possible, lecturers can use code-switching and translanguaging to clarify difficult parts.

In the fourth chapter, I will investigate the strategies that lecturers use to solve or prevent communication breakdowns that might occur within the classroom. The strategies that I will take into account are, for example, self-repair, repetition, code-switching, giving examples, defining and restructuring.

CHAPTER 4

Analysis of lecturing strategies in a corpus of EMI lectures at the University of Padova

4.1 Introduction

In this fourth chapter, I am going to look at lecturing strategies for communication repair of non-native lecturers in EMI classes at the Università degli Studi di Padova. I retrieved the term *lecturing strategies* from Khan (2018: 67) since he uses this term to refer to "strategies which are used 1) in the context of the university lecture 2) in spoken academic discourse and 3) with or without any overt instances of communicative breakdown occurring". We should start from the assumption that lecturers are likely to employ these strategies consciously or automatically to foresee potential learning or communication problems. For this study, we should also pose the following questions: what types of lecturing strategies do non-native EMI lecturers use? Which lecturing strategies are used more frequently? To answer these questions, I created a corpus and analysed it with AntConc, selected the strategies used by lecturers and looked at their frequency and use. This procedure enabled me to understand what the strategies used more frequently are.

The chapter starts with the aim of the study. The second section concerns the procedure that I used to carry out the study. The following section concerns the findings (i.e. the results that I retrieved from the corpus), while the last section concerns the discussion of the results.

4.2 Aim of the study

The present study aims to understand what strategies lecturers use to solve or prevent communication breakdowns that might occur during a lecture. In the following paragraphs, I will explain in detail how I developed this study and then I will discuss the results.

4.3 Procedure

In order to carry out this study, I transcribed 3 lessons recorded by Marta Guarda (a researcher at the University of Padova) as part of a research project[6]. In order to have a large corpus, Marta Guarda gave me 7 transcriptions that were recorded by her but manually transcribed by other people (i.e. they were either master's students or professors). I also used Marta Guarda's conventions called "UNIPD EMI Transcription Guide" as a starting point and adopted them for the present analysis. For example, I used capital letters when the lecturer stressed or emphasised a word (see table 1).

Table 1: UNIPD EMI Transcription Guide

Utterances	utterance begins <S1>
	utterance ends </S1>
Speakers	<S1> </S2> </S3> …
Unidentified speaker	<SU>
Uncertain speaker identification	<SU-1>
Several simultaneous speakers	<SS>
Uncertain transcription	(text)

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[6] The name of the research project is: "Knowledge construction in English-Medium Instruction at the University of Padova: exploring student practices and perspectives on the use of English as an Academic Lingua Franca."

Unintelligible speech	(xx)
nonsense words	<SIC> text </SIC>
lexis and invented words	<PVC> text </PVC>
Switching into a foreign language	<L1> text </L1> if it is the L1 of the speaker <LN> text </LN> if not the L1 of the speaker
Laughter	@@
Spoken laughing	@text@
Brief pause while speaking 2-3 sec.	,
Pause 5 sec. or longer, rounded up to the nearest sec.	<P:05>
Hesitations	er, erm, ah
Prominence	if a speaker gives a syllable, word or phrase particular prominence, this is written in capital letters, e.g. internationalisation is a VERY important issue; toMORrow we have to work
Other events which affect the interpretation or comprehension of what is being said, for example:	<PREPARING PROJECTOR> <WRITING ON BLACKBOARD> <APPLAUSE> <WHISPERING> <DISC / TRACK / FILE / CD CHANGE>
Coughing, sighing, gasping, etc., if the speaker coughs etc. while speaking and this affects the situation or flow of speech (but NOT if other participants cough or sneeze, etc):	<COUGH> <GASP>
Types of strategies	<code-switching> xxx </code-switching <giving example> xxx </giving example> <defining> xxx </defining>

Then, I created my own corpus that consists of the ten lesson transcriptions that I mentioned above. The creation of the corpus is an essential part of my study and I have used a concordance programme, i.e. *AntConc* to analyse it (see paragraph 4.3.1).

In table 2, I provide a general overview of the corpus, indicating for each lecture the academic domain and the topic of the lessons and the students' level of instruction (i.e. MA = master's students or UD = undergraduate students).

Table 2: lecturers' lessons and students' level of instruction

	academic domain	discipline		File
lecturer 1	Medicine	drug discovery and development	MA, 1st year	ULECD01
lecturer 2	Social Sciences	social dynamics in local development	MA, 1st year	ULECD02
lecturer 3	Psychology	clinical psychology	UD, 2nd year	ULECD03
lecturer 4	Medicine	immunology and general pathology	MA, 1st year	ULECD04
lecturer 5	Psychology	neuropsychology	UD, 2nd year	ULECD05
lecturer 6	Agriculture	Integrated Pest Management (IPM) of Fruit Crops in Temperate Climate	MA, 2nd year	ULECD06
lecturer 7	Psychology	English	UD, 3rd year	ULECD08
lecturer 8	Psychology	Clinical Psychology	MA, 1st year	ULECD09
lecturer 9	Business	Organisation Development and Behaviour	MA, 1st year	ULECD10
lecturer 10	Agriculture	Forest Policy for a Bio-Based Economy Strategy	MA, 1st year	ULECD13

The lessons that I considered can be divided in two groups as some are lectures, while other lessons are mainly focus on students' presentations where there is an active participation of students.

Table 3 summarises the descriptions of the ten lessons. It also highlights the recording time, the total number of words for each lecture and the total number of words for each lecturer. The recording duration of the lessons is approximately 22 hours with a total of 156,273 words.

Table 3: description of lessons

	Event Type	Recording Time	Total Number of Words	Lecturers' word count
lecturer 1	after a short plenary, students work in four groups to sum up the most important points of a scientific paper. They then report the main contents to the class in a final plenary session	approximately 2:35 h but L1 speaks for 53 min	18048	3665
lecturer 2	In groups, students discuss solutions for sustainable tourism in Egypt. The discussion is led by five students, who ask their peers to work in three small groups and come up with ideas and proposals. At the end, each group is asked to share their solutions with the rest of the class. This transcript focuses on the plenary and the discussion that took place in two groups of students (group 1 and group 2). The final plenary was not recorded to its full length since the researcher had to leave class before its end	approximately 1:35 h	11061	3
lecturer 3	Frontal lecture, with some questions to/from students	2:27:21 h	15138	13360
lecturer 4	two groups of students (5 ss in group 1 and 6 ss in group 2) present the findings of two scientific papers	2:01:28 h	13549	2657
lecturer 5	Frontal lecture, with questions to/from students	1:36:17 h	11482	9105
lecturer 6	Frontal lecture, with a few questions to/from students	1:36:23 h	12861	12138
lecturer 7	ten students give short 3-minute presentations on any topic of their choice, with the aid of one ppt slide each	1:25:33 h	12464	4148

lecturer 8	four students (S2, S3, S13 and S) deliver a lesson themselves with the aid of their professor's ppt slides which they had been previously provided with	1:48:22 h	10898	1403
lecturer 9	professor first lectured (about 1 hr). After the break students were divided into 5 groups to prepare and perform a role play in which the HR head of a company had to negotiate a salary increase with four engineer employees.	First plenary 0HOUR 42MIN 34SEC + Instructions and Group 3 discussion 0HOUR 42MIN 20SEC + Instructions, Group 1 discussion and final plenary 2HRS 14MIN 14SEC = TOT APPROX 3HOURS 45MIN	30460	9694
lecturer 10	First, introductory lecture of the course, with active participation of students	4:05 h but video shown during class (at 168MIN 20SEC): "European Forests: Central to the World We Live in	20312	17220

Then, I focused my attention on the lecturers' discourse and tried to identify the strategies they used during their lectures (see table 4). To do this, I tagged the utterances with the name of the strategy used. Finally, I converted the transcriptions in the txt format and I uploaded them in AntConc. After uploading all the files in AntConc, I looked for the strategies. For example, I typed "<repetition for emphasis>" in the Search Term box and I looked at the results in the Concordance Hits box. This procedure enabled me to understand the frequency of each strategy and identify any recurring linguistic features.

