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Special Issue
English for Academic Purposes (EAP): New frontiers
in learning to write in English

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English for Academic Purposes (EAP): New frontiers in learning to write in English

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1. Aims[1]

Writing is not simply an act of juxtaposing words on a page and producing grammatically correct sentences. "Writing as a text is hard to separate from writing as process or writing as communicative purpose" (Breeze, 2012, p. 2). Every written composition is connected to a set of conventions and intentions, which are situated in a context of interpersonal, social, cultural, occupational and disciplinary practices. Writing may be regulated by socially prescribed norms as it may be a means of personal expression used by writers to show their agency and their creativity (Breeze, 2012, p. 2). At university level, writing stimulates thought and knowledge construction – it is a "stimulus to the mental faculties, to the logical talent, to originality, to the power of illustration, to the arrangement of topics, second to none" (Newman, 1855, p. 319).

One of the main issues with academic writing is the misunderstanding around its ontology – "what academic writing is" – and its epistemology "what it does" (Molinari, 2022, p. 18). In many schoolbooks (see, for example, Bailey, 2006), academic writing is associated to the characteristic features of formality, objectivity and impersonality. In other textbooks[2], it is described as a practice that enables writers to transform knowledge. Each ontological classification is the outcome of an epistemological finding and has pedagogical implications. For example, if a teacher defines academic writing as "impersonal," they are likely to teach students texts with impersonal features, such as the passive voice. On the other hand, if a teacher considers academic writing as a "transformative practice," they will teach their students several methods of reconfiguring and transforming knowledge (Molinari, 2022, p. 18). Indeed, there is not a standard academic text, but there are several kinds of "academic writings" with different purposes.

Another problematic issue with the framing of academic writing is its classification as either a "skill" (Hyland, 2006, p. 17) or as a "social practice" (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). On the one hand, a skill is conceived as the mechanical ability to know how to do something – for instance, knowing how to use grammar or how to spell a word regardless of the circumstances. As such, a skill is transferable to several contexts and corresponds to the technical knowledge of rules and techniques. On the other hand, a social practice is knowing that something is appropriate – for instance, knowing that the meaning of words is context-dependent or knowing that the use of the passive is inappropriate in certain texts. Unlike skills, social practices are less easily transferable since they vary according to the social context (Molinari, 2022, p. 20). Social practices correspond to practical knowledge which is the ability to "discern, judge and perform […] acquired by living within the organised social world" (Hirst, 1998, p. 152).

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[1] This section was written by Laura Pinnavaia.
[2] As an example of the textbooks that describe academic writing as a practice that enables writers to transform knowledge, see Lillis et al. (2015).

The skill-practice dichotomy influences the way in which academic writing is experienced, taught, discussed, and written about. Historically, Anglo-American instructors have adopted skills-based approaches based upon a technical and atomistic perception of academic writing. In this perspective, academic writing is understood as a set of transferable skills to be explained and acquired in isolated, transitory, and temporary ways without a specific purpose and independently of a specific discipline. As a result, students are required to learn sets of linguistic and textual items, such as lists of academic terms[3] or prescriptive rules on the structure of paragraphs[4].In contrast, advocates of social practice approaches have a more complex, holistic, and reflective idea of literacy (Molinari, 2022, pp. 22-24). They see academic writing as a practice, that is, as an activity involving reflection and thought, social interaction, and a sense of purpose that changes according to the context and the writer's will. Since every practice involves standards of excellence, which the individual must accept and to use as a yardstick for their own performance (Fitzmaurice, 2010, p. 47), writers must understand the standards of excellence that are internal to the practice of academic writing. In this respect, it must be underlined that the standards of excellence vary within higher education institutions in that every community of scholars determines what counts as "good" writing in their discipline (Molinari, 2022, p. 27).

Although skills-based and social practice approaches attempt to give a definition of academic writing and of its attendant pedagogies, their reductive nature has problematic implications. By highlighting the formal features – grammar, lexis and genre – of academic texts, skills-based writing pedagogies enhance a "culture of performativity" (Macfarlane, 2021) in which language is superior to content. Moreover, by isolating the textual and linguistic features of academic texts from their social context, skills-based approaches overlook significant academic practices such as developing an "academic voice" (see Elbow, 1994; Matsuda & Tardy, 2008) or acquiring awareness of the text's readership/audience (Richardson, 1990). Alternatively, by stigmatising the prescriptions and conventions of skills-based approaches, pedagogies related to writing as a social practice acknowledge the multiple and diverse nature of academic writing and are accused of relativising all forms of writing. Allowing "anything to count as 'academic'" (Molinari, 2022, p. 99), these approaches neglect the existence of an appropriate academic language and style and favour the subjectivity of the author to the detriment of socially just and objective knowledge. Indeed, at the heart of the debate on practice approaches is the issue of what constitutes standards of excellence, internal or external, in academic writing. Another debated topic is tension between agency – academic writers' possibility of defining the skills that are internal to the practice of academic writing – and "structure" – the standards of excellence of academic writing imposed by the higher education institution. These debates usually develop around specific syntactic features – such as the use of the passive or active voice or the use of the first-person pronoun – which may be regarded as inherent or extrinsic properties of academic writing (Molinari, 2022, pp. 29-31).

In *Perspectives on Academic Writing in European Higher Education: Genres, Practices, and Competences*, Otto Kruse (2013, pp. 50-52) proposes an analysis of academic writing which appears to synthetise the principles of the skills-based and social practice approaches. The author does not consider academic writing as an isolated skill to be acquired and practised invariantly. Instead, he sees academic writing as an activity, or set of complex skills, which is integrated in a range of neighbouring competences that may be summarised as follows:

1) "Connections to disciplinary knowledge": academic writing must be related to disciplinary knowledge (cf. social practice approaches) for content to be generated. Although subject matter expertise is not intrinsic to writing competence, it can be considered as a "prerequisite for writing," but also as the outcome of it. Students create knowledge by writing and simultaneously learn disciplinary knowledge by researching and summarising it (Kruse, 2013, p. 51).
2) "Connections to process and procedural skills": like disciplinary knowledge, "process competence" is not only a necessary condition for academic writing, but also the result of it. Writers learn the steps – such as idea generation, planning, revision etc. – and the recursive nature of the writing process under the support of academic writing instructors and develop process competence concurrently, as they write (Kruse 2013, p. 51).
3) "Connections to communication and discourse knowledge": academic texts require knowledge of the discourse practices, the citation styles (see Hyland, 2000) and the authorial voice (see Nelson &

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[3] As an example of the works that deal with academic terms, see Coxhead (2011).
[4] As an example of the works that provide prescriptive rules on the structure of paragraphs in academic writing, see Bailey (2006).

Castelló, 2012) which characterise the "discursive community" (cf. social practice approaches) they are directed to.

4) "Connections to media use": with the advent of new literacies, academic writing requires writers to participate in an innovative "global community" (see Coiro et al., 2008; Leu et al., 2007;) where they must learn to handle the new media used to create, transmit, discuss, deliver, and publish a text.

5) "Connections to genre knowledge": genre understanding (see Hyland, 2003; Swales, 1990) or genre awareness (see Devitt, 2009) are fundamental competences for academic writers, who must know what textual features characterise certain contextual purposes (cf. social practice approaches). Genres regulate all writing processes in the academia and writers must be aware of the genres that characterise their academic community in order to be socialised into it (Kruse, 2013, p. 52).

6) "Connections to linguistic skills": as skills-based approaches suggest, academic writing competence can also be measured on the level of language proficiency: from the use of basic linguistic skills – such as spelling, grammar and syntax – to the use of rhetorical means – such as metadiscourse, hedging, intertextuality, and self-reference (see Kruse & Chitez, p. 2012).

The competence model shows that academic writing "is an integrative activity" (Kruse, 2013, p. 50) that intertwines with a series of complex skills. It develops "in multidimensional and nonlinear ways" (Rogers 2010, p. 374) only if all its related competences evolve and improve concurrently, and its progress relies on a considerable number of factors – such as student engagement, classroom practices etc. As a result, academic writing pedagogies should propose teaching models that measure writers' skills and purposes against the overall goals of higher education (Kruse, 2013, p. 52).

As Bourdieu *et al.* observe, "academic language is […] no one's mother tongue" (1995, p. 4) and "neither is the special register required in the different subjects" (Golden & Kulbrandstad, 2021, p. 4). If both must be learned and assimilated also by students who speak English as their first language, for students with a different L1, the challenges of academic writing in English as a second language are even greater. Not only must they learn to operate within specific registers of the English language, but they must also conform to the writing norms of the discipline or of the place they are involved in, especially if they are international students pursuing an academic qualification in English in the West (Zhang, 2021, p. 147). In sum, non-native speakers of English encounter three major problems when faced with academic writing: firstly, the "intellectual demands" of the academia (i.e. the problem of conducting research; being able to paraphrase/synthesise; using referencing systems); secondly the "linguistic hurdles" (i.e. mastering academic English: writing elaborate structured texts; using formal register, objective style, fluency, accuracy, complexity) (Breeze, 2012, p. 8); thirdly distinguishing between the "differences in rhetorical traditions" (research in contrastive rhetoric has shown that there are different writing conventions not only between the Global North and South, and the Global West and East, but also within the Western world) (Golden & Kulbrandstad, 2021, p. 4; Zhang, 2021, p. 155).

It is these three areas of difficulty – intellectual demands, linguistic hurdles, and differences in rhetorical traditions – that this special edition of E-JournALL will address. In the attempt to promote the idea that "students need specific instruction and guidance if they are to learn to write effectively for academic purposes" (Breeze, 2012, p.8), this volume will feature six contributions by professors and researchers whose experience in teaching English writing has been invaluable. Each has been grouped according to one of the three areas of difficulty described above, and their works will offer cutting-edge insight into research-based English writing pedagogies. In light of the burgeoning use of *English for Specific Academic Purposes* (ESAP) and *English for Scientific and Professional Purposes* (ESPP) (see Zanola, 2023), and by offering new perspectives on how to manage the teaching of writing English, this volume aims to contribute to answer to the concerted need to give more time and space to the progenitor of all these varieties, *English for Academic Purposes* (EAP).

2. Contributions[5]

The intellectual demands needed when approaching a writing task are at the heart of both Sharon Hartle's and Andrea Nava's contributions. Hartle describes the results of an investigation into a small corpus of C2 level academic writing consisting of the sub-genres of summary and discussion learner language. Her study reveals that one problematic key area is collocation, reinforcing the idea that although EAP teaching often focuses on specialized lexis, this may actually be the area where academic writers need least help. What may

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[5] This section was written by Annalisa Zanola.

cause considerable difficulty, on the other hand, is lexical usage. The author therefore also discusses how this investigation informed the classroom implementation of data-driven learning (DDL) to increase learner awareness of and ability to use collocations effectively in written academic English. Nava investigates the "pre-history" of teaching L2 English academic writing – when writing instruction targeted "composition writing" – through a case study of the Italian context. First, the author illustrates how English writing materials produced in Italy were few and far between until the end of the 20th century, and often published by small specialist publishers; then, he scrutinizes four such materials published between the 1940s and the 1990s in order to analyze the evolution of L2 English writing instruction. The findings of the analysis show that, in the face of a stagnant institutional context, there was indeed an evolution in writing conceptions and writing pedagogy in Italy throughout the 20th century, which was to herald developments in L2 English writing for academic purposes at the beginning of the 21st century.

As an example of the linguistic hurdles that L2 speakers encounter when writing for academic purposes, Tolulope Akineseye's essay draws attention to the metadiscourse used by newly admitted undergraduate students in Nigeria. Akinseye carries out a mixed-methods study of the use of interactive resources as discursive strategies in enhancing the academic writing skills of ESL undergraduate students in Nigeria. Using a sample of 100 expository essays, the author presents a qualitative analysis of the types and usages of discursive strategies employed, as well as a quantitative analysis of the frequency of occurrence of these strategies. The results reveal that transitional markers, frame markers, and code glosses were the most frequently used interactive markers in the academic writing produced by the non-native undergraduate students, while evidential and endophoric markers were used less frequently. These findings highlight the importance of incorporating interactive resources in the teaching of academic writing skills to undergraduate students in an English Second Language (ESL) context, so that students develop the ability to produce more coherent, organized, and persuasive academic writing that meets the expectations of academic writing in an ESL context.

The linguistic hurdles in the field of legal English education are the focus Giulia Pennisi's essay. She investigates how textbooks for English Academic and Legal Purposes (EALP) have responded to the challenges of law school education, including the fact that the legal profession is in a state of flux and that there seems to be increasing interest of law schools and academia in the communicative events that students will need to engage in. This poses a pedagogical challenge in terms of course structures, types of curricula, and content of the materials and textbooks provided for law students. Building on a solid review of previous pedagogic contributions, the paper begins diachronically with a sample of EALP-type textbooks. The analysis of the nature of the typology that constitutes the structure of contemporary EALP textbooks allows the author to provide some insights into the development of EALP-type textbooks and their response to the challenges of legal English education.

Roxanne Barbara Doerr's concern for the intellectual- and linguistic-based difficulties of academic writing are intertwined in an essay where underexplored areas of EAP research and practice are examined in the blurred domain of "academic style." The author presents a pilot study consisting in the detailed qualitative analysis of a collection of abstracts from a PhD seminar on academic style (self)proofreading. By employing a methodological framework combining stylistics, error analysis, and the categorization of specific "areas of interest," the pilot study highlights relevant stylistic errors in academic writing. This analysis allows the author to draw conclusions on the requirements and implications of introducing academic style to EAP, calling for the expansion and customization of EAP courses and specialized seminars based on the needs of the class and individuals. These would benefit from the insights of teachers, instructors, and language professionals and reviewers actively engaged in the academic editorial community.

Finally, the problems involved in writing that arise from differences in rhetorical traditions feature in Simona Agata Giuffrida and Annalisa Bonomo's essay, which argues for the use of English travel narratives and their interlingual translations as vehicles to foster intercultural sensitivity and language awareness in the EAP classroom. The author performs a comparative analysis of Daphne Phelps's British travel narrative *A House in Sicily* (1999) and its Italian translation *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001) to show how travel writing (also in translation) may be an opportunity for a reappraisal of what literature may have to offer in the EAP context, especially in terms of culture-specific language variability.

The selected papers demonstrate the urgency, but also the subtlety, of engaging with a field as complex as EAP, which is increasingly striving for homogeneity and standardization in academic writing. This area of research is further highlighted in Carlotta Fiammenghi's review of Annalisa Zanola's recent volume on *English for Scientific and Professional Purposes* (Carocci 2023), which focuses on language and communication for

academic and professional purposes. Written academic communication has become an important element in identity building, in strengthening peer interaction in scientific research, and in lending persuasiveness to the dissemination of knowledge. This ties in with another key concept behind the design of this volume, namely the existence of international and/or professional communities whose use of English is essential for the acquisition, transmission, and dissemination of knowledge and the improvement of practice. The following pages are intended to provide the reader with a comprehensive and exhaustive perspective on how to approach EAP in an efficient and effective manner that meets the increasingly sophisticated needs of the academic, scientific, and professional communication world.

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From learner corpus to data-driven learning (DDL): Improving lexical usage in academic writing

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ABSTRACT

EN
Despite considerable discussion in the literature (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 1998; Tang, 2012) competent English academic writing is still a problem which needs to be solved. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teaching often focuses on specialized lexis, which may, however, be the area where academic writers need least help. The study of a small corpus of C2 level academic writing which consisted of the sub-genres of summary and discussion writing revealed that one key area which is problematic is collocation. This paper presents the results of this small corpus investigation into learner language and how it informed the classroom implementation of data-driven learning (DDL) to increase learner awareness of and ability to use collocations effectively in written academic English. The article briefly describes the corpus and the resulting teaching procedure adopted. The first step of this procedure is familiarization followed by experimentation using Sketch Engine (SkeLL).

Key words: LEARNER CORPORA, DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING, ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC ACADEMIC PURPOSES (ESAP), ACADEMIC LEXIS ANALYSIS, COLLOCATION

ES
A pesar de una considerable discusión en la literatura (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 1998; Tang, 2012), la escritura académica competente en inglés sigue siendo un problema que necesita ser resuelto. La enseñanza de Inglés con Fines Académicos (EAP) a menudo se centra en léxico especializado, que, sin embargo, podría ser el área donde los escritores académicos necesitan menos ayuda. El estudio de un pequeño corpus de escritura académica de nivel C2, que constaba de los subgéneros de resumen y de discusión, reveló que una de las áreas problemáticas clave es la colocación. Este artículo presenta los resultados de esta pequeña investigación de corpus sobre la lengua de los y las aprendices, y explica cómo informó la implementación en el aula del aprendizaje basado en datos (Data driven learning-DDL) para aumentar la conciencia del aprendiz y su capacidad para usar colocaciones de manera efectiva en el inglés académico escrito. El artículo describe brevemente el corpus y el procedimiento de enseñanza resultante adoptado. El primer paso de este procedimiento es la familiarización, seguida de la experimentación con el uso de Sketch Engine (SkeLL).

Palabras claves: CORPUS DE APRENDICES, APRENDIZAJE BASADO EN DATOS, INGLÉS CON FINES ACADÉMICOS ESPECÍFICOS (ESAP), ANÁLISIS DEL LÉXICO ACADÉMICO, COLOCACIÓN

IT
Nonostante l'esistenza di un'ampia discussione in letteratura (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 1998; Tang, 2012), la competenza nella scrittura accademica in inglese rimane ancora un problema da risolvere. L'insegnamento dell'Inglese per Scopi Accademici (EAP) spesso si concentra su lessico specializzato, che potrebbe, tuttavia, essere l'area in cui gli accademici necessitano di meno aiuto. Lo studio di un piccolo corpus di scrittura accademica di livello C2, composto dai sottogeneri di riassunto e discussione, ha rivelato che una delle aree problematiche è la collocazione. Questo articolo presenta i risultati di questa indagine su un piccolo corpus di lingua appresa e come essa ha orientato l'attuazione in classe dell'apprendimento guidato dai dati (Data driven learning - DDL) per aumentare la consapevolezza degli apprendenti e la capacità di utilizzare le collocazioni in modo efficace nell'inglese accademico scritto. L'articolo descrive brevemente il corpus e la procedura di insegnamento risultante adottata. Il primo passo di questa procedura è la familiarizzazione, seguita da sperimentazione con l'uso di Sketch Engine (SkeLL).

Parole chiave: CORPUS DI APPRENDENTI, APPRENDIMENTO GUIDATO DAI DATI, INGLESE PER SCOPI ACCADEMICI SPECIFICI (ESAP), ANALISI DEL LESSICO ACCADEMICO, COLLOCAZIONE

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1. Introduction

Academic work submitted to peer review often meets with requests for non-native speaker authors to seek native speaker revision of the English. The aim of this article is not to debate the whys and wherefores of peer review but, nevertheless, at least one interesting conclusion may be drawn from this common request. This is the fact that the need for both university students and academics to improve their level of written English is still very much an issue. This has been discussed widely in the broader ESP literature (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 1998; Tang, 2012) but is still a problem, which is far from being solved (Ennis & Mikel Petrie, 2020; Hartle et al., 2022; Littlewood, 2014). The use of appropriate lexis is of particular importance when establishing an academic register, and awareness of academic lexis is key when developing academic skills such as reading (Hyland & Tse, 2009). This is certainly the case when writing, as academic writing is a register that needs to be learned since there are no "native users of academic language" (Lew et al., 2018). English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teaching often focuses on the development of lexis but this tends to be the specialized lexis required for specific disciplines, which may be the area where academic writers need least help. What may cause considerable difficulty, on the other hand, is lexical usage (Hyland 2006; Flowerdew, 2015). For this reason, the Learner Corpus 22 (LC22), which this paper draws on, was developed at the University of Verona, Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, as the central component of a learner language production study, undertaken to inform the development of a learning design model for academic English writing courses coordinated by our department. It is a small corpus of C2 level academic writing, produced by post-graduate students, which consists of the sub-genres of summary and discussion writing. Although the project is still in its infancy and the corpus is to be extended to provide a diachronic view of learner production, it provided us with a cross-sectional snapshot of some of the strengths and weaknesses of learner writing. Initial findings revealed the problematic usage of lexis, and in particular effective word choice and collocation. This, in turn, led us to choose a data-driven learning (DDL) approach, which we hoped would also develop learner independence, for our courses.

This paper focuses on the key, initial results of this small corpus investigation into learner-generated language and the way in which the findings, subsequently, informed the classroom implementation of data-driven learning. The aim was to help students of EAP improve their awareness of and ability to use collocations effectively in written academic English. The article briefly describes the research design of the academic writing study itself, together with the corpus, its compilation, and its analysis. The second part of the article describes the resulting two-step learning design, which was implemented in English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses. In this approach, learners are firstly familiarized with common collocation errors and secondly, they are introduced to corpus interfaces designed for language learning. A guided discovery approach (Bruner, 1961) is used to help them to experiment with DDL to improve their own use of collocations when writing. The main tool used for this is the Sketch Engine for language learning (SkeLL)[1], a freely accessible interface, which enables tailored web searches for a range of collocations and synonyms.

2. Collocation in language learning

Linguists traditionally define collocation as co-occurrence over a range of a few words to either side of a specific item (Halliday, 1994; Sinclair, 1991), without necessarily considering their semantic properties (Macis & Schmitt, 2017). From a pedagogical viewpoint, however, the focus is rather on collocation as phraseological, lexical combinations which co-occur, but which also have a reciprocal relationship of varying degrees. These are largely determined by convention, such as 'miss' as a verb which collocates with the noun 'train', rather than 'lose' which Italian L1 speakers may choose, transferring 'perdere' into the English 'lose' without considering that the meaning will vary in the collocation. Mutual reciprocity, first suggested by Firth, with his widely cited phrase "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (Firth, 1957) may refer to different distributions, but the most useful notion for learners is that the meanings are created by the reciprocity of the collocates. This reciprocity may be considered to fall on a continuum from weak to strong (Conzett, 2001), or free to restricted (Nesselhauf, 2003), where, for instance, 'a friendly dog' has weak reciprocity. In an expression such as to 'throw in the towel', on the other hand, the reciprocity is strong, depending on what Conzett refers to as the expectation created by one element in the collocation that the other will co-occur.

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[1] Sketch Engine for Language Learning (SkeLL) https://www.sketchengine.eu/skell/skell-web-interface-for-english-language-learning/ (last accessed April 8, 2023).

2.1. Advanced L2 learner Usage Problems

L2 learner difficulty with collocation has often been seen to be problematic in language production (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Durrant & Schmitt, 2009; Granger & Bestgen, 2014) particularly at intermediate to advanced levels. Two aspects which emerge from the literature, are, firstly, the question of frequency, in that low frequency, or rare collocations, tend to be under-used (Granger & Bestgen, 2014). Secondly, restriction, as mentioned above, is also an issue (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009). What is noticeable from the results of such research, is, also, that learners tend to mismatch those collocations that are in the middle of the free-restricted range. This refers to the choice of constituent parts that can combine with other elements as well, such as 'missing' and 'trains', where the collocation cannot be considered fixed. 'Miss', indeed, may collocate with a range of items, and has different meanings resulting from the reciprocity relationships: 'miss (feel nostalgic) my friends', 'miss (not do something in time) the deadline', 'miss (not reach) a target'. Conzett (op. cit., p. 70) advises focusing pedagogically on medium strength items, which, when combined, are possibly more useful for learners than extremely rare or fixed items, questioning a tendency to focus on teaching low frequency items at advanced levels. The question of which items to focus on is also problematic (Timmis, 2008); therefore, it may be more appropriate to increase learner independence, so that they can exercise their own agency in choosing the collocations that they themselves need.

2.2. EAP in a digital post COVID-19 age

Discussion of the effectiveness of technology and digital tools in language teaching, over the years, has often referred to the twin aspects of learner autonomy and agency – which have emerged also from Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) studies (Green et al., 2020; Whittle et al., 2020). Definitions of autonomy range from Holec's notion of complete responsibility for learning being in the learner's own hands (Holec, 1981) to more nuanced interpretations (Benson, 2007; Little, 1991). Agency is linked to autonomy, and implies, to some extent, the learner's investment in their own learning (Bourdieu & (Translated by) Nice, 1984; Norton, 2013). In the case of our learners the investment is particularly strong as their future careers may depend on their ability to publish in academic English. Ahearn views agency as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (Ahearn, 2001 p. 112) and in a pedagogical context this means both providing opportunities for learner involvement in the process, and developing mutual mediation between teachers and learners in that process (Hartle, 2020; Larsen-Freeman, 2019; Van Lier, 2008). It has long been recognized that an effective lexical repertoire means more than simply having knowledge of word meanings in particular contexts, but of developing an awareness of lexical complexity (Lewis, 1993; I. S. P. Nation, 2001; Shin & Nation, 2008; Timmis, 2008). Familiarizing learners, therefore, with digital tools that may increase independence in the development of their own lexical repertoires, may aid competence as well as increasing both agency and investment and, ultimately, lead to improved performance on academic writing tasks. Our courses aim to foster a DDL approach to the study of lexis for precisely this reason.

2.3. Data-driven Learning

The term DDL, coined by Tim Johns at the end of the twentieth century (Johns, 1986, 1991), advocates an enquiry-based approach involving learner corpora searches designed to answer questions related to language usage. This involves the use of computational tools to analyze corpora data, allowing learners to identify and study frequent word combinations and patterns of language use (Chen & Baker, 2010). DDL has proved to be particularly effective for learning academic language, as it enables identification and use of key academic lexis and collocation patterns (Biber et al., 2004; Hyland, 2008). Although the approach was initially met with enthusiasm (Boulton, 2017; Sinclair, 2004), this waned at the turn of the century due partly to restricted access to many corpora, and to the investment into developing the skills required for teachers and learners to use the corpus analysis tools available at that time. Considerable effort was needed to choose appropriate, naturally occurring language for pedagogical use, particularly in international contexts (Prodromou, 1996; Widdowson, 1991), which also detracted from its popularity. The advent of digital interfaces, however, that enable ease of access to corpora, may make DDL once more attractive nowadays both to teachers and learners (Boulton, 2017). User-friendly interfaces, which are widely available, may be extremely valuable for learners seeking to develop their awareness and use of lexical patterning, particularly where collocation is concerned.

3. Background to the study

As mentioned in the Introduction, our original hypothesis regarding the problematic use of academic English by academics at all levels, was that the issues were probably related not only to grammar but also to lexis. One measure that may alleviate this is intervention at an early stage, helping young academics to develop effective strategies that support their writing (Barnau & Ferková, 2022; Basturkmen & Wette, 2016). Academic English courses provided by our department tend to be limited, 40-hour intensive courses, which are offered annually to postgraduate students, although general English courses are also available to them in the university language centre. As a result of this limited duration and from the reflections of past course participants, (Hartle & Cavalieri, forthcoming) a key aspect of such short courses, is one of increasing learner autonomy, an essential consideration for our learning design. Before we could develop the teaching model itself, however, the target content also needed to be identified clearly. This was a case of identifying both strengths that could be encouraged in learner writing and weaknesses that needed to be addressed. Consequently, it was decided to conduct a pilot study based on a local corpus, which aimed to answer two main research questions:

1) What are the principal grammatical and lexical strengths in advanced, learner academic writing?
2) What are the principal grammatical and lexical weaknesses in advanced, learner academic writing?

At a later stage another question was added to these to aid the development of our teaching model:

3) What resources may be developed to aid lexical acquisition and competence?

Drawing on both Corpus Linguistics and thematic analysis (Clarke & Braun, 2014), the research methodology adopted was a mixed methods approach, chosen because, as stated by Dörnyei (2007) "a mixed methods inquiry offers a potentially more comprehensive means of legitimizing findings than do either QUAL or QUAN methods alone." (p. 62). The quantitative analysis, in our case, was the study of the corpus data. The theoretical framework adopted to conduct the study was Computer aided error analysis (CEA) (Dagneaux et al., 1998), which was adapted to meet local needs. Our methodology was an adaptation of traditional CEA, focused on identifying errors, which we altered because we aimed to determine effective, as well as problematic, language choices. In our annotation of the corpus, therefore, we focused not only on errors but also on effective language choices that were higher than the production expected at a B1 level. The annotation process will be described in greater detail in Section 4.2.

3.1. The corpus LC22 and the reference corpora

The LC22 corpus itself is small, which is characteristic of learner corpora for various reasons including the labour intensive nature of CEA annotation, the fact that it was part of a local, pilot study but also because specialized, smaller corpora may reveal "context-specific aspects of discourse, which are not always evident in larger ones" (O'Keefe et al., 2007, p. 182). Small corpora are, indeed, widely used to investigate specific discourse patterns, including patterns to inform learning design (Bondi, 2001). In our case, the corpus data required interpretation, if the results were to reflect the reality of the learners involved in producing the texts. Corpora, such as the BNC or COCA, for instance, tend to classify Latin-derived lexis as having less frequent occurrences, but in our context, where the main L1 being used is Italian, Latin-derived lexis is common, even though its choice may not always reflect appropriate usage. Frequency has generally been considered an effective indicator of difficulty for the acquisition of lexis for some time now, as it is thought to be "a rational basis for making sure that learners get the best return for their vocabulary learning effort" (Nation & Waring, 1997, p. 15). This, however, would mean correlating less frequent occurrences with increased difficulty, which, with Latin-derived items, such as "incapable", "integration" or "radical"[2] to list just a few, may not be the case in our context.

The next question was which reference corpus to choose. McEnery and his colleagues (2019) speak of a disconnect between Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and Learner Corpus Research (LCR). They refer to a 2019 special edition of *The Modern Language Journal*[3] entitled *SLA Across Disciplinary Borders*. This issue considers SLA across different disciplines including corpus linguistics (Duff & Byrnes, 2019). The volume

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[2] Items extracted from the LC22 corpus.
[3] The Special Issue is available in open access at this link: (last accessed July 14, 2023).

consisted of 15 contributions in all, from which three papers refer to corpus linguistics. Despite the widely held belief that learner corpora should inform language learning and teaching, not one of these articles referred to learner corpora. This suggests that the reference corpora that educators and course developers commonly refer to are still native speaker (NS) ones. Identifying effective language production may, indeed, not be a question of complying with often unrealistic NS norms, but of being able to communicate effectively (Graddol, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007). Identifying effective language use, however, is complex as a boundary has to be established. Effective communication for those with a lower level of linguistic competence, such as A2 for instance, is not the same as it is for those with a higher level of competence. Most of the language produced by our participants was actually classified at a B1 level and, for this reason, the boundary for the level of language production considered to be particularly effective was set at B1+ in our study. Our benchmark for effective lexical production was both NS and non-native speaker (NNS) production, and three sources were used as reference corpora to establish this: the British National Corpus (BNC)(BNC Consortium, 2007), the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)(Davies, 2020), and the English Vocabulary Profile (EVP)[4]. The latter is an interface which draws on a range of NNS texts, both written and spoken, and was analyzed by means of search options provided by Text Inspector[5]. This is an interface which enables searches of both NS and NNS data, which we used to determine the CEFR productive levels of participants, compared against frequencies of NS usage. The choice to have three reference corpora was determined by the aim of referencing our local data not only with NS but also with NNS norms. The specific methodology applied to the analysis of corpus data will be described in Section 4.

The findings from the corpus analysis were then supplemented by means of the thematic, qualitative analysis of interviews, conducted with the participants for the purposes of triangulation[6], in a constructivist approach where the researcher drew on what Timmis (2008) refers to as "professionally informed intuition" (p. 7) to interpret the results. The study, therefore, involved three main stages: firstly the testing of the participants and the text production stage, followed by the compilation and analysis of the corpus itself, and finally the development of the course learning design based on the results from the corpus analysis together with the findings from the interviews.

3.2. Participants and texts

The participant sample, which, being a pilot study, was very small, consisted of 21 learners, (16 females, 5 males) whose level of English was C2 according to the Common European Framework Guidelines (Council of Europe, 2001). They were recruited by means of convenience sampling as they were all post graduate students attending English language MA courses at the University of Verona, and their level was tested at the beginning of the study. A univariate analysis of test scores was carried out before potential participants were admitted to the study. The participants took the university language centre, English C2 level test, which focuses on productive, academic writing and presentation skills at this level[7]. This testing was conducted to ensure consistency in the levels of the participants. All 21 participants scored overall marks, which fell between 60 and 95 percent, and were therefore within an acceptable C2 range. The mean score was 78.713 and there was a standard deviation of 11.36, meaning that within the range there was some variance. This, however, was to be expected and was useful for the study as it facilitated comparison between higher- and lower-level performances.

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[4] This publication has made use of the English Vocabulary Profile. This resource is based on extensive research using the Cambridge Learner Corpus and is part of the English Profile program, which aims to provide evidence about language use that helps to produce better language teaching materials. See http://www.englishprofile.org for more information. The English Vocabulary Profile has been compiled from both the Cambridge Learner Corpus (CLC) (Lexical Computing Limited on behalf of Cambridge University Press and Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2017) and the Cambridge English Corpus (see https://www.cambridge.es/en/about-us/cambridge-english-corpus). Additional sources for the C levels research have included reference lists relevant to academic English and frequency data on idioms. The EVP is a work in progress whose aim is descriptive rather than prescriptive.

[5] Text Inspector is available at: https://textinspector.com/ (last accessed April 9, 2023).

[6] The analysis of the interviews is beyond the scope of this paper.

[7] In this language test, although the focus is on the productive skills of writing and speaking, test-takers are provided with input which may be audio, audiovisual or text based, so it involves integrated skills.

In the preparatory stage of the study, the participants were shown a short video documentary[8] and asked to write a short 200-word summary. They were then shown the documentary again and asked to write a longer 800-word discursive discussion of one main idea that they found interesting, and they were asked to adopt a neutral, academic style. These texts formed the content of the LC22 corpus and were grouped into two sub-corpora: summaries and discussions. Written consent was provided by all the participants, enabling their texts to be used anonymously both in the study and the resulting dissemination of the research findings.

4. Methodology: compiling and annotating the corpus
4.1. The LC22 corpus: three stages

At the end of the preparatory stage described in Section 3.2, 42 texts in total had been generated. The LC22 corpus was then compiled by subdividing the learner texts into the two main sub-corpora. As this was a pilot study, developed mainly to inform local learning design, the resulting corpus was small, as discussed in Section 3.1., counting 19,193 tokens (17,121 words). Only 2,219 of the words, however, were discrete items due to repeated instances of many of the words, since all the participants discussed the same subject matter from the documentary.

Compilation of the corpus involved three main stages, and actually resulted in three different corpora. The first corpus was compiled in plain text and analyzed with the aid of Text Inspector to ascertain the levels of lexical sophistication (Jimènenz Catalán & Fernandez Fontecha, 2019; Kyle & Crossley, 2015)[9], using the EVP, BNC and COCA as cross-referencing benchmarks. The texts were analyzed for a range of features such as readability, lexical diversity or metadiscourse markers. Our primary interest was in the lexical diversity and sophistication features, which enabled us to determine the overall scores and corresponding CEFR levels of the lexis in the texts. This, in turn, enabled us to ensure that the levels of the texts reflected the participants' levels before undertaking the study itself.

The second stage was to create a 'raw' corpus in the Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2014): the text entered was plain text and this was then annotated with automatic part of speech (POS) tagging. This was to enable basic searches such as corpus size, accurate frequency of occurrences, wordlists and to conduct searches for keyness. This made a descriptive analysis of discrete tokens, such as specific concordances, possible but did not allow for structural exploration, which was of primary interest for our study of learner language production, levels and specific strengths or weaknesses. Consequently, a third corpus was then compiled, which was annotated manually in XML and uploaded to the Sketch Engine, where it was automatically tagged for POS. This XML annotated corpus provided us with the opportunity to conduct searches for specific patterns using structural corpus query language (CQL) exploration, so that searches could be made for specific patterns such as effective verb/noun collocation or problematic word choice. All of these had been identified by qualitative analysis during the annotation phase, which is worth describing in more detail.