4.3.1 AntConc

AntConc is "a freeware corpus analysis toolkit for concordancing and text analysis" (Anthony, 2019). The software includes 7 tools that are the Concordance Tool, the Concordance Plot Tool, the File View Tool, the Clusters/N-Grams, the Collocates, the Word List and the Keyword List. Each of these tools has a specific function. For example, the Concordance Tool "shows search results in a 'KWIC' (KeyWord In Context) format". The Concordance Plot Tool "shows search results plotted as a 'barcode' format. This allows you to see the position where search results appear in target texts". The File View Tool shows "the text of individual files. This allows you to investigate in more detail the results generated in other tools of AntConc". The Clusters/N-Grams shows "clusters based on the search condition. In effect it summarizes the results generated in the Concordance Tool or Concordance Plot Tool. The N-Grams Tool, on the other hand, scans the entire corpus for 'N' (e.g. 1 word, 2 words, …) length clusters. This allows you to find common expressions in a corpus". The Collocates section shows "the collocates of a search term. This allows you to investigate non-sequential patterns in language". The Word List "counts all the words in the corpus and presents them in an ordered list. This allows you to quickly find which words are the most frequent in a corpus". Finally, the Keyword List "shows the which words are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the words in a reference corpus. This allows you to identify characteristic words in the corpus, for example, as part of a genre or ESP study" (Anthony, 2019).

4.4 Findings

The strategies that I looked at are presented in table 4.

Table 4: strategies and lecturers' frequency.

In this table I reported each frequency for each lecturer (L = lecturer), also highlighting the highest frequency and then I wrote the total frequency for each strategy.

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
repetition for emphasis	1	-	2	2	**12**	8	1	-	5	3	**34**
voluntary repetition	6	-	15	6	15	18	5	6	10	**20**	**101**
involuntary repetition	17	-	39	18	12	**95**	8	9	37	20	**255**
defining	-	-	3	1	4	1	-	-	1	**9**	**19**
checking comprehension	-	-	2	-	**4**	-	-	-	1	**4**	**11**
self-repair	-	-	-	1	**9**	7	-	-	1	3	**21**
class engagement	4	-	8	19	11	20	9	4	16	**30**	**121**
soliciting agreement	6	-	**23**	-	-	1	-	-	18	4	**52**
giving examples	-	-	16	-	**23**	4	-	1	1	3	**48**
code-switching	**13**	-	-	2	1	1	-	5	12	**13**	**47**

4.4.1 Repetition for emphasis, voluntary and involuntary repetition

Table 5: repetition for emphasis, voluntary and involuntary repetition

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
repetition for emphasis	1	-	2	2	**12**	8	1	-	5	3	**34**
voluntary repetition	6	-	15	6	15	18	5	6	10	**20**	**101**
involuntary repetition	17	-	39	18	12	**95**	8	9	37	20	**255**

Repetition might be considered a strategy to highlight important information. In this study, one of the strategies currently used by lecturers to emphasise relevant information is to provide visual support information through PowerPoint slides and use

strategies such as repetition and giving examples (see also table 19 and table 20). For this reason, in the corpus I have distinguished between voluntary and involuntary repetition and repetition for emphasis. Voluntary repetition is mainly used by lecturers to express clarity, emotions, annoyance, surprise, and persuasion. By contrast, involuntary repetition is used as a filler to take time, e.g. "when the speaker was searching for a proper word to say what would come next" (Rabab'ah and Abuseileek, 2012: 445). In this corpus, it can be seen that lecturers have used voluntary repetition and repetition for emphasis to give a particular focus on something, even though there are more instances of involuntary repetition that might lead us to think that they were thinking about how to organise a piece of information that they would say. Table 6 presents some instances of repetition for emphasis while table 7 shows examples of voluntary repetition and table 8 shows examples of involuntary repetition. In particular, the corpus reveals that lecturers 5, 6 and 9 use the repetition for emphasis more than the other lecturers. More specifically, there are 12 instances for lecturer 5, 8 instances for lecturer 6 and 5 instances for lecturer 9 (see table 5). The other lecturers do not often use this strategy as their usage is low since it varies between 1 and 3 instances of repetition for emphasis.

Table 6: examples of repetition for emphasis

Strategy	Example	File
repetition for emphasis	"you'll guide you will GUIDE me on Monday to do that okay?"	ULECD01
repetition for emphasis	"it's a very very interesting question"	ULECD04
repetition for emphasis	"they have much much more high experience"	ULECD05
repetition for emphasis	"it could be very very very nice approach"	ULECD05
repetition for emphasis	"they have done some very very elegant experiments"	ULECD05
repetition for emphasis	"you have very very good background information"	ULECD13
repetition for emphasis	"they're really really tiny insects"	ULECD06
repetition for emphasis	"you referred many many times to the fact that"	ULECD10

In addition, considering the emphasised words used by lecturers, a widespread usage of the word *very* can be noted. It is mainly used as an adverb to emphasise the importance of what the speaker is saying. It is interesting to highlight that the repetition

of the word "*very*" seems to be typical of lecturer 5, lecturer 6 and lecturer 9. Lecturer 5 repeats the word "*very*" 10 times out of 12 instances, while lecturer 6 repeats the word "*very*" 5 times out of 8 instances and lecturer 9 repeats it 3 times out of 5 instances. It can also be noted that relevant information tends to be accompanied and highlighted by the adverb *really* (e.g. lecturer 6 uses it 2 times out of 8 instances and for example, s/he says "*they're really really tiny insects*") and by adjectives such as *important* or *key* and verbs such as *consider, pay (attention to)* or *remember* (e.g. lecturer 5 says: "*we shall erm consider very very briefly some neuroanatomical erm considerations*").

Table 7: examples of voluntary repetition

Strategy	Example	File
voluntary repetition	"now paper board paper board development"	ULECD13
voluntary repetition	"quick answer quick answer"	ULECD04
voluntary repetition	"so only to tell you only to tell you that"	ULECD13
voluntary repetition	"the topic was shocking yes , the topic was shocking"	ULECD08
voluntary repetition	"yeah at the end at the end of the first negotiation"	ULECD10
voluntary repetition	"you you and you and so on okay of course you can write something"	ULECD05
voluntary repetition	"while on the on the on the with one application mowing at the beginning"	ULECD06
voluntary repetition	"we , we will discuss the results okay"	ULECD01

In comparison with the repetition for emphasis, the voluntary repetition is constantly used by all the lecturers. Lecturer 6 and lecturer 10 are the ones who use this strategy more frequently, respectively with 18 instances for lecturer 6 and 20 instances for lecturer 10 (see table 5). However, in some cases the voluntary repetition can be confused with the repetition for emphasis as it might have a similar function, that is stressing or emphasising a word by voluntarily repeating it. This can be seen in the following example retrieved from lecturer 3: "*okay so erm studies in which prevalence is estimated are epidemiological studies right is not just a client who go to the the clients who go to the clinician right estimates prevalence estimates are not based just on clients who go to clinicians right they are based on erm very high numbers in the population erm*

based on interviews based on you know collecting data on a <u>large large</u> number of individuals". It shows that the lecturer stresses the adjective *large* to emphasise amounts and/or quantities. In addition, the lecturer might also decide to repeat a complete sentence (i.e. "*the topic was shocking yes, the topic was shocking*") to give a particular focus on that repeated sentence.

Table 8: examples of involuntary repetition

Strategy	Example	File
involuntary repetition	"another problem erm for for management"	ULECD06
involuntary repetition	"you customised the the strategy"	ULECD10
involuntary repetition	"the blue blue erm which is some points something something like the middle part of the paper"	ULECD01
involuntary repetition	"you may hear hear some people saying"	ULECD03
involuntary repetition	"they choose to to develop erm a […]"	ULECD04
involuntary repetition	"and also the the the search of an (xx) for for for for for the phytoplasma"	ULECD06
involuntary repetition	"because she started out with with a question which was being answered"	ULECD08
involuntary repetition	"okay okay now a last question for all the forester , you have to tell me the meaning of this acronym , but moreover to explain erm the the acronym erm"	ULECD13

As in the case of the voluntary repetition, the involuntary repetition is used by all the ten lecturers. However, it can be said that the involuntary repetition might not be a strategy to enhance communication because lecturers unconsciously repeat syllables or words. Examples of involuntary repetition can be caused by disfluencies which may include hesitations such as silent pauses and nonword fillers (e.g. *uh, erm* as in the example taken from table 6: "*they choose to to develop erm a* […]". Other examples include whole-word repetitions (e.g. "*another problem erm for for management*").

According to the results taken from table 6, table 7 and table 8, lecturers use a wide range of repetition techniques to make their lectures more effective. These techniques help lecturers to respond to the students' essential needs during the lecturing

process: students need to be (a) interested in paying attention to the lecturer, (b) able to understand the key ideas, (c) capable of stimulating their memory, and (d) competent at expressing what has been understood.

4.4.2 Defining

Table 9: defining

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**.
defining	-	-	3	1	4	1	-	-	1	**9**	**19**

The defining function aims to give explanations with specific meanings. Recurrent expressions from the corpus are "*X, which is; That means…; X means that*". For example, lecturer 5 explains to their students what alexia is and what the plural form of paralexia is by saying: "*alexia is a disorder of reading and if I erm produce errors when when I'm reading aloud if my spoken output while I'm reading aloud is characterised by errors these errors are called paralexias this is the plural form paralexia is the singular form*". It can be noted that in the corpus the most frequent three-word clusters are: "*this is the*" and "*this means that*". From the table, it can also be affirmed that lecturer 10 is the one who uses this strategy more frequently. This might be due to the content of the lesson as lecturer 10 gives an introductory lesson of the course.