4.2. XML annotation

Coding the data in XML and then uploading the corpus into the Sketch Engine enabled us to provide overarching metadata such as the sub-corpus, the participants' L1, the identity code number of the texts, which were also related to the participants so that T8D1, for instance, was the discussion text provided by participant number eight. Metadata regarding the participant's L1, gender, mark on the initial pre-test and the year was also included, since this corpus will be expanded to cover other years as well as 2022. This can be seen in Figure 1. The different metadata enable a range of different analysis options such as searching, for instance, for specific participants, gender or level ranges.

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[8] The Documentary was the BBC2 broadcast "History of Now: the Story of the Noughties" https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b00pyn3l (last accessed April 10, 2023), and provided on DVD for Unit 6 of *Speakout Advanced* (Clare & Wilson, 2012).
[9] Lexical sophistication often refers to the frequency of unusual words in a text.

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8"?>
<doc title="T8DI" subclass="Discussion" lang1="Italian" gender="M" mark="95" year="2022">
<text>
    <body>
        There were two themes
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="WC1" Lev1="WPrep1"> about </cat1> this talk,
        <cat1 macro="Misc" tag="PuncT" Lev1="PuWR"> : </cat1>
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="Coll2" Lev1="LP2"> which have given me particular food for thought </cat1>. The first one is the
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="WC2" Lev1="WN2"> pursuit </cat1>
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="Coll2" Lev1="Nprep2"> pursuit of </cat1>
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="Coll2" Lev1="AdjN2">eternal youth </cat1>, that characterizes our society nowadays.
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="Coll2" Lev1="LP2"> What is evident, I think is the fact that </cat1>  youth and the dream of it
        <cat1 macro="LexiS" tag="Coll2" Lev1="VN2"> drive our daily life  </cat1>
        <cat1 macro="Gram" tag="Noun" Lev1="PluOm"> life </cat1>.
```

Figure 1. An extract from the XML annotated corpus

The data was coded into two macro language-production categories: general language production and infelicities. The examples in Figure 1 all belong to the general language production category. These examples were then tagged for problematic or effective language choice. Choices that were tagged as problematic were assigned the number "1" as part of the tag, such as "'tag=WC'", where the 1 means there was an error. In Figure 1, for instance, 'tag="WC1" in the first row, is an example of word choice: in this case the choice made was "about", and it is problematic from a semantic viewpoint, in the context:

"There were two themes **about*** this talk,"
which would be better expressed as
"There were two themes **in** this talk,"

When the tag includes the number 2, such as 'tag="WC2"' in the fourth row, it is an instance of effective language production. In this case, the choice of the noun "pursuit", which is a non-frequent lexical item in both the BNC and COCA and was classified as C2 level in EVP, is used appropriately in the context of the phrase "the pursuit of eternal youth". The third tag, which is 'Lev1', refers to the specific language item being analyzed, so that 'Lev1="AdjN2" in row six refers to a choice of the effective adjective/noun collocation "eternal youth".
The annotation was informed by the system methodology outlined in the Louvain Error Tagging Manual, Version 2.0 (Granger et al., 2022), although, as previously mentioned, this was adapted for our local needs, as the Louvain methodology does not deal with effective language production. One issue that was encountered was the need for the multiple tagging of certain items, because of their language functions in the discourse. "Pursuit", for instance, was tagged as an effective word choice of the noun itself (row four) but then was also tagged as an effective noun/preposition collocation (row five). This enabled us to make precise structural exploration searches, but it also determined the choice of keeping the second corpus, which was POS tagged but not annotated manually, to provide an accurate overview of corpus size and frequency of specific occurrences.

5. Overall findings and discussion

The initial, overall findings confirmed our original hypothesis that problematic areas to focus on in academic English writing courses are related not only to grammar but primarily to lexis, with the caveat that this refers to advanced levels, like the level of the participants in this study. Figure 2 shows that 24% of the effective language production was related overall to effective collocations of various different types. 10% referred to effective word choice. The most problematic area was word choice, with 18% of problematic language production in this category, which refers to the choice of the wrong word because of its meaning. The fifth largest category, which was also problematic, was collocation. What was interesting to see here, was, that although we had expected to see problematic uses with collocation, there was actually considerable evidence of effective usage. There was also both problematic and effective word choice, which tends to suggest that a learning design should highlight the effective usage and also provide learners with the tools to enhance this. A major category of problematic usage was verbs, which is generally related to problems either of morphological form or of inappropriate tense choices.
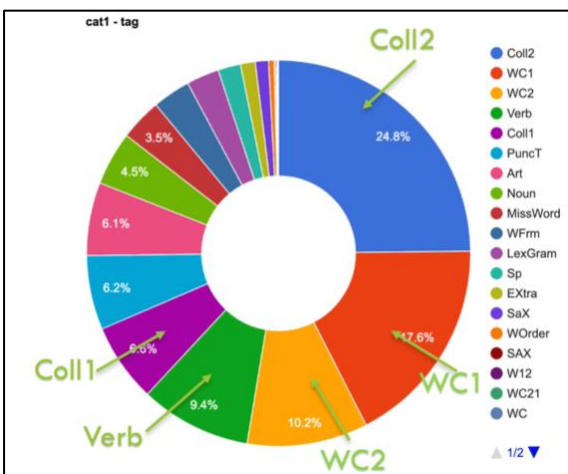
Figure 2. An overview of the general findings
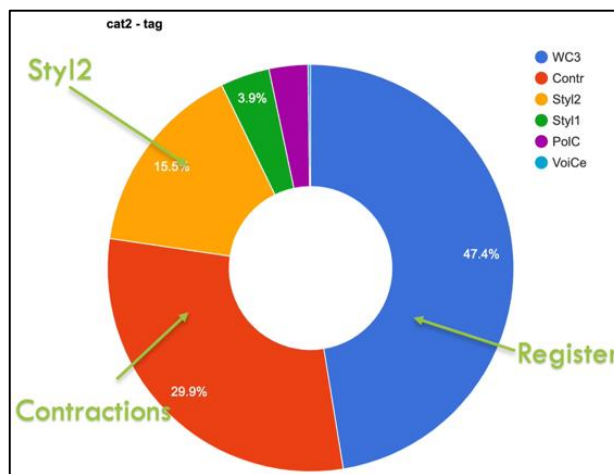
Figure 3. An overview of the infelicities

The second macro category was related to infelicities, and Figure 3 shows an overview of this area. The participants were asked to write in a neutral, academic style, but it was clear from the analysis of their production that they were not able to do this. This was suggested by instances of formal language, often related to conjunctions that were present in texts, where informal choices such as contractions or informal lexical choices were also common. The informal elements were mainly related to lexical choice, such as "little", which, when referring to size, tends to be informal, or discourse features such as the choice of "really" as a pre-modifier. Examples of these choices can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Register choices

Over Informal	Over formal
I'm not speaking about…lots of…incredible…really…little…nice	Furthermore…contrary to…thus…in the following… consequently

When applying the lens of level to the exploration, what is revealed is that the main difference between lower and higher-level production is related to the use of collocations, as can be seen in Figures 4 and 5. 59% of effective language production was related to collocations in higher-level production compared with 40% in the lower-level range. Effective and less effective word choice was balanced at higher levels, whereas at the lower ones 12% of the production was problematic from the viewpoint of word choice, and only 4% was classified as being effective (higher than a B1 level). Ineffective collocation accounted for only 5% at higher levels, whereas this was slightly higher, at 8%, in lower-level production. The discussion, in this paper, therefore, will mainly focus on the results of the collocation analysis, even though the areas of lexical choice from the semantic viewpoint would also be worthy of investigation.
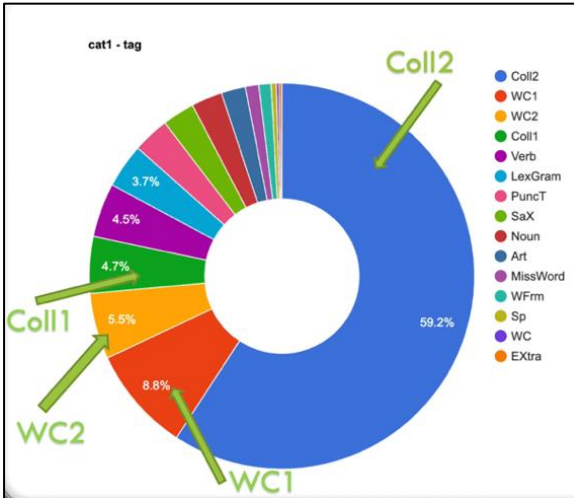
Figure 4. An overview of higher level (92-95% marks)
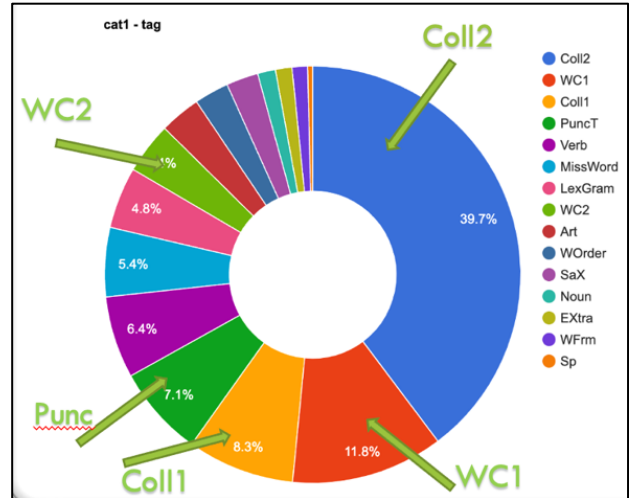
Figure 5. An overview of lower level (60-63% marks)

5.1. Collocation and lexical phrases

Effective collocation, in our corpus, included a range of specific collocation types but the most common patterns tended to be verb/noun and adjective/noun collocations. This category also included lexical phrases or frames (Benson, 1994; Koprowski, 2005; Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), that is items with a fixed lexical element that frames an idea. In the first example in Table 2, for instance, the frame is "No matter how good or bad… was". The lexical phrase here: "No matter how good or bad" may remain fixed and then used to frame various ideas. In this case it was "their youth", but it could be a range of items such as "their education, their relationships, their salary", to name just a few. It may be useful for learners to focus on fixed items, such as these lexical frames, to develop the quality of their written production. A more detailed overview of the data retrieved from the two levels of analysis introduced in the previous section, can be seen in Appendix but illustrative instances will be discussed here. Examples are taken from the higher and lower C2 levels in order to show differences which may appear within the range of a single level. The examples in Table 2 show that there seems to be more experimentation with language that is part of the personal repertoire of the learner, such as the use of the frame "No matter how good or bad… was" or the verb/noun collocation "massive change", at higher levels. In contrast, at lower levels, the effective frames tended to be items that may have been presented explicitly in class, such as "What interested me… was", or had been taken directly from the video documentary that the participants had viewed in the preparatory stage. One example of this is "Now the different generations are less aware of each other." The choice of less frequent lexis, possibly indicating a wider lexical repertoire, is also evident at higher levels in the choice of items that are collocated, such as "huge impact", "fixed rendezvous" or "radical changes", in the adjective/noun collocations, whereas lower-level production often relies on the choice of higher frequency items such as "everyday lives", "cultural phenomenon", "parallel world". As was noted earlier, although items such as both "cultural" and "phenomenon" may be classified as low frequency in NS corpora, in our context, where the majority of the participants were Italian L1 speakers, these are Latin-derived items that are easily accessible to them. "Phenomenon" was classified as C1 in the EVP, but is easily comprehensible for our participants.

Table 2
Examples of common effective (tagged as 2) and problematic (tagged as 1) lexical phrase or collocation choices grouped according to level

Language Choice	Higher Level	Lower Level
Lexical Phrase (LP2)	No matter how good or bad their youth was...	What interested me in particular about this video was... Now the different generations are less aware of each other.
Verb Noun (VN2)	They tend to live the lifestyle of a teenager (This generation has) seen a massive change represent a full commitment emulate youngsters	...disorientating our society deal with dangers attach too much importance
Adjective Noun (AdjN2)	huge impact fixed rendezvous radical changes	everyday lives cultural phenomenon parallel world
Verb Noun (VN1)	gains a lot of profit have possibilities	live the present make some experiences
Noun Preposition (NPrep1)	desire of break the rules This tendency to a form of 'perpetual childhood'	The reason of many social changes The same possibilities of young people
Adjective Noun (AdjN1)	a stylish, young garment A consistent amount (money)	deep changes ambiental problems

5.2. Problematic language choices

Greater experimentation is evident at higher levels, although it may lead to problematic choices such as "a stylish young garment", where the presence of "stylish, young" tends to point to a collocation with a person or animate entity, and not "garment". This experimentation may be interpreted as a positive aspect of the learning process, but providing tools for learners to check the appropriacy of their choices may lead to more effective communication, which is required when writing academically at higher levels.

A similar problem can be seen in the choice of a "consistent amount of money", where "consistent" does not usually collocate with "amount" and perhaps "considerable" would have been a better choice. At the lower levels, collocation choices, such as "deep changes" or "ambiental problems", point rather to a more basic transfer from the L1 to the L2, and the morphologically creative adaptation of L1 terms such as "ambientale" to create something the writer considers to sound English (ambiental*), when the learner lexicon is not developed enough for them to be able to express themselves effectively. These initial findings tend to underline the fact that in order to foster effective academic writing habits our learners need to be made aware of their strengths and weaknesses and then to be provided with the tools that will enable them to develop their own lexical repertoires.

6. Focus on the learning design

As a result of these initial findings, in our academic writing courses it was decided to focus particularly on the development of lexis and mainly collocation. A second objective was to develop lifelong learning skills and explore the use of available resources as an aid to lexical choice in writing. This, it was hoped, would foster greater independence and agency (Ahearn, 2001) in our learners. The learning design involves a two-step approach. The first stage is a focus on familiarization and reflection, which aims to introduce learners to the concept of collocation and to reflect on both effective and less effective usage. This is important because a lack of knowledge about collocation itself and its importance in moulding effective communication may hamper learners at the outset. This stage involves guided-discovery (Bruner, 1961) strategies, where learners analyze

and reflect on peer writing, by exploring an annotated, learner-friendly corpus, created in Markin[10]. They are guided inductively, by means of the pedagogically informed (Timmis, 2008) annotation, provided by the teacher but generated from learner production, to notice the strengths and the weaknesses in the discourse produced. The second step is one of experimentation and is where DDL is applied in a more personalized way. Learners are familiarized with a range of freemium or free corpus interfaces, such as SkeLL, which will be considered in more depth in this paper, although they were also introduced to other interfaces such as the English Corpora[11] or Just the Word[12]. This step involves analysis and reflection as well but also experimentation as learners personalize the language they wish to explore: a key factor if investment in the language being learned (Norton, 2009) is to be encouraged.

6.1. The first step: teacher compiled corpora on Markin

This step involves the compilation of another corpus, which is pedagogical in nature. It is compiled by teachers from learner-generated writing. The software used is Martin Holmes' Markin (Holmes, n.d.), which is a desktop programme, that is not new, but is easy to use for both teachers and learners, and has proved popular over the years in our context. Figure 6 shows the interface with default coding options on the left (red for problematic, and green for effective language choice). These default options are fairly generic, however, and a button that just says 'good', for instance, may not be helpful enough for learners to see why a particular choice is effective. The buttons, in fact, can be personalized by teachers according to need and new ones can be added and saved for future use, and comments can also be added for greater granularity. The corpus data itself can simply be entered, by typing or pasting, into the white central space and the programme will automatically convert the final document into html, so no coding is required.
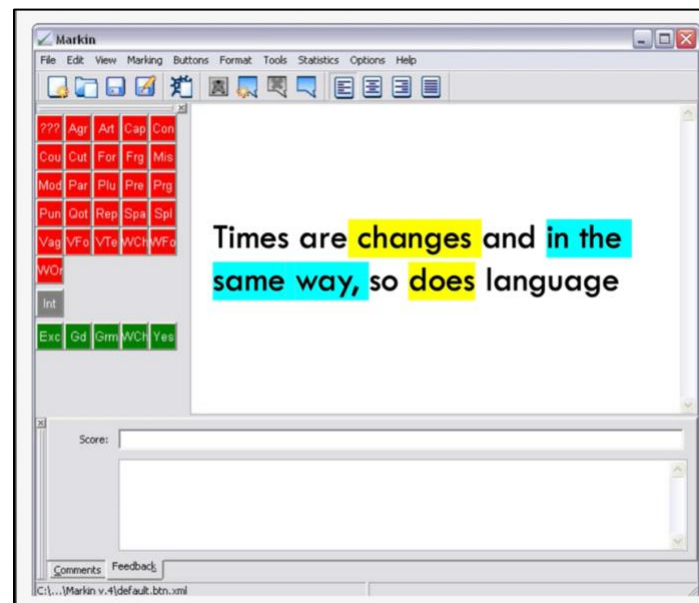
Figure 6. The Markin interface with default coding options

Figure 7 shows an example of a text, which was not part of the LC22 corpus, but produced in class[13]. As can be seen, the texts are anonymized and only certain features of the text have been coded, in the interests

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[10] This software was developed by Martin Holmes and was used as a desktop programme for the development of pedagogically friendly corpora. http://www.cict.co.uk/markin/index.php (last accessed April 10, 2023).
[11] This interface enables access to a range of corpora such as British, American and Internet English, as well as the Global Web-based English corpus, which provides data from 20 different countries. The interface is available at https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/ (last accessed April 12, 2023).
[12] Just the Word draws on the BNC but provides clearly organized collocational output that is learner friendly. It is available at http://www.just-the-word.com/ (last accessed April 12, 2023).
[13] Consent was given for publication.

of guiding learner analysis. The red labels indicate problematic areas whereas the green ones are effective features. The numbers refer to notes and, as can be seen in the example, this enables teachers to provide much more precise discussions as to why a choice may not be appropriate. In this case, the choice of "aspects" would collocate better with the idea of language change, and the teacher has explained the semantic prosody of intentionality, more commonly found with "modification".
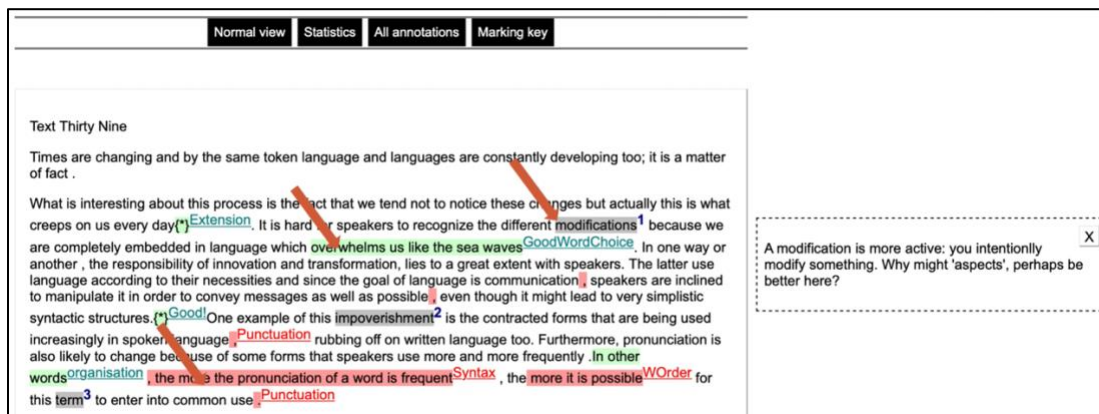
Figure 7. A text in Markin after it has been coded for use in class

6.1.1. Classroom Procedure
The procedure used in the first step involved five stages:

1) Teacher prepares learner texts and determines aspects to highlight for guided discovery;
2) Teachers develop the corpus, which is coded and annotated;
3) Learners analyze the texts either in or outside class. This stage may involve further structuring from the teacher, such as asking the learners to focus on three aspects that they find interesting or useful. These may then be further discussed with peers and the whole class;
4) Learners analyze their own texts and correct or edit them. This may be done individually or together with their peers in pair or group work;
5) Class discussion is held on the most effective or problematic aspects of their writing;
6) This work is extended by setting further writing tasks or discussions such as explorations of emergent problematic language choices or reflection on concepts such as collocation itself, which may require clarification.

This procedure enables learners to invest, in Norton's terms (2010, 2013), in their own agency and their personal learning process by working on their own or their peers' writing. They also exercise their agency by then deciding how they would like to edit their personal work as a result of their analysis, or which language areas are key for them to focus on. The issue of developing learners' lexical repertoires can then be addressed by introducing them to easily accessible online corpus interfaces, such as SkeLL. In order for learners, however, to be able to develop their own repertoires, they must firstly be familiarized with the use of corpus interfaces.

6.2. The second step: deconstruction, reflection and the exploration of online corpus interfaces and developing personalized lexical repertoires
The initial procedure adopted in the second step is also one of reflection and guided discovery: learners are asked to look at a very short text in their L1 and to identify possibly problematic features. As is shown in Figure 8, the text is firstly presented and learners are encouraged to reflect and discuss potential problems in general terms. The first two questions focus specifically on language awareness items but the third and fourth ask them to consider the nature of corpora and how they differ from dictionaries, as this, in the past, has proved to be a valuable reflection. For many learners, indeed, this may be their first encounter with corpora, and it is important that they realise that corpora interfaces are particularly useful when searching for issues of language usage. In the second activity, the text, which has previously been deconstructed into language chunks, can be

analyzed. This approach aims to sensitize learners firstly to the collocation issues that may emerge. "Dare l'importanza", for instance, cannot simply be transferred into "give importance" in English, and knowledge of collocation may help learners to realize this. Learners may not know the answers to these questions, but the aim is to arouse curiosity and whet learner appetites.

Reflection

1. Consider this idea: La risposta, quasi unanime, alla crisi economica e finanziaria che negli ultimi tre anni ha investito le economie occidentali è sintetizzabile in due parole: più crescita. Ma dare l'importanza alla crescita è sempre la soluzione? È davvero in grado di produrre benessere e prosperità?.
2. What might cause you difficulty when expressing this idea in English?
3. What is a corpus and how can it help you?
4. What are the main differences between a corpus and a dictionary? Which one more useful when searching for meaning and which one for language usage?

Look at the following words and expressions, how would you express the same ideas in English?

1. La risposta alla crise economica e finanziaria
2. Quasi unanime
3. Negli ultimi anni
4. Investito (in this specific case)
5. Sintetizzabile
6. Dare l'importanza
7. Produrre benessere
8. Produrre prosperità

Figure 8. Initial guided reflection in step two

Following these reflections, the next stage is to provide learners with the reference tools, that will help them to answer questions about language usage. Figure 9 shows the next stage on this journey, which is one of applying corpus search skills to answer the questions arising from the analysis of the language chunks (see Figure 8). As can be seen, the students are also led to reflect on the type of questions that can be answered by using dictionaries, which often involves searches for meanings rather than answers to the lexico-grammatical problems that can better be answered by the corpus interface.[14] The questions provide a guided procedure which helps learners to familiarize themselves with the range of searches that can be conducted using different resources.

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[14] Dictionaries, which include traditional ones such as the Longman dictionary online https://www.ldoceonline.com/ but also more contemporary interfaces such as Reverso Context https://context.reverso.net/translation/ , are also explored as learners use these sites and can be helped to develop a constructive but critical approach to such use. Both resources were last accessed on April 12, 2023.

Dictionaries are very useful for the meaning of words and phrases and for examples but when it comes to usage and collocations there is a better alternative: corpora.

Welcome to SkeLL

Go to Intro to SkeLL ↗

1. Look up 'crisis' in the **word sketch** to check how this is usually collocated?
2. Which verbs can you use when 'crisis' is a direct object?
3. Look up "years" (**word sketch**) to find out which adjectives can be used here?
4. Which expression is probably the most appropriate for the text above?
5. Look up 'ha investito le economie occidentali' in Reverso Context ↗ Be careful because you need to find the meaning that you are interested in.
6. Look up 'plunge' in SkeLL (**word sketch**) to find out how to use it? Try looking at the examples with 'Europe' as a direct object.
7. Look up 'sintetizzabile in due parole' in Reverso Context but look to see which expressions are most common.
8. Look up 'importanza' in Skell (word sketch) Which verbs commonly collocate with importance as a direct object?
9. Look up 'benessere' in Reverso Context then check the meanings of "well-being" and 'welfare' in the Longman Dictionary Online ↗. Which one would be better in the above text?
10. Now look your choice up in SkeLL (**word sketch**) to see which verbs commonly collocate with it?
11. Repeat numbers 9 and 10 for 'prosperita'.

Figure 9. Guided introduction to searching SkeLL

Learners are shown the SkeLL interface and how to access the word sketch feature, initially using the word "crisis", for instance. The resulting output, which is shown in Figure 10, is very clearly organized according to specific POS collocations for exploration, which is appropriate for use by learners.

Figure 10. SkeLL output for the 'crisis' word search

Learners then consider the different verb/noun collocations and they then choose one option to explore further. In one group, on our course, for instance, "precipitate a crisis" was chosen and learners then analyzed the output in context for that choice (Figure 11).

precipitate + crisis 0.17 hits per million

1. This event **precipitated** a family **crisis** with political consequences.
2. Wang's defeat, however, **precipitated** another succession **crisis** .
3. An acute sickle-cell **crisis** is often **precipitated** by infection.
4. Archer's visit **precipitated** a **crisis** in the colonial administration.
5. But it was not economic distress that **precipitated** the present **crisis** .
6. However, **crisis** was **precipitated** by an event outside the AFPFL.
7. The loss of Shusha **precipitated** a political **crisis** in Azerbaijan.
8. Thus the fear of a bank run can actually **precipitate** the **crisis** .
9. Why are you **precipitating** a humanitarian **crisis** , you sly dog?
10. Regional supplies ran out in Belarus and Ukraine, **precipitating** national **crises** .
11. It cuts the ground from under conviction and **precipitates** a **crisis** of authority.
12. The Bulgarian advance into Greek held Eastern Macedonia, **precipitated** internal Greek **crisis** .
13. The unopposed Bulgarian advance into Greek-held eastern Macedonia **precipitated** a **crisis** in Greece.
14. The intensity of developing his philosophical vision **precipitated** a psychological **crisis** in the isolated scholar.
15. When Austria-Hungary did annex this territory that October, it **precipitated** the diplomatic **crisis** .
16. The sinking of the Maine in Havana harbor in February 1898 **precipitated** the **crisis** .
17. Gene Robinson's consecration went forward, **precipitating** a **crisis** in the Anglican Communion.
18. Napoleon's removal of the Bourbon dynasty from the Spanish throne **precipitated** a political **crisis** .

Figure 11. SkeLL output for 'precipitate a crisis' in context

The SkeLL algorithm searches several corpora, uploaded to the Sketch Engine, for up to forty different occurrences of this item, which are all different and learners can then study this output for register, collocation but also for lexical phrases or frames. Since the findings from our study have shown lexical frames to be a key element in what was perceived to be effective language the next step was introduced specifically to foster learner awareness of and competence in the use of frames. This is an experimental phase, where learners are asked to experiment with their own examples.

6.2.1. Experimentation Procedure: working with lexical frames
The procedure used was the following:

1) Learners choose an example from the SkeLL output in context (See Figure 11);
2) The example is analyzed. If the choice is "This event precipitates a family crisis", for instance, the resulting frame may look like this:
   "This _____ precipitated a _____ crisis";
3) Learners then generate their own personalized examples such as "The speech precipitated a political crisis";
4) Examples are discussed in class;
5) Learners then explore other collocations that they may require in their own writing and generate language frames such as "This election precipitated a national crisis";
6) This work may be extended by learners sharing their findings or testing each other.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the learning design of our ESAP course was developed as a direct result of the findings from the pilot study. The study, although limited to our local context, provided us with valuable insights into learner needs and confirmed our initial hypothesis as to the problematic issue of collocation. What also emerged, however, was learners' effective use of collocation, which included lexical frames. Our research informed the DDL pedagogical framework which we developed for our academic English writing courses. The learning design combined elements of awareness raising, reflection and analysis. Our course work did not focus only on the remedial area of error correction, although this was a part of it, but also on the recognition of effective language choices. Our design integrates the skills of analysis, fostered by means of guided discovery, and reflection to enhance greater understanding of the contributing factors when writing academically, and experimentation with the language learners themselves choosing which collocations they need to focus on in their own writing. This enables learners to invest in their own learning process, and such investment may lead to increased lexico-grammatical competence in academic writing skills. When introduced at an early stage, learners such as postgraduate students, at the beginning of their academic writing careers, have time to build their lexical repertoires before possibly becoming professional writers in later life. Interfaces such as SkeLL are both accessible and user-friendly for learners. They may be considered to be valuable tools, which provide language models, in the output generated, that can be built on by learners for their personalized production and are veritable lifelong learning resources.

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Appendix

Overview of collocation findings grouped according to higher and lower levels

The collocations are reported with some context, for ease of interpretation. Some errors, related to other language areas, such as the wrong word form choice, have been left in the reported examples.

Higher levels: (90-95% marks on pre-test)

Coll2: 85 instances, which equates to 39,516.5 per million tokens

The first 21 occurrences of general effective collocation in higher-level participants including lexical phrases

It deals mostly

The change of people's behaviour

The story of the Noughties tells us where…

Various speakers give their opinions about the issue

They all point out the fact that…

You no longer need to be young to act young

As long as you can afford it

Adults no longer act like adults but rather like…

Massive change

The only way of communication was…

(The television)that not everybody could afford

Breathing fresh air

Time has changed

The meeting space

(In particular) through the most famous social network in the world.

Reachable everywhere and everytime.

A fixed rendezvous

They can't control what their children and their friends are doing.

A friend of mine

Mix reality and their life with what is happening

Act two different roles

Coll1: 16, which equates to 7,438.4 per million tokens

All 16 occurrences of general ineffective collocation in higher-level participants including lexical phrases

It deals on the change

Gains a lot of profit

Many have possibilities

The desire of (break the rules)

You can have Facebook (on a mobile phone)

(Our parents) follow the mould

'Kidulthood' is made up by two nouns.

Globalisation has much influenced…

(Every aspect of our life) synonym with…

Stylish young garment

Thoroughly discussed

Taking part of the discussion

Do this tendency (to a form of 'perpetual childhood')

(Possess) a consistent amount…

Amount to money

Lower levels (60-63% marks on pre-test)

Coll2: 77 instances, which equates to 27,827.97 per million tokens

The first 21 occurrences of general effective collocation in lower-level participants including lexical phrases

What interested me in particular

The idea of a new adult lifestyle

The current century

From different points of view

Everyday lives

They are obviously influenced by

Let's analyse these aspects in more details

Significant changes

Similar to the nineties

Without any kind of real need

View that period as

A new "Golden Age"

A terrible economic or world crisis

Seem to be unable to

Solve these problems

Conscious of the difficulties

Tend to create

A parallel world

Convinced that limits don't exist

Is due to the fact that

Attach too much importance

Coll1: 29, which equates to 10,480.66 per million tokens
The first 21 occurrences of general ineffective collocation in lower-level participants (60-63 marks) including lexical phrases
(Society has) deeply changed
Reason of (many social changes)
Guarantee to (their children)
The same of (young people)
Have a reality
An equal reality
Doing operations (with reference to medical procedures)
Live the present time
Live (well) our middle age
Deep changes
Ambiental problems
Thinking to the crisis
Go on retire
Discuss about (the phenomenon)
Spend money in (something)
Make some experiences
Give a bad example
different than the past
Convinced that limits don't exist
Is due to the fact that
The principal activities

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Writing in English in Italy– the 'pre-history' of academic writing

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ABSTRACT

EN
This article aims to investigate the evolution of L2 English writing instruction in the 20th century, focusing on the 'pre-history' of academic writing in Italy – when writing was mainly viewed as an ancillary activity, often added to grammar/translation language classes. To shed some light on the principles underlying L2 English 'composition' writing instruction, the article illustrates the findings of the analysis of a sample of English writing materials published in Italy between the 1940s and the 1990s. Against the background of a mostly stagnant institutional context, English writing pedagogy appears to have evolved in Italy throughout the 20th century as a result of wider social and cultural changes, as well as developments in applied linguistics. This evolution led to a reappraisal of the role of the learner writer, who was increasingly viewed as an active agent in the process of knowledge transformation.

Key words: ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES, TEACHING OF WRITING, HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING, ESL/EFL WRITING, ELT TEXTBOOKS

ES
Este artículo tiene como objetivo investigar la evolución de la enseñanza de la escritura en inglés L2 en el siglo XX, centrándose en la "prehistoria" de la escritura académica en Italia, cuando la escritura se consideraba principalmente como una actividad auxiliar, a menudo añadida en las clases de gramática/traducción de idiomas. Para arrojar algo de luz sobre los principios subyacentes a la enseñanza de la escritura de "composición" en inglés como L2, el artículo ilustra los hallazgos del análisis de una muestra de materiales de escritura en inglés publicados en Italia entre los años 1940 y 1990. Ante un contexto institucional considerablemente estancado, la pedagogía de la escritura inglesa parece haber evolucionado en Italia a lo largo del siglo XX como resultado de cambios sociales y culturales más amplios, así como de desarrollos en lingüística aplicada. Esta evolución condujo a una reevaluación del papel del estudiante escritor, que cada vez era más visto como un agente activo en el proceso de transformación del conocimiento.

Palabras claves: INGLÉS CON FINES ACADÉMICOS, ENSEÑANZA DE LA ESCRITURA, HISTORIA DE LA ENSEÑANZA DEL IDIOMA INGLÉS, ESCRITURA ESL/EFL, LIBROS DE TEXTO ELT

IT
Questo articolo si prefigge lo scopo di analizzare l'evoluzione della didattica della scrittura in inglese L2 nel XX secolo, incentrandosi sulla "preistoria" dell'insegnamento della scrittura accademica in Italia, ovvero il periodo in cui la pratica didattica della scrittura in inglese consisteva in attività di composizione spesso proposte al termine di una serie di lezioni basate sul metodo grammatica-traduzione. Si presenta un'analisi contenutistica di un campione di manuali per l'insegnamento della scrittura in lingua inglese pubblicati in Italia tra gli anni Quaranta e gli anni Novanta del secolo scorso. Se il contesto istituzionale in Italia rimase sostanzialmente immutato nel periodo preso in esame, si assistette ad un'evoluzione della didattica della scrittura in seguito ad un mutato contesto socio-culturale e agli sviluppi della linguistica applicata. Questa evoluzione ha portato a una rivalutazione del ruolo dell'apprendente nel processo di scrittura. Infatti gli apprendenti venivano sempre più visti come proattivi nel processo di trasformazione della conoscenza.

Parole chiave: INGLESE PER SCOPI ACCADEMICI, DIDATTICA DELLA SCRITTURA, STORIA DELLA DIDATTICA DELL'INGLESE, SCRITTURA IN INGLESE LINGUA SECONDA/STRANIERA, MANUALI PER L'INSEGNAMENTO DELL'INGLESE

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1. Writing in English in Italy – a neglected skill?

Writing at the beginning of the 1990s, R. Brodine, an English language instructor at an Italian university, wistfully remarked that "[…] L2 writing […] may be viewed as a luxury in the present state of many Italian faculties" (Brodine, 1991, p. 46). The author refers to the institutional constraints that have routinely been put forward as the reason why writing has been given short shrift in English language instruction, i.e. overcrowded classes and understaffed English departments. However, beyond its reference to contextual constraints, this image of writing as an "indulgence" seems to be a suitable metaphor for the long journey that English writing instruction has undertaken in Italy over the last hundred years. The starting point of this journey was a stage that, for lack of a better word, I shall call "composition writing[1]," where writing appeared to be mainly viewed as an ancillary activity, often tagged on to grammar/translation teaching and aimed at the more motivated students. The final stage of this century-long journey, on the other hand, which has unfolded over the last two decades, can be encapsulated in the term "academic writing."

The focus of this paper will be on the "pre-history" of academic writing, i.e. the composition writing stage, and in particular on the decades between the 1940s and the 1990s. In this first part of the paper, I shall focus on one of the main stakeholders in the L2 English writing endeavour, teachers, and provide a brief overview of how English language professionals were trained in Italy in the 20th century and what role writing in English played in this process.

The role that modern foreign languages were to play in Italian schools and as academic subjects for most of the 20th century was a result of policies that were implemented during the two decades of the Fascist regime (*il ventennio*) and remained mostly unchanged until the 1970s. Modern foreign languages did not carry with them prestige on a par with classical languages (Latin and Ancient Greek); as degree options, they were hence viewed as "easier" subjects (e.g. Balboni, 2009; Pellandra, 2007).

For the better part of the 20th century, the most popular route to becoming an English language professional was enrolling in a course in Foreign Languages and Literatures (*Lingue e Letterature Straniere*), which had been one of the three degrees that could be earned within the faculties of Education (*Magistero*) since 1935 (Baldi & Mercanti, 1964; Di Bello, Mannucci & Santoni Rugiu, 1980; Frabboni, Genovese & Preti, 2006). Most universities – particularly those in smaller towns – had at least a faculty of Education[2], whose main aim was to train future secondary school teachers in the humanities[3]. Courses in Foreign Languages and Literatures were also found in a restricted number of specialized institutions[4], while it was not until 1957 that Modern Foreign Languages degree courses were set up in the more prestigious faculties of Arts (*Lettere e Filosofia*) (Nava, 2018a, 2018b).

Before the implementation of the *liberalizzazione degli accessi* (open access policy) process in 1969, whether and what kind of university an Italian student could aspire to attend depended on the type of secondary school they had completed. The more geographically accessible degrees in Foreign Languages and Literatures within *Magistero* faculties were open to students that had attended a four-year secondary school aimed at training primary school teachers (*Istituto Magistrale*)[5]. The limited number of degree courses in Foreign Languages and Literatures within faculties of Economics and Commerce admitted students who held a secondary school technical diploma in Accounting and Bookkeeping (*Istituto Tecnico Commerciale*). When the

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[1] "Composition" is taken to be the outcome of "composing," defined by Grabe & Kaplan as the "combining of structural sentence units into a more-or-less unique, cohesive and coherent larger structure" (1996, p. 4).

[2] The first faculties of *Magistero* were set up in the universities of Torino, Firenze, Messina and Roma (Turin, Florence, Messina and Rome), and a few years later in the universities of Urbino (1937) and Cagliari (1938). Several other faculties were created after the Second World War, many of which as the only faculty of semiprivate university colleges destined to develop into full-fledged state universities in the course of the following decades.

[3] Along with degrees in *Lingue e Letterature Straniere,* faculties of *Magistero* also issued degrees in *Materie Letterarie* (Italian, Latin, History and Geography), *Pedagogia* (Education) as well as a three-year university diploma aimed at those who wished to become heads of primary schools (*Diploma in Vigilanza Scolastica*).

[4] A degree in Foreign Languages and Literatures was offered by what is now *Università degli Studi di Napoli L'Orientale.* The University of Venice Ca' Foscari (which was a specialized Economics and Commerce university college at the time) and the private *Università Commerciale Bocconi* in Milan hosted faculties of Economics and Commerce issuing degrees in Foreign Languages and Literatures as well as in Economics and Commerce. By the 1960s, two other universities (Bari, Pisa) had set up courses in Foreign Languages and Literatures within their faculties of Economics and Commerce.

[5] Access to Foreign Languages and Literatures courses within faculties of both Education and of Economics and Commerce was extended to diploma holders of *Istituto Magistrale, Istituto Tecnico* and *Liceo Scientifico*, as well as a handful of secondary schools specializing in foreign languages in the two decades following the end of the Second World War.

degree in Modern Foreign Languages and Literatures (*Lingue e Letterature Straniere Modern*e)[6] was eventually introduced in 1957, access to faculties of *Lettere e Filosofia* was restricted to an elite of students – holders of diplomas from upper secondary schools specializing in the study of the Classics (*Liceo Classico*).

Given their wider accessibility, for most of the 20th century, the *Magistero* faculties most likely produced the highest number of English language teachers in Italy. Out of the seventeen courses that students were required to take over the four-year *Lingue e Letterature Straniere* degree, only six were actually devoted to foreign languages. Students took four year-long courses in the foreign language and literature they wished to specialize in (usually a choice among English, French, German and Spanish) and two year-long courses in an additional language and literature[7]. The rest of the curriculum was devoted to courses in Italian and Latin literature, history, geography and philosophy – not unlike the curriculum that students reading degrees preparing future teachers of Italian, Latin, History and Geography (*Materie Letterarie*) were supposed to follow. Courses were usually assessed through final oral examinations. The only written foreign language exam students had to sit was a *cultura generale* (general knowledge) essay exam focusing on the main language and literature studied. This exam was administered at the end of the four-year course, after the oral language and literature exams had been passed, and it is not far-fetched to surmise that it was viewed as little more than an "add-on" to the main curriculum. Its outcome certainly had little impact on the final mark, as it was only one of a total of 20 marks based on which the final mark was calculated.

The *cultura generale* label has a long history and wide application in Italian education, and is often associated with assessment. According to Baldi and Mercanti (1964), the type of writing in a foreign language required of would-be teachers at the end of their degree by means of a *cultura generale* exam consisted in a literary essay. I have not been able to find samples of actual *cultura generale* essay topics in English[8], but hints as to the nature of foreign language writing that prospective teachers were tested in is arguably provided by *cultura generale* exam topics in Italian.

As an assessment of Italian writing skills, *cultura generale* was introduced as a mandatory exam for all three degree courses issued by *Magistero* faculties. It was also used as an entrance exam for faculty of *Magistero* applicants, who were actually the only prospective university students required to sit a written test in order to be admitted to higher education[9]. Samples of *cultura generale* essay topics in Italian can be found in handbooks (e.g. *Guida all'esame scritto di ammissione alla Facoltà di Magistero,* 1966) that provided "ready-made" examples of model essays. Essays tended to focus on either literary authors (*Carducci, Pascoli, D'Annunzio. Parlare di uno di questi grandi poeti*[10]) or historical figures (*Napoleone e la sua storia*[11]). The type of compositions students were required to produce were expository texts where they were supposed to display the breadth of their literary or historical knowledge. The wording of the first of the two essay titles provided above is particularly illuminating (*Parla di uno di questi grandi poeti*), hinting with the word "parla" (talk, tell about) at the fact that the texts students were asked to produce were basically the written equivalent of the typical Italian *interrogazione*[12]*.* In these essays, along with their literary or historical knowledge, students were presumably evaluated on whether they had mastered the formal written register. Such a restricted view of writing likely also underpinned the *cultura generale* exams in English that would-be teachers sat at the end of their degree course.

The overhaul of university access policies that stemmed from the student protests of the late 1960s was only one of the changes that affected Italian higher education. Universities were also given the freedom to devise curricula that departed from the ones issued by the Ministry of Education. A survey on the teaching of English in Italian higher education that was carried out at the end of the 1970s (Dodd, 1982) provides further

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[6] The Languages degree course offered by faculties of *Lettere e Filosofia* was labelled *Lingue e Letterature Straniere Moderne* to highlight the fact that these faculties were the only ones which were also charged with teaching and researching the Classics.

[7] An optional third language and literature could be studied for two years.

[8] Italian universities are legally required to hold exam papers for only ten years.

[9] This was part of the *concorso* (competitive admission exam) that those wishing to enrol in the Faculty of *Magistero* had to take. As another regulation dating from the Fascist era, its intent was to limit the number of students who could access higher education and hence thwart the aspirations of social mobility of many young people from lower middle class backgrounds, who were more likely to hold a four-year *Istituto Magistrale* than a five-year *Liceo* diploma (e.g. Charnitzky, 1996).

[10] Carducci, Pascoli and D'Annunzio. Talk about one of these three great poets.

[11] Napoleon and his life story.

[12] Throughout their schooling, Italian students are typically evaluated through oral exams – despite the fact that it is the written language that is traditionally the target of instruction (Piemontese & Sposetti, 2014). This engenders, as Anderson pointed out, "a cultural bias towards a dynamic, orally-based mode to discourse production" (Anderson, 1987, p. 137), which hardly prepares students for essay writing.

insights into the role of writing instruction for prospective Italian teachers of English. The freedom granted to universities to propose alternative curricula led many of them to require students to sit written exams in the foreign languages throughout the four-year degree and not only at the end of the final year. The survey respondents, who were involved in the teaching of the English language and/or literature in degree programmes in Foreign Languages and Literatures across Italy, provided detailed information about the contents of lessons and the focus of exams. As regards writing in English, it emerged that, by the end of the 1970s, writing had become a target of instruction in the last two years of foreign languages degrees. The written exams for these final years tended to include compositions and/or literary appreciations, though there was a great deal of variation among universities. Nevertheless, the impact on the actual addressees – future teachers of English – of what writing instruction and assessment was implemented was doubtlessly limited by the large percentage of non-attending students and the low level of students' English proficiency at the onset of their higher education studies[13].

The aim of this first part of the paper was to consider the issue of English writing instruction in Italy in the 20th century from the perspective of those who were mainly charged with delivering it – Italian teachers of English. I have investigated the university training that English language professionals in Italy typically underwent in the 20th century, and, in particular, the role of writing instruction and assessment in these university curricula. A view of writing as a display of previously learnt knowledge, rather than a process fostering knowledge development, and as a mere '"transcription" of oral discourse, seemed to underpin university curricular choices, such as the *cultura generale* essay exams. Changes taking place at the end of the 1960s resulted in a reappraisal of instructional and assessment practices in universities. Whether these had a significant impact on prospective teachers of English remains an open question, given the low number of them actually attending university courses regularly.

While there was relatively little emphasis on writing, in either Italian or a foreign language, as part of the training language professionals received in the 20th century[14] from an institutional point of view, a small but increasing number of teaching materials targeting writing in English were being published in Italy, authored by either English native speaking teachers or Italian teachers of English. In the second part of the paper, I shall attempt to shed some light on the principles underlying English writing instruction in Italy by investigating a sample of such materials.

2. Principles out of practice: English writing materials published in Italy (1940s-1990s)

Short of observing (or relying on reports of) actual classroom teaching and/or accessing teachers' cognitions about their practice, which is obviously hardly ever possible to do in historical research, textbook analysis provides invaluable insights into the ways approaches and methods have been taken up in specific contexts[15]. Against a seemingly stagnant institutional context, as was the case of Italian education in the 20th century, textbooks may offer us a glimpse into innovative teaching practices and the principles underlying them, and enable us to reconstruct the processes of adoption, appropriation and refashioning of teaching approaches and methods.

Figure 1 below lists materials aimed at teaching English composition/essay writing published in Italy throughout the decades of the 20th century starting from the 1940s[16]. The catalogue of the *Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale di Firenze,* one of the two national legal deposit libraries in Italy, was searched for Italian-produced

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[13] An average of 37.8% of students regularly attended courses, though the percentage could be as low as 10% (Turin University, Faculty of *Lettere e Filosofia*). As for students' English proficiency level at the start of their degree, according to Dodd's survey, an average of 19.5 % of students were beginners, 35.5% false beginners, 32% intermediate and 13% advanced. Some universities admitted as many as 40% beginners; in particular, courses in Foreign languages and Literatures within faculties of *Magistero* seemed to attracted lower level students (e.g. University of Bologna, Faculty of *Magistero,* 30% beginners vs University of Bologna, Faculty of *Lettere and Filosofia,* 5% beginners).

[14] The neglect of writing in university courses for English language professionals in Italy mirrors the limited role granted to writing in EFL/ESL teaching methodology internationally for most of the 20th century. As pointed out by Matsuda, in the USA, "the teaching of writing […] was not a significant part of the ESL teacher's preparation at least until the late 1950s" (2003, p. 17).

[15] ELT materials not only inform us of the actual take-up of methods but may also shed light on the type and nature of English that has acted as an input and normative reference for learners/users of English in different contexts and different historical periods. As summarised in Yáñez-Bouza's (2016) review, in historical English linguistics, ELT materials (in particular, grammar books) have been used not only to identify "sources for the norms of present-day written standard English" but also "as evidence of language use, variation, and change" (2016, p. 165).

[16] The number of English writing materials published in Italy has increased exponentially since the beginning of the 21st century, although this is still a niche market compared to general English textbooks and certificate exam preparation materials.

English language teaching materials featuring all of the following criteria: a) textbooks devoted entirely or predominantly to the teaching of writing (grammar translation textbooks with a limited number of composition prompts were excluded from the corpus); b) textbooks focusing on general/academic English (textbooks for English for Specific purposes (Zanola, 2023), e.g. business correspondence/writing handbooks, were excluded from the corpus); c) textbooks mainly aimed at classroom use (self-study handbooks for adult learners were excluded from the corpus).

As shown in Table 1, English writing textbooks tended to be produced in Italy by small publishers, often specializing in university textbooks[17], which reflected the niche appeal of these kinds of publications.

Table 1
Italian-produced L2 English writing textbooks (1940s-1990s)

Years	English writing textbooks
1940s-1950s	Words and ideas: book for reading, conversation and essay writing, O. Cavallucci, Napoli, Pironti Editore
	English essays for University students, F. L. Bell, Napoli, Casa Editrice Campa
1960s-1970s	The gym: raccolta di passi italiani e inglesi per l'esercizio alla versione, alla conversazione ed alla composizione in inglese, A. Vricella, Firenze, Le Monnier
1980s-1990s	Reading and response: practice in advanced English essay-writing and discussion on classic themes, D. Pacitti, Pisa, ETS
	Composing with words: an approach to writing a university composition, V. Lombardo, COOPLI IULM

The rest of the paper will illustrate the findings of the analysis of four of the books in the corpus of Italian-produced English writing textbooks[18]. The data for the analysis have been generated by a close reading and qualitative content analysis (e.g. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Selvi, 2019) of both the textual and the paratextual materials in each of the four books.

The title of Olga Cavallucci's 1953 handbook (*Words and Ideas*) hints at the basic philosophy enshrined in the book: a "command of words and ideas" is essential for a learner to be able to "speak and write." (Cavallucci, 1953, *Advice to the pupils*). The book was probably meant to be used alongside a (grammar translation) textbook as a tool to develop "reading, conversation and essay writing" (Cavallucci, 1953, *Advice to the pupils*) and seems to target lower level (elementary/lower intermediate) students. Composition writing is viewed as the natural final stage of a process starting from the reading of an input text (providing "words and ideas"), followed by the "appropriation" of those words and ideas through guided conversation and ending with the production of a short written output based on some of the vocabulary and content generated in the previous stages.

The book is divided into five parts (see Table 2) devoted to aspects of the natural world, animals, trades, etc. The lessons making up each part feature the same structure: a vocabulary section, where key words associated with the topic are listed according to parts of speech (with phrases being often chosen over single words: e.g. "The cock, (*dim*.) the cockerel: the head (the beak, the comb, the wattles), the wings, the tail, the feet, the spurs, the feathers (the plumage)" (Cavallucci, 1953, p. 1), the input text, the Italian translation of the vocabulary presented at the start of the lesson, notes on the input text (mainly the Italian equivalents of selected words), questions on the text with answer prompts and the "proposed subject" for writing.

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[17] See also footnote 18 below.
[18] The fifth book (Lombardo, 1993) was issued by a university bookshop (Cooperativa Libraria IULM) and hence had hardly any circulation outside the university where the author worked. It was thus decided to exclude it from the qualitative analysis.

Table 2
Lessons in Cavallucci (1953)

Animals	The earth	The sea	Town and village	Trades
The cock	The garden	The beach	A suburban street	The baker
Hen and chickens	The orchard	The port	The railway station	The mason
The cat	The farm	Fishing	The post-office	The village blacksmith
The dog	The fields		At the stores	The potter
The sheep	The vineyards		The village market	The joiner
The ass	In the meadows		School is over	The shoemaker
Aquatic birds	In the mountains		The cinema	The tailor
Wild birds				
The zoo				

Like in *cultura generale* exams, writing is viewed as little more than the transcription of oral speech. In her prefatory *Advice to the pupils*, the author emphasizes the importance of mastering the vocabulary listed at the start of each lesson and featured in the readings, which readers are urged to "commit to memory" (Cavallucci, 1953, *Advice to the pupils*) after translating the words they are unfamiliar with. Besides this focus on vocabulary memorization, nothing is mentioned about the specific skills required in the writing process: "Thanks to this acquisition of words and ideas, you will finally be able to answer the questions and – why not – to develop the subject proposed" (Cavallucci, 1953, *Advice to the pupils*). The input texts are poems and extracts from fiction meant as vehicles for "words and ideas," not as models for the readers' writing output. The short texts students are required to produce are mainly descriptive ("Describe the most beautiful cock of your poultry yard and speak of his quarrelsome temper" (Cavallucci, 1953, p. 11)), though a few expository and narrative prompts are also provided ("Speak of the good qualities and shortcomings of the ass" (Cavallucci, 1953, p. 26); "Relate how the outcast duckling told his brethren swans of his sad adventure" (Cavallucci, 1953, p. 94)). A final section of the book ("the pink pages") features what the author calls, in her *Advice to the pupils*, "essential elements for developing the proposed subjects," (Cavallucci, 1953, *Advice to the pupils*) where the focus is again placed on vocabulary development, as if writing was simply a way of consolidating the breadth of one's lexical knowledge. The beginning paragraph of one of these "developed subjects" is provided below:

> In the poultry yard of the farm there is a very beautiful (or a fine) cock (or a cockerel – or an old rooster). He is called Clarion (or Trumpet – or Chanticleer) owing to his sonorous (shrill, deep-toned, startling, strident) cock-a-doodle-do. (Cavallucci, 1953, p. 132)

The format is reminiscent of "controlled composition exercises" (Pincas, 1982), as students are provided with sentence structures featuring slots to be filled in by alternative lexical items.

Francis Bell's 1948 *English Essays for University Students* – rather unusually for the time – identifies a specific group of target readers: "students of English at the Universities as well as those preparing for University courses and competitive examinations," (Bell, 1948, *Preface*), thus also including prospective teachers in the book's readership, as the mention of "competitive examinations" hints at[19]. This book may thus be viewed as the closest candidate to a preparation handbook for the English *cultura generale* written exam as a requirement for degrees in Foreign Languages and Literatures. The "popular topics dealt with in the essays," (Bell, 1948, Preface) however, do not seem to include literary or historical themes, unlike the preparation guides for the Italian *cultura generale* exams. As shown in Table 3, the book is divided into two parts, roughly corresponding to two types of essay prompts (descriptive and narrative).

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[19] Qualified teacher status could be obtained in Italy through written and oral competitive examinations (*concorsi*) until the end of the 1990s, when the first postgraduate teacher preparation programmes were established.

Table 3
Essay topics in Bell (1948)

PART I	PART II
A view of Naples from Vomero	A Road Accident
The Rainbow	A Swimming Accident
Travelling in the City	An Alarming Experience
Leisure Hours	"Coincidence"
Moonlight	A Lucky Escape
Street Photographers	A School Visit
The Local Coffee House	A School Sports Day
At the Party	An Operation
Description of a Party Game	In Hospital
Springtime	A Storm
Railways	Travelling Abroad
Street Personalities	A Travelling Adventure
A Sense of Humour	
On "Daylight Savings"	
Posters	
A visit to the Opera	
Habits	
Nature*	
Christmas Time	
Guy Fawkes' Day	
The Fireside	
Descriptive Essays of Sport	
I. Cricket	
II. Golf	
III. Fencing	
A visit to a Cricket Match	
Football	
Autumn	
A Visit to the Grottoes	

Each essay prompt is followed by a sample essay intended as a model students are to imitate – a process which was thought to somehow lead to readers "developing their style of essay-writing." (Bell, 1948, *Preface*). As the two extracts in Table 4 show, the emphasis seems to be on exposing students to sophisticated vocabulary and different stylistic options, in the hope this would kickstart the process of finding their own "voice" – a rather tall order, given that the book is aimed at L2 English learner writers and that no notes on lexical, grammatical or stylistic issues are provided to help them 'notice' these features in the model texts.

Table 4
Extracts from essays in Bell (1948)

Moonlight	Street personalities
Moonlight; pale, delicate, in which nothing is ever completely and clearly revealed, enchanting the eye with mellow scenes so soothing after the strong light of day; a radiance that is always changing in intensity, silently caressing, wan, cold light, never dazzling, sometimes infinitely pale and feeble […] (Bell, 1948, p. 17)	[…] You didn't pay much heed to the voice below; it was only the sleeping subconscious brain that reacted: once awake you ignored the street voices and the street vendor's voice included. In any case you are not particularly interested in what he is shouting about; selling something or other, naturally, but what has it got to do with you?! (Bell, 1948, p. 33)

While dissimilar in their structure and contents and aimed at students of different English proficiency levels, Cavallucci's and Bell's English textbooks share a view of writing as a way of displaying one's "knowledge of decontextualised facts with little awareness of a reader beyond the teacher-examiner" (Hyland, 2009, p. 9), who arguably plays the role of "editor or proofreader, not especially interested in the quality of ideas or

expression but primarily concerned with formal linguistic features" (Silva, 1990, p. 13). Writing is hence thought to provide L2 students with extra practice in accuracy and to foster vocabulary development. In some respects, Bell's collection of sample "essays" also betrays the influence of the "current traditional" (Silva, 1990) approach in teaching L1 writing in Anglo-Saxon countries, in particular the USA, with its emphasis on exposing students to models as a way to hone their writing style. The underlying assumption – also shared by early applications of this approach to L2 writing in the USA – is that L1 and L2 writing processes are equivalent, and once L2 students reach an advanced knowledge of the L2 they are virtually indistinguishable from L1 writers. The current traditional philosophy in teaching writing was to develop into a highly structured approach heavily influenced by a revival of rhetorical studies (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). This entailed not only exposing students to ready-made composition models, but also giving them step-by-step instructions in crafting the "building blocks" of the essay frame (introduction, body and conclusion). Nonetheless, the output required of students in Bell's book and in many later writing handbooks, i.e. a "free composition" (Matsuda, 2003), does not seem to match any genre of academic writing – rather, as pointed out by Grabe and Kaplan (1996), it represents a somewhat unique genre, whose application does not reach beyond the boundaries of the classroom.

The third English writing textbook to be scrutinized, titled *The Gym*, was published in 1970, and highlights a variety of possible uses in its subtitle[20], including translation and speaking, as well as writing practice. The book features authentic extracts from the British and American press alongside composition prompts, which the author claimed originated from the careful analysis of the topics addressed in newspapers and magazines at the time. Each chapter revolves around a reading text (with selected vocabulary translated into Italian in footnotes) accompanied by comprehension/discussion questions and composition prompts. While the approach is still one of providing "ideas," with little support given apart from lexical items mined from the input texts ("words"), among the composition prompts (see Table 5) there are some which require students to develop argumentative texts and to explicitly "take sides" with one view or another.

Table 5
A sample of composition prompts in Vricella (1970)

Composition prompts
1 At the present stage of human progress, is the hippies' attitude justifiable? (154)
2 Pornography and a progressed civilization: do you find any real connection between the two facts? (158)
3 Beyond any doubt, we live all the time on the verge of catastrophe in these present days. (165)
4 One thing is to allow new ferments for the growth and development of a better academic situation and another one is irresponsible behaviour: which must be halted. (190)
5 Pornography seems to be one of the worst ills of the present time. Decency as well as reason and wisdom impose a limit to certain forms of so called liberties. (183)

It is apparent that, while not underpinned by a new theoretical approach to writing, this book marks a change from previous materials. The argumentative orientation of some composition prompts, which displaces the learner writer from their "comfort zone" of a mere reproducer of facts, and the choice of topics to be discussed are likely the result of the influence of sociopolitical events taking place between the 1960s and the 1970s. Students were at the forefront of protests in Italy. At issue was not only the overarching Italian school and university "funnel-like" structure, with its hurdles and access requirements dating from the Fascist *ventennio*, but the top-down teaching approach that was the accepted norm at every level of the education system. Protesters called for students' voices to be heard in classrooms and for the changing world they lived in to become a worthwhile topic of discussion and critical investigation on a par with the traditional canon of historical and literary themes.

Like Bell's collection of essays, Pacitti's *Reading and Response* (1986) – the final book to be analyzed - was written by a native English-speaking author who worked as a language instructor at an Italian university. The book's readership is singled out clearly on the back cover – not only by their assumed level of English proficiency ("advanced foreign students of English") but also by their more academic interests in the learning of English, i.e. future English teachers ("the standard expected of third and fourth year undergraduates at the University of Pisa," referring of course to undergraduates in Foreign Languages and Literatures). The subtitle,

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[20] *Raccolta di passi italiani e inglesi per l'esercizio alla versione. alla conversazione ed alla composizione in inglese.*

Practice in advanced English essay-writing and discussion on classic themes, mentions the by now familiar aims of Italian-produced writing textbooks developing not only "essay writing" but also "discussion" skills. The author singles out three shortcomings in his target readers' English writing skills that his book is supposed to remedy. The first is what he calls a lack of "a command of appropriate set phrases and idioms" (Pacitti, 1986, p. 11). Arguably as a result of years of form-focused instruction and accuracy-driven assessment, Italian advanced students of English are portrayed as being reluctant to stray from familiar "grammatically correct but unidiomatic English" (p. 11). Different functional types of idiomatic expressions are identified as instrumental in raising students' level of spoken and written English, and the teacher's role is said to be one of aiding the students "in fleshing out from these extracts the various idiomatic expressions" (p. 11), and coming to acknowledge the phrase, and not the word, as "the basic unit of expression" (p. 11). The second shortcoming concerns readers' limited "cultural scope" (p. 11), which the book aims to broaden by including extracts from essays and literature on "a variety of classic themes" (p. 11), from different parts of the world and historical periods. Finally, the author highlights Italian students' limited experience of argumentation – arguably a result of the top-down schooling model at one time pervasive in Italian education, where students were traditionally expected to acquire and reproduce pre-digested facts with little critical evaluation. Pacitti remarks that "this approach constitutes such an obvious barrier to true knowledge, that one can only conclude that such true knowledge is not in fact the object of the exercise. One wonders what is" (1986, p. 12). To develop their inner "voice," readers are thus encouraged to provide a critical response to the reading input.

The reading texts (details on the extracts featured in the first ten chapters are illustrated in Table 6) represent the core of the chapters.

Table 6
Reading texts featured in the first ten chapters of Pacitti (1986)

Reading Texts
1   Aristotle – extract from *the Poetics, Tragedy*
2   Isaiah Berlin – extracts from *The Hedgehog and the Fox*
3   Jeremy Bernstein – extract from *Einstein*
4   William Blake – *Night, the Little Black Boy, The Fly, A Divine Image, the Angel, the Smile, Proverbs*
5   Anthony Burgess – extract from *Introduction to A Shorter's Finnegans Wake*; extract from foreword to *A Shorter Finnegans Wake* – extract from foreword to *A Shorter Finnegans Wake*
6   Albert Camus – extract from *The Myth of Sisyphus*
7   E H Carr – extracts from *What is History*? *The historian and his facts; Society and the individual*
8   Chang Heng – *The bones of Chuang Tzu*
9   Noam Chomsky – extract from *Reflections on Language*; extract from *Rules and Representations*

The texts are followed by discussion questions and essay prompts (see Figure 1). In his *Advice to the student*, Pacitti outlines a procedure for working through the book. The reading passages are first meant to be read to extract the gist and then to identify useful idiomatic expressions, which students are encouraged to try out in discussion and eventually in their essays. Next, the passages should be read a third time to focus on the content, tackling the comprehension questions appended to each text. Students are advised to write a *précis* of the texts and a short critical response, focusing on those aspects of the texts they are in agreement or disagree with and the reasons why. The last step is essay writing based on one of the prompts provided (see Figure 1).

1. According to Chomsky, what are some of the reasons that make language worth studying?
2. Using as far as possible your own words, in what sense is language said to be a 'mirror of the mind'?
3. What, in your view, might be other areas of human ability that are 'not quite so amenable to direct investigation'?
4. What is the significance of Russell's question in the last paragraph?
5. Consider the following statements, and then write an essay on one of them:
'If language had been the creation of logic, instead of poetry, we should only have one'

'The mind of the hearer is just as active in transforming and creating as the mind of the speaker'
'All that related to language, that familiar but wonderful phenomenon, is naturally interesting if it is not spoiled by being treated pedantically'
'We do not learn language; rather, grammar grows in the mind'
'A knowledge of the name gives a surer knowledge of the thing'
'Words signify man's refusal to accept the world as it is' (Pacitti, 1986, p. 47)

Figure 1. Sample discussion questions and essay prompts in Pacitti (1986)

The core of Pacitti's approach is again one of giving students "words and ideas" – words being interpreted as phrases used for a given rhetorical purpose, and ideas as originating from examples of published essays on a selection of classic themes. As in previous writing textbooks, the reading input is meant to be used for both discussion and writing practice. Discussion is viewed as a lead-in to writing, as speaking aids students in the first step of appropriating knowledge but it is through writing that "true knowledge" is thought to develop.

The book's emphasis on students' self-expression and the search for an authorial "voice" provide an echo of process-based writing approaches, which started to "revolutionize" L1 writing instruction in Anglo-Saxon countries, notably the USA, in the 1960s, were the target of extensive research carried out by psychologists, educationalists and applied linguists in the following three decades, and began to be implemented in L2 writing instruction in the 1980s (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

3. The 'pre-history' of academic writing in Italy: concluding remarks

In this article, the 'pre-history' of teaching L2 English academic writing – when writing instruction targeted "composition writing" – has been investigated through a case study of the Italian context. While syllabuses and curricula are often imposed top-down by local or national education agencies, whether and how such impositions get translated in the classroom is actually down to teachers, whose pedagogic decisions are influenced – among other factors – by their beliefs, attitudes and knowledge, which are often rooted in their experience as students. For this reason, in the first part of the article, the role of writing in Italian university courses aimed at future teachers of English was scrutinized. For most of the 20th century, writing appeared to be a "luxury" that was tested rather than taught, both in Italian and L2 English, and took up a fraction of the university curriculum aimed at would-be English language professionals in Italian universities. What writing was required of students often amounted to knowledge telling (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) and essays were a way of displaying students' breadth of general knowledge, which usually involved providing chunks of information about literary or historical topics.

Against this backdrop, it is not surprising that English writing materials produced in Italy were few and far between until the end of the 20th century and often published by small specialist publishers. To carry out an analysis of the evolution of L2 English writing instruction, four such materials published between the 1940s and the 1990s were scrutinized. The findings of the analysis show that, in the face of a stagnant institutional context, we do witness an evolution in writing conceptions and writing pedagogy in Italy throughout the 20th century, which was to herald developments in L2 English writing for academic purposes

at the beginning of the 21st century. This evolution does not seem to consist of discrete stages. As pointed out by Silva in his history of L2 writing instruction in the USA, "[…] particular approaches achieve dominance and then fade, but never really disappear" (1990, p. 11). A focus on the textual product is present – in varying degrees – in all four books, even when the influence of process-oriented writing approaches starts to be detected. All books (bar Bell's) are also explicitly concerned with providing students with the "words" needed to craft a composition in English – although the view of what kinds of words Italian students may need also undergoes an evolution, as breakthroughs in linguistics start to point to the pervasive role played by fixed and semi-fixed expressions and phrases in fluent speaking and writing. This emphasis on "language for composing," however, sets the Italian materials apart from English L1 product-based writing approaches as they evolved in the mid-20th century and were eventually applied to English L2 writing instruction in Anglo-Saxon countries. While the teaching of discourse features came to play an important role in those approaches as instruction increasingly focused on the "grammar" of the paragraph by having students develop a composition out of an introduction, a body and a conclusion, no such concern with step-by step paragraph development can be detected in the Italian-produced English writing books targeted in this study.

If one were to single out a turning point in the history of English writing instruction in Italy, this would doubtless be the introduction of argumentative writing, which went hand in hand with the positioning of students as critical readers, as well as writers, rather than passive reproducers of pre-digested facts. The major driving force behind this turning point appears to be the changed sociocultural context in Italy in the 1970s and the 1980s, with student protests and the free speech movement questioning the effectiveness of traditional teaching models and the exponential increase in students entering higher education changing the make-up of the student population. It was arguably this country-wide call for a more democratic access to knowledge that fed into a view of the learner writer as an active agent in the process of knowledge transforming (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) – a view underpinning developments in academic writing which were to take place at the beginning of the following century.

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Exploring interactive metadiscourse as a practical approach to enhancing academic writing skills of newly admitted undergraduate students in Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

EN Academic writing is a crucial aspect of undergraduate education, particularly for students in English as Second Language (ESL) contexts. This study investigates the use of interactive resources as discursive strategies in enhancing the academic writing skills of ESL undergraduates in Nigeria. A sample of 100 expository essays was used. The research employs both qualitative and quantitative designs. The qualitative component analyses the types and usages of discursive strategies employed in the selected expository writing, while the quantitative component involves the occurrence of these strategies. The results reveal transitional markers, frame markers, and code glosses were the most frequently used interactive markers in academic writing, while evidential and endophoric markers were used less frequently. These findings underscore the pedagogical significance of incorporating interactive resources into the teaching of academic writing skills for ESL undergraduate students.

Key words: ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS, INTERACTIVE METADISCOURSE, ESL UNDERGRADUATES IN NIGERIA, DISCURSIVE STRATEGIES

ES La escritura académica es un aspecto crucial en la educación universitaria, especialmente para estudiantes de inglés como segunda lengua (ESL). Este estudio investiga el uso de recursos interactivos como estrategias discursivas para mejorar las habilidades de escritura académica de los estudiantes universitarios de ESL en Nigeria. Se utilizó una muestra de 100 ensayos expositivos. En la investigación se ha utilizado un diseño cualitativo y cuantitativo. El análisis cualitativo observa los tipos y usos de estrategias discursivas empleadas en los escritos expositivos seleccionados, mientras que el cuantitativo atiende a la ocurrencia de estas estrategias. Los resultados revelan que los marcadores de transición, los marcadores de estructura y las glosas de código fueron los marcadores interactivos más utilizados en la escritura académica, mientras que los marcadores evidenciales y endofóricos se usaron con menos frecuencia. Estos hallazgos subrayan la importancia pedagógica de incorporar recursos interactivos en la enseñanza de habilidades de escritura académica para estudiantes universitarios de ESL.

Palabras clave: HABILIDADES DE ESCRITURA ACADÉMICA, METADISCURSO INTERACTIVO, ESTUDIANTES UNIVERSITARIOS DE ESL EN NIGERIA, ESTRATEGIAS DISCURSIVAS

IT La scrittura accademica è un aspetto cruciale dell'istruzione universitaria, in particolare, per gli studenti di inglese come seconda lingua (ESL). Questo studio indaga l'utilizzo delle risorse interattive come strategie discorsive per lo sviluppo delle competenze di scrittura accademica degli studenti universitari in Nigeria. È stato usato un campione di 100 testi espositivi. La ricerca utilizza un approccio sia qualitativo che quantitativo. L'analisi qualitativa indaga i tipi e gli usi delle strategie linguistiche impiegate nei testi espositivi selezionati, mentre quella quantitativa studia l'occorrenza di queste strategie. I risultati rivelano che i connettivi di transizione, di struttura ed esplicativi sono i marcatori interattivi usati con più frequenza nella scrittura accademica rispetto a quelli di evidenziazione ed endoforici. Questi risultati sottolineano la valenza pedagogica che assume l'integrazione di risorse interattive nell'insegnamento delle competenze di scrittura accademica per gli studenti universitari di inglese come lingua seconda.

Parole chiave: COMPETENZE DI SCRITTURA ACCADEMICA, METADISCORSO INTERATTIVO, STUDENTI UNIVERSITARI DI INGLESE LINGUA SECONDA, STRATEGIE DISCORSIVE

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1. Introduction

The increasing emphasis placed on improving English language proficiency and communication skills, especially in non-native English-speaking countries, has developed in response to the challenges brought about by the globalization and internationalization of higher education on the one hand, and the growing importance attributed to English as the predominant medium of instruction worldwide on the other. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has become an increasingly important field of study for students, who are non-native English speakers, and it is particularly crucial for those who want to succeed in academic writing and communication, as English is the dominant language of higher education and research worldwide. However, learning to write effectively in English is often challenging, especially in a second language context, where students are not familiar with the discourse and rhetorical conventions of academic writing. Recently, there have been increasing concerns raised by major employers in Nigeria about the inadequate linguistic and communicative skills of many Nigerian university graduates. Therefore, it has become imperative to pay closer attention to the course content and teaching methodology of the Use of English course to address these challenges and improve the language and communication skills of Nigerian university students.

Given the importance of actively engaging students in the process of selecting appropriate vocabulary, constructing meaningful sentences, and applying academic writing conventions to effectively convey their ideas and thoughts with precision and clarity, it is necessary for stakeholders to devise effective strategies that can improve the English writing skills of these students. One such strategy is the use of discursive markers, which are words and phrases that help to structure discourse. These markers are particularly useful in academic writing, where the organization and coherence of ideas are essential.

Research has shown that the use of discursive markers can have a significant impact on the quality of academic writing produced by non-native English speakers. According to Rustipa (2014), the practice of EFL writing can be beneficial for students as it allows them to delve into organizing their ideas, thinking critically, analyzing information, and developing their ability to critique. In particular, the use of interactive markers has been found to be effective in enhancing the coherence and organization of ideas in writing. Interactive resources, in the context of this paper, refer to words, phrases, or elements used as markers to facilitate effective communication and coherence within a written text. These resources enable readers to follow the flow of ideas and understand the relationships between different parts of the text. While these markers are often included in English language teaching materials, their usage in the context of academic writing is not always emphasized. As such, many students may not be aware of their importance, and this is where the role of the instructor is crucial. By providing explicit instruction on the use of discursive markers and incorporating them into writing assignments, instructors can help students develop the skills needed to produce effective academic writing.

In this article, we will explore the use of interactive resources as discursive strategies to enhance the English writing skills of newly admitted undergraduate students. We will focus specifically on the use of discursive markers in expository essays, which are often assigned to students in the first year of undergraduate studies. We will examine the impact of these markers on the organization, coherence, and overall quality of the essays produced by the students. Additionally, the inference from the findings can be integrated into English language teaching materials and curricula to better prepare students for academic writing in a second language context.

2. English for Academic Purposes

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is a specialized branch of English language instruction that has developed from the larger field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). EAP is defined by its focus on teaching the English language, specifically to facilitate learners' study or research through the medium of English (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002, p. 1). This approach to language learning is defined by its emphasis on equipping learners with the linguistic and academic skills necessary for success in academic settings.

One key feature of EAP is its emphasis on teaching English in a way that is closely aligned with the demands of academic research. This means that EAP courses often focus on developing the specific skills and strategies that students may need to succeed in academic settings, such as reading academic texts, writing research papers, and participating in academic discussions. In addition, EAP often incorporates elements of academic content into language instruction, helping students build their academic vocabulary and knowledge in specific subject areas. Overall, EAP is a specialized approach to English language instruction that is designed

to meet the unique needs of learners in academic settings. By equipping students with the linguistic and academic skills necessary for success in their studies, EAP plays an important role in promoting academic success and intercultural understanding.