Table 10: examples of defining

Strategy	Example	File
defining	"alexia is a disorder of reading and if I erm produce errors when when I'm reading aloud if my spoken output while I'm reading aloud is characterised by errors these errors are called paralexias this is the plural form paralexia is the singular form"	ULECD05

defining	"and as you probably have seen for each unit I have also checklist , a checklist is a list of questions , erm that are presenting the main issues the main topics of each unit , you will use them for checking your: understanding of the main topics"	ULECD13
defining	"and when I speak about deficits in production and or comprehension it means that production and comprehension with reference to the two main axes syntax versus phonology erm phonological lexical semantic aspects can be associated"	ULECD05
defining	"and in order to be: in order to receive a compensation for a for the concession this party obtain something that initially wasn't part of the deal , that is the new furniture okay , so is non specific compensation non-specific means that is not related with the topic of the issue"	ULECD10
defining	"and in Italy where we are very , pure and row material availability the rate of recycling is much higher , is reaching 70 percent , in the past we importing recycled paper , even from US mhm? so what does it mean? this means that the main provider the main source of paper row material , is not the forest but are we as consumer we are the main supplier of this row material"	ULECD13
defining	"global aphasia is the combination of Wernicke's and Broca's aphasia it would have a huge perisylvian lesion that means that all the areas surrounding the sylvian solcus that is the lateral solcus are impaired with a huge lesion"	ULECD05
defining	"<SHOWING TABLE> this is the overall picture okay plus means that the plus is intact or quite intact whereas minus means that we have an impairment there okay"	ULECD05
defining	"here we have ecosystem services that are classified in three groups plus one , and the three groups of eco-system services and I think you have already heard about this classification are the provisioning services , the regulating services and the cultural one . provisions"	ULECD13

	, provisioning means erm material the hard goods like wood like cork like mushroom , resin […]"	

4.4.3 Checking comprehension

Table 11: checking comprehension

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
checking comprehension	-	-	2	-	**4**	-	-	-	1	**4**	**11**

In addition, the lecturer can also use the checking comprehension type of question. In this case, the lecturer makes sure that students have understood the information given. Some examples are: *so far everything okay? Is this clear?* This type of question is used to ensure whether students have already understood the information presented by the lecturer. These questions may be answered verbally or nonverbally. Even though they are not verbally answered by the students, they still manifest the professor's concern about the students' comprehension of the subject matter. Lecturers can also use declarative/imperative + word tag questions to check students' understanding by the use of words tag such as *ok*, *right* and *all right*. For instance, lecturer 3 says: "*the manifestation of depressive symptoms in the mother obviously right? , during pregnancy or after in the four weeks after the child is born okay , nothing has happened no tragedy has occurred right so it's just that the symptoms are manifested during pregnancy or right after birth , of the child okay*". Lecturer 10 says: "*low elasticity of demand what does it mean? means that erm if you earn ten percent more if you have a ten percent increase in your salary you are not consuming ten percent more food , a part the cases of developing countries a part the cases of low income families , for families of a household with an average level of income and for rich families , the increase of salary the increase of level of income is not converted in an increase of consumption of food , it's okay? Mhm?*". They can also use yes/no question to check students' comprehension. For example, lecturer 5 says: "*the patients were asked to connect to associate the sentence with a picture representing the meaning of the sentence is this clear?*". This strategy is not

commonly used among lecturers, as only lecturer 3, lecturer 5, lecturer 9 and lecturer 10 use it. Although one might expect that lecturers often check students' comprehension by asking them questions, it is important to say that there is a low usage of this strategy as lecturer 3 uses it 2 times, lecturer 5 uses it 4 times, lecturer 9 uses it 1 time and lecturer 10 uses it 4 times (see table 11).

Table 12: examples of checking comprehension

Strategy	Example	File
checking comprehension	"but YOUR critical approach your view your personal interpretation the ability of: developing your personal idea of the topics is the real objective of this course , are you convinced about that is this clear?"	ULECD13
checking comprehension	"we are going to simulate the: erm negotiation so let's say that the HR HR manager invites the: erm four engineers after one year of work in the company that is called Universal so the Universal company and they have a little chat about a possibility to have an increase okay? clear?"	ULECD10
checking comprehension	"the manifestation of depressive symptoms in the mother obviously right? , during pregnancy or after in the four weeks after the child is born okay , nothing has happened no tragedy has occurred right so it's just that the symptoms are manifested during pregnancy or right after birth , of the child okay . so far everything is okay?"	ULECD03
checking comprehension	"<LESSON RESUMES AFTER A 18MIN BREAK> was it clear? this point?"	ULECD13
checking comprehension	"the patients were asked to connect to associate the sentence with a picture representing the meaning of the sentence is this clear?"	ULECD05
checking comprehension	"and as you see the final mark is a weighted sum , 40 percent written test 40 percent oral examination 20 percent active participation to the lesson and erm for	ULECD13

checking comprehension	"both this erm erm test erm erm you you have a checklist to be used critically . everything is clear?"	
checking comprehension	"if the patient does not understand even very simple instructions we don't need the test to demonstrate comprehension problems if you just ask a patient so show me where the roof is please can you show me where the roof is okay where the roof is okay . you understand it?"	ULECD05
checking comprehension	"it seems that Wernicke's area is not important only for comprehending recognising and so on spoken words and sentences but it is also important as an intermediate stage of processing also for recognising and comprehending written words and written sentences okay . do you follow me until now?"	ULECD05

4.4.4 Self-repair

Table 13: self-repair

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
self-repair	-	-	-	1	**9**	7	-	-	1	3	**21**

The self-repair strategy is another strategy used by lecturers. In this case, this strategy occurs when lecturers make corrections during their own speech. It can involve grammar mistakes, for example: "*do you are you showing us what task now?*", "*I mean the amount of fatty acid which is uptook erm uptaken by endothelial cells depends yes on this magic substance*" or "*how can you make a distinction between this these subjects?*". It can also involve the wrong choice of words such as: "*they are not on the the plant they are not sorry on the grape*" or "*it was invading invading not invading but erm colonising this part of Italy before the arrival of the disease*". The self-repair strategy is not common among the speakers as only lecturer 4 (1 instance), lecturer 5 (9 instances), lecturer 6 (7 instances), lecturer 9 (1 instance) and lecturer 10 (3 instances) use it. As in the case of the involuntary repetition, the self-repair strategy does not help students, but it is a strategy

that lecturers use to correct their own mistakes during their discourses. In the discussion of the results' section I will explain why I included these strategies (see paragraph 4.5).

Table 14: examples of self-repair

Strategy	Example	File
self-repair	"do you are you showing us what task now?"	ULECD05
self-repair	"he can still record erm repeat out loud spoken words but he cannot understand the meaning of these words"	ULECD05
self-repair	"how can you make a distinction between this these subjects"	ULECD13
self-repair	"it was invading invading not invading but erm colonising this part of Italy before the arrival of the disease"	ULECD06
self-repair	"I mean the amount of fatty acid which is uptook erm uptaken by endothelial cells depends yes on this magic substance"	ULECD04
self-repair	"what is exactly opposite of the mix transcortical sorry mixed aphasia?"	ULECD05
self-repair	"they are not on the the plant they are not sorry on the grape"	ULECD06
self-repair	"this is neither necessary not sufficient nor sufficient"	ULECD05

4.4.5 Class engagement

Table 15: class engagement

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
class engagement	4	-	8	19	11	20	9	4	16	**30**	**121**

Class engagement is another strategy typically used by lectures. It can be said that lecturers mainly use it during their lectures to activate students' participation. It might also be said that it is a strategy used to give students the opportunity to develop their own

idea, reflect on it and then share it with their fellow students. In addition, the use of questions might be necessary during a lecture because students should not just memorise information, but engage with it in critical or thoughtful ways. Also, students do not usually come to lectures with no knowledge of a topic. For this reason, asking them questions might be a good way to find out what they already know and identify and/or correct students' misconceptions. Table 16 shows some examples retrieved from the corpus. The corpus shows that all the lecturers (see table 15 for frequency of use by each lecturer) constantly use this strategy to increase the level of interaction and manage the class by asking questions, e.g. "*are there questions?*", "*can we have a break later*?" (see table 16). In particular, this strategy is frequently used by lecturer 10 (30 instances) than the others. In this case, one of the main peculiarities is to adopt the wh-questions (e.g. who, what, when, where, why) to interact with the students. For example, lecturers use wh-questions (e.g "*what are the strategies in order to do this?*" see table 16) that are open-ended questions to invite their students to speak more freely. On the contrary, yes/no questions (e.g. "*are there questions?*" see table 16 and "*in Austria, everybody agree on that?*" see table 18) were used for a wide range of functions, such as to elicit responses, to check students' comprehension of the lecture content and for class engagement. In particular, lecturer 4 often uses yes/no questions (e.g. s/he asks "*are there questions?*", "*questions?*", "*urgent questions?*"), with 16 instances out of 19, while wh-questions seem to be typical of lecturer 10, with 14 instances out of 30.