The emergence of EAP had a distinct genesis, as recounted by Bob Jordan in the initial edition of JEAP. The development of the field in Britain had a unique starting point:

> In the 1960s, language support that was provided to international students tended to be on an ad hoc, part-time basis. As problems occurred or developed during studies, some kind of part-time help may have become available, often linked to ELT teacher-training courses in the Departments of Education. This sometimes led to the development of short courses, e.g. four weeks at the beginning of the students' studies. Birmingham University appears to have been the first to be seriously concerned about the needs of overseas students. Vera Adamson, who had joined the University in 1958, was appointed in 1962 to advise overseas students and to start induction courses. This involved analyzing students' problems, developing some teaching materials as well as teaching part-time, and trying to devise an analytical test.(Jordan, 2002, p.70)

Moreover, an integral aspect of EAP is the need for conducting a thorough Needs Analysis of diverse learners to design the syllabus, develop materials, select texts, set learning goals and tasks, and evaluate the success of courses and programs. In fact, needs assessment forms the very foundation of the entire EAP process, as underscored by Carkin's (2005) overview of EAP.

Over the years, numerous notable scholars have conducted critical analyses in the field of EAP. Examples of such scholars include Bridgeman and Carlson (1983), Johns (1981), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and Munby (1978). Needs Analysis is now considered an essential step in developing English language provision in any new situation, as recognized by Zughoul and Hussein (1985). However, Coleman (1988) has problematized some of the existing needs models as discounting learners as individuals, and assuming that identifying needs necessarily leads to satisfying them, advocating for a more comprehensive and nuanced approach.

2.1. Nigerian university system and English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Kimbrough (2013) observes that the university is a place where intellectual collisions occur. Kimbrough's (2013) observation posits that the university functions as a nexus wherein intellectual collisions are brought to fruition. In an attempt to establish a university where such collisions can occur, Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, Nigeria's first president, pioneered the establishment of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, with a strong emphasis on balanced learning and creating informed individuals exposed to both scientific and humanities knowledge. The university introduced the General Studies Programme (GSP) to provide essential knowledge in science and humanities while also emphasizing the development of English language skills. By the provision of the Decree and the recommendation of the National Universities Commission (NUC), other Nigerian universities established units of General Studies (University of Maiduguri, 2015). The curriculum for the GSP was developed by a combined team of British and American experts, showcasing the university's commitment to enhancing students' English language competence as a vital tool for academic success and effective communication in society. Typically, first-year university students, regardless of their English proficiency level, frequently arrive at their institutions with inadequate skills in the English Language. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to bolster and enrich the language competencies of first-year university students during the early stages of their academic voyage. This proactive approach enables students to achieve elevated levels of academic accomplishment and equips them more effectively to confront future professional obstacles and actively participate in societal contexts. While certain factors, such as diverse educational backgrounds, regional language influences, and limited exposure to English as a medium of instruction, may influence students' language abilities upon university entry, the General Studies Programme endeavors to tackle this challenge. By employing supplementary strategies and support systems, the program strives to enhance English language proficiency among incoming students.

In response to the growing need for effective communication in English across academic and professional settings, course designers in ESP have been consistently seeking ways to enhance university students' proficiency in fundamental language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These skills are typically encompassed within the domain of EAP and are an integral component of the curriculum of the Use of English and Communication Skills in Nigerian universities. By prioritizing the development of these

core competencies, ESP course designers aim to equip students with the necessary language skills to succeed in academic and professional contexts where English is used as the medium of communication. As stated by Adegbite (2012, p.2), the introduction of the Use of English as a course in Nigerian tertiary institutions is aimed not only at improving the students' communicative competence, but also at enabling them to learn their courses effectively and perform well in both academic and social settings. Thus, when developing a Use of English course for Nigerian university students, it is ideal for the course objectives, content, and materials to not only address the communication needs of the university setting, but also meet the expectations of future employers or clients in case students opt for self-employment. Additionally, the Use of English instructors must identify the language skills that students require to achieve overall competence in the target language. Therefore, the Use of English curriculum should prioritize the receptive skills of listening and reading and the productive skills of speaking and writing, in addition to teaching grammar. Wei and Flaitz (2005) argue that EAP plays a crucial role in helping English as a Second Language (ESL) students develop the necessary language skills to succeed in their academic and professional pursuits. Mo (2005) further asserts that providing pre-university students, such as first-year Nigerian university students, with ample opportunities to develop their EAP skills can equip them with a solid foundation in academic English, thereby enhancing their ability to learn more effectively at an advanced level.

Furthermore, in order to enhance the language proficiency of Nigerian university students in English, which is the official language and medium of instruction in the country, the Nigerian National Universities Commission (NUC) introduced the Use of English courses in the curriculum of Nigerian universities. The institution of General Studies in Nigerian Universities originated with the University law 1961, (E.N.L. No 21, of 1961, status 6) as "the College of General Studies," included in the thirty-six Colleges listed for establishment. Afterwards, the National Universities Commission (NUC) approved minimum academic requirements for General Studies in all Nigerian Universities in 1989. The incorporation of diverse language skills within the curriculum of an EAP course has the potential to greatly enhance the literary abilities of students, thereby augmenting their proficiency in the numerous skills required to excel in their academic pursuits. Within the Nigerian context, new university students undergo a comprehensive English language course during their first year of study, which is meticulously crafted to facilitate the acquisition of precise and effective language usage. The course primarily focuses on bolstering the grammar and writing skills of students. As such, this course sets a strong foundation for the students to excel in their academic pursuits, as evidenced by a specific assignment given in the form of writing. This particular essay writing assignment was chosen as it provided an ideal opportunity for the students to apply the fundamental principles of grammar and writing that they had acquired during the initial three weeks of their academic program.

The primary aim of this investigation is to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction in English grammar and usage in this course by analyzing students' proficiency in academic writing. Through this analysis, the study intends to provide insights into the most effective methods of teaching basic grammar and writing skills to students in higher education. The findings of this research will thus inform pedagogical approaches to teaching English for academic purposes and contribute to the development of more effective teaching practices in this field.

2.2. Cohesion and coherence in academic writing

According to Mawardi, 2011, p. 1), writing is one of the core language skills, alongside speaking, listening, and reading. It is considered fundamental for students to learn because it is a productive skill that demonstrates their proficiency in using the language and highlights talented students in this area. Furthermore, writing provides a platform for students to express their ideas and thoughts on paper (Harsyaf & Izmi, 2009, p. 4). To fulfil this objective, it is essential to ensure that writing exhibits unity, coherence, and appropriate development.

When it comes to writing, it is considered a form of discourse that should be well-constructed and possess cohesion and coherence to ensure unity. As noted by Halliday and Hasan (1989, p.2), a text or paragraph that employs cohesion and coherence is indicative of good writing. Cohesion refers to the linguistic devices and techniques used to connect various parts of a text, such as conjunctions, pronouns, and repetition. Coherence refers to the overall clarity and logical flow of a text, which is achieved through the proper arrangement and organization of ideas and information. Therefore, to produce a well-written text, it is crucial to use appropriate cohesive devices and ensure that the text exhibits coherence in terms of its organization, structure, and ideas. By doing so, the text will have a unified and cohesive character, which will enhance its clarity and effectiveness in conveying its intended message to the readers. In other words, cohesion and

coherence refer to the logical and linguistic connections between different parts of a sentence, paragraph, or text, which ultimately contribute to a unified whole. These elements are crucial in conveying the intended message of the author accurately. When a text exhibits coherence, the writer has established a clear connection between sentences, paragraphs, and overall structure, making it easy for the reader to follow and understand. This connection not only benefits the writer, but also the reader. In cohesion, the flow and connection of a written text arise from the linguistic links between its surface elements. As a result, the reader can better comprehend the content and meaning of the text.

In recent years, the increasing number of students in English-speaking countries has prompted scholars in cohesion studies to shift their focus to cohesion usage in Second Learner (L2) students' writing. A key concern in this area is the relationship between cohesion and writing quality among L2 students. However, the findings have been somewhat inconsistent (Liu & Braine, 2005). While some researchers have found no direct correlation between cohesion and writing quality (see Castro, 2004), others have reached the opposite conclusion. For instance, Chiang (2003, p. 471) contends, through his analysis of cohesive conditions and perception of writing quality in L2 learners' writing, that cohesion is "the best predictor of writing quality." Yang and Sun (2012) came to a similar conclusion and demonstrated that the proper use of cohesive ties was significantly correlated with writing quality. Although it remains unclear whether there is a definite correlation between cohesion and writing quality, it is generally accepted that cohesion is an important aspect of L2 learners' writing quality.

Therefore, in the realm of academic writing, writers must engage in critical thinking and logically present their ideas to persuade their readers. They are expected to sequence their thoughts effectively so that their arguments are coherent and understandable to the reader, as emphasized by scholars such as Jones (2011) and Hyland (2005). Furthermore, writers must utilize metadiscourse, which comprises various linguistic devices, to effectively communicate their propositions and engage their audience.

3. Theoretical framework

The term "metadiscourse" was first introduced by Zelling Harris in 1959 to explore language in practical use and how writers can influence the reader's comprehension of a text (Hyland, 2005). In essence, metadiscourse refers to the linguistic cues employed to structure a discourse or convey the writer's attitude towards its subject matter or audience (Hyland, 2005). Effective utilization of these markers in academic essays can substantially enhance their overall quality.

Various models have been proposed in attempts to conceptualize metadiscourse, including those by Schiffrin (1980), Williams (1981), Sinclair (1991), Kopple (1985), and Crismore et al. (1993). Nonetheless, Hyland (2005) presented the most extensive framework for investigating metadiscourse, which is adopted in this study.

To resolve the longstanding debate surrounding metadiscourse, Hyland (2004) established three crucial principles for reevaluating its theoretical foundation. The first principle asserts that metadiscourse, distinct from the propositional aspects of discourse, is an essential component of textual meaning that considers the reader's needs, existing knowledge, understandings, relative status, and intertextual experiences about the context. The second principle states that these markers embody the interaction between the writer and the reader in various ways. The third principle clarifies that metadiscourse only pertains to relations that are internal to the discourse, rather than external or experiential.

Hyland (2005) categorizes metadiscourse markers into two groups: interactive and interactional markers. Interactive markers relate to discourse organization and represent the writer's evaluation of which section or idea requires more explanation to limit and direct potential misunderstandings of the text. Interactional markers pertain to the strategies used to regulate the writer's personality in the text, as well as the level of reader involvement (Hyland, 2005).

Table 1
A model of metadiscourse in academic texts (Hyland, 2005)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive Resources	**Help to guide reader through the text**	
Transition markers	Express semantic relation between main clauses	In addition/but/thus/and
Frame markers	Refers to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	Finally/to conclude/my purpose is
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	Note above/see figure/in section 2
Evidential markers	Refer to source of information from other texts	According to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states
Code glosses	Help readers grasp meanings of ideational material	Namely/e.g./such as/in other words
Interactional resources	**Involve the readers in the argument**	
Hedges	Without writer's full commitment to proposition	Might/perhaps/possible/about
Boosters	Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	In fact/definitely/it is clear that
Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to proposition	Unfortunately/I agree/ Surprisingly
Engagement markers	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	Consider/note that/you can see that
Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	I/we/my/our

However, the present study is focused on the examination of interactive markers, given their critical role in various types of writing, particularly for ESL learners. Interactive markers are considered fundamental since they facilitate the presentation of ideas and information coherently and convincingly to the readers (Hyland, 2005). Furthermore, interactive markers provide writers with a mechanism to regulate the flow of knowledge and express their intended interpretations with precision (Hyland, 2005). The taxonomy of interactive markers encompasses five categories, namely, endophoric markers, evidential markers, code glosses, transition markers, and frame markers.

3.1. Metadiscourse and interactive markers in academic writing

In recent years, the focus on academic writing has shifted towards recognizing the importance of rhetorical and interactive features within written texts, and in particular in highlighting the social relationship between writers and their readers (Franzosi& Vicari, 2018; Hyland & Jiang, 2018; Pérez-Llantada, 2010; Qin &Uccelli, 2019). This perspective emphasizes the role of readers in comprehending the author's intentions and their stance towards the subject matter. Within this context, one crucial aspect that has gained attention is the use of metadiscourse markers to enhance the organization and effectiveness of academic writing. Several experimental studies have been conducted to explore the impact of explicit instruction on metadiscourse markers and their influence on learners' writing performance in both first and second-language contexts.

Feng and Hu(2014) conducted a comparative investigation of interactive metadiscourse across the fields of applied linguistics, education, and psychology. Utilizing Hyland's metadiscourse framework, the study examined the presence and usage of five types of interactive metadiscourse, along with their subtypes, in a corpus comprising 120 research articles. The analyses yielded noteworthy disparities in the frequency of reformulators, comparative and inferential transitions, sequencers, and non-linear references across different research paradigms. Additionally, marked variations were identified in the utilization of exemplifiers, comparative transitions, linear references, and integral citations among the disciplines investigated. These observed differences can be explained in terms of the distinct epistemological perspectives underlying qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, as well as the diverse knowledge-sharing structures prevailing in the respective disciplines under investigation.

Furthermore, Mardani (2017) investigated the effect of metadiscourse explicit instruction on listening comprehension among a sample of 50 undergraduate students. The participants were divided into two groups: the experimental group, which received instruction on metadiscourse markers alongside a process-based approach, and the control group, which only received instruction through the process-based approach. The results indicated that explicit instruction on metadiscourse significantly improved students' listening comprehension. This study emphasizes the importance of metadiscourse markers as a crucial aspect of language learning and suggests the need for further attention from researchers in this area.

Similarly, Vahid, Dastjerdi, and Shirzad (2010) and Taghizadeh and Tajabadi (2013) conducted experimental studies to evaluate the impact of metadiscourse marker instruction on the writing performance of learners. While their research solely centered on instructing metadiscourse markers without teaching explicit writing skills, both studies demonstrated that providing metadiscourse instruction positively influenced learners' writing proficiency.

In an ESL context such as Nigeria, there remains a relatively limited exploration of interactive resources in academic writing. This gap in research presents an opportunity for further investigation into the use and effectiveness of metadiscourse markers in improving writing skills among Nigerian university students and other ESL learners.

As the literature on interactive resources in academic writing expands, it becomes increasingly apparent that interactive features in a text play a pivotal role in organizing the content to facilitate readers in discerning the writer's intentions. These features contribute to the surface cohesion of the text while also influencing the comprehension of the propositional material. The function of interactive features encompasses linking various segments of the text, providing elaborations, signaling different stages of the text, and referring to information located elsewhere in the same text. By performing these functions, interactive features not only enhance the coherence of the text but also engage in an internal dialogue with readers, reflecting the writer's assessment of how to effectively present information in a manner that is both understandable and persuasive to specific readers.

3.2. Previous studies on metadiscourse

Numerous studies conducted in various parts of the world have explored the usage of metadiscourse in the academic writing of university students. For example, Tan and Eng (2014) investigated the use of metadiscourse among Malaysian undergraduates and found that both groups of writers preferred the use of interactional metadiscourse over interactive metadiscourse. Also, Anwardeen, Luyee, Gabriel, and Kalajahi (2013) examined the usage of metadiscourse in the argumentative writing of Malaysian college students and observed that students tend to use textual metadiscourse instead of interpersonal metadiscourse, committing several errors in their usage. In the EFL context, Gholami, Nejad, and Pour (2014) conducted a study on the use of metadiscourse devices in the argumentative essays of EFL undergraduates and found that the students made various errors, with overuse of metadiscourse devices being the most common. In a recent study, Shafique, Shahbaz, and Hafeez (2019) compared research articles written by native English and Pakistani writers and found that Pakistani writers tend to use more interactive markers, while interactional markers are frequent in native English academic writers.

In Nigeria, there have been limited studies that have explored the use of metadiscourse among university students. However, Haruna et al. (2018) conducted a study examining the metadiscoursal choice and its influence on the success of final year undergraduates' academic writing, where they found that many of the students did not use or wrongly used the devices. Additionally, Akinseye (2021) examined the metadiscursive markers in L2 PhD theses abstracts of five disciplines in Nigerian university and showed the predominance of interactive metadiscourse markers across the disciplines. These studies demonstrate the importance of investigating the use of metadiscourse in undergraduate writing and highlight the need for further research in this area.

4. Methodology

This study employs a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative designs. The qualitative component examines the types and usages of discursive strategies employed in expository writing. On the other hand, the quantitative component shows the frequency of occurrence of these strategies. The study uses a sample of 100 expository essays on the topic of "The Realities of Virtual Learning in the University of Ibadan: The Pros and Cons." The expository essay genre was specifically chosen, as it required the students to present a clear and coherent explanation or analysis of a topic, utilizing a structured and organized approach to support their arguments. The sample are drawn from the population of newly admitted students who had received basic English grammar and writing skills instruction during their first three weeks of the academic program. They are also students who represent a range of academic disciplines and levels of proficiency in English language. The participants were administered a writing task to evaluate their writing proficiency. Specifically, they were instructed to compose an essay of approximately 350 words in response to a provided writing prompt. It is worth noting that the anonymity of the students was ensured throughout the process.

5. Data analysis
5.1. Transitional markers as a discursive strategy in the selected expository essay

Transitional markers, also known as logical connectors, are used to establish semantic relationships between main clauses or sentences in a discourse. These markers are considered as metadiscourse when they serve an internal function within the discourse rather than an external one, helping the reader to interpret the connections between ideas presented. Common examples of transitional markers include "in addition,""thus,""and,""moreover," furthermore,""therefore," and "on the other hand." By using these markers, the writer can guide the reader through the logical progression of their argument, making it easier to follow and understand. Instances of this are as follows:

Table 2
Distribution of transitional markers in the expository essays

Transitional markers	Frequency	Percentage
in addition/additionally	19	10.38
furthermore	20	10.92
unfortunately	4	2.19
moreover	9	4.91
however	31	16.94
in conclusion	30	16.4
in summary	1	0.55
also	18	9.84
but	6	3.3
surprisingly	1	0.55
subsequently	1	0.55
amazingly	1	0.55
thus	3	1.64
as a result	4	2.19
therefore	5	2.73
despite that/in spite of	5	2.7
conclusively	2	1.09
similarly	3	1.64
on the other hand	5	2.73
nevertheless/nonetheless	5	2.73
in contrast/in contrary	2	1.09
hence	2	1.09
similarly	3	1.64
now	1	0.55
although	1	0.55
consequently	1	0.55
Total	183	100

Let us consider some examples from the texts:

Example 1
1)   **However**, the use of online classes has its advantages and its disadvantages…. (Text 1)
2)   …**In conclusion,** online classes have come to stay in Nigeria particularly at the premier university of Ibadan, although, it has some disadvantages but yet its advantages are very much

important and as such, it is easier, convenient, teaches students how to use internet better, and it is modern in nature…. (Text 1)

Example 2

1)   …However, it is quite understandable that the university did not want to put the lives of students at stake…. (Text 8)

2)   …In conclusion, new things require a new system, so adequate provisions should be made by the University management to strike a balance between the physical and virtual learning and cover up the lapses pertaining to the smooth running of the virtual learning process…. (Text 8)

Generally, the marker, "however" is one of the most commonly deployed transitional markers in most academic writing, and specifically the most deployed in the analyzed essays as shown in the frequency table above. In Examples 1(1) and 2(1) above, the transitional marker is used to make a shift in focus from the preceding information, and to signal a contrast respectively. It indicates that the following statement or argument may be different or contrary to what has been said before. It helps to connect ideas and create coherence in the text by showing the relationship between the preceding and subsequent information. In the given text in 1(1), "however" marks a shift in focus from the advantages of virtual learning to a consideration of the university's priority for students' safety. This shift in focus helps to maintain coherence in the discourse by acknowledging the possible concerns or limitations that may affect the implementation of virtual learning. On the other hand, the second use of "however" in 2(1) introduces a contrast between the benefits of virtual learning and the challenges faced by students in an ESL context. Also, the usage highlights the limitations or disadvantages of virtual learning, specifically in the context of students who may have difficulty accessing or affording the necessary tools for online classes. By introducing this contrast, the writer acknowledges the reality of the situation and opens up the possibility for further discussion or analysis of these challenges. Thus, when readers encounter the word "however," they expect that the writer is going to provide a counterargument or a limitation to what they have previously said. It alerts the readers that the writer is acknowledging a different perspective or presenting an alternative interpretation of the information presented. In this way, the word "however" helps to improve the coherence and logical flow of the text and makes the writer's argument more nuanced and sophisticated.

Furthermore, the next commonly used transitional marker in the analyzed text is "in conclusion." In academic writing, it is used as a discourse marker to signify to the reader that the writer is summarizing the main points or reiterating the thesis statement in the final paragraph of the text. This phrase aids the writer in organizing the text and guiding the reader through the arguments, while providing closure and a sense of finality to the text. By utilizing this marker, the writers emphasize the significance of their key points and create a lasting impression on the reader. By using "in conclusion," in Example 1(1) above, the writer signals that he/she is wrapping up the discussion and restates the thesis that online classes have come to stay in Nigeria despite their disadvantages. The conclusion also suggests that further improvements could be made to the virtual learning system to address the challenges faced by students and lecturers, indicating a call for action to improve the system. Also, in Example 2(2) above, "in conclusion" is used as a discourse strategy to summarize the key points and provide a closure to the essay. The use of "in conclusion" allows the writer to bring together the main ideas on a clear note, emphasizing the importance of finding a balance between the physical and virtual learning systems in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. However, if it is overused or misused, it can become repetitive and may weaken the impact of the argument. It is important to use it appropriately and sparingly to avoid diminishing its effectiveness. Additionally, writers should aim to use other discourse markers that signal the end of the essay or argument, such as "to sum up" or "in summary," to add variety to their writing and keep the readers engaged. As an ESL teacher, it may be helpful to introduce other alternatives and encourage students to experiment with different ways to signal the end of their writing. It is also important to note that some analyzed essays misuse the word "conclusively" instead of "in conclusion." Let us consider the example below:

Example 3

1) …**Conclusively**, It would seem best to adopt an open-minded view of technology implementation that would enhance the learning environment as some students still find it difficult to adapt to the new system…. (Text 3)

In the sample provided above, the word "conclusively" is used inappropriately because it is not a suitable transitional phrase to conclude the essay, as it is not preceded by any arguments or evidence that would be logically concluded. Precisely, "conclusively" refers to a way that settles an issue or decision; decisively, and in this context, it is not appropriate to use it to conclude the argument or present a final decision. Instead, the student could have used a more appropriate transitional phrase such as "in summary" or "to sum up,""conclusion" or "in conclusion." So, the sentence should be revised as: "in conclusion, it would seem best to adopt an open-minded view of technology implementation that would enhance the learning environment as some students still find it difficult to adapt to the new system."In the context of teaching English as a Second Language, it is crucial to teach students on the proper usage of transitional phrases. By teaching these phrases, students can effectively organize their ideas and connect them in a cohesively and understandably. Failing to use appropriate transitional phrases can result in confusion and misunderstandings, ultimately hindering effective communication. Therefore, ESL teachers need to prioritize teaching the correct use of transitional phrases to their students. A few other transitional markers in the analyzed texts include:

Example 4
2) …**Subsequently**, this pandemic forcefully brought about a new pattern of lifestyles called the "the new normal…. (Text 3)

3) **Furthermore**, most students lack the ability to focus on screens. (Text 3)

4) **Moreover**, students also develop bad posture and other physical,mental or emotional problems due to staying haunched in front of a screen. (Text 3)

5) **Additionally**, virtual system has denied science students access to the laboratory. (Text 3)

Transitional markers like "subsequently", "furthermore,""moreover," and "additionally," as used in the text above can be used as discursive strategies in academic writing to connect ideas and present a logical argument.

The use of "subsequently" in Example 4(2) above serves as a discursive strategy by linking the previous discussion to the new idea introduced in the sentence. Its discourse function is to show a relationship between two or more events or actions, indicating that one occurred after the other. In the clause above, it is used to connect a piece of writing by indicating the chronological order in which it occurred. It shows the causal relationship between the pandemic and the new pattern of life, which had a significant impact on people's lives and led to "the new normal." In other words, the transitional marker emphasizes the importance of the change that occurred due to the pandemic. It helps the writer to present information in a clear and organized way, making it easier for the reader or listener to follow the logical progression of their argument or narrative and helps the reader understand the cause-and-effect relationship between the two events.

Similarly, "furthermore" in 4(3) above is used to add new information to a previous statement or idea. Its discursive function is to indicate that the following information builds upon, supports, or strengthens the previous idea. It provides additional evidence to support the writer's argument. In the context of the selected essays, it is used to introduce additional disadvantages of virtual learning after the first disadvantage has been discussed. It connects the two ideas in the text and indicates that the following information builds upon the previous point. It shows that the lack of focus on screens is not just a personal issue, but a widespread problem among students. Using "furthermore" as a transitional marker provides additional evidence or support for the main point. It signals to the reader that the writer is building on a previous point and is introducing new information that strengthens the argument. In addition, the use of "furthermore" helps students vary their sentence structure and create a more interesting and engaging piece of writing.

In sample 4(4) above, the word "moreover" reveals an additional point that strengthens the previous idea. It is used to connect two ideas that are related and to introduce an idea that builds upon the previous argument. In the essay, "moreover" is used to introduce an additional point to support the advantages of virtual learning. It emphasizes the benefits of virtual learning, such as the efficiency of the virtual learning tools used

by lecturers, which in turn makes it easier for lecturers to deliver lessons to students. It supports the argument that there are negative consequences associated with screen time, and specifically highlights the physical and mental health impacts on students.

Also, in sample 4(5), the use of "additionally" is a discursive strategy that introduces a new point to support the writer's argument. This marker introduces a new point that reinforces or supplements the previous point(s). Apart from its function of connecting ideas and arguments, it further shows that the writer has considered multiple perspectives on a topic. In one instance, it highlights the negative impact of virtual systems on science students who require laboratory access, providing further evidence for the argument that online learning may not be suitable for all subjects. In another context, it indicates that the writer is about to present another advantage of virtual learning having already presented some benefits earlier. In other words, it shows the relationship between the previously discussed advantages of virtual learning and the new one about to be presented.

5.2. Frame markers as a discursive strategy in the selected expository essay

Frame markers are linguistic devices used to organize and structure texts for readers, with the primary purpose of aiding comprehension and facilitating effective communication. These markers can be categorized into four subtypes based on their functions: sequencers, topicalizers, discourse labels, and announcers. Sequencers refer to markers that indicate the chronological or logical order of information, such as "firstly,""secondly,""finally," or "to sum up." Topicalizers, on the other hand, signal shifts in topic or focus, and include markers like "with regard to,""as for," and "speaking of". Discourse labels are markers that introduce or label a discourse unit, such as "the main point,""the problem," or "the solution," while announcers indicate the speaker or writer's intention or purpose, such as "my aim,""my intention," or "I propose." Further examples of frame markers include "finally,""my purpose,""firstly,""to sum up,""in short,""return to,""in regard to," and "aim." By using these markers, writers structure their writing in a way that is easy to follow and understand, and guide readers through the various stages of the discourse.

Table 3:
Distribution of frame markers in the expository essays

Frame markers	Frequency	Percentage
to begin with/to start with	2	3.85
firstly/first	14	26.92
secondly/second	14	26.92
thirdly	3	5.77
in the first place/first of all	3	5.77
finally	8	15.38
on a final note	1	1.92
last/lastly	5	9.62
first and foremost	2	3.85
Total	52	100

Some instances from the text include:

Example 5
1) **Firstly**, relating virtual learning to transportation, students love the idea of not waking early to catch the morning bus, not running down to the lecture room, not having to miss breakfast. They can receive lectures in the comfort of their rooms, whereby they get to maximize their time effectively…. (Text 15)

2) **Secondly**, most classes online are recorded and so it is accessible to the students at any time, they can re-listen to it over and over again unlike physical class where they can't record because using your phone during the class is a punishable offense…. (Text 15)

3) **Thirdly**, students have access to other materials apart from the material the school lecturers are using to lecture, which is an advantage to them…. (Text 15)

4) **Finally**, the main reason behind virtual learning in the University of Ibadan is to prevent the spread of Coronavirus, which has been achieved to a high rate, so virtual learning may not be convenient to all but it has helped to keep both the students and their lectures alive…. (Text 15)

In Example 5(1) above, the discourse function of "firstly" is to express the first main point or argument that the writer or speaker makes. It is used to introduce the first idea in a series of ideas or arguments that will be presented in the text or speech about the pros and cons of virtual learning at the University of Ibadan. This marker is a common discourse marker used to signal the beginning of a new argument or idea in academic writing, particularly in ESL situations, as it helps to organize and structure the ideas in a clear and logical manner. In this context, it introduces the first advantage of virtual learning, which is related to transportation. The use of "firstly" allows the reader to anticipate additional points that later follow, and further helps to guide them through the writer's argument.

In Example 5(2), the discourse function of the word "secondly" is similar to that of "firstly." It points to the second main point or argument in the series. It helps to organize the text or speech by showing the reader that the writer is moving on to a new idea. The use of "secondly" in the text above introduces the second point that supports the argument being made about the pros of virtual learning. The writer uses "secondly" to transition smoothly from the first point about transportation to the second point about the accessibility of recorded lectures. In the sampled essay, "secondly" is used as a discourse marker to present the second supporting point or argument. It is very useful in organizing ideas while writing and making clear connections between different points, thus improving the coherence of the text.

In 5(3), "thirdly" is used in a similar way to "firstly" and "secondly," but here, it signals the third main point or argument in the series. The marker introduces the third advantage or benefit of virtual learning after introducing the first and the second benefits of virtual learning. This point underscores the fact that virtual learning provides students with access to additional materials beyond what is presented by their instructors, which is a significant benefit for them.

In 5(4) above, the discourse function of "finally" signals the final main point or argument in the series. It indicates that the writer is ending the series of ideas or arguments and is summarizing the text about the pros and cons of virtual learning and offering a final evaluation of virtual learning. The use of "finally" in this context shows that the writer is ready to present the last point, which is the main reason behind the implementation of virtual learning in the University of Ibadan. This final point serves as a concluding thought to the entire discussion and emphasizes the importance of virtual learning in the current context.

Generally, in academic writing, using these markers can also improve coherence and cohesion, which are important factors in achieving a higher level of writing proficiency. They help to connect ideas, indicate transitions between paragraphs, and provide a clear roadmap for the reader to follow. However, it is important to use these frame markers appropriately and effectively. Overuse or misuse of these words can make the writing seem repetitive or unskilled. It is also important to vary it rather than relying too heavily on one particular word.

5.3. Endophoric markers as a discursive strategy in the selected expository essay

Endophoric markers are linguistic devices that refer to other elements within the same text, such as words, phrases, or sentences. These markers provide additional information or context by referencing other parts of the text and are used to help guide the reader towards the writer's intended interpretation. The process of employing endophoric markers involves providing supporting arguments and additional information that is made available by referencing specific elements within the text. By doing so, the writer can steer the reader towards a preferred interpretation by emphasizing or clarifying certain aspects of the text. Also, an endophoric marker could refer back to a previously mentioned noun or a repeated phrase that serves to reinforce a particular idea or theme. By using endophoric markers effectively, writers can help ensure that their message is communicated clearly and effectively to their intended audience. Examples include: "noted above….," "in section 2 above…." etc.

Table 4
*Distribution of endophoric markers in the expository essay*s

Endophoric markers	Frequency	Percentage
it (virtual learning)	38	73.1
this (virtual learning)	12	23.1
I, we, us, you	2	3.85
Total	52	100

Example 6
    1) **It** is a recent system of learning that has been popularized due to the coronavirus pandemic.... (Text 11)
    2) **This** learning system has its pros and cons which shall be addressed in subsequent paragraphs....(Text 11)

Example 7
    3) As this is the first time **we** will be using this learning means... and helps **us** adapt and advance further from archaic ways and methods to technological ways that are easier. (Text 13)

The mostly deployed endophoric marker is the pronoun "it." In 6(1) above, the endophoric marker "it" is a versatile and commonly used linguistic device in English. It refers back to a previously mentioned or implied element within a text, thereby creating coherence and connecting different parts of the text. In the text provided, "it" is used as an endophoric marker several times to refer back to the concept of virtual learning that was introduced at the beginning of the text. By doing so, the writer is able to present the points in a clear manner, thereby pointing the readers back to the main subject matter "virtual learning," while also highlighting its advantages and disadvantages.

Similarly, in 6(2), "this" is used to refer back to a concept, argument, or idea that was introduced earlier in the text. In the text provided, "this" is used as a deictic reference to refer to a specific point earlier made by the writer. In the context of the sample above, the pronoun refers back to the concept of virtual learning that was introduced in the previous sentence. By using "this" in such away, the writer is able to create a clear link between the two sentences and maintain coherence in the text.

Also, in 7(3), the discourse function of the pronouns "we" and "us" is to refer to a group of people that includes the writer and at least one other person. These pronouns create a sense of unity, inclusivity, and shared responsibility among the group members. In discourse, "we" and us" are used to express solidarity, establish a sense of belonging, and to emphasize commonalities among group members. By using "we" and "us," the writers are able to position themselves as members of a group and to express opinions, experiences, and ideas that are shared by the group. In the given text, "we" and "us" are used as endophoric markers to refer to the writer and other students who are experiencing the realities of virtual learning at the University of Ibadan. It suggests that the writer is not alone in their thoughts and opinions about virtual learning. It also gives a collective voice to the students, making their views more impactful and persuasive.

5.4 Code glosses as a discursive strategy in the selected expository essay

      In order to convey their intended message effectively, writers often employ additional language or phrasing to clarify or elaborate upon the ideas that they have already presented. This can take the form of rephrasing or restating the same information in different words, explaining the concept in more detail, or providing examples or context that help to illustrate the meaning. One way writers can signal to readers that they are providing additional information is through the use of certain linguistic markers or signposts, such as the expressions "in other words," "for example," or "such as." These terms help to signal that the writer is providing a further explanation of a particular term or concept, and can help to guide the reader towards a better understanding of the writer's intended meaning.

Example 8
    1) **for example** the advantages of virtual learning is there first it'll be able to cover the curriculum faster, the students can have a wider source of knowledge by using the internet, it's more efficient in terms of learning....

2) **for example** , if a student needs to travel that doesn't mean such student won't be able to attend classes because all what the student needs to do is just to have access to the internet and such student will be able to attend the class….

3) **for instance,** the University of Ibadan has many populations, it will be very difficult for people to maintain social distance….

4) Learning is an online-based platform that offers students new understanding, knowledge, behaviors, skills, values, attitudes, and preferences online through the use of Internet and social media platforms **such as** Zoom, Telegram and Whatsapp….

In Example 8(1), 8(2) and 8(3) above, "for example" and "for instance" provide a specific instance or illustration of something that has been mentioned or is being discussed. It shows the reader that the following information is a concrete example that clarifies or expands upon a previous point or idea. Both are commonly used in persuasive writing or speaking to support an argument or claim by providing evidence or demonstrating the validity of a statement. In the given text, the discourse function of "for example" is to provide specific instances that support the writer's argument regarding the advantages and disadvantages of virtual learning. In 8(1), the writer uses "for example" to highlight some of the advantages of virtual learning, such as faster coverage of the curriculum and wider access to knowledge through the internet. The use of "for example" here helps to illustrate and clarify the writer's points, making it easier for the reader to understand the benefits of virtual learning. On the other hand, in 8(2), the discourse strategy of "for example" is used to provide concrete instances that illustrate the advantages of virtual learning, while in 8(3), the discourse function of "for instance" in the text provides an illustration of the point being made. In this case, it explains how the adoption of virtual learning in Nigeria's higher learning institutions, including the University of Ibadan, has been a response to the COVID-19 outbreak. It provides a specific instance of a broader trend, in order to make the point more concrete and tangible.

5.5. Evidential markers as a discursive strategy in the selected expository essay
In academic discourse, evidentials are linguistic devices that are employed to refer to external sources of information, such as other academic publications, research studies, or expert opinions. The purpose of using evidentials is to support or strengthen the arguments being made in the text by incorporating external evidence that lends credibility and validity to the author's claims. Evidential markers are typically expressed in the form of academic attributions or citations, which provide the necessary information about the source being referenced, such as the author's name, publication title, date, and page numbers. These markers help to not only credit the original source but also enable readers to locate and verify the information themselves, thereby enhancing the overall quality and reliability of the text. In academic writing, the use of evidentials is considered a vital aspect of scholarly research, as it helps to establish the author's credibility and expertise and demonstrates their familiarity with existing research and literature in their field. By incorporating evidentials effectively, writers can convey their ideas and arguments more convincingly, and contribute to the advancement of knowledge in their respective disciplines. Examples include: "According to X;""Z states."

Example 9
1) **According to** Simonson and Schlosser (2006)virtual learning is defined as that learning that can functionally and effectively occur in the absence of traditional classroom environments…. (Text 79)

The only instance of evidential in the entire essay is exemplified above in 79(1). The discourse function of "according to" is to introduce an external source of information or an opinion from a specific person, typically an expert or authority, that supports or adds credibility to the writer's argument or claim. In academic writing, "according to" is often used to attribute a statement, finding, or theory to a specific academic source, such as a journal article or book. This helps the writer to establish authority and expertise by demonstrating knowledge of existing research and literature in the field, while also providing evidence to support their argument. In the instance above, it provides information that is based on the authority or research of Schlosser and Simonson (2006) and is using it to support the argument about the benefits of virtual learning. The phrase "according to"is commonly used in academic writing to introduce evidence or support for a claim, and is often followed by

a citation or attribution. In this case, it helps to establish the credibility and validity of the author's argument by providing a reliable source for the information presented. However, the use of evidentials is not commonly found in the analyzed expository essays of students due to various factors. Firstly, students may not fully understand the significance of incorporating external evidence to bolster their arguments. Secondly, they may lack the necessary skills or knowledge to locate and properly cite relevant sources to support their claims. Thirdly, they may lack confidence in their ability to critically analyze and evaluate sources, and may rely excessively on their own subjective viewpoints or personal experiences. Moreover, students may perceive the use of evidentials as unnecessary, particularly if they are writing for a less formal or academic audience. Finally, inadequate instruction or limitations in the curriculum may contribute to students' lack of proficiency in using evidentials effectively.

6. Results and Discussion

The overall results, as presented in Table 5 below, highlight the distribution of various interactive markers in the analyzed texts.

Table 5
Overall distribution of interactive markers in the expository essays

Interactive Markers	Frequency	Percentage
Transitional markers	183	62.24
Frame markers	52	17.69
Code glosses	6	2.04
Evidential markers	1	0.34
Endophoric markers	52	17.69
Total	294	100

The findings of this study underscore the significance of incorporating interactive resources as viable discursive strategies in the teaching of academic writing to undergraduate students in an ESL context. The study demonstrates that these resources can enhance the coherence and cohesion of academic writing produced by ESL students. Therefore, educators need to integrate these strategies into their teaching methods to help students improve their academic writing skills.

One significant finding from the study is the high frequency of transitional markers in the analyzed essays. Transitional markers are used to indicate the sequence of ideas, show contrast, compare, and emphasize with certain points. Therefore, incorporating transitional markers in academic writing can enhance the coherence and clarity of the text. Furthermore, frame markers are a viable tool in introducing and concluding ideas, emphasizing key points, and providing context for the argument. Therefore, they are important in helping readers to follow the argument and understand the purpose of the text. Also, endophoric markers are important in academic writing because they help to maintain coherence and avoid repetition because they can be used to refer to a previously mentioned idea, introduce a new idea, or provide a link between ideas. These markers can help to organize the ideas in the writing and enhance its clarity. It is therefore essential for educators to focus on teaching these strategies to their students so that they can produce more effective academic writing. Moreover, the study highlights the importance of not overlooking less frequently used markers such as evidential markers and code glosses. These markers can also play a crucial role in enhancing the persuasiveness and coherence of academic writing. For instance, evidentials help to establish the credibility of the argument and demonstrate the writer's knowledge of the field, while code glosses help to clarify the meaning of technical terms and ensure that the reader is not confused or distracted by unfamiliar vocabulary. Thus, educators should not underestimate the teaching of these markers and should integrate them into their teaching methods. By incorporating interactive resources in the teaching of academic writing skills, educators can help ESL students produce more coherent, organized, and persuasive academic writing.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the study highlights the importance of incorporating interactive resources and discursive strategies in the teaching of academic writing skills to undergraduate students in an ESL context. The insights provided in the analyses serve as a useful guide for educators in developing their teaching methods. The study reveals that educators need to focus on teaching transitional markers, frame markers, code glosses, evidential markers, and endophoric markers to help students produce effective academic writing. Hence, it is crucial for educators to incorporate these strategies in their teaching methods to help ESL students produce more coherent, organized, and persuasive academic writing that meets the expectations of academic writing in an ESL context.

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EALP textbooks and the challenges of legal English education

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ABSTRACT

EN   Over the last thirty years English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has expanded, cutting across the domains of specialised discourse, and has shifted its focus to meet the needs of large numbers of non-native speaking students at the university level. In this regard, English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP) can be defined as the teaching and learning of legal English as an ESP subject that includes the academic dimensions of EAP. This paper investigates how EALP textbooks has responded to the challenges of law school education. Reflecting on the pedagogic contributions of Carrick and Dunn (1985), Candlin, Bhatia, and Jensen (2002), and Prinsloo (2015), this paper begins diachronically with a sample of EALP-type textbooks from the point where Prinsloo completed his analysis. Drawing on these reviews, this paper attempts to provide some insights into the development of EALP-type textbooks and their response to the challenges of legal English education.

Key words: TEXTBOOKS, EALP, SPECIALISED LANGUAGE, LEGAL LANGUAGE, EDUCATION

ES   Durante los últimos treinta años, el inglés para fines académicos (IFA) se ha expandido, abarcando todos los dominios del discurso especializado y ha cambiado su enfoque para satisfacer las necesidades de un gran número de estudiantes de habla no nativa a nivel universitario. En este sentido, el inglés para fines académicos jurídicos (IFAJ) puede definirse como la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del inglés jurídico como un área del inglés para fines específicos (IFE) que incluye las dimensiones académicas del IFA. Este artículo investiga cómo los libros de texto de IFA han respondido a los desafíos de la educación en la facultad de derecho. Reflexionando sobre las contribuciones pedagógicas de Carrick y Dunn (1985), Candlin, Bhatia y Jensen (2002), y Prinsloo (2015), este artículo comienza diacrónicamente con una muestra de libros de texto de tipo IFAJ a partir del momento en que Prinsloo completó su análisis. Partiendo de estas revisiones, este artículo intenta proporcionar algunas ideas sobre el desarrollo de libros de texto de tipo IFAJ y sobre su respuesta a los desafíos de la educación jurídica en inglés.

Palabras claves: LIBROS DE TEXTO, IFAJ, LENGUAJE ESPECIALIZADO, LENGUAJE JURÍDICO, EDUCACIÓN

IT   Negli ultimi trent'anni l'inglese per scopi accademici (EAP - English for Academic Purposes) si è ampliato, oltrepassando i domini del discorso specialistico, e ha spostato la sua attenzione per soddisfare le esigenze di un gran numero di studenti non madrelingua a livello universitario. A tal riguardo, l'inglese per scopi legali accademici (EALP - English for Academic Legal Purposes) può essere definito come l'insegnamento e l'apprendimento dell'inglese giuridico, una disciplina afferente all'inglese per scopi speciali (ESP - English for Specific Purposes) che include le dimensioni accademiche dell'EAP. Il presente lavoro analizza come i libri di testo di inglese per scopi accademici abbiano risposto alle sfide dell'istruzione nelle scuole di giurisprudenza. Riflettendo sui contributi pedagogici di Carrick e Dunn (1985), Candlin, Bhatia e Jensen (2002) e Prinsloo (2015), questo articolo inizia diacronicamente con un campione di libri di testo di tipo EALP a partire dal momento in cui Prinsloo ha completato la sua analisi. Partendo da queste rassegne, il presente lavoro cerca di fornire alcuni spunti di riflessione sullo sviluppo dei libri di testo di tipo EALP e sulla loro risposta alle sfide dell'educazione all'inglese giuridico.

Parole chiave: LIBRI DI TESTO, INGLESE PER SCOPI LEGALI ACCADEMICI, LINGUAGGIO SPECIALISTICO, LINGUAGGIO GIURIDICO, ISTRUZIONE

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1. EAP and EALP

Over the last thirty years, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has expanded, cutting across the various domains of specialised discourse, and has gradually shifted its focus to meet the needs of large numbers of non-native speaking students at the university level (Hyland 2006, 2009; Johns 2013; Swales 2004;; Williams 2014). According to a survey conducted by Alqahtani (2011) on British EAP courses, the term EALP (i.e., English for Academic Legal Purposes) was first used by the British Council in 1975, and then it extended to the United States (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons 2002). By that time, important developments had occurred in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics, with pioneering scholars such as Bhatia (1993) and Halliday (1993), who began to consider language and language teaching as resources for communication that might vary considerably in lexis and syntax according to the context where they occur. In the meantime, English was increasingly developing as a world language, particularly in those areas where speaking and writing in English is the key to access the international academic community and participate in the global economy, such as Europe, Japan, China, Latin America, and Francophone Africa, to name just a few. A noteworthy aspect is the fact that English is currently the most popular language studied as a second or foreign language, even though it is not the language with the greatest number of native speakers. According to Ethnologue[1], Mandarin Chinese is the largest language in the world when counting only first language native speakers (NSs), followed by Spanish, while English comes in third place before Hindi (Table 1).

Table 1
Languages with the most NSs

Native Speakers (NSs) - 2022		
Mandarin Chinese		>1,000,000,000
Spanish	600,000,000	
English	> 400,000,000	
Hindi	> 400,000,000	

On the other hand, when considering second language speakers, English is the most spoken language in the world, followed by Mandarin Chinese, Hindi and Spanish.

Table 2
Languages with the most NSs and NNSs

NSs and Non-Native Speakers (NNSs) - 2022		
English		> 1,200,000,000
Mandarin Chinese		< 1,200,000,000
Hindi	< 800,000,000	
Spanish	> 400,000,000	

To provide some reasons why EAP is in great demand, we might recall Flowerdew and Peacock's (2001) explanation about the "need for English":

> These NNSs, of course, are not only attracted to learn the language of the English-speaking countries because they want to sell their products there. They also want to gain access to their technology and expertise. This is another reason for the large numbers of overseas students studying in the English-speaking countries and the even greater numbers studying through the medium of English in their home countries, where it is a second language. The international language of research and academic publication is English and anyone who wishes to have ready access to this material needs to know the language. (p.10)

The current statistics on the large numbers of NNSs learning and studying through the medium of English, and the development of EAP as a discipline worldwide, further confirm the soundness of Flowerdew and Peacock's (2001) observation at the present time.

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[1] https://www.ethnologue.com/insights/most-spoken-language/ (last accessed on July 25, 2023).

As regards the development of EAP as a discipline, it might be interesting to look at the comments and observations provided by some of the best-known authors in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics over the past decades. According to Coffey (1984), EAP is characterised by two dimensions: the first, English for Specific Academic Purposes, studies language structure, vocabulary, etc. and is related to a specific academic subject; whereas English for General Academic Purposes concerns general study skills (i.e., listening, speaking, etc.) and is related to academic courses. Likewise, Dudley-Evans and St John define (EAP) "any teaching that relates to a study purpose" (1998, p. 34). Flowerdew and Peacock notice that "EAP is normally considered to be one of the two main branches of English for specific purposes (ESP), the other being English for occupational purposes (EOP)" (2001, p. 11). With reference to the increasing growth of interest in EAP, Hyland observes that "English for academic purposes (EAP) has evolved rapidly over the past twenty years or so. From humble beginnings as a relatively fringe branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the early 1980s, it is today a major force in English language teaching and research around the world" (2006, p. 1). Then, "the fact that EAP cuts across the various domains of specialised discourse", Williams writes, "has led to a shift of focus as regards the needs of large numbers of non-native speaking university students" (2014, p. 3). Anthony concludes that "perhaps the most influential branch of ESP is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which focuses on ESP in academic settings" (2018, p. 13).

EAP certainly covers different domains and practices including study-skills teaching as well as general English, and provides students with language knowledge and instruction that relate to the specific communicative needs and practices of specific groups in academic contexts. In this regard, Flowerdew and Peacock not only define EAP "the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language", but they also consider it as "an international activity of tremendous scope" (2001, p. 8).

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and EAP have been traditionally differentiated, basing the difference on the functions of language. Deriving from the larger field of ESP, EAP has emerged as the teaching of English focused mainly on academic contexts at all proficiency levels (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons 2002), and characterised by a range of interdisciplinary influences for its research methods, theories and practices (Flowerdew 2016). In this regard, English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP) can be defined as the teaching and learning of legal English, that is, an ESP subject that includes the academic dimensions of EAP (Prinsloo 2015). In an attempt to make a taxonomy of all the disciplines included in the circle of world English, Prinsloo (2015) suggests that English Language Teaching (ELT) might serve as a hypernym referring to a field of research across those disciplines. More specifically, ELT includes ESP, EAP, and English for Professional Purposes (EPP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Figure 1).
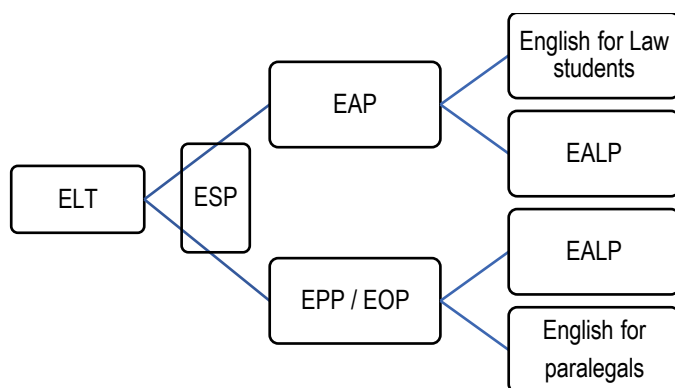
Figure 1. The taxonomy of ELT (adapted from Prinsloo 2015, p. 18)

EAP is considered to be one of two branches of ESP, the other being EPP/EOP. Each of these branches can be further subdivided according to the academic fields or occupations with which it is concerned. Therefore, EAP may be separated into English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP), which could in turn be subdivided into English for Law students (i.e., the academic field), and English for paralegals (i.e., the occupation). To give an example, an English course designed to help students read economics textbooks could clearly be EAP, while a course designed to teach learners how to participate in business meetings or take phone calls with clients is unquestionably characterized by an EOP dimension (Flowerdew & Peacock 2001, p. 12).

Incidentally, the distinction between the two major branches of ESP is not straightforward because some academic courses could be described as EOP as much as EAP. Moreover, Prinsloo (2015, p. 17) observes that such a distinction between the academic and professional use of English seems to be restrictive because the cognitive, social, and linguistic demands of academia and practice are also evident in one of the objectives of clinical legal education, which involves the role of lawyers in the society (Johnson 2020). For this reason, EALP can be defined as the teaching and learning of legal English as an ESP subject that includes the academic dimensions of EPP (Prinsloo 2015). By recalling Johns (1997), Flowerdew and Peacock claim that such a conclusion strengthens the idea that EAP specialists should encourage "students and subjects specialists to collaboratively examine the interactions of 'texts, roles and contexts'" (2001, p. 19).

In the case of EALP courses, given its specific syntactic features, foreign words, complex sentences, nominalizations, passive constructions and impersonal writing style (Bhatia 1993; Gibbons 2014; Tiersma 2006; Venturi 2010), legal English has been traditionally considered not unlike a foreign language to both NSs/L1 and NNSs/L2 language learners across the domain of English academia (Hyland 2009; Johns 2013; Swales 2004; Williams 2014). Legal scholars and applied linguists have attempted to solve language problems in the field of language pedagogy (Halliday 1993; Trask 2007) and in EALP courses in particular by demonstrating a move away from language in isolation and towards a consideration of discourse in context (Flowerdew & Peacock 2001, p. 19).

In light of this theoretical background, the present paper investigates how English for EALP in textbooks published over the past three decades has evolved and responded to the challenges of law school education. Reflecting on the pedagogic contributions of Carrick and Dunn (1985), Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002), and Prinsloo (2015), this paper begins with a diachronic approach by means of a sample of EALP-type textbooks (2013-2022) starting from the point where Prinsloo completed his analysis. In contrast with dated EALP textbooks, the analysis conducted by Prinsloo (2015) between 2002 and 2013 revealed an integrated pedagogic approach to the teaching of English skills. As Prinsloo (2015) demonstrates, the developments in EALP-type textbook contents and general structure challenge the assumption that EAP is substantially different from EPP based on the distinction of purpose, focus and skill acquisition. Drawing on these reviews, this paper attempts to demonstrate whether this trend has recently changed somehow, or has been confirmed and eventually progressed.

2. Textbooks in legal English courses

Generally speaking, textbooks serve an important role in teaching and learning activities. According to Graves (2000, p. 175) a textbook is a book used as a model source of information for the formal study of a subject (especially in schools and colleges) and a useful instrument for teaching and learning. The UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE)[2] provides this definition of textbook(s):

> A written source of information, designed specifically for the use of students, on a particular subject or field of study that is usually developed based on a syllabus and geared towards meeting specific quality and learning requirements. School textbooks pertain to an instructional sequence based on an organized curriculum. Ideally they serve as a complement to a good teacher and an inquiring learner. (*Adapted from:* UNESCO 2003a and UNESCO IBE 2006).

Academic TBs help readers who are entering a specific disciplinary field to access the established knowledge which characterises and shapes that disciplinary field (Bhatia 1989). Generally seen as a written text, the main function of TBs is to introduce novices to a specific discipline (Shahab, Rashidi, Sadighi & Mortaza, 2020).

In the case of legal English courses, TBs tend to reflect the complex linguistic needs of law school and legal practice (Dolin 2007; Edelman 2010; Hess 2002; Kennedy 2004). In this regard, Gibbons considers "the extreme complexity and unusual nature" of legal language that "poses a substantial problem, particularly for the many countries where the language of the law is not the mother tongue of those involved in the legal system" (1999, p. 291). As he clearly points out,

lawyers in training need help to master not only technicalities and the legal concepts that they represent, but also the convoluted grammatical structures in which much legislation is framed. This places considerable demands upon the teachers and curriculum designers responsible for teaching English to these law students. They themselves may have trouble in understanding the cognitive complexity of legal documents,

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[2] https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000223059 last accessed on July 25, 2023).

and the linguistic realisation of that complexity. Once understood, training students to master it is a pedagogical challenge p. 291).Overall, "law school is generally recognized as an intellectually strenuous and linguistically demanding curriculum" (Prinsloo 2015, p. 5). More specifically, this perception is based on three principal assumptions:

- the main lexico-grammatical features of legal language, which are usually characterised as follows: (i) inclusion of archaic words and foreign expressions especially from Latin and French; (ii) frequent repetition of fixed syntactic structures; (iii) long and convoluted sentences with intricate patterns of coordination and subordination. This makes legal English a foreign language to both NSs and NNSs law students (Bhatia 1989, 1993; Danet 1980; Gibbons 2014; Tiersma 2006; Venturi 2010);
- law students enter academia with limited legal language knowledge and skills (Dolin 2007; Edelman 2010; Gerkman & Cornett 2017; Sullivan et al., 2007);
- the use of unsuitable instructional methods with only casual attention to teaching students how to use legal thinking in the actual law practice. Unlike other professional education, legal syllabus design pays little attention to direct training in professional practice (Bhatia 2008; Linden & Johnson 2020; Sullivan, Colby, Wegner, Bond & Shulman 2007)
- an isolated syllabus design. Although some students might be able to manage the textual features of some professional genres, (Bhatia, 2008; Candlin, Bhatia & Jensen, 2002; Carrick & Dunn, 1985; Linden & Johnson, 2020; Stuckey, 2007) they would still be detached from the professional world (Bhatia, 2008, p. 161).

In 2007, the *Carniege Foundation Report* on the state of American law schools called for significant changes in legal education in North America. It recommended an integrated approach to legal education[3]. In order to bring together the two sides of legal knowledge, i.e., the "formal knowledge and experience of practice" and "advances in legal education," the Report provided some recommendations to law schools, such as: (i) joining lawyering, professionalism and legal analysis from the start; (ii) designing the syllabus and course programs so that students and faculty weave together various kinds of knowledge and skills; (iii) integrating legal analysis, training for practice and development of professional identity (Sullivan et al., 2007, pp. 8-10).[4] The *Carnegie Foundation Report* also noticed a significant limitation in legal education, in that legal courses and programs generally pay little attention to direct training in legal practice. Following the publication of the *Carnegie Foundation Report*, a curriculum reform was implemented in many American law schools, with some of them providing experiential learning courses.

In its attempt to merge formal knowledge and practical experience, the legal discourse academia has been paired with research in linguistics, which had already started to be more interested in language literacy, teaching, and pedagogy, particularly in the field of EALP (Balcom & Kozar, 1994; Halliday, 1993; Trask, 2007).

3. Methodological framework

Since the 1960s and 1970s, legal scholars, applied linguists, and educators have attempted to solve language problems, especially in the field of language pedagogy (Halliday 1993; Trask 2007) and, in particular, EALP. Over the past three decades in particular, two significant studies reviewed appropriate samples of legal writing TBs. More specifically, Carrick and Dunn (1985) reviewed a sample of 11 legal writing TBs published between 1980 and 1985. The second review, conducted by Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002), included 37 legal writing TBs published between 1985 through 2002. Prisloo (2015) reflected on the pedagogic contributions

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[3] The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was established in 1905 and chartered in 1906 by an act of Congress as an independent policy and research center called to "do and perform all things necessary to encourage, uphold, and dignify the profession of the teacher and the cause of higher education. Today the mission of the Foundation is to catalyze transformational change in education so that every student has the opportunity to live a healthy, dignified, and fulfilling life." Over last few years, the Carnegie Foundation has examined education in medicine, clergy, nursing, engineering, and law https://www.carnegiefoundation.org/about-us/foundation-history/ (last accessed on July 25, 2023).
[4] http://archive.carnegiefoundation.org/publications/pdfs/elibrary/elibrary_pdf_632.pdf (last accessed on July 25, 2023).

provided by Carrick and Dunn (1985) and those by Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002), and departed diachronically with a sample of EALP-type TBs where Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002) had concluded.

The methodology I present here is mostly inspired by Prinsloo's (2015) analysis of EALP TBs. Above all, I rely on Prinsloo's (2015, pp. 8-9) data collection procedure and qualitative content analysis for the selection of a data collection type and the identification of a typology of TBs (Creswell, 2014; Douglas, 2022; Lichtman, 2013; Shenton, 2004; Teddlie & Yu 2007). In order to make it useful for the analysis developed here, I have slightly modified and expanded his model.

The data collection procedure is based on the purposive sampling technique (i.e. search criteria), where units are selected because they have characteristics that match the samples, i.e., the EALP-type TBs, that constitute the qualitative data (Figure 2).
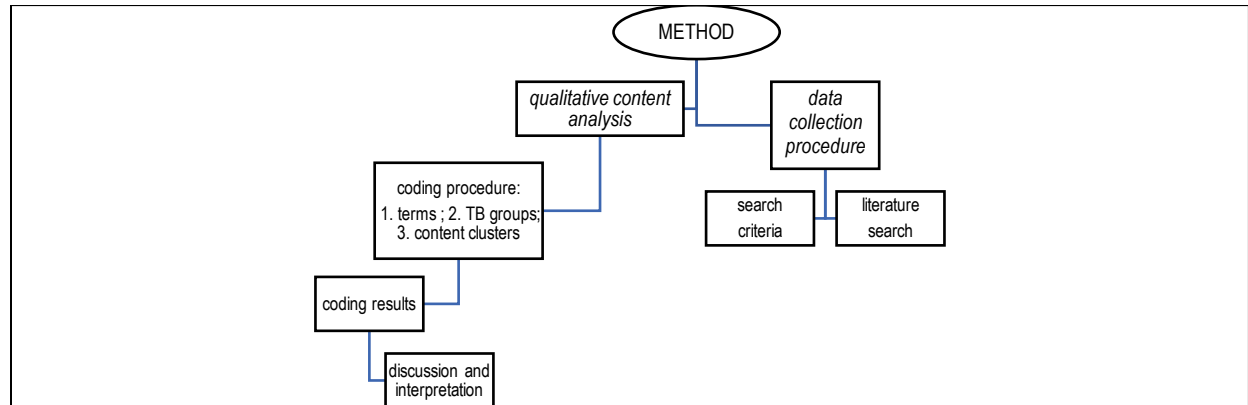
Figure 12. Methodological framework (adapted from Prinsloo 2015)

In the data collection process, the first step was to identify the sample of EALP-type TBs. In order to do so, TBs were identified as public documents available at the university libraries in the public domain. Then, the literature search strategy was based on:

- the time frame;
- types of EALP TBs;
- target readers / users;
- countries selected;
- significant part of the EALP TBs;
- and search terms / phrases.

The time frame for the data collection was set between 2013 and 2022, and the types of EALP TBs that were selected did not include TBs that focus primarily on general language or any other topic that might not be considered specific to legal courses. This, however, did not imply that TBs have chapters / sections dealing with general language, for instance, were excluded *a priori* from the data collection. The university law students were identified as the target readers / interested users of the EALP TBs from the UK and US, the selection of which was based on the accessibility of the university libraries. After identifying the objectives of the research, librarians at the Department of Political Science and International Relations[5] and I conducted searches using the following key words / phrases: *legal English*, *practical legal English*, *legal knowledge/skills*. In order to broaden the perspective, the searches were conducted by using related and slightly different key search phrases, such as: *English for academic legal purposes*, *lawyering skills*, *legal English*, *thinking like a lawyer*, *clinical legal education*. The results of this initial search of key terms were indicative of the larger categories of the qualitative content analysis. As the EALP TBs collected were explored by means of the different search

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[5] DEMS, University of Palermo (Italy).

terms, the investigation of the TBs' Titles, Prefaces, and Tables of Contents were crucial to determine inclusion in the final corpus.

The second step of research consisted in the qualitative content analysis aimed at the identification of typologies of TBs through the examination of their communicative content, as shown in Figure 2 (i.e., coding procedure, coding results, discussion of results). The EALP TBs typologies identified were the following: skill-based TBs, law school TBs, academic legal language TBs, legal skills TBs, clinical legal skills TBs (see Appendix). More specifically, in this phase the collected data where qualified based on the recognition of connections among EALP in order to: (i) validate the inclusion of texts identified by the key words/phrases search (Prisloo 2015); (ii) identify interrelationships among EALP TBs typologies (Benaquisto, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007; Prinsloo. 2015); (iii) facilitate descriptions and increase the credibility of the qualitative content analysis (Creswell, 2014).

4. Results and Discussion

In recent years, a market for EALP-type textbooks has emerged, together with the increasing development of EALP-type courses. Since the 1980s, three significant studies have reviewed appropriate samples of legal textbooks (see Table 3 below). More specifically,

- The 1st study was conducted by Carrick and Dunn (1985), who reviewed a corpus of 11 legal TBs published between 1980 and 1985. They categorised the TBs based on legal content and writing skills and identified five categories of TBs. With the exception of the category that focuses on legal research skills, the other categories were mainly based on writing skills (Carrick and Dunn 1985, pp. 674-675; Prinsloo, 2015);
- The 2nd study was conducted by Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002), who reviewed 37 legal TBs published between 1985 and 2002. By placing particular emphasis on instructional approaches, they identified four categories of TBs and the associated pedagogic approaches which Prinsloo (2015: 7) has categorised as follows:
  - lexico-grammar based TBs adopting a scientific-modernist approach (i.e., grammar translation and direct methods, the authoritative role of teachers and the students' passive role as recipients of knowledge);
  - rhetoric-based TBs promoting active student collaboration through teacher facilitation;
  - content-based legal English TBs that are considered more comprehensive than TBs which focus mainly on legal terminology;
  - EALP TBs that expose students to legal discourses and genres in social contexts.
- The 3rd study was conducted by Prisloo (2015), who reviewed a corpus of 44 EALP-type TBs published between 2002 and 2013. He distinguished TBs by means of a skill-based approach:
  - TBs that focus on law school skills which mainly aim to prepare students for law school admission tests and academic essay writing (predominantly for the American-based law school system);
  - academic legal English TBs including different academic legal linguistic skills aimed at the 1st year of law school education. In particular, these TBs present a larger skills set than that surveyed by Carrick and Dunn (1985) and Candlin, Bhatia, and Jensen (2002);
  - legal skills TBs that cover a diverse set of skills throughout law school and embrace the four categories of skills;
  - clinical legal skills TBs that focus on lawyering skills and the legal process needed in legal practice.

Table 3
EALP TBs studies (1985 – 2015)

1985 **Carrick and Dunn**	2022 **Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen**	2015 **Prinsloo**
course-based typology *(based on writing skills and* *legal content)* 11 TBs (1980-1985)	*pedagogy-based typology* *(based on pedagogic approaches)* 37 TBs (1985-2002)	*skill-based typology* 44 TBs (2002-2013)
		Law school TBs
grammar-based books general legal writing law school examination books	lexico-grammar based books (scientific approaches)	academic legal language TBs (i.e., aimed at the 1st year of law school education; do not cover pre-law school skills)
	rhetoric-based books (rhetorical approaches)	
	EALP TBs (content-based approaches)	
legal research / legal bibliography books	books that include content (EAP approaches)	legal skills TBs (cover the diverse set of legal skills)
legal brief writing and argumentation		clinical legal skills (include the skills of practice, i.e. drafting, advocacy, mediation, etc.)

- The research presented here (i.e., the 4th study) has been conducted on a corpus of 48 EALP- type TBs starting from the point where Prisloo (2015) concluded, and published between 2013 and 2022. In particular, this research distinguishes (see Table 4 and Table 5) TBs based on a layered-based learning curriculum:
  - TBs that focus on law school skills that are mainly aimed to prepare students for the law school admission test and academic essay writing (for both the American and the UK law school system) and account for 12.50% (5 TBs) of the corpus;
  - academic legal English TBs that cover different academic legal linguistic skills aimed at the 1st year of law school education. They present a larger skills set than that surveyed by Prisloo (2015) and focus primarily on communication skills for academic and practical purposes. They account for 42,50% (17 TBs) of the corpus;
  - legal skills TBs that cover the most comprehensive set of skills throughout law school. They may present specific legal content, with a focus on both academic legal language and skills used during law school. They mostly neglect the set of linguistics needed after law school. They account for 22,50% (9 TBs) of the corpus;
  - clinical legal skills TBs that focus on lawyering skills which are needed in legal practice. These skills overlap with academic legal language skills. However, they focus on more productive skills typical of substantive and procedural law. These TBs are mainly for an American-based law school system. They account for 22,50% (9 TBs) of the corpus.

Table 4
EALP TBs studies (1985 – 2022)

1985 Carrick and Dunn	2022 Candlin Bhatia and Jensen	2015 Prinsloo	2022 present research
course-based typology 11 TBs (1980-1985)	*pedagogy-based typology* 37 TBs (1985-2002)	*skill-based typology* 44 TBs (2002-2013)	*layered / practical skills and competencies typology* 40 TBs (2013-2022)
		law school TBs	law school TBs / legal guided TBs (law school education and linguistic skills needed prior to and at the beginning of law school)
grammar-based books general legal writing law school examination books	lexico-grammar based books (scientific approaches)	academic legal language TBs (i.e., aimed at the 1st year of law school education)	academic TBs (a broad spectrum of academic legal linguistic skills, i.e., focus mainly on communication skills; specific content may pose pedagogic problems in foreign jurisdictions)
	rhetoric-based books (rhetorical approaches) EALP TBs (content-based approaches)		
legal research / legal bibliography books	books that include content (EAP approaches)	legal skills TBs (cover the diverse set of legal skills)	legalistic skills TBs (mostly comprehensive, they attempt to cover the professional, academic and career skills)
legal brief writing and argumentation		clinical legal skills (include the skills of practice, i.e. drafting, advocacy, mediation, etc.)	productive skills set within procedural and substantive law TBs (emphasis on ethical legal epistemology and legal practice)

Table 5.

EALP TBs studies (2015 and 2022)

2015 Prinsloo	2022 present research
scaffolded / skill-based typology 44 TBs (2002-2013)	*layered / practical skills and competencies typology* 40 TBs (2013-2022)
law school TBs (15,90% - 7 TBs)	law school TBs / legal guided TBs (law school education and linguistic skills needed prior to and at the beginning of law school) (12,50% - 5 TBs)
academic legal language TBs (i.e., aimed at the 1st year of law school education) 52,27% - 23 TBs)	academic TBs (a broad spectrum of academic legal linguistic skills, i.e., focus mainly on communication skills; specific content may pose pedagogic problems in foreign jurisdictions) (42,50% - 17 TBs)
legal skills TBs (cover the diverse set of legal skills) (15,90% – 7 TBs)	legalistic skills TBs (mostly comprehensive, they attempt to cover the professional, academic and career skills (22,50% - 9 TBs)
clinical legal skills (include the skills of practice, i.e. drafting, advocacy, mediation, etc.) (15,90% – 7 TBs)	productive skills set within procedural and substantive law TBs (emphasis on ethical legal epistemology and legal practice) (22,50% - 9 TBs)