Table 16: examples of class engagement

Strategy	Example	File
class engagement	"can we have a break later?"	ULECD03
class engagement	"are there questions?"	ULECD04
class engagement	"so which is the net annual increment of a normal of erm rapid growing forest , a normal forest in Europe?"	ULECD13
class engagement	"can you please show me what is the way or the ways to repeat orally spoken words with reference to the model?"	ULECD05

class engagement	"chemical control is actually optional do you know why?"	ULECD06
class engagement	"a quick question?"	ULECD08
class engagement	"do you know the Wisconsin Card Sorting test?"	ULECD09
class engagement	"what are the strategies in order to do this?"	ULECD10

4.4.6 Soliciting agreement

Table 17: soliciting agreement

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
soliciting agreement	6	-	**23**	-	-	1	-	-	18	4	**52**

Lecturers also use the solicit agreement type of question. As in the case of the class engagement strategy, it is a strategy used by lecturers when they expect an answer from the students. Lecturers might also use the solicit agreement type of question to persuade students to agree with their propositions (e.g.; "*so these children may not be necessarily profoundly sad right?*" see table 11). However, in this case, they specifically expect a confirmation or a disagreement answer. In the corpus, it can be noted that after formulating the question, the lecturers usually add the word "*right*". As suggested by Castro (2009: 60), the use of "interactional signals such as response elicitors (*right?*) […] are crucial to the collaborative organization that takes place in conversation as streams of talk". For this reason, it might be said that after lecturers say something, they ask their students to confirm what they say by adding the word "*right*". This phenomenon can be noted in the questions asked by lecturers 1, 3 and 9 from table 18. However, only lecturer 1 receives a positive answer (e.g. "*okay*") from their students. In the other examples, the lecturers do not receive an audible verbal response and they go on speaking. In the corpus it can be noted that this strategy is mostly used by lecturer 3 (23 instances) and lecturer 9 (18 instances) with a constant frequency of adding the word "*right*" after they formulate a question (i.e. lecturer 3 adds the word "*right*" 20 times out of 23 instances, while lecturer 9 adds the word *right* 16 times out of 18 instances. Overall, it can be said that the solicit

agreement type of question might be a good strategy to keep up students' attention. Castro (2009) states that lecturers usually use the word "*right*" to check students' understanding and seek the students' agreement on their proposed activity.

Table 18: examples of soliciting agreement

Strategy	Example	File
soliciting agreement	"so these children may not be necessarily profoundly sad right?"	ULECD03
soliciting agreement	"do you remember the brief example yesterday about the orange right?"	ULECD10
soliciting agreement	"in Austria, everybody agree on that?"	ULECD13
soliciting agreement	"a mix of everything? No?"	ULECD06
soliciting agreement	"I'll wait for you downstairs whenever you finish [<SS> okay </SS>] very soon right?"	ULECD01
soliciting agreement	"they are you know different disorders all with the same name right?"	ULECD03
soliciting agreement	"you need to ask okay maybe okay there is a role right?"	ULECD10
soliciting agreement	"we may identify the topics right?"	ULECD03

4.4.7 Giving examples

Table 19: giving examples

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
giving examples	-	-	16	-	**23**	4	-	1	1	3	**48**

In addition, lecturers can use the giving examples strategy to clarify points that might be misinterpreted or misunderstood by students. In the corpus it can be noted that lecturers use the following expressions when they want to provide an example: "*for example, for instance, another example is, we have a small example there*". However, the most recurrent expression used by lecturers is "*for example*". Giving-examples is also

used to support concepts in order to make a connection to previously discussed concepts, such as: "*I will give you an example; for example, if…*".

Lecturers can use real world examples as valuable ways to demonstrate the application of abstract concepts in practice and to make the lecture more interesting. For instance, in the corpus lecturer 5 during her neuropsychology lesson tries to explain what episodic memory is by giving the following example: "*and if I ask you for example write me some sentences regarding what you have done yesterday night first you must think of erm what you have done yesterday by combining not so much semantic memory but erm a different type of memory that is episodic memory*". Another example can be found in lecturer's 8 lesson. In this lesson concerning clinical neuropsychology, the lecturer tells students that when they work as examiners and read the stimuli to their patients, their reading should be accurate and they do not have to count loudly because in this way they let the patient understand that they are about to finish their order.

In the corpus, the use of examples is mainly adopted by lecturer 3 and lecturer 5 (i.e. the frequency of use for lecturer 3 is 16 instances, while the frequency of use for lecturer 5 is 23 instances, see table 19 for frequency of use). The use of this strategy increases when lecturers make use of ICT and other visual aids throughout the lecture (e.g. PowerPoint slides). In this way, the lecturer can emphasise the relevance of PowerPoint slides and at the same time s/he allows students to write the example down. For example, lecturer 3 says: "*for instance the volume of some cortical areas and also some subcortical structures has been found to be reduced in depression in particular the cortical areas that have been found to be implicated […] I'm talking about this POINTING AT VISUAL AID*". Lecturers emphasise the importance of giving plenty of examples. In this way, they can illustrate main concepts and their applications.

Table 20: examples of providing an example

Strategy	Example	File
giving example	"the eyes for example are useful for reading for watching television for watching faces and so on"	ULECD05

giving example	"for instance the volume of some cortical areas and also some subcortical structures has been found to be reduced in depression"	ULECD03
giving example	"is a matter of erm knowing erm that FAU for example is working in the forest sector"	ULECD13
giving example	"another example is erm erm okay this is a vineyard one of the main ah place where erm erm erm stinging nettle is present is along the canal"	ULECD06
giving example	"we have a small example there erm situation where the other party is mainly adult person I think that all people are conservative then I think that the other party is negotiating with a conservative approach"	ULECD10
giving example	"then I have erm four pictures for example one of the pictures is the picture representing depicting the meaning of the sentence okay"	ULECD05
giving example	"so you don't have to say erm so for example seven three or nine four because in this way you give the information to the listener that you are finishing your order okay"	ULECD09
giving example	"<POINTING AT VISUAL AID> yeah this is this an example erm just about the the the the the low effect of chemical control"	ULECD06

4.4.8 Code-switching

Table 21: code-switching

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	**Tot**
code-switching	**13**	-	-	2	1	1	-	5	12	**13**	**47**

The last strategy used by lecturers is code-switching. The analysis of the transcripts reveals that although English remained the main medium of instruction, lecturers consciously code-switched to Italian to translate new words and build solidarity with the students. Code-switching might be a useful strategy to facilitate teaching and

learning. In the corpus it can be noted that lecturer 1 and lecturer 10 use code-switching more than the other lecturers (i.e. 13 instances for both lecturer 1 and lecturer 10, see table 21). For example, lecturer 9 invites a student to make his/her presentation and says: "*I am going to call . vieni*". Code-switching is also used by lecturer 9 to give instructions to the students: "*okay voi andate a osservare Mr Watson no voi rimanete qua e osservate Mr Watson okay*". It is also used to explain Italian customs. For example, lecturer 10 says: "*Italian are lazy people because they do what we call ponte*". The lecturer asks students whether they know what *ponte* is, but they do not and s/he gives the following explanation: "*ponte means bridge so when you have a holiday , on Wednesday , in the centre of the week erm while that there is this option to make the ponte to take a long holiday*". In the corpus the lecturers do not use a particular type of language, nor they repeat phrases. They rather hesitate for a moment (e.g.: *but I mean I can translate in black wood erm <L1> legno nero </L1> in Italian*) and then they change language and they forewarn their students. However, lecturers sometimes do not forewarn their students, for example lecturer 8 says: "*vedete anche voi com'è difficile stare nei tempi*".