The literature review revealed that between 1980 and 2002, legal English TBs focused primarily on writing instruction, with an almost exclusive emphasis on grammar, legal content, and general writing skills (Prinsloo, 2015). A qualitative content analysis of a sample of 44 EALP-type TBs, published between 2002 and 2013, revealed an ever-increasing shift toward multi-skills instruction across the law school and academic curricula (Prinsloo, 2015). Increasingly, from 2013 to 2022 contemporary TBs aim to encourage a comprehensive set of skills that is more geared to the needs of legal professions. In this regard, *Cracking the case method, legal analysis for law school success. Academic and career success series* (Bergman, 2022) represents a clear example of law school TBs / legal guided TBs, whereas *Legal English* (Haigh, 2018) and *Legal Terminology* (Kent & Brown, 2018) serve as two fitting examples of legal academic TBs. In the case of legal skills TBs, a prime example can be seen in *Lawyers' skills. Legal practice course manuals* (Webb et al., 2019), and the category of clinical legal skills TBs is well represented by *Legal English comprehensive competence: reading, writing and professional skills* (Gao, 2021).

Confirming what Prisloo (2015) discovered in his analysis conducted between 2002 and 2013, the research conducted on publications between 2013 and 2022 demonstrates that more recent TBs, such as those belonging to the legalistic skills category, tend to provide a comprehensive spectrum of expertise and pedagogic skills. These contemporary examples show a merging trend of purposes of EAP and EPP in response to clinical legal education and the needs of legal professions. In the end, contemporary EALP textbooks are designed according to a layered typology that addresses the law school skills that are needed during law school education, and the practical skills and competencies that are required during professional training and legal practice.

5. Final remarks

Generally speaking, legal education has been facing difficult challenges, with law schools striving to position themselves within a rapidly changing world. Given the fact that the legal profession, not unlike many other jobs and occupations, is in a state of flux, the challenge is providing law students with proper and up-to-date academic courses and programs. Such an academic innovation requires tailored EALP TBs which might help both students and teachers to keep up with the recent challenges of a dynamic and evolving education.

Particularly in the field of EALP courses, there seems to be increasing interest on the part of law schools and academia in the communicative events that students will need to engage in, and the spoken and written genres in which they need to become functionally competent. This poses a pedagogical challenge in terms of course structures, types of curricula, and content of the materials and textbooks provided for law students. This reflects Belcher's (2009) observation about "needs-responsive materials and methods" in academia. As she noticeably writes,

> Another scaffolded approach, aiming not just at genre awareness but also acquisition of a sequence of progressively more challenging genres [...] involves a careful cline of instructor support: first immersing students in genre samples, thus providing a text and context-rich environment, followed by teacher modelling of text construction, collaborative text construction, independent generation of texts, and finally critical reflection on what has been learned about the genre itself (as well as related domain knowledge) - both how it enables and how it constrains (p. 9-10).

This paper has explored how EALP textbooks , published over the past three decades, have evolved and responded to the challenges of law school education. Reflecting on the pedagogic contributions of Carrick and Dunn (1985), Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen (2002), and Prinsloo (2015), the analysis began diachronically, with a sample of EALP-type textbooks from the point where Prinsloo (2015) concluded his research. Drawing on these reviews, this paper has attempted to provide some insights into the recent development of EALP-type TBs and their response to the challenges of legal English education, such as the typology that constitutes the structure of contemporary EALP textbooks. Future research might consider the impact of a scaffolded approach in law university courses and curricula design, such as that produced by procedural and substantive law EALP textbooks on law students' proficiency.

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Appendix

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4th category Clinical legal skills TBs account for 22,50% of the corpus (9 TBs)

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Writing with "Academic Style": Theoretical considerations and preliminary findings on the new frontiers of EAP

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ABSTRACT

EN Research in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has increased in terms of teaching and learning forms, methods and materials over the past decades. The globalisation of knowledge sharing and communication within the academic community, and the inclusion of marginalised higher education and research institutions have resulted in an ongoing evolution of many EAP-related terms. Nevertheless, underexplored areas of EAP research and practice remain, including that of "academic style", a necessary integration of EAP and academic writing teaching and practice. The study presents a pilot study consisting in the detailed qualitative analysis of a collection of abstracts from a PhD seminar on academic style (self)proofreading. By employing a methodological framework combining stylistics, error analysis, and the categorisation of specific "areas of interest", the pilot study highlights relevant stylistic errors in academic writing and draws conclusions on the requirements and implications of introducing academic style to EAP.

Key words: ACADEMIC STYLE PROOFREADING, ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP), STYLISTICS, ERROR ANALYSIS, ACADEMIC WRITING

ES La investigación en inglés con fines académicos (EAP por sus siglas en inglés) ha aumentado en cuanto a formas, métodos y materiales de enseñanza y aprendizaje en las últimas décadas. La globalización del intercambio de conocimientos y la comunicación dentro de la comunidad académica, así como la inclusión de instituciones de enseñanza superior e investigación marginadas, han dado lugar a una evolución continua de muchos términos relacionados con el EAP. Sin embargo, aún quedan áreas poco exploradas de la investigación y la práctica del EAP, incluida la del "estilo académico", una integración necesaria del EAP y de la enseñanza y la práctica de la escritura académica. El estudio presenta un estudio piloto consistente en el análisis cualitativo detallado de una colección de resúmenes de un seminario de doctorado sobre (auto)corrección de estilo académico. Mediante el empleo de un marco metodológico que combina la estilística, el análisis de errores, el estudio piloto pone de relieve errores estilísticos relevantes de la escritura académica y extrae inclusiones sobre los requisitos y las implicaciones de la introducción del estilo académico de la EAP.

Palabras claves: CORRECCIÓN DE ESTILO ACADÉMICO, INGLÉS CON FINES ACADÉMICOS (EAP), ESTILÍSTICA, ANÁLISIS DE ERRORES, ESCRITURA ACADÉMICA

IT Negli ultimi decenni la ricerca sull'inglese per scopi accademici (EAP, sigla in inglese) si è estesa relativamente a forme, metodi e materiali di insegnamento e apprendimento.. La globalizzazione della condivisione delle conoscenze e della comunicazione all'interno della comunità accademica, nonché l'inclusione di istituti di istruzione superiore e di ricerca marginati hanno portato a una continua evoluzione di molti termini relativi all'EAP. Tuttavia, esistono aree ancora poco esplorate della ricerca e della pratica EAP, tra cui quella dello "stile accademico", quale necessaria integrazione dell'insegnamento e della pratica della scrittura EAP e accademica. Lo studio presenta una ricerca pilota che consiste nell'analisi qualitativa dettagliata di una raccolta di abstract di un seminario di dottorato sulla (auto)correzione dello stile accademico. Utilizzando un quadro metodologico che combina la stilistica, l'analisi degli errori e la categorizzazione di specifiche "aree di interesse", lo studio evidenzia gli errori stilistici rilevanti nella scrittura accademica e trae conclusioni sui requisiti e le implicazioni dell'introduzione dello stile accademico nell'EAP.

Parole chiave: REVISIONE DELLO STILE ACCADEMICO, INGLESE PER SCOPI SPECIFICI (EAP), STILISTICA, ANALISI DEGLI ERRORI, SCRITTURA ACCADEMICA

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1. Introduction: the ongoing evolution and revolution of EAP

The use of and research in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) have increased over the past decades in terms of teaching and learning forms, methods and materials. In fact, the globalisation of knowledge sharing and communication has resulted in the expansion of the academic community, which increasingly includes members of higher education and research institutions based in hitherto marginalised countries. This, in turn, has resulted in an extraordinary expansion of the users and uses of EAP, as well as an ongoing evolution of many commonly known and employed terms. These changes in categories and definitions are more specialised and inclusive, starting with EAP itself, which was conceived and remains one of the applicative paths of ESP (English for Specific Purposes). In fact, due to the multiplication of "academic Englishes" and their degree of specificity stemming from the development of highly specialised and/or hybrid academic fields of enquiry and research, the acronym EAP has branched out into EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes) and ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes). The former deals with the academic language that is necessary to communicate in all oral and written academic fields and shared genres (e.g. dissertation, abstract, conference, research paper, research grant). ESAP, on the other hand, is focused on the specialised genres that are common among students and academics conducting theoretical or applicative research and/or knowledge dissemination in a specific field (e.g. economics, medicine, science, engineering). As a result, ESAP courses are more likely to be based on the practical and realistic needs and materials of specific degree courses. Moreover, these branches of English often overlap, as students and specialists encounter both technical and academic genres of English, and it is often assumed that a solid basis of EGAP is preliminary to ESAP courses and skills. The growth of ESAP is thus aligned with ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes), which is the English variation of Languages for Specific and Professional Purposes, and typical of more applicative fields of research. As such, it is based on the learners' real needs and on the collection and analysis of empirical material similar to that encountered in professional and academic contexts (Zanola, 2023).

Another fundamental (r)evolution in the international academic community is the ongoing spread of the use of the term "EAL (English as an Additional Language) writer/learner" (Holliday, 2005; Luo & Hyland, 2019) in place of the more traditional "English native speaker/non-native speaker" dichotomy that is still employed in materials and language learning/teaching discourse. This shift entails many subtle implications that have been questioned in light of today's increasingly plurilingual academic discourse community, regardless of discipline or rank. First and foremost, while the term "non-native speaker" identifies the person based on an absence of linguistic competence comparable to that of a native speaker, the "additional" component of the EAL acronym underlines the enriched plurilingual competence that the academic draws on in expressing his or her lines of thought and research. This is especially important, as English is often not even the L2 or L3 of many academics. Flowerdew and Habibie even go to the extent of claiming that "EAL writers may be as equally proficient in English as their Anglophone counterparts, or even better" (2022, p. 18). Secondly, the term "non-native speaker" explicitly refers to only one skill (i.e. speaking) and, while its use has come to encompass written contexts, this seems to limit the competence of the learner. In contrast, the choice of "EAL writer/learner" brings the focus back to writing in the former case, which was the original aim of EAP and the most requested competence among EAL academics. This term further expands its scope to include all language skills in the latter case. Considering that the academic community now makes extensive use of multimodal and online means of communication and dissemination, it is fitting that the most populated category of users of English in academic contexts be referred to from a more comprehensive and evolutionary perspective.

One final but extremely significant ongoing form of development of EAP must be addressed before proceeding as it constitutes the ultimate aim of EGAP and ESAP courses and is the primary focus of the present paper and pilot study. It is the field of research of ERPP (English for Research Publication Purposes) (Englander & Cocoran, 2019; Flowerdew & Habibie, 2022) that dates back to 2008 (Cargill & Burgess) and starts from the premise that academic English is taking on an increasingly international and intercultural dimension as the *lingua franca* of research and dissemination. It is focused on the geopolitical and international relevance of knowledge exchange, and on the consequences of academic language review and evaluation for EAL academics.

Having provided a theoretical *excursus* into the current state of the art of EAP and its emerging subdivisions, the study will proceed to highlight a gap in EAP training and research that is affecting the scholarly success of EAL academics all over the world and impacting their careers and the international standing of their institutions. This gap consists in "academic style", and has almost always been considered from the perspective of English L1 users (Hayot, 2014; Hopkins & Reid, 2018; Sword 2012; Tusting et al., 2019). In fact, many EAP manuals dedicate a section to "academic style" but this usually refers to instructions on the appropriate level

of formality and common sensical rules aimed at students (usually at an undergraduate level) whose first language is English, and are therefore linguistically competent, but lack knowledge and awareness of the underlying rules of etiquette of academic writing and communication within the academic discourse community. However, such definitions and teaching of "academic style" as a holistic shaping of academic writing deviates from another, and more specific, conception of "academic style". Here, the second term is related to "stylistics" and the flow of phrases and sentences and their overall coherence, as viewed through the lens of linguistics and language pedagogy. This form of academic style and its intercultural and publication implications for academics whose L1 is not English will be explored in the next section. Following this, a brief but insightful pilot study applying previous research on academic style, and more precisely on "academic style (self)proofreading", to conduct a two-part seminar for PhD students, is presented. The aim of the seminar was to make these students, who are at the ideal stage for learning and training their academic writing at all levels, aware of the relevance of academic style and teach them to recognise and "treat" it in their own writing and that of others. The term "treat" is used on purpose here as it is in error analysis instead of "correct" or "revise", which are related to "mistakes". It indicates an adjustment, or proposed adjustment, of a stylistic error that is not incorrect but rather unaligned with the academic community's expectations. The findings of the second and more applicative part of the seminar are illustrated and analysed through stylistics (Burke, 2014; Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010; Simpson, 2004, 2014) and error analysis (Amiri & Puteh 2017; Corder, 1981; James, 1998;), and the paper concludes with reflections on broader implications of the study and on what can and should be done from this point on to better understand and integrate the dimension of academic style into EAP courses and training for various categories of users.

2. Background: academic style as the new dimension of EAP teaching and learning

The increasing importance of EAP higher education courses may be traced back to a number of factors: the adoption of English as a lingua franca on a global level; greater expectations and requirements of quality writing and publications (Belcher, 2007; Bennett, 2014; Bortolus, 2012); a more competitive academic job market founded on the almost century-old "publish or perish" precept (Coolidge, 1932); an overall exponentially greater volume of publications following a more rapid rate in terms of peer review, proofreading and copyediting, thanks to online document formats, platforms and language revision services.

The need for specialised EAP materials, teaching and courses has grown accordingly (Brown, 2000), but for the most part EGAP teaching continues to prevail due to limits in time and space, as well as economic and human resources. As a result, courses and workshops in academic writing are scarce, making them into intensive sessions in which "inculcated habits" (Hayot, 2014, p. 8) and homogenous and consolidated patterns are proposed instead of opportunities to train academic writing skills, which are elusive and subjective. Such a protocol has been fuelled by the conviction that university students only need "the basics" to learn the differences between general English and academic English, and that they would naturally acquire the language characterising their specific field of research through experience in writing for research and publishing, and reading the work of peers and experts. Such a line of reasoning finds support in the fact that the ability to write acceptably in specialised academic writing has traditionally been linked more to expertise and experience rather than original linguistic competence. Given the importance of publishing in English in international journals and volumes for career advancement, tenure and funding in various research fields, junior academics often face time constraints to develop expertise and improve their academic writing skills in English after completing their studies. Consequently, it becomes crucial for them to have already acquired such competence prior to entering the international academic discourse community. Therefore, like any other genre or form of writing, academic style should ideally be improved through consistent practice and feedback while studying.

Another concern arises from the limited opportunities for students to practice writing in their specific ESAP. In some countries, students may not engage in substantial writing until they are required to submit their dissertations or proposals such as abstracts, papers and research grants. At this stage, they are already expected to possess the ability to communicate effectively in academic English. This issue becomes even more pressing when considering that academic language is "no one's mother tongue" (Bourdieu et al., 1994, p. 8), highlighting the fact that proficiency in academic writing is not solely dependent on language competence and not exclusive to native speakers. Moreover, in many countries, the only academic writing genres they practice are essays and final papers for courses, that constitute the sole basis, audience and grounds for evaluation (Hayot, 2014). These papers often deal with specific topics and course content (and therefore the knowledge of the field of study) and are thus evaluated based on ideas and argumentation rather than the language or style itself, as doing so would be seen as distracting and time consuming for the teachers and/or instructors who

have to correct the papers. However, this approach can be misleading compared to what junior academics will find when they officially enter the academic discourse community, as "style and language" (Kapp, Albertyne, & Frick, 2011) actually constitute the main reason why papers – especially those written by English L2 or L3 academics – are rejected in the course of the peer review process. This finding underlines the importance of being well versed not only in academic English and its genres on a lexical, grammatical, and syntactic level, which ensure the explicitly required and indisputable linguistic accuracy, but also in academic style to align one's writing with the expectations of a varied international academic audience. The role of style is indeed complex, as the word "style" is used to refer to vague stylesheets and guidelines for authors that are aimed at English L1 and EAL writers alike to make their reading clearer for the readership, as has been observed in a study on the standards of journal submission guidelines and the examples it presents:

> Authors are asked to make their manuscripts suitable for a *heterogeneous* readership — please use a clear *style* and avoid jargon' [emphasis added]. Style was also used in place of benchmarks, such as requesting authors improve 'the standard and style of their writing' or adhere to the 'journal style'. (McKinley & Rose 2018, p 8)

It is commonly assumed that linguistic competence automatically implicates stylistic competence yet, as previously pointed out, the latter is more subtle and usually not openly dealt with in the classroom. It is therefore necessary for EAP to be introduced and practiced in gradual and consistent stages, each of which provides more specific insight into the level of academic writing that is expected of them. After assessing the initial level of linguistic competence in General English and addressing any remaining problematic areas, EGAP should be introduced and exercised constantly and both in terms of content during non-language courses and of form through dedicated courses and training with feedback. Upon verifying that the students have gained competence in communicating in an academic context in general, this could then evolve into ESAP courses and training, which will accompany the students' ongoing learning of specific terms and concepts. At this stage, the focus is on refining specialised content in accordance with students' level of preparation of and attention to detail in writing, and therefore to their academic style, which is

> a way of communicating in an academic setting where it is necessary to thoroughly communicate complex ideas in a manner that will make them clearly understandable and less likely to be challenged on the fundamental principles and purposes at their core (although these may be commented on or expanded) (Doerr, 2023, p. 93)

Academic style is therefore a discursive level that is essential in promoting clear, readable and appropriate linguistic and discursive patterns necessary for junior academics to clearly express their research ideas and findings. By adhering to the accepted academic style, their work becomes more acceptable within the international academic community. Awareness of academic style, the main intent of both the theoretical framework and pilot study of the present paper, is essential in enabling students and academics to identify and proofread their own work prior to submission, thereby reducing the possibility of receiving a "major revisions" or "reject" verdict on linguistic grounds.

A further noteworthy factor to consider in the teaching of academic style is the author's need to reconcile two different "mindstyles", i.e. common values, aspirations, and associations of thought, when writing for an international academic readership. Specifically, these consist in the author's individual "mindstyle", shaped by his or her personal reasoning and cultural background, and the collective "mindstyle" of the international academic community, which determines its communicative and discursive expectations (Kaplan, 1980; see also Clyne, 1993; Galtung, 1981). The increasing internationalisation of academic publication and knowledge sharing has drawn more attention to the academic's language and style. As a result, many journals and publishing houses' editors and reviewers now foster a lower threshold of tolerance of "unfamiliar", and therefore "deficient", language and style. Such an attitude, as studies in ERPP have underlined, carries important geopolitical and socio-economic implications as rejecting or delaying publications could have detrimental effects on the careers of academics and the chances for departments and universities in peripheral countries to secure funding, awards and crucial research collaborations (Flowerdew & Habibie, 2022). Often, these deviations from expected linguistic and stylistic patterns may be traced back to subtle and unconscious interferences of students' and academics' L1 and L2 (if their research field involves a language, literature or culture that is neither that of their first language nor English). These are therefore cases of clashes in "academic cultural mindstyles" that consist in a different form of academic writing that reflects the thought and discursive patterns characterising the academic language(s) the student or academic is more familiar with. Like any other

linguistic and discursive convention within a professional community these mindstyles are based on cohesion, uniformity and appropriateness to ensure that information and knowledge is properly conveyed and understood by its members. It is therefore important to enhance EAP and academic writing courses with attention towards the use, knowledge and cultural aspects of academic style. For this reason, it is advisable for academic writing classes – and even more for hypothetical workshops or courses on academic style – to undergo a brief reconnaissance on their unique circumstances and needs, as will be outlined through the pilot study that will follow. In this manner in fact, it will be possible to adjust the balance between theoretical and practical content, as well as the amount of individual and group proofreading, and the possibility and quantity of feedback and/or follow-up one-on-one sessions.

3. Pilot study: PhD seminar on "academic style (self)proofreading"

Building on the aforementioned considerations on academic style, a two-part seminar on "academic style (self)proofreading" constituted the basis for the present pilot study. The seminar was delivered for two days to a heterogeneous class of PhD students attending a doctorate course in linguistics, terminology and intercultural studies at a European university in January 2023.

3.1. Dataset

Before the seminar, the author requested the students to submit a brief abstract that they had either written and submitted or (preferably) intended to submit to a call for papers or an application to a doctoral programme, so as to analyse and treat any possible errors in academic style before the course. This was done to gain a better understanding of the students' starting stylistic competence and detect any relevant or common errors to be brought to attention during the second, practice-based part of the seminar. Furthermore, since many of the abstracts were to be submitted, the students benefitted from receiving feedback on their writing and having the chance to treat their own work and that of others when providing feedback. The treatments were carried out by using the "tracking mode" and the treated abstracts were sent back to the students only after the seminar so as to allow them to engage in the activities without distractions or external influence. Actively working on the errors in class and then receiving detailed feedback as a follow-up consolidated the practice that had been carried out in class.

The first part of the seminar aimed to make the PhD students aware of the current need to hone their academic style and overall writing skills to effectively convey their research and reduce the chances of their work being questioned on linguistic grounds. The intent of the second part of the seminar was to assess the most common stylistic errors made by PhD students whose L2 or L3 is English, and their ability to recognise and treat errors in academic style.

All the students were conducting research in the humanities, a field whose academic style is more varied and less regulated than that of other fields. This leads to a less standardised form of academic style that may result in either greater acceptance of the scholars' subjective academic style (especially in literary and cultural disciplines) or, on the contrary, an even greater expectation that the authors will possess and employ the "proper" English academic style (Doerr, 2023). The matter is even more confusing for junior academics when considering the previously mentioned vague style guidelines that are adopted by many international journals. Furthermore, because research in the humanities is considered less "urgent" compared to fields such as medicine, science and economics, where the "timeliness" of the findings must be safeguarded (Barroso et al., 2006; Vines et al., 2014; Welsh et al., 2018), scholars in the humanities may have to undergo longer peer review, editing and proofreading processes.

The seminar was attended by 16 PhD students, three of whom were in their first year of studies and therefore had not had the chance to attend the academic writing course that is offered by the doctoral programme during the second semester. These students submitted the abstract of their research project instead of that of a paper. The students were specialising in various disciplines, including English linguistics, English literature, English terminology, French linguistics, French literature, French lexicography, French terminology, Pedagogy and Sociology. The field of "linguistics" here refers to studies in Critical Discourse Analysis and similar approaches, which were kept separate from "lexicography" and "terminology" due to their more discursive academic style. In terms of research fields, the students could therefore be divided as indicated in Table 1 below:

Table 1

Students' Field of Research

	Literature	Linguistics	Lexicography/Terminology	Sociology/Pedagogy
English	4 (2 first year)	1	1	0
French	1	3	3	0
Non-language	0	0	0	3 (1 first year)
Total	5	4	4	3

Such a variety in the disciplines illustrated in the table, despite them all pertaining to the field of humanities, leads to the expectation that there will be a difference in the type of common errors found in the abstracts. To the author's knowledge, the extent or nature of such differences in academic style and related errors across disciplines has not been explored. This leads to the first two, closely related research questions:

RQ1: Does the scholar's discipline influence the most common types of errors in academic style?
RQ2: Does the scholar's use of English as the object of his/her research influence the most common type of errors in academic style?

In the second part of the seminar, to enable the students to test their ability to detect and treat errors in academic style, four "areas of interest" indicating the four most common categories of errors in academic style (presented in subsection 3.3.3 of the present paper) were introduced, followed by a series of significant examples of erroneous sentences and phrases for each area of interest. The samples were taken both from the submitted abstracts and from a corpus of research papers (with their abstracts) written by academics in the humanities that the author had previously proofread, gathered and used for previous research. The samples from the students' abstracts and from the scholars' papers were rendered anonymous and mixed before presenting them to the students. This was done to allow the students to remain detached from the texts so they could feel free to treat and comment on them, and to motivate them by proving that the writing of established academics presented the same stylistic errors as theirs. The students observed the samples and pointed out the stylistic errors, motivated their choices and then described the impact that the error had on them as potential readers, before showing how they would treat the error. At that point, the author showed them the treatment that had been performed and therefore confirmed the students' proposal or integrated it if they had proposed other equally feasible solutions. Doing so underlined and validated the multiple manners in which one may improve one's writing, and it gave the author the opportunity to point out differences between solutions and highlight particularly common "traps" and strategies.

After the seminar, the students received the treatment of their abstracts via e-mail, so as to become aware of their most common stylistic errors and the ways in which the teachings and strategies of the seminar could be applied to their own academic writing. This leads to the third and fourth research questions:

RQ3: What were the strengths and limits of the seminar?
RQ4: What are the broader implications of including academic style in academic writing courses for students and teachers?

The subsection that follows will present the aims and multifaceted methodological framework at the basis of the present study, along with the four "areas of interest" where most of the stylistic errors were made. Such errors, consisting of anonymised samples of errors from the students' abstracts, will be treated and analysed in detailed to address *RQ1* and *RQ2* in the discussion of the results. Finally, the overall assessment of the seminar will be commented to answer *RQ3*, followed by final considerations on future research and practice on academic style in response to *RQ4*.

3.1. Aims and methodological framework

As previously mentioned, "academic style", as it is intended in the present study, is different from that referred to in EAP manuals, and anchored in ERPP and academic language learning and teaching rather than in rules on appropriateness and formality. The study of style in linguistics however is complicated by the fact that style is a highly subjective and individual dimension of writing and self-expression, and that reviewers'

impressions and comments may be based on purely linguistic reasons and/or idiosyncratic preferences. The latter is demonstrated by the fact that even academics whose L1 is English may be asked to "revise the language and style" of their papers due to deviations from the reviewer's expectations and preferences (who, paradoxically, may be an EAL user). For this reason, research in academic style proofreading aims at establishing and gradually reworking a framework that is as aligned as possible with the majority of what international journals and publishers would accept. In this manner it reconciles the "objective needs" of the academic community that are "based on facts and may be introduced from the outside" with the learner's "subjective needs" that "involve the personal perspective of the learner as an individual" (Huhta, Vogt, Johnson, & Tulkki, 2013, p. 12). At the same time, it necessarily acknowledges that there will always be a slight margin of deviation constituted by the subjectivity of the author's writing and that of the reviewer's reading. Here, a "reviewer" is the person who is reviewing and checking the text in detail in view of its final publication, and therefore may include multiple figures such as peer reviewers, editors, and language professionals.

Therefore, it is necessary to gather data, resulting insight and feedback from experts in the fields of academic writing and its execution, teaching and assessing. The present study represents an attempt to build on previous research focused on research articles written by EAL academics (Doerr, 2023) and extend it by comparing it with the pilot study on abstracts written by EAL PhD students to verify whether the patterns in academic style and their errors are the same and therefore, through focused teaching and training during their doctoral studies, could be detected and untangled before the students officially start their research publishing activities. Due to the scope and design of the present study, a qualitative descriptive approach aiming at identifying, categorising, describing, and explaining the stylistic errors (Johnson & Christensen, 2000) will be carried out. An applicative and experiential perspective like that adopted in the present pilot study will require a combined methodological framework that considers and analyses both the object of interest, i.e. academic style (subsection 3.3.1) and the means through which it can be 'treated' rather than corrected, i.e. error analysis (subsection 3.3.2), by focusing on "areas of interest" that will be introduced in subsection 3.3.3.

3.3.1. Stylistics
The methodology of stylistics (Burke 2014; Simpson, 2004, 2014; Sorlin, 2014, 2018) is centred on the study of style, with which it is often confused. In fact, "style" is the unique manner in which one expresses oneself, while stylistics starts from the principle that "meaning in language comes about through the linguistic choices that a writer makes (either consciously or unconsciously)" (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010, p. 4). Stylistics originated in literature and rhetoric and officially became a field of study only in the context of 1960's and 1970's Russia Formalism. It thus formulated its theoretical and methodological approaches based on concepts such as "defamiliarization", by which perception of the ordinary is enhanced by making the familiar seem unusual and "foregrounding", when the perceived norms of language are eluded through "parallelism" or "deviation" (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010). Studying style therefore entails observing the patterns underlying what is considered "appropriate" and detecting any formal or functional deviations from such norms (McIntyre & Walker, 2019). Stylistics was then followed by a more contextualised phase and is well suited for exploring expressions of individuality and their underlying functions in relation to the specific and surrounding context. In fact, it "helps us to understand how texts are received and how readers and listeners react to those texts" (Solly, 2016, p. 5) and therefore uses the preliminary empirical data it yields to understand an academic's idiosyncratic mind style in academic writing and how it can be translated and aligned with the collective mind style. In doing so

> a stylistics-oriented approach can provide the necessary scaffolding to facilitate the individual progression of learners and new participants of professional communities toward discursive competence, and it can also be a useful way for members of professional communities to explore new modes of communication in their professional domains. (Solly, 2016, p. 19)

Such translation and alignment is precisely what academics seek upon in order for their research and ideas to be published, and therefore acknowledged and accepted. From a broader perspective, stylistics is therefore connected to "concepts of context, identity and belonging, as well as to notions of appropriateness and accuracy" (Solly, 2016, p. 3).

Stylistics is also characterised by its eclectic and adaptable nature, and the fact that it is interdisciplinary and unruly (Simpson, 2004) has led both to numerous internal subfields and evolutions and to collaborative research approaches and methodological frameworks. In fact, it has been pointed out that

what makes stylistics specific as opposed to disciplinary linguistics is its refusal to define its tools a priori. The resort to particular linguistic tools and theories depends on the nature of the text under study and the questions that the researcher wants her research to answer. (Sorlin, 2014)

Accordingly, the present study will follow this trend by employing a multifaceted methodology uniting stylistics, error analysis and a categorisation of specific areas of interest to be applied to the materials and input of the seminar in order to perform a qualitative analysis and gain better understanding of the current standings of EAP.

3.3.2. Error analysis

The need for data and the observational, rather than evaluative, perspective that is needed to study academic style led to the methodology of error analysis (Allen & Corder, 1974; Canagarajah, 2015; Corder, 1981), a branch of applied linguistics focusing on "the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language" (James, 1998, p. 1). It also makes a point of distinguishing between the performance of English L1 users and EALs:

Error analysis is a method used to document the errors that appear in learner language, determine whether those errors are systematic, and (if possible) explain what caused them. Native speakers of the target language (TL) who listen to the learner language probably find learners' errors very noticeable. [...] While native speakers make unsystematic 'performance' errors (like slips of the tongue) from time to time, second language learners make more errors, and often ones that no native speaker ever makes. An error analysis should focus on errors that are systematic violations of patterns in the input to which the learners have been exposed. Such errors tell us something about the learner's interlanguage, or underlying knowledge of the rules of the language being learned (Corder, 1981, p. 10).

While stylistics focuses on finding and detailing peculiarities in styles, error analysis uses diverging language choices to trace back to the reasoning behind them. This, in turn, is useful in devising ways to make learners aware of and therefore avoid such errors. For this reason, error analysis has been employed to observe and improve students' academic writing, but the focus of these studies is usually on grammar, and therefore concerns "mistakes" more than "errors", as opposed to the present research. The word "error", instead of "mistake", will be adopted, where the term "error" refers to

the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning. A distinction is sometimes made between an error, which results from incomplete knowledge, and a mistake made by a learner when writing or speaking and which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspect of performance. [...] In the study of second and foreign language learning, errors have been studied to discover the processes learners make use of in learning and using a language. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 201)

While mistakes are indisputable and can be understood and corrected when pointed out, errors in style do not affect the grammaticality and correctness of the text, but rather its readability and ability to be clearly understood and appreciated by the academic discourse community. This is why observations by reviewers on "mistakes" are clear, while those on "errors" not so much, as the proper style that would be most suited to avoiding them has not been explicitly taught to students. Moreover, the reviewers themselves may not be able to clearly motivate the reason for their observation, either because they are also EALs or because they are English L1 users without any experience in linguistics or stylistics. This is because "the native speaker of English of course has a great deal of intuitive knowledge about linguistic appropriateness and correctness [...] which he has amassed over the years" (Crystal & Davy, 1969, p. 5). For this reason, the focus here will not be on "correction" but rather the description, explanation and "treatment" of interlingual errors (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 201-202) based on transfer.

Accordingly, the pilot study followed the stages of the "error analysis" procedure:

– Collection of a sample of learner language;
– Identification of errors;

- Description of errors;
- Explanation of errors;
- Evaluation of errors. (Allen & Corder, 1974)

The novelty of the area of academic style and its categorisation and treatment are in line with the trial-and-error approach that has been hitherto necessary to improve academic writing, and therefore academic style. This is the manner in which past experts have managed to reach their level of linguistic and stylistic competence but, by detecting, shedding light on and treating errors, it is also that in which current research on stylistics may create and improve a framework of categories of error to be built on and improved.

3.3.3. Areas of interest