Table 22: examples of code-switching

Strategy	Example	File
code-switching	"for erm creating a bridge with police office <L1> questura </L1> [<S2> mhm </S2>] in order not to leave you abandoned"	ULECD13
code-switching	"eight of you probably <L1> quanti siete oggi </L1>"	ULECD01
code-switching	"<L1> okay voi andate a osservare Mr Watson no voi rimanete qua e osservate Mr Watson okay </L1> one and two erm"	ULECD10
code-switching	"<L1> vedete anche voi com'è difficile stare nei tempi </L1>"	ULECD09
code-switching	"but I mean I can translate in black wood erm <L1> legno nero </L1> in Italian"	ULECD06
code-switching	"<L1> metti </L1> a time insurance"	ULECD10
code-switching	"so how many leaders will we have here? <L1> uno due . tre , quattro cinque , perfetto </L1>"	ULECD10

code-switching	"this is something special that we can organise here in <L1> Padova </L1> because is a small city if you go a large city like <L1> Milano </L1> or Rome"	ULECD13

4.5 Discussion of the results

The analysis of the corpus reveals that lecturers tend to use some strategies more frequently than others. For example, it has been found that the category of repetition is the most used strategy in the corpus. However, this category includes involuntary repetition (255 instances in the corpus) which might not be a strategy to enhance communication because lecturers unconsciously repeat syllables or words. When lecturers want to highlight important information, they mainly use either repetition for emphasis (34 instances) or voluntary repetition (101 instances).

Then, the defining and checking comprehension strategies might be considered two important strategies to solve presumed communication breakdowns because with the first strategy mentioned, the lecturer gives detailed explanations, while with the second strategy mentioned, the lecturer checks students' comprehension by asking them questions. Although one might expect a huge use of these two strategies as the main focus of the analysis is to understand what strategies lecturers adopt when communication breakdowns occur, the corpus shows that these are the two strategies least used by lecturers with respectively 19 and 11 instances. The checking comprehension strategy should be the most used strategy. However, in this analysis it seems that lecturers do not worry too much about whether students have understood everything. They prefer to use alternative ways to check their comprehension. These alternative ways are asking questions (by using class engagement and the solicit agreement type of questions) and creating a context where students have to opportunity to speak.

As in the case of the involuntary repetition, the self-repair strategy is not used to help students. However, I would like to highlight that in my corpus I have decided to include involuntary repetition and self-repair strategies to demonstrate that, on one hand, lecturers can help students to solve presumed communication breakdowns by using

strategies such as checking comprehension or emphasising words by repeating them, but on the other hand, they might face difficulties such as thinking about how to organise a piece of information (this might lead to involuntary repetition) or realising that they are not using the correct grammatical structure (this might lead to self-repair). This is to say that there are many strategies that lecturers can use, not only to help their students but also to help themselves to deliver their speech.

Apart from this, it can be seen that there is a high frequency of class engagement questions (121 instances). If we do not take into consideration the involuntary repetition as a strategy used to solve or prevent communication breakdowns, it can be noted that it is the strategy with the highest frequency in the corpus. This might be the most interesting strategy because, on one hand, lecturers try to dialogue with their students and on the other hand, they use this strategy to get answers and to keep up students' attention. More specifically, lecturer 10 has got the highest frequency in the corpus with 30 instances. One might not be surprised by this result because lecturer 10 gives an introductory lecture of the course and s/he tries to activate students' participation by asking them questions not only to give them the opportunity to speak, but also to check their comprehension and keep up their attention as the lecture lasts 4 hours.

In addition, it is also interesting to note that lecturers also use the solicit agreement type of question (52 instances). As in the case of the class engagement strategy, it is a strategy used by lecturers when they expect an answer from the students. However, in this case, lecturers usually persuade students to agree with their propositions (e.g.; "*so these children may not be necessarily profoundly sad right?*" see table 18). In particular, lecturers do not expect a long verbal answer, but rather they specifically expect a confirmation or a disagreement answer. An interesting point that I have found while looking at the corpus is that lecturers often add the word "*right*" after formulating a question. In the literature I read that, for example, Castro (2009: 60), says that the use of these signals (e.g. *right?*) is important to "the collaborative organization that takes place in conversation as streams of talk" and that lecturers usually use it to seek the students' agreement on their proposed activity and or to check their comprehension. For this reason, it might be said that after lecturers say something, they ask their students to confirm what they say by adding the word "*right*". This phenomenon can be noted in the questions

asked by lecturers 1, 3 and 9 from table 18. In the corpus it can be noted that this strategy is mostly used by lecturers 3 (23 instances) and lecturer 9 (18 instances) with a constant frequency of adding the word "*right*" after they formulate a question (i.e. lecturer 3 adds the word "*right*" 20 times out of 23 instances, while lecturer 9 adds the word *right* 16 times out of 18 instances).

A further strategy that lecturers can use is giving examples (48 instances in the corpus). In this way, lecturers clarify points that might be misunderstood or misinterpreted by students and they can also use it to support concepts and make a connection to previously discussed concepts. In the corpus I have found that lecturers use a wide range of expressions such as: "*for example, for instance, another example is, we have a small example there*", even though the most recurrent expression is "*for example*". The use of examples is mainly adopted by lecturers 3 and 5 (i.e. the frequency of use for lecturer 3 is 16 instances, while the frequency of use for lecturer 5 is 23 instances). I also found that the use of this strategy increases when lecturers make use of ICT and or other visual aids throughout the lecture (e.g. PowerPoint slides). In this way, the lecturer can emphasise the relevance of PowerPoint slides and at the same time s/he allows students to write the example down.

Finally, the last strategy that I have considered is code-switching. In the corpus I have found that lecturers consciously code-switched to Italian not only to translate new words and build solidarity with the students, but also to give instructions. For example, lecturer 9 says: "*okay voi andate a osservare Mr Watson no voi rimanete qua e osservate Mr Watson okay*". I also found that lecturer 1 and lecturer 10 use code-switching more than the other lecturers (i.e. 13 instances for both lecturer 1 and lecturer 10, see table 21).

In addition, I would like to highlight that lecturer 3, lecturer 5, lecturer 6, lecturer 9 and lecturer 10 are the ones who use more strategies than the other lecturers. However, this result might be due to their type of lesson as they all give lectures. By contrast, lecturer 1, lecturer 2, lecturer 4, lecturer 7 and lecturer 8 do not speak very much because their lessons are characterised by group of students who give presentations about a specific topic. It is also worth mentioning that lecturer 2 does not use any strategy that I have mentioned. For this reason, one may think that s/he was not there during the lesson because s/he almost does not speak, s/he only says 3 words in total.

4.6 Conclusion

The study provides evidence that there is a considerable amount of words and concepts that are repeated throughout the lectures. Repetition is the most used strategy in the study. Many repetitions are intended to reinforce relevant content while other types of repetition are intended to facilitate enunciation and interaction. For this reason, in this study, repetition has been divided in three categories: repetition for emphasis, voluntary and involuntary repetition. It can be affirmed that repetition is indispensable in university spoken discourse, needing to be understood and used as an integral component of a lecture's relevant content. It is interesting to highlight that while the category of repetition has the highest frequency of use in the corpus, defining, checking comprehension and self-repair strategies register the lowest frequency of use. However, involuntary repetition and self-repair are not considered strategies that can help to solve presumed communication breakdowns because lecturers might involuntarily repeat a sentence or words when they think about how to organise a piece of information and they might also make mistakes (e.g. grammar mistakes or wrong choice of words) and correct themselves during their discourse. The use of class engagement and solicit agreement strategies tends to remain consistent as lecturers use them to facilitate interaction and to give students the opportunity to speak freely. It is also important to highlight that lecturers use the giving examples strategy to give further information about a specific topic. They use the giving examples strategy and also code-switching to help their students to understand a concept better. In conclusion, it can be affirmed that in this study lecturers seem to find repetition, class engagement, soliciting agreement, giving example and code-switching (which have the highest frequencies of use compared to the other strategies) as the most favourable strategies to accomplish their communicative goals. Finally, it is also worth specifying that some lecturers (more specifically, lecturer 3, lecturer 5, lecturer 6, lecturer 9 and lecturer 10) speak more than the others. For this reason, they have the opportunity to employ more strategies because they give frontal lectures, while in the other lessons, lecturers do not speak too much because students give presentations (see table 3) and so they have lower opportunities to use the strategies that I have identified.

Conclusion

In this dissertation, I have discussed the spread of English as a medium of instruction. In particular, the use of English has increased at an international level and countries acknowledge English as a powerful resource and/or tool that can be employed in education to improve students' linguistic skills and to increase their work opportunities.

In Europe, the Bologna Process tried to promote internationalisation among European countries. Universities started to provide EMI programmes to attract international students and staff and to become competitive in the global market. This might be considered a positive aspect of EMI. EMI is seen as a positive and beneficial strategy that can bring many advantages (e.g. English proficiency, intercultural understanding, fostering student mobility, preparing students to compete on the global job market). However, it is believed that EMI brings a series of challenges. For example, a lack of English proficiency can lead to negative effects, e.g. students might face difficulties in understanding the content of the lecture, and the use of English as the medium of instruction can be perceived as a threat to the local language. This can be noted in non-European countries (e.g. Venezuela, Israel and Senegal) that resisted to the EMI phenomenon because their purpose is to protect their official languages and in Dubai, where the government developed a plan to preserve Arabic and wants it as the only language of instruction. In Italy, EMI is on the increase and it would seem that there is a generally positive approach towards EMI because it is seen as a key strategy to promote internationalisation, even though there are differences between the North of Italy and the South of Italy.

In other non-European countries (e.g. Southeast Asia), English has been adopted as the official language. Then, Eastern Asian countries (i.e. South Korea, China and Japan) offer many EMI courses, but their goal is to promote their universities and they are trying to do their best not to sending their students abroad. In the Middle East it can

be noted that there are major differences among these countries. In particular, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, EMI is on the increase, while in the United Arab Emirates it seems that there is a negative attitude towards the use of English as a medium of instruction because this country wants to maintain Arabic as the only language of instruction.

In the university context, evidence shows that students may face several challenges concerning their listening skills. Many problems include the speaker's accent (e.g. unfamiliar accents can negatively affect the students' listening comprehension), the speaker's pronunciation and speed of delivery, the students' lack of confidence. These issues lead to different consequences as listeners stop paying attention to the oral passage and begin to reflect on the meaning of that word. They also lose concentration and they might start feeling worried or anxious. For this reason, they should start to continuously train their listening skills, e.g. at home. They should be more exposed to varieties of listening and accents and learn the strategies that can help them to overcome those problems. However, even though students struggle with all these issues, scholars (e.g. Darti and Asmawati, 2017; Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016; Saraswaty, 2018; Goh, 2000) indicate that if lecturers are aware of students' learning difficulties, they can help them develop effective listening strategies and solve their difficulties in listening.

There are some strategies that can be used by students to improve their listening comprehension abilities and those that can be used by lecturers to help their students. Students have different possibilities to enhance their listening skills. For example, they can start taking notes, although this activity demands a lot of effort and consequently, some scholars believe that it hurts listening comprehension. Students may decide to use compensation strategies, e.g. skipping, that is omitting a part of the text. They can rely on bottom-up strategies, e.g. listening for specific details or top-down strategies, e.g. complete a sentence. Lecturers, on the other hand, can adopt other strategies to help their students. They can rely on repair strategies (e.g. repetition). They can use discourse markers (e.g. then, secondly, as a result). They can also check listeners' comprehension by using redundancy. Visuals are also considered an important aid to comprehension.

Whenever possible, lecturers can use code-switching and translanguaging to clarify difficult parts.

The last chapter of this dissertation investigated the strategies that lecturers used to solve or prevent communication breakdowns that might occur within the classroom. In the study that I conducted, the findings reveal that the strategy most used by lecturers is repetition (but this category includes repetition for emphasis, voluntary repetition and involuntary repetition). Repetition can have two functions: either to reinforce relevant content or to facilitate enunciation and interaction. It can be affirmed that repetition is indispensable in university spoken discourse, needing to be understood and used as an integral component of a lecture's relevant content. While repetition has the highest frequency of use in the corpus, defining, checking comprehension and self-repair strategies register the lowest frequency of use. However, involuntary repetition and self-repair are not considered strategies that can help to solve presumed communication breakdowns because lecturers might involuntarily or unconsciously repeat a sentence or words when they think about how to organise a piece of information and they might also make mistakes (e.g. grammar mistakes or wrong choice of words) and correct themselves during their discourse. I also found that the use of class engagement and solicit agreement strategies tends to remain consistent as lecturers use them to facilitate interaction and to give students the opportunity to speak freely. It is also important to highlight that lecturers use the giving examples strategy to give further information about a specific topic. They use the giving examples strategy and also code-switching to help their students to understand a concept better. To conclude, it can be affirmed that in this study lecturers seem to find repetition, class engagement, soliciting agreement, giving examples and code-switching (which have the highest frequencies of use compared to the other strategies) as the most favourable strategies to accomplish their communicative goals. Finally, it is also worth specifying that some lecturers (more specifically, lecturer 3, lecturer 5, lecturer 6, lecturer 9 and lecturer 10) speak more than the others. For this reason, they have the opportunity to employ more strategies because they give lectures, while in the other lessons, lecturers do not speak as much because students give

presentations and so they have lower opportunities to use the strategies that I have identified.

I would suggest that lecturing strategies might be considered key elements in EMI lessons and lecturers should use them not only to organise their discourses, but also to help students to avoid comprehension problems.

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AntConc

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Summary in Italian

Lo scopo della mia tesi di laurea è quello di indagare l'uso delle strategie di riparazione della comunicazione nelle lezioni universitarie che hanno adottato la lingua inglese come metodo di istruzione (*English-Medium Instruction, EMI*) presso l'Università degli Studi di Padova. In questa tesi mi sono concentrata su due aspetti principali: l'inglese come mezzo di istruzione (EMI) e le strategie adottate dai professori per risolvere o prevenire interruzioni della comunicazione che potrebbero verificarsi durante una lezione.

Il primo capitolo riguarda l'EMI, l'acronimo inglese per *English-Medium Instruction*, ovvero l'insegnamento di corsi universitari in lingua inglese in Paesi in cui l'inglese non è lingua ufficiale. Poiché l'EMI è considerato un nuovo campo di ricerca, gli studiosi usano terminologie diverse per etichettarlo. I termini più utilizzati sono, per esempio, *English medium instruction, English medium of instruction, English as a medium of instruction, English-medium education and English as the lingua franca medium of instruction*. Un altro termine è EMEMUS (*English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings*), ma quest'ultimo sembra non essere specifico come gli altri. Gli studiosi ritengono che, anche se ci sono molti termini per chiamare questo fenomeno, il termine EMI sia il più utilizzato. Le origini dell'EMI si possono trovare in Europa dato che il grande passo verso l'EMI è stato determinato dal Processo di Bologna (firmato da 29 Paesi), noto anche come Dichiarazione di Bologna (1999) che ha contribuito a facilitare la mobilità degli studenti tra i Paesi (Kirkpatrick, 2014). Dopo aver descritto cos'è l'EMI e le sue origini, procedo con la descrizione delle sue caratteristiche positive e negative. Alcuni aspetti positivi sono, ad esempio, lo sviluppo linguistico, la connessione globale, la preparazione degli studenti per esperienze all'estero (ad esempio, la facilitazione del conseguimento di diplomi post-laurea all'estero), il miglioramento delle competenze degli studenti e delle prospettive di lavoro / carriera. Tuttavia, l'EMI comporta diverse sfide che riguardano la qualità dell'apprendimento e dell'istruzione. Ad esempio, una mancanza di conoscenza dell'inglese potrebbe ridurre la capacità degli

studenti di comprendere il contenuto della lezione e l'uso dell'inglese come mezzo di insegnamento può essere percepito come una minaccia per la lingua locale. Questo può essere notato nei paesi extraeuropei (es. Venezuela, Israele e Senegal) che hanno resistito al fenomeno EMI perché il loro scopo è proteggere le loro lingue ufficiali e a Dubai, dove il governo ha sviluppato un piano per preservare l'arabo e lo vuole come unica lingua di insegnamento. In altri Paesi non europei (es. Sud-est asiatico, Asia orientale e Medio Oriente) i governi hanno iniziato ad adottare diversi corsi EMI per competere nel mercato globale e rendere le proprie università più internazionalizzate. Anche in Italia, l'EMI è in aumento e sembrerebbe che ci sia un approccio generalmente positivo verso l'EMI perché è visto come una strategia chiave per promuovere l'internazionalizzazione, anche se ci sono differenze tra il Nord e il Sud Italia. Oggi le università italiane vogliono accelerare la loro internazionalizzazione e ci sono più di 500 programmi di studio insegnati in inglese disponibili nel Paese. Questo aumento esponenziale ha portato a polemiche in Italia. Ad esempio, nel 2014 il Rettore del Politecnico di Milano ha deciso di introdurre l'EMI nei corsi di specializzazione, ma ciò è andato contro i desideri del personale e degli studenti. È iniziato nel 2012, quando il Rettore del Politecnico di Milano ha annunciato che tutti i corsi post-laurea e di dottorato sarebbero stati tenuti interamente in inglese a partire dall'a.a. 2014-15, abbandonando così l'italiano come mezzo di insegnamento (Molino e Campagna, 2014). Questo cambiamento è stato motivato dalla necessità di rispondere alle richieste della concorrenza globale nell'istruzione superiore (Campagna e Pulcini, 2014). Pertanto, offrire corsi tenuti interamente in inglese aumenterebbe il prestigio accademico e sarebbe competitivo a livello internazionale (Campagna e Pulcini, 2014). Tuttavia, questo drastico cambiamento verso l'utilizzo di una politica esclusivamente inglese ha causato reazioni non solo all'interno della comunità accademica ma anche al di fuori (Macaro, 2018). Molino e Campagna (2014) sottolineano che molti membri del personale hanno firmato una petizione di opposizione alla decisione del Rettore e hanno presentato ricorso al Tribunale Amministrativo Regionale (TAR) della Lombardia. Al dibattito ha preso parte l'Accademia della Crusca, il più importante istituto di ricerca della lingua italiana, che ha posto la seguente domanda: è utile e opportuno adottare solo la lingua inglese nei corsi universitari italiani? (Molino e Campagna, 2014).