The intent of the qualitative investigation of the present study is to verify the feasibility and potential of integrating academic style into PhD students' EAP and academic writing training and to identify, categorise, describe and explain the most common stylistic errors. This was done by considering the genre of abstracts where English is an L2 or even an L3. In order to better collect and observe the errors, the following "areas of interest", or general categories of stylistic errors, were considered:

- necessity to add information that is obvious to the non-native author but not to the reader (henceforth referred to as 'addition of extra text');
- deletion of redundant information and forms that represent instances of language transfer from the non-native author's L1 (henceforth referred to as 'deletion of redundant text');
- shifting and repositioning of clauses and phrases in line with the audience's expectations (henceforth referred to as 'shifting and repositioning');
- misuse in appropriateness and register (henceforth referred to as 'appropriateness and register') (Doerr, 2023, p. 146).

The analysis of the collected material will be divided by area of interest and commented in detail by considering the overall number and those made by the English, French and Non-language groups. Similar errors will be grouped and explained, and the relevance of the area of interest for future courses will be assessed.

4. Analysis and discussion

Upon collecting and treating the 16 abstracts that had been submitted before the course, the errors may be divided based on the area of interest and on the group of PhD students ("English", "French", "Non-language"). The number of students of each group that committed the errors was also counted, so as to understand if it was an individual or collective issue. Table 2 below illustrates the results of such a division:

Table 2
Number of stylistic errors per group (number of errors/number of students who committed the errors)

	Addition	Deletion	Shifting	Appropriateness
English group (6 students)	6/3	5/3	7/4	2/2
French group (7 students)	4/4	8/5	14/4	2/2
Non-language (3 students)	0/0	6/3	3/2	1/1
Total (16 students)	10/7	19/11	24/10	5/5

The data in the table demonstrate that "deletion of extra text" and "shifting and repositioning" were the two most common stylistic errors, both in general and in the number of students who made them. This is also significant because these areas are usually not extensively explored in traditional EAP courses and students do not have the opportunity to test these skills because EAP materials tend to target a standardised international audience. As a result, they will certainly have to constitute the first and most practiced areas of study and practice in the future with the assistance of teachers and instructors who have experience with both languages and their possible transfers.

4.1. Addition of extra text

Interestingly, among the four categories of stylistic errors, the "addition of extra text" error (10 errors in total, 4 for the "French" group and 6 for the "English" group) requiring the insertion of words (the underlined words in the examples) to 'fill in blanks' that are perceived in reading was both the 'easiest' and the 'hardest' to detect. Since these blanks were to be filled by small, functional words, such as prepositions and connecting words/expressions that are typical of academic English, this error was considered the easiest to treat for students who were used to adjusting sentences according to traditional English grammar rules. At the same time, their omissions were not perceived by the students as they would by potential reviewers and readers, especially if present in multiple instances. While this may be due in part to the fact that the texts consisted in abstracts, which were therefore subjected to word limits, it is also found in research articles to reduce the number of words and supposedly 'lighten' the load on the sentence. Such is the case of the first three examples below:

1) enable the use of a language that is more inclusive [...] <u>by</u> avoiding the "generic" or "neutral" masculine (#7)
2) <u>thus</u> underlining the effects (#13)
3) a corpus through which X's language [...], <u>as well as</u> the use and distribution of collocates and metaphors (#3)

Examples 4) and 5) present a more serious form of errors needing the addition of extra text compared to the previous three. In fact, in these cases the use of a comma to divide the two phrases is understandable in the students' L1 because it can be inferred by the rest of the sentence. In English however the second phrase may indicate either the result of the fulfilment of the first phrase (with "thus", similarly to "therefore"), or the manner in which the circumstances of the first phrase take place (with "by"). Here the lack of a word may render the sentence ambiguous:

4) the dangerous X that puts humans in a subaltern position, thus/by carrying out a process of (#2)
5) at last annihilates itself, thus/by disappearing (#5)

The final three examples of this section share the treatment of the error by adding a relative clause. These represent situations in which the sentences were not ambiguous *per s*e and could be acceptable, especially in the case of 6), where the omission of "which is" is compensated by its substitution with a comma. They are therefore true cases of "errors", and not mistakes, that are detected on a subtle level and were treated simply to better 'flesh out' the rhythm of the overall sentence.

6) X's social media presence, which is showcased through a website (#3)
7) appearance of multiple variants and paraphrases that are likely to prove (#11)
8) one of the X problems that were encountered (#12)

This category of error was most common among the students in English-related disciplines, not out of lack of linguistic competence, but because the students presupposed that the reader would be able to insert the additional information. When presented too frequently however, excessive elisions make the text hard to understand.

4.2. Deletion of redundant text

The opposite error to the lack of text, i.e. instances that required the "deletion of redundant text", occurred more frequently, with 19 total errors within the collection of abstracts (5 for the "English" group, 8 for the "French" group and 6 for the "Non-language" group). These errors (whose treatment is indicated by the strikethroughs in the samples) could be divided into three large groups, starting with the one that accounted for 11 cases, i.e the deletion of redundant determined article "the". Only a few of these samples are proposed here but in general they may be traced back to two reasons: the desire to completely structure a formal sentence to the extent of a 'hyperinsertion' as in example 9), or an interference of the student's L1 (and L2 in the case of the students of the "French" group), as in 10), 11), and 12). These are significant exemplifications of

the concept of "errors", as this redundance does not prevent the comprehension of the text, although it can unnecessarily lengthen or weigh the text down or frustrate the reader, especially when present in multiple and repeated instances:

9) the advent, the boom and the appropriation of social media, (#1)
10) It sounds the alarms of the potential X (#2)
11) the corpus shows how the X speeches on ecological and energy transitions (#11)
12) the research resorts to one of ~~the~~ corpus linguistics' tools (#12)

The second series of examples is more evident to a reviewer or reader and consists of semantic redundancies, where there is a noun + noun or a verb + verb structure next to one another within a phrase. Such expressions are also common in the students' L1 and L2 (in the case of the "French" group), and at a first glance would simply appear to be a consequence of interlinguistic interference, as in examples 13) and 14), where the deleted segments take on a very 'formulaic' form.

13) a reflection on the importance of the role of X athletes (#8)
14) reflect on the centrality of the body in the conception of A [novel] and B [novel] by X (#5)

However, given the position of the two parts, it is also reasonable to believe that some of these stylistic errors were a result of the student's intent to enforce or better frame the presentation of something that was considered important. Examples 15), 16), and 17) therefore could be considered "communication-based errors […] resulting from strategies of communication" (Richards & Schmidt 2010, p. 201–2), and therefore an attempt to emphasise the message and make it more formal at the same time:

15) we will try to understand how the social media "X" impacts language usage (#1)
16) that are able to duplicate and replace humans (#2)
17) The guidelines of X on A and B [issues], for example, aim to seek neutral and inclusive solutions (#7)

The final example 18) of "deletion of redundant text" may be positioned on the threshold between an error and a mistake, in that the "ends up" cannot be used with "in" but its use is precisely aimed at maintaining the 'flow' of the sentence and therefore the quality of the academic style of the writing. It seems to be a moment of indecision between "end up + verb-ing" and "end in noun" that was mixed but seems to be a "developmental error reflecting natural stages of development" (Richards & Schmidt 2010, p. 201– 2). This indicates that academic style is a level of grammar that may grow instinctively with practice in reading and writing but that it must be directly addressed in order to prevent it from becoming a dismissed mistake instead of a promising error.

18) a […] creature – ends up in personifying both X and Y (#4)

This area was particularly important, in that it was equally distributed among the three groups of students for different reasons: the "English" group made the more 'creative' errors and hinted at an aspiration to use more refined English; the "French" group understandably were influenced by the interference of their L1 and L2, while the "Non-language" group made errors consisting of the redundant use of 'filler' words that recalls that of their L1 and is also probably motivated by their lack of practice compared to the other two groups. This area is particularly important, in that it is has a strong "defamiliarising" effect, making its errors easily detected by reviewers and readers, just as they were easy for the students to detect during the second part of the seminar.

4.3. Shifting and repositioning
This was the area of interest that resulted in the greatest number of errors that were evenly divided among groups and students (24 total, of which 7 in the "English" group, 14 in the "French" group, and 3 in the "Non-language" group), which demonstrates that it is a common issue that therefore should certainly be tackled in any future research or course in academic style and academic writing in general. When analysing errors in "shifting and repositioning" however, there were common trends within the category that were based on

different reasons and had to be treated differently. The first group of these, which may be seen in examples 19) (where the past participle "created" used as an adjective unites it with its related noun "corpus"), 20) (with the deletion of a distracting phrase between dashes), and 21) (where the pre-positioning of "X" follows the internationally recognised expectation of the airport's nominal reference) involve the pre-positioning of clauses and words (past participle verbs and even a name in example 21) before a noun. By doing so they are converted into adjectives that are integrated into the noun phrase of the noun that they now more clearly and closely define and compact the flow of the sentence instead of interrupting it.

19)   the created corpus created makes it possible (#11)
20)   with regard to the explicit or implicit links – explicit or implicit – that they entertain (#13)
21)   the X international airport of [city] X (#15)

The second group of repositionings consists, on the contrary, in post-positioning information introduced in contained clauses so as to not separate the verb of the sentence from the object(s) to which it refers. This is another example of a "communication-based error" because the students had intentionally structured the sentence in this manner so as to ensure that the verb would be directly accompanied by extra information that refers to it. This reasoning is a hypercorrection and a strategic choice at the same time, but it proves that the students are unaware of the detachment that it creates in the SVO syntactic structure, one that should be maintained even at the expense of distancing extra details and repositioning them towards the end, where they remain isolated.

22)   signifiers that call ~~to mind~~ peculiar X dichotomies <u>to mind</u> (#2)
23)   revival that involved ~~almost entirely~~ poetry production <u>almost entirely</u> (#4)
24)   in order to note~~, in a diachronic perspective,~~ the changes that have occurred over the centuries <u>in a diachronic perspective</u>. (#13)

The shifting treatment may also even concern academic phrases and more extensive parts of the sentence from the middle of the sentence to the beginning, like in 25), or to the end like in 26) and 27). This not only has stylistic implications but it also re-establishes the repositioned clauses as 'signpost language', thus enabling them to enhance the sentence rather than to distract.

25)   <u>It is my contention that</u> the way that X bridges classical and contemporary elements~~, it is my contention,~~ provides new insights (#9)
26)   ~~Focusing on issues of X, Y and Z,~~ this paper analyses the importance of language as a tool to negotiate one's identity and relationship with the self and the world <u>by focusing on issues of X, Y, and Z</u>. (#3)
27)   We will proceed with the manual extraction ~~from X~~ of some headwords referring to the lexical units mentioned above <u>from X</u> (#10)

The variety of this area of interest also resulted in the great variety of treatments that were proposed by the students during the seminar. This type of error decisively affects the readability of the text and is influenced by the students' perception of the mobility of these parts of the sentence, which is greater in their L1 than in English and in the L2 of the students of the "French" group. Such perception should therefore be taken into consideration and practiced in courses on academic writing within the class and considering the background of the students, which is something that EAP materials cannot and do not take into account.

4.4. Appropriateness and register
The concept of "appropriateness", as seen when exploring the methodology of stylistics, is the word that is most frequently associated with style in general, and with academic style, including that of academics whose L1 is English. Nevertheless, errors in appropriateness and register were the least common in the abstracts, with only 5 occurrences that were equally distributed among the groups. This denoted students' awareness of this dimension regardless of their discipline of choice and regular exposure to informal academic language and style.

28)   In addition ~~to that~~, the French language (#1)

29) ~~In this connection, t~~ The proposed paper focuses on X's novel (#4)
30) ~~Our work will be developed in this way,~~ After presenting the macrostructure and microstructure of the dictionary, ~~we~~ our work will focus on the management and ordering of the various lemmas. (#10)
31) From ~~In~~ a geopolitical ~~key~~ perspective (#15)
32) These results can be further explained ~~because of~~ in light of interdiscursivity (#16)

These examples are interestingly all connected with academic phraseology, which is expected to be passively learnt, and even memorised, and then seamlessly inserted into the text. This is also proof of the students' acquired competence in topics that are commonly covered in academic writing courses and therefore their need to proceed to the next level and improve in academic style before being officially introduced to the academic discourse community.

5. Final considerations

The aim of the present study was to explore a gap in EAP and academic writing courses, i.e. academic style, and demonstrate the importance of introducing it to students rather than expecting them to passively learn it through trial and error. In order to do so, the initial theoretical considerations were followed by a pilot study conducted at a European PhD degree course and in a class of 16 PhD students. The analysed abstracts were submitted by the students and treated by the author before the seminar which included the students' active participation in order to (self)proofread texts and treat errors in academic style. The treatments of the submitted abstracts have yielded some interesting points worth exploring in future research, starting with the first and second research questions:

RQ1: Does the scholar's discipline influence the most common types of errors in academic style?
RQ2: Does the scholar's use of English as the object of his/her research influence the most common type of errors in academic style?

Although the students were working in different fields in the humanities, there were a series of interdisciplinary intersections that prove that, while academic style may change greatly based on research areas (e.g. law, economics, medicine, the humanities), it exhibits more common traits in relation to linguistic competence rather than the proximity of their disciplines. The fact that the students used English, as opposed to French or other languages, as an L2 greatly contributed to the type of error in academic style. In fact, the students specialising in French literature, linguistics or terminology/lexicography made more stylistic errors in syntax, especially in the area of "shifting", thus interrupting the 'flow' of the sentence. This reflects the greater flexibility of French, and neo-Latin languages in general, when constructing sentences and determining the order of presented information. The intent was to pre-position pieces of information that were considered more interesting, important, or related to the previous phrase of the sentence, but its translation into English becomes quite difficult and frustrating to read. Indeed, this was the case of examples 13, 14, 15, 19. 20, which all were from the "French" and "Non-language" groups and therefore did not consider English their object of study but rather merely a vehicular language. Another common error based on discipline was found in the abstracts of students of the "Non-language" group: in these texts, which tended to be the shortest, there were compound errors within the same sentence. This demonstrates the students' almost exclusive use of their L1 in academic contexts, and therefore their limited use of academic English compared to their colleagues specialising in language studies. This may be demonstrated in examples 33) and 34) below:

33) This contribution ~~was born~~ stems from the need to analyze ~~the~~ emissions deriving from noises caused by ~~the~~ airports, in particular the X [name] international airport of Y [city] ~~X~~, thus underlining the effects ~~that~~ of noises on ~~cause~~ over ~~the~~ neighboring ~~countries~~ towns and cities. (#15)
34) From a methodological point of view, a ~~mixed approach will be used (~~mixed method approach~~)~~, which is necessary to integrate X coming from A and from B and C realities, will be used/implemented. (#8)

These differences in overall disciplines and similarities in language use and style provide stimulating starting points for future research and teaching: the first one lies in the potential knowledge exchange that

could take place in heterogeneous small classes of EAL students who, by treating and discussing errors together, may help one another while practicing their skills as writers and as reviewers and proofreaders. The second point is that knowing common areas of errors based on disciplines could help teachers and instructors plan more useful lessons and exercises and have a better idea of their needs. With time and experience, this could lead to the preparation of materials to be used and adapted to ESAP writing courses. The ideal teacher is one with knowledge of and experience in the students' L1 (and therefore its "cultural mindstyle") as well as English academic writing and proofreading/reviewing, but the collaboration between two or more instructors with these skills (e.g. an expert in academic writing and a language professional with experience in proofreading academic texts) could create an ideal setting for improving EAP courses and giving EAL students a better idea of what to expect when they approach the academic discourse community. In conclusion, addressing the following question:

RQ3: What were the strengths and limits of the seminar?

The two-part seminar demonstrated the perceived importance of academic style and its proofreading, as well as the presence of areas of interest that are more in need of attention, i.e. "deletion of extra text" and "shifting and repositioning". It also was encouraging in showing that many of the students' errors were developmental and communication-based, and therefore proof of attempted creative use of language rather than lack of competence. Further studies need to be carried out to confirm this and to verify whether different departments or research fields may yield different results.

As far as limits are concerned, the seminar focused on abstracts due to time constraints but future research and the observation of longer texts would certainly be useful in detecting further areas of interest and comparisons among classes. Longer workshops and seminars would allow the study of longer texts, which could yield materials and insight on further areas of interest. Courses would also benefit from one-to-one follow-up sessions. As regards the final research question:

RQ4: What are the broader implications of including academic style in academic writing courses for students and teachers?

The present study has proven that awareness of and practice in academic style is important in improving academic writing. In fact it ensures that the "language and style" (Kapp, Albertyne, & Frick, 2011) of the paper is in line with the knowledge and communicative needs of the international academic discourse community the junior and EAL academics are approaching and entrusting their work to, since "one of the keys to understanding how an organisation works is to understand its systems of communication" (Huhta, Vogt, Johnson & Tulkki, 2013, p. 5). This can be applied both to EGAP and ESAP, as well as to individual academics and multicultural higher education learning contexts. As the present study has demonstrated, the errors and necessary treatments that may be found when focusing on academic style (self)proofreading change according to the learner's ESAP and the perceived and real needs of the discipline, as well as other possible constraining factors (e.g. number of authors and word limit, terminological and discursive requirements of the discipline, presence and use of other academic genres). The peculiarities that are found through the observation and treatment of academic texts produced within the field at hand should be recorded, categorised and integrated into EAP and academic writing courses so as to train students and junior academics to write and gain insight on a manner that is appropriate for their specialised audience. The presented material and related feedback resulting from such courses could, in turn, become data to be gathered into corpora and analysed both qualitatively and – in time – quantitatively. While this is simpler when studying mistakes in vocabulary, grammar, syntax and texts that undermine the communicative power – if not even the ability to understand the text – it is much more difficult for learners to detect errors in style. This is because they have not been explored in previous studies and exercises, so it may be hard to see through the learner's "academic cultural mindstyle" filter that they are not even aware of. This is where the assistance and competence of instructors and teachers come into play and may stem from various types of experience: teaching and correcting/treating others' work, writing and reviewing their own academic papers, and proofreading, copyediting and revising the writing of others. These three forms of experience, which may be united in one person or shared among multiple professionals who assist and support one another through their exchange in knowledge, endow them with particular sensitivity towards stylistically appropriate writing and "insider knowledge" that are often more important than sole competence as a L1 English speaker and user.

In conclusion, constant research on and improvement of the errors in academic style among students and academics from different disciplinary, cultural and linguistic backgrounds would enable the expansion and customisation of EAP courses and specialised seminars based on the needs of the class and individuals. Moreover, they would greatly benefit from the linguistic/stylistic competence of teachers and instructors whose experience in reading, correcting and treating provide effective support for students, regardless of their L1. A third and final category whose experience and collaboration would be invaluable in understanding the process of "academic style proofreading" is that of language professionals and reviewers actively engaged in the academic editorial community. They could present the perspective of the receiver of the submitted text and enable students to understand the "academic mindstyle" and accepted academic style of the international academic community of their discipline of choice from an internal perspective. The combination of the competences, research and insight of academics, EAP teachers and instructors and professionals from the academic editorial industry would present the most complete and experiential approach to learning academic writing, and academic style in general. This is especially crucial in the current academic context, where the standards of academic writing have been noticeably raised and academics are increasingly pressed to disseminate and share innovative and impactful ideas and knowledge.

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The use of travel narratives to foster intercultural sensitivity and language awareness in the ESP and EAP classrooms: The case of *A House in Sicily* by Daphne Phelps and its Italian translation *Una Casa in Sicilia*[1]

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ABSTRACT

EN | This study argues for the use of English travel narratives and their interlingual translations as vehicles to foster intercultural sensitivity and language awareness in the EAP classroom. Both travel writing and interlingual translation have been, in fact, successfully used in academic environments, as shown by an increasing scholarly interest over the past decades. Moreover, the relationship between travel and language can be explored, in Cronin's words, "in the context of a nomadic theory of translation" where "the translating agent like the traveller straddles the borderline between the cultures" (Cronin, 2000, p. 2). In light of these considerations, this study performs a comparative analysis of Daphne Phelps's British travel narrative *A House in Sicily* (1999) and its Italian translation *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001) to show how travel writing (also in translation) may be an excellent opportunity for a reappraisal of what literature may have to offer in the EAP context.

Key words: TRAVEL, WRITING, TRANSLATION, PHELPS, EAP

ES | Este estudio aboga por el uso de narrativas de viajes en inglés y sus traducciones interlingüísticas como vehículos para fomentar la sensibilidad intercultural y la conciencia lingüística en el aula de EAP. Tanto las narrativas de viajes como las traducciones interlingüísticas se han utilizado con éxito en entornos académicos, tal como demuestra el creciente interés por su estudio en las últimas décadas. Además, la relación entre los viajes y la lengua puede explorarse, en palabras de Cronin, "in the context of a nomadic theory of translation" donde "the translating agent like the traveller straddles the borderline between the cultures" (Cronin, 2000, p. 2). A la luz de estas consideraciones, este estudio lleva a cabo un análisis comparativo de las narrativas de viajes británicas de Daphne Phelps en *A House in Sicily* (1999) y su traducción italiana *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001) para mostrar cómo la narrativa de viajes (también traducida) puede ser una excelente oportunidad para reevaluar qué puede ofrecer este tipo de literatura al contexto de EAP.

Palabras clave: VIAJES, ESCRITURA, TRADUCCIÓN, PHELPS, EAP

IT | Il presente studio presenta la narrativa di viaggio inglese e la sua traduzione interlingue come veicoli di una possibile spinta verso una sensibilità interculturale e una consapevolezza linguistica all'interno delle classi EAP. Tanto la narrativa di viaggio che la traduzione sono, infatti, stati usati con successo in diversi contesti accademici come dimostrato dal crescente interesse scientifico nei loro riguardi negli ultimi decenni. In più, la relazione tra viaggio e lingua può essere esplorata, secondo Cronin, "in the context of a nomadic theory of translation" where "the translating agent like the traveller straddles the borderline between the cultures" (Cronin, 2000, p. 2). Alla luce di tali considerazioni, questo lavoro propone un'analisi comparata tra la narrativa di viaggio *A House in Sicily* (1999) di Daphne Phelps e la sua traduzione italiana *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001) al fine di dimostrare come scrivere il viaggio (anche in traduzione) possa rappresentare un'eccellente opportunità di rivalutazione di quanto la letteratura possa offrire in contesti di apprendimento EAP.

Parole chiave: VIAGGIO, SCRITTURA, TRADUZIONE, PHELPS, EAP

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[1] Sections 1, 2, and 2.1 were written by Annalisa Bonomo. Sections 3, 4, 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 were written by Simona Agata Giuffrida. Section 5 was written by both the authors.

1. Introduction

An important strand in the development of successful ESP (English for Special Purposes) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes) programs implies what Richards et al. called "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities" (1992, p. 242). If so, the needs to be taken into account in devising syllabuses, materials and courses involve the subject matter and specific language skills. However, as Jordan notes, learners may feel they have some "wants" too, "which may conflict with the views of sponsors, course designers, etc." (1997, p. 26). For example, "a language course may focus on reading and writing because that will be the core of the subject-course the students will be attending. The students, however, may feel they want to develop their spoken English more, as this is their weakest skill." (Jordan, 1997, p. 26) At first sight, "needs and wants" seem to follow logical procedures, being steadily interpreted as static and inflexible. However, this engenders from the false assumption that learning itself can be only a systematic *affaire*. On the contrary, studies in cross-cultural disciplines and a *non-essentialist paradigm*, as sustained by Victoria and Sangiamchit, recognise that "individuals can simultaneously belong to different small cultures (Holliday, 1999), such as a sports club, a volunteer organisation, and an occupational membership. (…) Furthermore, there is recognition that an individual's identity is not about 'some fundamental essence of character' but rather 'a continuous process accomplished through actions and words' (Baxter, 2016, p. 28, qtd. by Victoria and Sangiamchit 2021, pp. 4-5)[2].

Accordingly, the multifaceted nature of culture defies teachers' choices as regards their instructional methods, intended tasks, and materials, especially when dealing with foreign language learning and intercultural competence. In this respect, ESP/EAP environments may incorporate some intercultural activities in order to help students to fulfil what Zaghar calls "three elemental aims, cognitive, affective and behavioural" (2017, p. 505), and teachers are expected to design syllabuses based on the improvement of their learners' intercultural aptitudes and managerial skills. This leads to a wealth of published books and articles[3] on the implementation of teaching methods and learning tasks, which can stand on students' perceptions of their communicative needs, learning-centred approaches, and the multidimensional nature of the teaching/learning process. Indeed, the main trends of ESP have been variously investigated in the last decades, in order to outline, as Ostbye noted in 1997, all the possible boundaries "between ESP and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), or ESP and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), such as the classification purposed under the aegis of the British Council in 1975" (p. 94).

However, within such a "repertoire of options" (Hyland, 2004, p.46), in the 1980s Swales (1981) in particular demonstrated how a *genre* perspective could offer some interesting insights and meaningful tools for thoughtful teaching of communicative events even in ESP and, consequently, in EAP contexts, as content and style are relevant issues of *genre* analysis in ESP, drawing on "concepts of community and social purposes" (Hyland, 2004, p. 44), and thus showing individuals within their own frameworks while they are telling their stories. For these reasons, an ESP and EAP approach to *genre* in teaching may offer teachers and students possible advantages, such as:

- An efficient way of identifying the texts learners will need to write in a particular context;
- A means of sequencing and grouping texts;
- A description of the typical features of key genres that students can draw on for their own communicative purposes in their professional or academic lives;
- An ability to understand what happens in real-world-interactions and a means to participate in these interactions;
- A way of seeing how genres are interrelated in real life and an authentic context for developing skills in a range of spoken and written genres;
- An understanding of the roles and purposes of writers and readers – why someone would write and read the genre. (Hyland, 2004, pp. 46-47).

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[2] Conversely, *the essentialist model* sees individuals as "passive bearers of a stable set of characteristics and identities that they share with a group of people. This view is associated with a large culture, nation-based perspective favouring geographic borders as a way of conceptualising culture," see Victoria and Sangiamchit, 2021, p. 4.
[3] See, among the others, Guardado and Light 2020; , Hafner and Miller, 2019; Hyland and Wong 2019.

As genres are not strictly rule-governed systems, they also include a series of choices and constraints that can be effectively incorporated to ESP and EAP language classrooms. Furthermore, some genres in literature can be seen as useful vehicles more than others in fostering intercultural sensitivity and language awareness.

In light of these considerations, this paper investigates English travel narratives and their Italian translations according to a "revisited" genre perspective that establishes literature as a vital intercultural tool in ESP and EAP classes and, more generally, in language teaching. In fact, both travel writing and interlingual translation have been successfully used in academic environments, as demonstrated by an increasing scholarly interest over the past decades (see, among others, Bayyurt & Akcan, 2015; Beaven & Borghetti, 2014; Buden et. al., 2009; Byram & Feng, 2006; Wu, 2021). Against this background, the study performs a comparative analysis of Daphne Phelps's British travel narrative *A House in Sicily* (1999) and its Italian translation *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001). Venuti's strategies of domestication and foreignization, together with the "deforming"[4] tendencies of Berman's negative analytic of translation, will be key tools in evaluating Phelps's novel and its Italian version. Thus, the potential EAP learner will be made aware of all the critical interculturally-sensitive areas of the source text and how these are mirrored in translation. In the same vein, the study will illustrate how travel writing (also in translation) can be interestingly explored as a good way to serve EAP learners' needs, being, as such, an excellent opportunity for a reappraisal of what literature may have to offer in the EAP context.

2. The use of travel narrative as EAP curriculum renewal

Literature is rarely found in ESP or EAP syllabuses or EFL (English as a Foreign Language) textbooks. This stems from the general belief that a focus on literary items and vocabulary could even hinder the language learning process. On the contrary, literature and English language teaching have always been intertwined, especially when asked to foster learners' language awareness, critical thinking and intercultural understanding. In Tatzl's words,

> Foreign language education (FLE) and general English teaching have traditionally comprised literature as a form of art in classrooms. According to Ur, students in FLE should learn to use the language to build personal relationships, work in business, and embark on further studies. These goals are rather universal, as also ESP aims at such competencies, but the texts used in general English and ESP differ fundamentally. Literature in ESP is closely linked to reading for information and comprises subject-specific texts (e.g., from biology or mathematics), journalistic texts (e.g., from newspapers or magazines), instructional texts (e.g., from manuals, guidelines, or standards), and descriptive texts (e.g., from travel guides or commercial brochures). Literature in general English, however, is often connected with reading for pleasure and rests on popular literature (e.g., contemporary fiction) and literature as art in the forms of poetry, drama, and prose in the canon. Notwithstanding this established and reasonable demarcation, there may be *niche roles* of literature in ESP contexts as well. (2020, Introduction, *emphasis added*)

Of course, there may be possible disadvantages of using literature in ESP/EAP classes, as it may generally involve difficult and bookish language and long texts that are time-consuming to teach. Moreover, the cultural context of some works may be alien to students, leading them to consider literature irrelevant for their academic tasks. In contrast, fiction abounds with descriptions of scenery and landscapes, which may be strongly beneficial to certain ESP/EAP goals, as they may support descriptive writing tasks in the context of travel-related activities or advertising in business. For example, in Jiménez's words, "most contemporary travel books depict the changing conditions of modernising societies, reflecting the philosophical and existential views of the traveller. (…) Moreover, most travel books offer a vehicle for students to challenge assumptions, explore various critical topics, and discuss new ideas from diverse perspectives" (2001, p. 85).

Numerous studies have reported that the relationship between reading and writing is a beneficial one, both for native and non-native English-speaking learners (see Gillespie & Lerner, 2008; Gonzalez and Miller, 2020; Grabe 2003; Strickland, Mandel Morrow, 2000). Thus, a literature-based syllabus can design cognitive strategies for EAP students in terms of the use *of* the language, thinking *in* the language and valuing *the* language

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[4] The expression deformed refers to the system of textual deformation in TTs that prevents the foreign coming through. Berman's examination of the forms of deformation has been called negative analytic of translation (see Berman (1985) 2000, pp. 284-297).

they are learning. Moreover, literature is an entrancing and entertaining guide in building vocabulary, an essential skill for ESP and EAP students in improving their composing process and syntactic flexibility. In fact, according to Perkins and Jiang (2020), the use of literary texts in EAP classes requires teachers to use a broad spectrum of techniques in order to foster the conscious use of reading selections and regulate class discussions about them. Such a battery of tests might include the following:

> (1) cloze exercises; (2) teaching lexical sets and semantic functions; (3) establishing set discriminations; (4) practice infrequently occurring collocational groups of particular fields; (5) identification of the base form of words; (6) affix drills; (7) paired-associate compositions; (8) synonym and antonym exercises; and (9) contextualised practice with word forms (for further information, see Wright, 2015, pp. 160-161). (Perkins & Jian, 2020, p. 52)

Indeed, these are all language activities of higher education contexts where English is the medium of an elaborate language experience that advocates some gradual release of responsibility from a teacher-centred instruction to a student-centred high performance. However, while EAP generally deals with "the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language" (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p. 8), academic writing (and teaching) is not as rigid or literate as it used to be. Admittedly, it is distinguished by the following characteristics:

– EAP is goal directed – students learn English because they need it;
– EAP courses are based on needs analyses – which specify clearly what students have to do in English;
– Most EAP courses are fixed term – short professional courses or longer foundation courses – in preparation for academic courses;
– Students may need specialist language, but not necessarily – courses are defined by the activities the students will engage in.
– A very high level of proficiency may not be required - students need to succeed in their aims. (Robinson 1991, pp. 2-5) qtd. by Frydrychova Klimova (2012, pp. 311-312)

Nevertheless, in terms of dealing with setting up curriculum renewals, EAP programs may significantly vary due to different organizing constraints and perspectives on language learning. These may involve change and innovations in order to nurture a receptive working and learning environment, which stimulates students' willingness and responsiveness to their needs. Certainly, "the extent to which innovations are accepted by potential adopters is strongly influenced by perceived attributes of innovations. Some attributes (e.g. visibility, trialability, feasibility) lead to positive attitudes, whereas others (e.g. complex) can create immediate barriers" (Stoller, p. 2001).

For these reasons, can the use of narrative and literary texts be discussed in terms of EAP curriculum renewal? If EAP methodology and pedagogy go further in writing about teaching, the answer may be yes, especially when actively encouraging learners in an EAP environment who are most typically adults and usually have "more maturity, more personal agency, and a greater sense of purpose" (Bell, 2022, p. 6). The way language is used on particular occasions cannot be wholly predetermined by the untroubled theoretical issues of those EAP concerns "generally regarded as a hand-maiden to those 'proper' disciplines which are more directly engaged in the serious business of constructing knowledge or discovering truth" (Hyland, 2006, p. 34). As such, the use of literary texts in EAP contexts can be evaluated in terms of pointless concerns or exceedingly ambitious tasks; however, it is certainly worth mentioning in terms of possible EAP curriculum renewal. More specifically, travel narrative implicitly involves skills such as self-awareness, managing conflict and stereotypes and evaluating cultural differences, all things that are much needed in contexts of student mobility and higher education. In addition, while many readers believe the most important focus of travel narrative deals with specific places or definite destinations, as Carr points out, "works of travel are also about sampling the tastes of other times and places, of course, and yet they are also about looking for something else. The best of them appear to extend well beyond the constraints of travel, a term that seems almost incidental to the writers' intention" (Carr, 2004, p. 59). As the quote highlights, it is a matter of definition. At first, determining what travel narratives are and what they are not may seem to be a relatively straightforward matter; however, it is not. Unquestionably, as Burgin notes, "travel narrative means a book in which one or more travellers take a voluntary trip to one or more places and share their personal thoughts, perceptions, reactions, and experiences. These narratives are intended to be read and enjoyed in a linear manner, from start to finish, and not referred