In Italia l'importanza dei programmi EMI si può trovare in un rapporto pubblicato dalla Conferenza dei Rettori delle Università Italiane (CRUI) nel 2012 in cui si afferma che l'erogazione di programmi di lingua inglese è una delle strategie chiave per promuovere l'internazionalizzazione a livello universitario (Campagna e Pulcini, 2014). Il rapporto CRUI afferma anche che l'uso dell'inglese rende le università italiane più attraenti per gli studenti stranieri e preparano gli studenti italiani al mercato del lavoro a livello internazionale (Campagna e Pulcini, 2014).

Tuttavia, l'uso dell'inglese come lingua principale nelle lezioni universitarie ha avuto un impatto su quella che potrebbe essere considerata una lezione tradizionale. Per questo motivo, nel secondo capitolo, inizio descrivendo cos'è una lezione. Le lezioni sono state studiate non solo per determinare ciò che può facilitare la comprensione degli studenti, ma anche per comprendere il loro ruolo come eventi che possono essere utili per la competenza linguistica e comunicativa degli studenti di lingue straniere. (Morell, 2007). Le lezioni svolgono un ruolo fondamentale in contesti educativi in cui l'inglese è il mezzo di insegnamento. Seguendo Björkman (2010), faccio una distinzione tra classi monologiche e dialogiche. Una classe monologica richiede agli ascoltatori di concentrarsi su lunghi tratti di discorso con poche opportunità, se non nessuna, di negoziare il significato, mentre una classe dialogica si concede alla negoziazione del significato. Altri studiosi fanno un'ulteriore distinzione. Morell (2004) classifica le lezioni come convenzionali non interattive e interattive. Morell (2007) ha scoperto che le lezioni interattive potrebbero essere più utili in quanto migliorano la comprensione, la competenza linguistica e comunicativa degli studenti. La distinzione tra lo stile convenzionale non interattivo e quello interattivo può essere trovata nel numero di interventi degli studenti e nel grado di formalità (Morell, 2004). Ad esempio, Morell (2007) identifica le lezioni interattive quando più della metà del numero totale degli studenti interviene in una lezione universitaria di cinquanta minuti. Nel secondo capitolo un'ulteriore distinzione riguarda il tipo di testo, ovvero la differenza tra una lezione e una conversazione. Hanno strutture diverse in quanto nelle conversazioni gli studenti possono chiedere chiarimenti o di ripetere qualcosa che non si è compreso e in molti casi sono informali. D'altra parte, le lezioni sono solitamente formali ed elaborate (ad esempio con

sintassi complessa e frasi subordinate) e gli studenti di solito ascoltano un discorso ininterrotto e potrebbero avere meno opportunità di chiedere chiarimenti e ripetizioni. In seguito descrivo le funzioni comunicative delle lezioni. Ci sono sei funzioni principali che possono essere riassunte nel modo seguente: (1) informare, cioè descrivere, raccontare, riferire, interpretare e dimostrare; (2) elaborare, cioè esemplificare e riformulare; (3) valutare, cioè indicare l'atteggiamento e il grado di impegno; (4) organizzare il discorso, cioè orientare, strutturare e relazionare; (5) interagire, ovvero regolare l'interazione, coinvolgere il pubblico e stabilire una relazione con il pubblico; e (6) la gestione della classe, ovvero la gestione delle questioni organizzative, la gestione dell'abilità oratoria e del pubblico.

Poiché la comprensione dell'ascolto è importante durante una lezione, ne fornisco la definizione. In particolare, è definita da Darti e Asmawati (2017) come la capacità di identificare e comprendere ciò che gli altri dicono e il suo scopo è comprendere ciò che le persone dicono, cioè comprendere la conversazione nativa a un ritmo normale in una condizione spontanea. La comprensione dell'ascolto implica processi dal basso verso l'alto e dall'alto verso il basso. Secondo Vandergrift (2004) gli ascoltatori usano processi dal basso verso l'alto quando costruiscono il significato per accrescimento e processi dall'alto verso il basso quando usano il contesto e la propria conoscenza (argomento, genere, cultura [...]) per costruire una struttura concettuale per la comprensione. Tuttavia, durante una lezione gli studenti potrebbero incontrare alcune difficoltà. Per questo motivo, nell'ultima sezione del secondo capitolo, spiego quali sono le sfide nell'ascolto della comprensione. I problemi possono essere legati all'ascoltatore (ad esempio gli studenti potrebbero perdere la concentrazione quando sentono una nuova parola), all'ambiente fisico (ad esempio gli studenti che siedono vicino a una finestra potrebbero essere disturbati dal rumore che proviene dall'esterno), all'accento dell'oratore (ad esempio, gli studenti potrebbero avere difficoltà a comprendere i diversi tipi di accenti o potrebbero confondere l'inglese britannico con l'inglese americano). Altri problemi possono essere legati alla mancanza di vocabolario (es. parole non familiari, inclusi idiomi e gergo, l'uso di forme ridotte e strutture grammaticali difficili interferiscono con la comprensione dell'ascolto degli studenti), alla lunghezza del testo parlato (es. i

passaggi orali lunghi aumentano la difficoltà perché potrebbe non essere facile memorizzare tutto in mente), alla velocità di chi parla (es. se un parlante parla troppo velocemente, gli studenti potrebbero incontrare problemi a capire le parole e di conseguenza indebolire la comprensione dell'ascolto degli studenti), la pronuncia di chi parla (ad es. chi parla può usare riduzioni come nella frase *I'm gonna go* invece di *I am going to go*). Questi problemi portano a conseguenze diverse poiché gli ascoltatori smettono di prestare attenzione al passaggio orale e iniziano a riflettere sul significato delle parole che non conoscono. Inoltre, perdono la concentrazione e potrebbero iniziare a sentirsi preoccupati o ansiosi. Per questo motivo, dovrebbero iniziare ad allenare continuamente le loro capacità di ascolto, ad es. a casa. Dovrebbero essere più esposti a varietà di ascolto e accenti diversi e apprendere le strategie che possono aiutarli a superare questi problemi. Nonostante tutti questi problemi, gli studiosi (ad esempio Darti e Asmawati, 2017; Gilakjani e Sabouri, 2016; Saraswaty, 2018; Goh, 2000) indicano che se i docenti sono consapevoli delle difficoltà di apprendimento degli studenti, possono aiutarli a sviluppare delle strategie di ascolto efficaci e risolvere le loro difficoltà di ascolto.

Sebbene ci siano molti problemi riguardanti la comprensione dell'ascolto, ci sono alcune strategie che possono essere adottate per rendere il compito di ascolto più gestibile. Il terzo capitolo indaga queste strategie. Innanzitutto viene fornita la definizione di strategia. Le capacità di ascolto possono essere sviluppate adottando strategie generali di apprendimento definite come metodi per affrontare un problema o compito, modalità operative per raggiungere un fine particolare, progetti pianificati per controllare e manipolare determinate informazioni (Brown, 1994). Le strategie di ascolto possono essere definite come metodi e comportamenti specifici che gli ascoltatori, o in questo specifico caso, gli studenti adottano per ascoltare in modo efficace e completo. (Bao, 2017). Per aiutare gli studenti a dare un senso al testo d'ascolto, Solak (2016) elenca diversi tipi di abilità secondarie di ascolto. Questi sono: ascoltare il succo del discorso, cioè ascoltare per avere un'idea generale; ascoltare informazioni specifiche, cioè ascoltare per ottenere un'informazione specifica, ascoltare in dettaglio, cioè ascoltare ogni dettaglio e cercare di capire il più possibile; ascoltare per dedurre, ovvero ascoltare

per capire come si sentono gli ascoltatori; ascoltare le domande e rispondere, cioè ascoltare per rispondere alle domande; e ascoltare le descrizioni, cioè ascoltare una descrizione specifica.

Gli studenti possono anche utilizzare strategie metacognitive, cognitive e socio-affettive per facilitare la comprensione e rendere il loro apprendimento più efficace. Coloro che utilizzano strategie metacognitive, (ad es. evitando la traduzione mentale, la pianificazione, prestando attenzione ai marcatori del discorso, alle immagini e al linguaggio del corpo, al tono della voce e alle pause) dimostrano una migliore comprensione dell'ascolto. Queste strategie sono importanti perché regolano o dirigono il processo di apprendimento delle lingue (Liubiniené, 2009). Secondo Vandergrift (2004), l'uso di strategie metacognitive aiuta gli ascoltatori a diventare più consapevoli di come possono usare ciò che già sanno per colmare le lacune nella loro comprensione. Le strategie cognitive sono, ad esempio, l'elaborazione, la ripetizione, il riassunto, la contestualizzazione, l'identificazione del problema, la traduzione e la previsione. Bingol (2014) suggerisce che le strategie cognitive sono quelle strategie che vengono utilizzate per comprendere l'input linguistico e ottenere informazioni. Un esempio di strategia cognitiva è quando gli studenti non conoscono il significato di una parola e cercano di indovinarne il significato dal contesto. Le strategie socio-affettive sono, ad esempio, la ripresa, il feedback e la parafrasi. Queste strategie descrivono le tecniche che gli studenti usano per collaborare con gli altri, per verificare la comprensione o anche per ridurre l'ansia (Liubiniené, 2009). Riguardano anche i modi in cui gli studenti interagiscono con altri studenti e con le persone madrelingua (Bao, 2017). La strategia socio-affettiva assicura e promuove reazioni emotive positive e prospettive di apprendimento delle lingue, ad es. gli studenti potrebbero premiarsi con una ciambella quando completano con successo un compito nella lingua straniera (Bingol, 2014). Inoltre, gli studenti possono anche utilizzare altre strategie come prendere appunti, strategie di compensazione (cioè sostituzione, ovvero sostituire una parola o un concetto o una proposizione con un altro termine che non è comprensibile).

In questo contesto, il ruolo del docente è molto importante. I docenti dovrebbero, ad esempio, identificare i problemi di ascolto degli studenti e cercare di trovare una strategia per aiutare e rendere gli studenti ascoltatori migliori. I docenti possono utilizzare

diverse strategie durante il loro discorso, come strategie di riparazione, ripetizione, marcatori del discorso, ridondanza, supporti visivi e traduzione. Per esempio, l'auto-riparazione ha luogo quando parole o espressioni precedentemente formulate sono proposte in modo diverso dalla stessa persona per facilitare la comprensione di chi ascolta (Gotti, 2015). La ripetizione è la strategia più efficace utilizzata dai non madrelingua (Ardini, 2015) e mira a raggiungere l'efficienza e mostrare cooperazione tra i parlanti (Cogo, 2009). Il suo ruolo nella comunicazione è considerato una delle strategie più efficaci per promuovere la comprensione che un oratore può utilizzare (Ardini, 2015). La ripetizione si verifica quando il docente ripete qualcosa detto in precedenza per rendere più chiari i concetti (Gotti, 2015). I marcatori del discorso possono essere suddivisi in due tipi: macro-marcatori (ad esempio *my first point is, in conclusion*) che forniscono indizi sulla struttura complessiva del passaggio e micro-marcatori (ad esempio *in fact, because, yet*) che stabiliscono collegamenti tra espressioni adiacenti (Bloomfield et al., 2010). I marcatori del discorso vengono solitamente utilizzati nelle lezioni e non nelle conversazioni perché i docenti devono organizzare le loro lezioni di contenuto. Hamouda (2013) afferma che i marcatori del discorso sono usati nelle lezioni o in situazioni formali. In situazioni informali (es. conversazioni spontanee) le persone usano principalmente segnali, es. pause, gesti e/o intonazioni diverse. La ridondanza implica la ripetizione delle informazioni chiave attraverso la ripetizione esatta, la parafrasi e l'elaborazione (Bloomfield et al., 2010). Questa strategia potrebbe essere utilizzata dai docenti per verificare la comprensione degli studenti. La ridondanza è classificata come una forma di semplificazione perché ripresenta le informazioni e quindi offre all'ascoltatore un'altra opportunità di comprendere tali informazioni. Una forma di ridondanza è ad esempio, presentare un sinonimo, anche se questo potrebbe essere più complesso se l'ascoltatore non comprende il sinonimo dato o non ne conosce o non riesce a coglierne il significato. I supporti visivi (es. PowerPoint slides) sono considerati un aiuto fondamentale per l'ascolto (Vandergrift, 2004). Le immagini catturano l'attenzione degli studenti e li aiutano a relazionarsi al contenuto del testo parlato, così gli ascoltatori superano le difficoltà (es. parole sconosciute) (Saraswaty, 2018). Esistono due tipi di supporti visivi che vengono classificati come esoforici (ad esempio quando l'oratore scrive alcune parole sulla lavagna o quando mostra una foto) o cinetici (ad esempio i movimenti del corpo)

(Rost, 2011). Infine, i docenti possono ricorrere al cambio di codice. Redouane (2005) afferma che la prima definizione di cambio di codice risale a Weinreich (1953) che definisce le persone bilingue come individui che passano da una lingua all'altra in base ai cambiamenti appropriati nella situazione del discorso. Il cambio di codice può aiutare gli studenti a chiarire il significato delle attività e delle istruzioni attraverso la loro lingua nativa, discutere su come completare l'attività, discutere le scelte lessicali, la grammatica e le definizioni delle parole (Keller, 2016).

Il quarto e ultimo capitolo indaga le strategie adottate dai docenti nelle classi EMI dell'Università degli Studi di Padova. Descrivo innanzitutto gli strumenti della mia analisi, ovvero il corpus che ho creato e analizzato attraverso *AntConc*. In secondo luogo, presento il mio studio, spiegando come ho svolto la ricerca. Specifico come ho creato il mio corpus, ovvero selezionando e trascrivendo manualmente alcune lezioni. Marta Guarda mi ha aiutato durante questo processo fornendomi altre trascrizioni per avere un corpus più ampio. Il quarto capitolo descrive anche la procedura che ho utilizzato per l'analisi del mio corpus. In totale ho analizzato 10 lezioni e le strategie utilizzate da dieci docenti. Queste strategie sono le ripetizioni (ripetizione per enfasi, ripetizione volontaria e involontaria), definizione, verifica della comprensione, autoriparazione, coinvolgimento in classe, sollecitazione di accordo, dare esempi e cambio di codice. Infine, l'ultima sezione del quarto capitolo discute i risultati. Spiega perché la ripetizione involontaria e l'auto-riparazione potrebbero non essere considerate strategie che aiutano il docente a risolvere presunte interruzioni della comunicazione. Inoltre riporta la frequenza di utilizzo di ciascuna strategia e spiega chi sono i docenti che utilizzano più strategie e perché. Nello studio che ho condotto, i risultati rivelano che la strategia più utilizzata dai docenti è la ripetizione (ma bisogna sottolineare che questa categoria include la ripetizione per enfasi, la ripetizione volontaria e la ripetizione involontaria). La ripetizione può avere due funzioni: rafforzare il contenuto rilevante o facilitare l'enunciazione e l'interazione. Si può affermare che la ripetizione è indispensabile nel discorso orale universitario, che deve essere compresa e utilizzata come componente integrante del contenuto rilevante di una lezione. Mentre la ripetizione ha la più alta frequenza di utilizzo nel corpus, la definizione, la verifica della comprensione e le

strategie di autoriparazione registrano la più bassa frequenza di utilizzo. Tuttavia, la ripetizione involontaria e l'auto-riparazione non sono considerate strategie che possono aiutare a risolvere o prevenire interruzioni della comunicazione perché i docenti potrebbero ripetere involontariamente o inconsciamente una frase o delle parole quando pensano a come organizzare un discorso o un concetto e potrebbero anche commettere errori (es. errori di grammatica o scegliere una parola sbagliata) e si correggono durante il discorso. Nei risultati ho anche scoperto che l'uso di strategie quali il coinvolgimento in classe e la richiesta di accordo tende a rimanere stabile poiché i docenti le utilizzano per facilitare l'interazione e per dare agli studenti l'opportunità di parlare liberamente. È anche importante sottolineare che i docenti usano la strategia di dare esempi per fornire ulteriori informazioni su un argomento specifico. Usano la strategia di dare esempi e anche il cambio di codice per aiutare i loro studenti a comprendere meglio un concetto. Per concludere, si può affermare che in questo studio i docenti sembrano trovare la ripetizione, il coinvolgimento in classe, la richiesta di accordo, il dare esempi e il cambio di codice (che hanno le più alte frequenze di utilizzo rispetto alle altre strategie) come le strategie più favorevoli da utilizzare per raggiungere i loro obiettivi comunicativi. Infine, vale anche la pena precisare che alcuni docenti (più precisamente, docente 3, docente 5, docente 6, docente 9 e docente 10) parlano più degli altri. Per questo motivo, hanno la possibilità di impiegare più strategie perché tengono lezioni frontali, mentre nelle altre lezioni i docenti non parlano troppo perché gli studenti fanno presentazioni e quindi hanno minori opportunità di utilizzare le strategie che ho individuato.