to simply on an as needed basis" (2013, p. XIV). In the same way, travel implicitly involves questions of identity and self, and other relationships, pointing up how complex and strongly heterogeneous these notions may be.

2.1. Interlingual translation of travel narrative in EAP classrooms

Critical writing on travel should also offer some interesting room for the relationships between travellers and languages. The use of appropriate language choices, a focus on practical writing exercises and the discussion of students' experience of travel in terms of language knowledge and practice, confirms travel as being clearly endowed with high educational potential. Likewise, studies in travel writing now adopt critical positions that account for competing forces and fruitful domains of scholarly and academic inquiry. They negotiate with "translation, transculturation, cosmopolitanism and world literature as symptoms of the globalised university's growth ambitions" (Culbert, 2018, p. 346). This wealth of material intersects conditions of intercultural knowledge, which makes texts converge between languages and cultures; such a crossing frontier can fruitfully work in EAP learning contexts as well. In fact, as Bassnett notes,

> Moreover, just as translators exercise a high degree of individual creativity in their rewriting, so the travel writer negotiates between cultures, bringing to a target audience his or her subjective impressions of a journey undertaken. This role is akin to that of the translator, who is, above all, a mediator between cultures, a *Janus-faced being* who inhabits two different worlds and whose task is to bring those worlds into contact. (Bassnett, 2019, p. 550, *emphasis added*).

When dealing with translating travel narratives, creativity, rewriting and mediation are all translation strategies specifically engaged in abridgments, paratextual commentary, or localising practices, according to specific contingencies of the target audience. As such, translation-based activities in ESP/EAP teaching/ learning contexts can also disclose important issues that have been hitherto very scarcely researched for a seemingly obvious but unsubstantiated reason. As Mažeikienė argues in fact, "translation as a teaching method was associated with the grammar-translation method for a very long time and, consequently, the use of translation in teaching a foreign language (and the use of L1 in L2 instruction) have been unduly criticised" (2019, pp. 513-514). Rather, Leonardi (2009) maintains that "translation is more and more frequently evaluated as a positive form of interference aimed at enriching rather than harming learners' competence and performance skills. The use of translation in language classes might, of course, have some limitations but also benefits should be explored and taken into consideration" (2009, p. 143). For example, among some of the problems that have been historically faced by translators of travel narratives, there is the translation of terms from exotic *realia*, hardly untranslatable words that can carry the bulk of the source text they are rendering in a foreign language. Thus, translators have drawn on a wide range of strategies in order to handle such unfamiliar concepts, ranging from cases of extensive omissions to glosses, borrowings, foreignizing or domesticating versions to the use of "lexical exoticism" effects, for which, as Cronin argues,

> words become the souvenirs brought home to the expectant reader (…). They operate as signs of the untranslatable but is a space of translation. The reality that is happening in a foreign language is being conveyed to the reader in the language of the narrative; in other words, it is being continuously translated into that language but foreign words remain as witting or unwitting reminders of how fraught the process of translation is in the first place (2000, p. 40).

With many societies around the world confronting complex issues of globalisation and cultural hybridisation in all literary contexts, and with the new critical frameworks that have emerged in travel writing studies since the 1980s, travel writing itself "situates" experiences, feelings and scenarios within fictitious or real geographical spaces more than other genres. In this sense, it works as a felicitous medium to discuss the areas visited or travelled to, providing information such as location, landscapes, food, aspects of nature, religious beliefs, traditions and customs, among others. This means that the relationship between travel and language (also in translation) can be explored, in Cronin's words, "in the context of a nomadic theory of translation," where "the translating agent like the traveller straddles the borderline between the cultures" (2000, p. 2). It seems that, just as the translation of non-fictional writing was overlooked for many years, as scholars of Translation Studies focused almost solely on fictional forms, so the role of the translator as facilitator in the international transmission of knowledge has only recently attracted critical attention.

Likewise, translation is a real-life and natural activity; this means that the quality of translation can be discussed in classroom, thus encouraging students to spot mistakes, adaptations, omissions, etc. so as to provide suggestions which can improve the target text in terms of their language awareness. Since academics should speak as well as they write *and translate*, translation can definitely be considered a prestigious "textual, communicative, and cognitive activity, involving decision-making, problem-solving skills and expert knowledge" (Fois, 2021, p. 61). These skills are all part of the EAP agenda.

In view of all this, the following section focuses on Daphne Phelps's British travel narrative *A House in Sicily* (1999) and its Italian translation *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001) in order to show how "translation is not only the means of producing travel writing, in a metaphorical sense, but very often also the represented subject in travel writing. Such representation is sometimes disguised, as though everything happens in the traveller's language, and is sometimes marked by salient linguistic foreignness." (Wu 2021, pp. 404-405) The results of such an interlingual relationship between the two texts will be looked into in terms of positive intervention during the learning progress and acquisition of EAP skills.

3. *A House in Sicily*: one narrative, two "translations"

Settling in a "house" abroad does not just refer to the title of the memoir at hand, *A House in Sicily* (1999), but to a literary subgenre that has gained marketing fortune since the 1990s, particularly in Italy. Known under an array of definitions (settlement literature, home-abroad books, relocation memoirs, etc.), these narratives reiterate the "*topos* of life among the locals" (Mastellotto, 2013; Ross, 2010, p. 122), in which expatriates have to grapple with the challenges of living in an alluring foreign land while their identities are reassessed and reconstructed through the transformative experience of building or renovating a home abroad.

The story of Daphne Phelps (1911-2005) only partially re-enacts this paradigm. Casa Cuseni – today a guest house and a museum located in the touristic site of Taormina – was neither built nor renovated; in fact, the reader learns about the author's misadventures when trying to *sell* the house she had inherited from her uncle, Sir Robert Kitson, in the gloomy aftermath of WWII. She eventually rescued Casa Cuseni from being torn apart or sold to local *mafiosi*, and profitably converted it into a *locanda* for artists, poets and intellectuals.

More a collection of tales than a memoir, Phelps's writing resists dwelling on her *inner* world and makes room for the newness and inconsistencies of her *outer* world. Much like her uncle did in painting, she sketches vivid and unconventional portraits of local inhabitants and famous guests, peeking into the lives of a small, evolving community, whose nuances - and voices - she catches with an insightful eye across half a century.

One may wonder what makes this travel memoir an interesting read in the EAP classroom. Empirical evidence of the potential of travel writing in enhancing intercultural sensitivity and defamiliarization has foregrounded the key role of learners' cultural positionality - their *localness* - in the aesthetic experience (Giuffrida, 2016). This potential is best unlocked when learners act as *unintended* readers of travel narratives featuring *home environments*, with their own cultural patterns variably displayed, albeit refracted, by a foreign authorial stance. I have named this kind of reader, and the associated reading strategy, *locally-situated* (LS):

> The Locally-Situated Reader (LSR) is a de-centring device predicated on subverting the ideological construct of the *implied* reader, by having *local* readers, to whom the text is *not* addressed, flout the instructions set out by the writer to invite preferred interpretations. As a result of using the LSR strategy, the referential pact between the writer and the reader is sabotaged, and LS learners are encouraged to construct their own meanings rather than the official ones, opening up the possibility of new, alternative semiosis (Giuffrida, 2016, p. 37).

A case in point is Phelps's memoir and its Italian rendition, *Una casa in Sicilia* (2001), translated by Anna Lovisolo. Though it may seem naturally built into it, the LSR strategy is, in fact, challenged by the Italian translation, as the LS reader – now *intentional* and Italian-speaking – is *meant* to inhabit the same socialisation space as the *other*, thus allowing for a domestication of the foreign element and a flattening of its forms of hybridization. To restore a foreignizing lens, a dialogic framework, where the source text and the target text are compared and contrasted using a set of analytical tools, is therefore needed. This is to counter the domesticating effects of the Italian-speaking readership, which the English account was never intended for, not to mention the interpretive bias of the Italian translator (born and based in Milan), which will be assessed reflectively. Within this framework, *localised* students of EAP will be able to observe their discursive community from an anglophone perspective across two intersecting layers of translation:

1) a *cultural translation*, where the author "translates" the Italian-speaking community for English-speaking readers;
2) an *interlingual translation*, where that very same community is "translated" back into Italian for Italian readers.

Interestingly, the two texts exhibit contrasting translational strategies. Phelps's English departs from current standard usage at many levels, reflecting how multifarious and transformative her Sicilian life had been, culturally and linguistically. Her narrative highlights discursive heterogeneity and resists assimilation to domestic codes in ways that will be illustrated in section 4. In translational terms, her strategy can be referred to as "foreignizing" (Venuti, 1995).

Lovisolo's dominant strategy, on the other hand, is largely "domesticating", insofar as she minimizes or utterly conceals the foreign identity of the source text, thus prioritizing transparency over opacity, message content over language texture, homogenization over heterogeneity. Her preference for standard Italian and no register variations stems from a need for a broader, interregional audience. The demand for a readable and, therefore, *marketable* story is consistent with the publishing decision to allure Italian readers, who are also targeted as prospective tourists, the ultimate goal being not so much the life of an unknown British author as, in fact, promoting Casa Cuseni. This is illustrative of how fluency is always ideologically laden and translation a purposeful act subjected to commodification, as well as to political and economic constraints. This therefore represents major issue for EAP students to reflect upon.

4. Translation manipulations for EAP students

As shown by the empirical data I have collected (Giuffrida, 2016), as well as the textual analysis that follows, the LSR strategy can be a crucial factor when designing EAP courses in which intercultural understanding and language awareness are fostered by reading and translating travel literature. In terms of teaching practice, I advocate a kind of travel literature in which *local* learners will benefit from a cognitive vantage point as *insiders* within the intercultural dynamic at play. Here they will find themselves somehow mirrored in the culture(s) represented through a *dual* defamiliarising lens: the foreign-language text and its L1 translation. This kind of setting is conducive to alternative hermeneutic ways, not to mention its potential for intercultural sensitivity development. The focus on *localization* acts as a magnifying glass, allowing local readers to *see* more insightfully than someone alien to the cultural practices being explored. For instance, my knowledge of the Sicilian dialect has allowed me to detect its absence in the translated text and, at the same time, its disguised presence in the source text; this, in turn, has brought to light manipulative interventions on the source text that would otherwise have gone unnoticed to light.

This unusual perspective can be tremendously beneficial to the EAP learner in terms of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) as well as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). What I envisage as catalyst to these skills is not just the sheer act of translating, but a broader range of tasks where intercultural communication and language awareness intertwine and enhance each other: namely, reading effectively and reflectively, commenting on and comparing translations, evaluating and negotiating viable solutions, focusing on the process rather than the end result, manipulating and reshaping the target text, assessing one's own interpretive bias (critical cultural awareness). My commentary, which is meant to *model* such tasks, will tackle some critical interculturally-sensitive areas where translation manipulations are most likely to occur (from punctuation and culture-specific lexis to more complex stylistic features, such as idiolects), sometimes providing alternative renditions as a comparative and reflective tool.

4.1. Narrator speech: domesticating effects on interlanguage and local color

In the FL (Foreign Language) classroom, a *third perspective* is the symbolic space where learners can find their own meanings when using the foreign language and one of the central goals of intercultural learning (Kramsch, 2009). Quite similarly, Phelps carves out a dimension in which she is simultaneously an *outsider* and an *insider*, a "Third Space" where she accommodates to cultural differences and eventually finds a *voice* of her own (Bhabha, 1994). While *creatively* embedded in the textual geography and in the articulatory structures of the source text, this space of negotiation and meaning reconstruction is flattened out in translation.

A House in Sicily provides a close rendering of the *foreign* at prosodic, syntactic and lexical levels. Local dialects are often echoed in speech utterances, and Italian-sounding structures and registers are easily detectable. Phelps constructs her *persona* as a speaker *and* a translator of the Italian language. Accordingly, she

portrays herself while performing oral or written translations, sometimes even counterfeiting the message to save the day. A unique interlanguage flavor saturates the narrative, building on "code switching" and "code mixing" effects (loanwords and instances of non-translation, calque renderings). In the target text, in contrast, calque renderings are inevitably made invisible and naturalized due to literalism in the translator's strategy. There are countless examples of this in this domain. Let us note a few:

Table 1
Interlanguage effects

Calques from Italian	Target Text
I can arrange myself (p.164)	riesco ad adattarmi (p. 215)
she "adapted herself" (p.190)	si arrangiava (p. 248)
preoccupied by (p.117)	preoccupato (p.165)
embracings (p.119)	abbracci (p.160)
he reproved me (p.126)	mi rimproverava (p.166)
ingratiate (p. 21)	ingraziarsi (p. 44)
denounced (p. 53)	denunciata (p. 75)
'disobligated' himself (p. 64)	si è sdebitato (p. 93)
inaugurate (p.155)	inaugurare (p. 205)
advise (p.156)	avvisare (p 205)
brought to the light of day (p. 75)	ha dato alla luce (p. 106)

Unsurprisingly, the narrative is also interspersed with *lexical exotica*, which bring *local color* to the conversation, either blending in or colliding with the author's discourse. In Phelps's account, they are always italicised and construct effects of code mixing and code switching (e.g. "I was *una persona seria*," p. 164, "It sounded very *mafioso*", p. 31", "my uncle never missed a *festa*", p. 29, "he used these to *fare la fuga*", p. 70). Lexical exotica are further used to:

– show the impossibility for the writer to bridge a cultural gap and translate the *other* in
  her own terms;
– allow native voices to resonate in *their own* idiom;
– signal that the conversation took place in the foreign language so as to authenticate the
  portraits being shown;
– encapsulate cross-cultural adaptive behaviors or cultural conflicts.

Sometimes, when tackling a culture-specific phrase, the writer provides the anglophone readers with an imperfect explanation, which is omitted in translation on account of its redundancy to an Italian audience. The effect of this intervention is *subtractive*, causing a major loss in hybrid formations and meaning variance. In the source text, this kind of redundancy entails interesting – linguistic and cultural – clashes, as words are sometimes mistranslated (*terroni*, or people of the earth, p. 80; *'Lo ho due muglieri'* - I have two women, p. 78; 'Tiriamo' – we drag along, p. 195), or misspelled (*sotto voce*/sottovoce, *femina*/femmina). Such incorrect renderings engender coinages, creative adaptations or false cognates which, if left undomesticated, would add to the productivity of the target text and enhance its "foreignness."

4.2. Narrator speech: domesticating effects on diction, syntax and discourse

A Bakhtinian perspective is well known to have opened up new possibilities for exploiting the distinctive heteroglossia of the travel genre. Phelps's narrative also invites a dialogic reading, as it is the *locus* where multiple speech styles and socio-ideological languages intertwine with the authorial voice. This polyphonic quality generates instances of cultural hybridization involving the narrator and the character discourse, which pose great challenges for the translator.

As it journeys back into Italian, Phelps's travel memoir undergoes some major manipulations, which mostly affect discursive heterogeneity. Sections 4.2 and 4.3 provide evidence of noticeable discrepancies in narrator, as well as in character, speech. The analysis carries out a comparative reading of the translation and the source text so as to foreground various expressions of difference; it draws on Venuti's strategies of

domestication and foreignization (Venuti, 1995), alongside Berman's negative analytic (2000). Lewis's notion of "abusive" fidelity epitomizes the main argument among these scholars, that is, to redirect translators' attention "to the chain of signifiers, to syntactic processes, to discursive structures, to the incidence of language mechanisms on thought and reality formation" (2000, p 270). In keeping with the EAP agenda and its focus on language awareness, the analysis sets out to reflect upon the translator's interpretive choices and the social determinations underlying them.

4.2.1. Patterns of punctuation

Punctuation markers encode Phelps's own voice, her timbre, her unique pacing**.** They are revealing of her character and can be seen as part of her stylistic signature. Let us consider the following extracts:

Table 2
Patterns of punctuation in translation

Source text	Target text
My strange Sicilian life had its roots at the turn of the century, but I was only born eleven years later. In 1900 Robert Hawthorn Kitson, my mother's brother, arrived in Sicily. He had travelled down through Italy **looking for** the perfect place to build his house, and when he came to Taormina on the east coast of the Island, he was enchanted by its magical beauty and by the overwhelming view of Etna **– the highest and most active volcano in Europe**.(p. 1, my bold)	La mia singolare vita in Sicilia affonda le radici alla svolta del secolo scorso, **benché (lit. although)** io sia nata soltanto undici anni dopo. Robert Hawthorn Kitson, il fratello di mia madre, approdò in Sicilia **nel 1900, dopo aver attraversato (lit. after having crossed)** l'Italia verso sud **alla ricerca del (lit. in search for)** luogo ideale dove costruirsi una casa. Quando giunse a Taormina, sulla costa orientale dell'isola, rimase incantato dalla sua bellezza magica, **mentre (lit. while)** la vista dell'Etna, **il vulcano attivo più alto d'Europa**, lo lasciò **senza fiato**.(p. 13, my bold and my English translations)
At Messina I changed into my deepest black. It was only five months since my uncle's death and I had **never** worn mourning. But I was thankful I had changed in time. To have appeared in ordinary clothes would have led to disaster at the very beginning. I would have shocked everyone **profoundly**. (p.17, my bold)	Appena arrivata a Messina, mi vestii di nero da capo a piedi. La morte di mio zio era avvenuta cinque mesi prima e **naturalmente (lit. naturally)** non mi ero messa a lutto, tuttavia ringraziai il cielo per essermi cambiata in tempo, **perché (lit. because)** mostrarmi con abiti normali avrebbe causato una vera catastrofe: avrei scioccato tutti. (p. 32, my bold and my English translations)

Both excerpts are telling examples of "transparent" translation. Though seemingly faithful, they both fail to deliver the author's intended register (informal, straightforward) and tenor (blunt without being judgmental). Furthermore, the second excerpt, by simply replacing "never" with "naturalmente", endows the narrative with an ironic undertone that was not explicit in the source text.

The major translation manipulation, according to Berman's analytic, is "rationalization" (along with clarification, expansion, and many others), which primarily subverts punctuation, sentence structuring and sequencing. Standard Italian norms of fluency value hypotactic phrasing over fragmentariness and parataxic order, and seek to enhance cohesion via the "explicitation" of clause connectors (e.g. "mentre" "naturalmente", "perché", etc), order of syntax and degree of abstraction (e.g. the noun "ricerca" in place of the verb "looking for"). This inevitably winds up disrupting the rhythmic flow and destabilizing meaning. As illustrated in the next section, phrases like "the highest and most active volcano in Europe" lose their prominence when typographical markers such as em-dashes are replaced by commas.

4.2.2. Narratorial "asides": parenthesis and em-dashes

A distinctive feature of Phelps's style is her slightly Dickensian use of round brackets and em-dashes to set off narrative *asides* and drag her readers out of the narration. In particular, the extensive use of these devices enables the author to

– enclose questions, doubts, reactions, and passing comments, which are often humorous
  or ironical;
– construct a foreign eye's observations as a voice over;

- convey a unique *oral* quality to the narrative;
- create an internal structure emulating the writer's thought processes.

A parenthetical styling affects rhythm and pace in ways that are not always acceptable according to reception standards. Unsurprisingly, the Italian translator keeps most of the bracketed comments, but favors the use of commas over em-dashes. Let us assess the fallout of these manipulations in the next set of examples:

Table 3
Em-dashes in translation

Source text	Target text
The Corso was the nightly setting for the *passeggiata*, when all social classes would walk slowly up and down to meet their friends and to drink, gossip and gamble. At least, the men of the working classes did – **they kept their women at home**. (p. 3, my bold).	Il Corso era il luogo della passeggiata serale, dove i cittadini di ogni ceto sociale si incontravano con gli amici per bere e per fare pettegolezzi e scommesse. Soltanto gli uomini, **però, perché (lit. but, because) le donne dovevano stare chiuse in casa.** (p. 15, my bold and my English translation).
As children in England, we had all been excited by my uncle's many, brightly coloured paintings of the Sicilian puppets theatre, with its crowded audiences of men, old and young **– there never seemed to be any women.** (p. 150, my bold).	Ricordo che in Inghilterra noi bambini ci emozionavamo di fronte ai dipinti di mio zio che raffiguravano a vivaci colori il teatro delle marionette siciliano, con la sua folla di spettatori, composta di uomini vecchi e giovani**, dove però (lit. but where) non comparivano mai le donne.** (p. 199, my bold and my English translation).
There, on steps high above and in front of what seemed the whole male population Noto **– there wasn't a woman in sight –** I had to jab an unsterilised needle into her thigh. (p. 143, my bold).	Là, in cima ai gradini e di fronte a quella che sembrava l'intera popolazione maschile di Noto, dovetti infilarle un ago non sterilizzato in una coscia. (p.189).

These passages are about the old-fashioned custom of Sicilian men to "keep their women at home" at social gatherings, much to the writer's dismay. Due to the removal of dashes (replaced by cohesive devices) and the rationalizing of syntax and grammar, the repeating sentence loses much of its original trenchancy. Undoubtedly, Phelps intended to exploit the *interruptive* effect of the em-dashes to make an emphatic statement about women's segregation, thus creating a "subtext that carries the network of word-obsessions" (Berman, 2000, p. 292). The last excerpt illustrates how this subtext crumbles in translation. Here a disjointed aside re-enacting the statement about women is omitted to preserve coherence, thus silencing the writer's voice altogether.

4.2.3 Typographical devices: emphatic italics

Emphatic italics enable the author to strategically draw attention to certain words. Associated with prosodic patterns in spoken language, they confer tonic prominence and emphatic vigor. Dialogue lines are charged with emotional hues that can only be appreciated by reading them out loud. In Phelps's narrative they highlight culture-specific patterns and encode intonation. However valuable, they disappear in translation, since the only italicized items are the *lexical exotica*.

Table 4
Emphatic italics in translation

Source text	Target text
Despite my original amazement, I have followed Don Roberto's example and so far – I touch wood as *we* do and iron as *Italians* do – I have not regretted it. (p. 24)	A dispetto del mio iniziale stupore, ho seguito le sue orme e fino a ora, toccando legno come facciamo noi e ferro come fanno gli Italiani, non mi sono pentita. (p. 40)
"Then you must get a medical certificate saying you *must* stay here for your health.' (...) 'Of *course* I can get one, but I prefer to stay here on honest grounds.' 'Signorina, please be reasonable! 'I wasn't sure who was being *unreasonable*. (pp. 48-49)	"Allora si deve procurare un certificato medico in cui si affermi che lei deve restare qui per problemi di salute". (...)" Naturalmente me lo posso procurare, ma preferirei restare qui senza sotterfugi". "Signorina, per favore, sia ragionevole!" Non ero sicura di sapere chi di noi due fosse irragionevole. (p. 71)

As a result, conversation is impoverished and depersonalized. For instance, as both dashes and italics are dropped in the line "I touch wood as *we* do and iron as *Italians* do", the resolution of the chiastic *we/Italians* in a tertiary space of negotiation is softened. In the second extract, translation fails to convey the frustration of a young, inexperienced Daphne as she struggles with *red tape*, and weakens the cultural clash inscribed in the dichotomy *reasonable/unreasonable*.

4.3. Character speech: domesticating effects on idiolects: the case of "Don Ciccio"

Halfway between individualization and typization, Don Ciccio – the local Don and Phelps's unsolicited protector – first appears as a caricature resembling Anglophone superheroes or villains. His act is paralleled to *Superman* ("arms folded, eyes flashing", p. 102), the *Godfather* ("the head of the Mafia", p. 102; "leader of men", p. 122), and *Robin Hood* ("he gives to the poor", p. 103). He is ironically introduced in the foreigner's terms, as this is how he would be understood by a contemporary anglophone readership. These domesticating images, however, are deconstructed as his personality is unfolded and fleshed out in conversation.

The chapter dedicated to Don Ciccio – an ensemble of all the encounters Phelps had with him over thirty years – takes the reader on a journey peppered with unexpected incidents, jarring revelations and comic scenes. Don Ciccio's developing portrait is reassessed and reshaped at every meeting, adding more contradictory and intriguing features to a characterization which is by no means easy to pinpoint.

Phelps gifts her "protector" with a unique and recognizable voice that brings him alive. Being an uneducated peasant, Don Ciccio's Italian is clumsy, rooted in dialect and therefore often calqued or untranslated. His popular, uncultivated register lends a distinctive color to his speech. Language quirks and idiosyncrasies are key to *individualizing* a character. They form what is commonly referred to as "idiolect," which, in the case of Don Ciccio, includes a great repertoire of rhetorical devices:

- malapropisms, misspellings and deviations from standard pronunciation of English ("we have excellent communications in *Newi Yorki*", p. 107);
- Sicilian-sounding syntax and dialectal interferences;
- simplified grammar, limited range of vocabulary;
- non-standard Italian register;
- emphatic, "pontifical" tone, achieved through repeated usage of anaphoric structures;
- taglines, expressive colloquialisms and local color;
- intersections with narratorial asides, with comic effects.

Table 5
Don Ciccio's idiolect

Taglines and recurring rhetorical devices	
– **Shut up!** (all occurrences at p. 104)	– **Of *course*** (meaning "certainly", possible calque of Sicilian "'ca certu", often italicized, p.104,121,127)
– **You know nothing about it!** (p. 106, 107)	
– **You plug it in and nothing happens.** (twice at p. 106)	– **Very + adjective** (calque of Sicilian "veru", p. 106, 113 and three times at p. 124)
– **Under my protection** (p. 105, 106)	
– **At my disposal** (p. 106, 107, 108)	– **"All you have to do"** and **"you have but to do"** (calque of Sicilian form of obligation "aviri a fari", p. 105, 106, 107)
– **An individual** (meaning "a bad, unpleasant person", p. 105)	
– **Trouble** (as in "problem", calque of Sicilian "trùbbulu", p. 105, 106)	– **night and day** (calque of the Sicilian phrase "notti e journu", used emphatically, p 106, 118)
– **Simple!** (used as interjection, especially in Sicilian, meaning "easy", p. 105)	– **Signorina** (seven times, p. 105, 109, 111)
	– **beautiful** (five times, p. 106, 113, 115, 118, 124)

Sicilian dialect is, for Don Ciccio, "his usual form of speech" (p. 104). The strips of conversation that Phelps is piecing together from memory cannot have been in Italian, a language that her character hardly knew, but in "the very different dialect into which he kept slipping" (p. 104). Being an essential part of Don Ciccio's idiolect, a touch of Sicilian cadence resurfaces in his talk through punctuation markers, emphatic italics and rearranged syntax. For example, when Don Ciccio's genuine affection for Daphne ("Mr Dafferty") – and perhaps his twisted sense of "chivalry" – makes him announce: "But Mr Dafferty it is for *you* that I would wish to do

something" (p. 124), his line echoes the Sicilian "Ma è pi tìa ca vulissi fari quacchi cosa". Two clues make it noticeable. Firstly, the phonological surface of "would wish" is a better imitation of "vulissi" than the more common "wish" or "would like"; secondly, the italics allow the author to stress the pronoun "you", thus marking Don Ciccio's dialectal inflection. Lovisolo's translation "Ma, Mr Dafferty, è per lei che io desidero fare qualcosa" (p. 164), drops the italics and prefers the polished and polite "desidero" over the more direct and vernacular-sounding "voglio" or "volessi"; on the contrary, the English rendering reverberates some accents and phonological traits that a *local* reader would hardly miss.

4.3.1 Don Ciccio's idiolect in translation

The stylistic idiosyncrasies that make up Don Ciccio's linguistic footprint are smoothed out into a domesticated translation that privileges standard usage and polished Italian. This section not only exemplifies the extent to which a domesticating translation impinges on a character's discursive patterns; it also aims to assess alternative, perhaps more "abusive" translations – prompted by a *local* reader such as myself – in order to experiment with the "chain of signifiers," as should occur in the EAP classroom.

Let us look at two brief excerpts, both featuring major manipulations: rhetorization and destruction of vernacular networks.

Table 6
Don Ciccio's idiolect in translation – set 1

Source text	Target text	My translation
'Signorina, I know this world. **You must trust *no one*, neither** your brother, **nor** your sister, **nor** your father, **nor** your aunt. **Only your mother can you trust** – she is of the same flesh. ' (p.109)	"Signorina, io conosco questo mondo: non si deve fidare di nessuno, nemmeno di suo fratello o di sua sorella, di suo padre o di sua zia. Solo di sua madre si può fidare, che è carne della stessa carne. (p.149)	"Signorina, io conosco questo mondo: **di nessuno si deve fidare**, **né** di suo fratello **né** di sua sorella, **né** di suo padre, **né** di sua zia. Solo di sua madre si può fidare, che è carne della sua carne.
Don Ciccio furiously slapped him down, shrieking: 'You shut up. **You know nothing about it**, *shut up*! (…) *I* will speak and when I reach a suitable place I will stop and the Signorina will translate. You shut up!'(p.104)	…ma Don Ciccio lo stroncò subito con ira gridando: "Stai zitto. Non ne sai niente, tu; taci". (…) "Parlo io, e quando arriverò a un punto appropriato mi fermerò e la signorina tradurrà. Tu taci!" (p.144)	Don Ciccio lo stroncò subito con ira gridando: "Tu statti muto, **che** non ne sai niente. *Muto*!". (…) "***Io* parlo, e quando arrivo al punto giusto mi fermo e la signorina traduce. Tu muto**!"

A conspicuous discrepancy in translation, one that Venuti would deem "symptomatic" of its status, occurs when a character's speech register does not match his sociolinguistic background. This is most evident in the improper use of "taci" ("shut up") instead of a coarser, more conversational "zitto" or "muto", the last being closer to vernacular use ("mutu"). It seems rather improbable that an illiterate man like Don Ciccio would communicate in spotless, standard Italian. One can hardly miss, for instance, the underlying Sicilian inflection of the italicized *no one*, which brings valuable information to the translator. The tonic prominence of *no one* suggests reversing the word order instead of translating literally. This allows the text to mirror the symmetrical "only your mother can you trust," and stress the anaphoric structure (nor/né) of the source text, thus preserving Don Ciccio's knack for emphatic speech. Furthermore, "will" forms should always be rendered with the present indicative ("parlo," "mi fermo," "traduce"), as synthetic future does not exist in Sicilian. My rendering of "'you shut up. You know nothing about it" is an example of popular (slangy) Italian, as it incorporates the multipurpose "that" ("che" *polivalente*) to make it sound "incorrect" ("Tu statti muto, **che** non ne sai niente").

In the last passage, a proud Don Ciccio tells Daphne about the time he bravely rescued a young Baroness from being raped and "dishonoured." This piece depicts the comical effects conveyed by the narrator's bracketed asides in character speech, where the intertwining of contrasting registers becomes apparent and adds to the enjoyment of the reader.

Table 7 – set 2
Don Ciccio's idiolect in translation – set 2

Source text	Target text	My translation
'I will give you an example; I will tell you the story of the little Baronessina. She was **very** young, she was **very** beautiful and **very** rich. An elderly *avvocato* wished to marry her and asked her parents for her hand. But he didn't please them.' **(The Baronessina evidently wasn't consulted.)'** So they said no. **So** he kidnapped the Baronessina. You realise of course, Mr Dafferty, that had there been any publicity, had the police or the press known, she would have been unmarriageable. **So** they summoned me and within twenty-four hours she was back at home *perfetta* and *completa'*. **(The kidnapper was clearly a slow starter.)** 'Of course Mr Dafferty **I hope that never**…But if…' (p.124, my bold)	"Le faccio un esempio; le racconterò la storia della baronessina. Era **molto** giovane, **molto** bella e **molto** ricca. Un anziano *avvocato* desiderava sposarla e ne chiese la mano ai suoi genitori. Ma lui non risultò simpatico alla famiglia". (La baronessina evidentemente non era stata consultata.) "**Così** dissero di no. **Allora** lui rapì la baronessina. Lei capisce, Mr Dafferty, che se ci fosse stata pubblicità di sorta, se la polizia o la stampa l'avessero saputo, per lei poi sarebbe stato molto difficile sposarsi. **Dunque** mi convocarono e nel giro di ventiquattr'ore lei era di nuovo a casa, perfetta e completa". (Il rapitore evidentemente non aveva avuto molta fretta.). **Naturalmente**, Mr Dafferty, **spero che mai**… Ma se dovesse…" (p.164)	"**Ci** faccio un esempio; **ci** racconto la storia della baronessina. Era giovanissima, era bellissima e ricchissima. Un vecchio *avvocato* se la voleva maritare e ci chiese la mano ai suoi genitori. Ma a loro non ci piaceva". (La baronessina evidentemente non era stata consultata.) "**Allora ci** dissero di no. **Allora** lui rapì la baronessina. **Certo** Mr Dafferty, lo capisce che se facevano pubblicità, se lo veniva a sapere la polizia o i giornali, lei non si poteva maritare più. **Allora** mi vennero a chiamare e nel giro di ventiquattr'ore lei era di nuovo a casa, perfetta e completa". (Il rapitore evidentemente non aveva avuto molta fretta.) **Certo** Mr Dafferty **non sia mai**… Ma se…"

The following table comprises some of the "abusive" interventions I made on Lovisolo's translation in the tale of the "Baronessina" so as to retain some of the rhetorical effects of the original text and counteract the homogenizing bias of standard Italian usage. Unlike the previous examples, this excerpt lends itself to a more creative, rather than a literalist, rendition. My adjustments have attempted to restore the amusing counterpoint between the author's discursive patterns and Don Ciccio's eccentric style.

Table 8
Don Ciccio's idiolect in translation

Foreignizing alternatives to Lovisolo's translation of the tale of the "Baronessina".

- Future tenses ("I will give" "I will tell") are shifted to present ("ci faccio" "ci racconto"), as it is the case with non-standard Italian varieties. They have taken up the "ci" particle pleonastically, in compliance with Don Ciccio's illiterate register.
- The repetition of "very" is likely to have marked a sequence of three superlative forms in Don Ciccio's original tale. This is because the structure "very + adjective" is an Anglicism (e.g. "very long" translates into "veru longa" in Sicilian dialect).
- The verbs "piaceva" and "maritare" ("maritari" in Sicilian) are a calque of "please" and "marry".
- The repetitive "So" constructs a pattern that needs restoring and is translated as "Allora", more colloquial and idiomatic.
- Personal pronouns are omitted, unless used emphatically.

- A reversed order in "se lo venivano a sapere la polizia o i giornali", "se la voleva sposare", "lo capisce" is more common in spoken Italian;
- The adverb "of course" is a recurrent pattern in Don Ciccio's idiolect and appears twice in this passage, which suggests opting for the same word ("Certo"), to stress its rhetorical effect;
- The words "pubblicità di sorta" and "stampa" are replaced with less abstract alternatives.
- The idiomatic "non sia mai" is preferred over the literalist "spero che mai".
- An uneducated peasant such as Don Ciccio would likely not be familiar with conditionals and subjunctives ("se ci fosse stata" "l'avessero saputo" "sarebbe stato"), which are thereby shifted into the Italian imperfect ("facevano", "venivano a sapere" "non si poteva").
- The verbal phrase "mi vennero a chiamare" is a more colloquial rendition of "they summoned me".

5. Closing remarks

Both travellers and translators negotiate linguistic alterity, but "while travel writing is associated with recasting the foreign textually and visually for readers back home, translation is similarly concerned with transporting the foreign into the target language and culture and adapting it to meet the target audience's expectations" (Martin & Pickford, 2012, pp. 1-2). When cultural difference is highlighted, an outsider's "translation" of the host community tends to rely on foreignizing strategies, such as non-standard language usage, literal translation, dialogism and "local color". Similarly, when the translating language is the native's, a "naturalization" of the foreign – and its various forms of hybridization with the traveller's culture – is to occur, leading to loss at lexical, prosodic and syntactic levels.

Devising EAP programs with an extensive use of reading literary texts (and travel narrative can be one of the most fertile sub-genres within this framework, especially when learners are *locally-situated* and play the role of *natives* in the cultural representation), together with commentaries on the translation of these texts, can play an interesting role in the learning process. Such a process involves collecting and organizing information within a given text and communicating and understanding the concepts with high-order thinking and appropriate cognitive skills. Being so, the notion of travel itself, as self-exploration in terms of language awareness and intercultural understanding, comes to the fore, interweaving BICS and well-developed CALP skills, which enable it to find some room in EAP programs.

Given these considerations, this paper has shown how travel writing may undergo a process of layering and variation that makes it deviate from standard norms in the settlement accounts of expatriates. In narratives such as *A House in Sicily* by Daphne Phelps, where echoes of the native voices and instances of cultural hybridization construct a heterogeneous discourse, the author virtually becomes a *foreigner* in their own language.

Homogenizing translations that minimize foreignness and hybridity will inevitably obliterate this linguistic variation. Hence, the ostensible evocation of the foreign through calque renderings and stylization should evolve from a destabilizing to a stabilizing norm. For this reason concerning pedagogical implications and the possible applications in research, academic and professional settings can benefit from the genre's focus on such culture-specific variability, which restores literature's sifgnificant potential in promoting language learning in academic communicative practices.

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ES	**Simona Agata Giuffrida** tiene un doctorado en Estudios Angloamericanos. Es académica y traductora independiente, formadora de docentes y profesora de literatura y lengua inglesa en universidades y centros de secundaria. Sus intereses de investigación incluyen los campos de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras con un enfoque en la competencia comunicativa intercultural, la literatura de viajes, los estudios de traducción y la pedagogía de la lengua y de la cultura. En su tesis doctoral propone métodos originales para mejorar las habilidades de comunicación intercultural a través de textos literarios y, en particular, de la literatura de viajes. Ha sido profesora visitante en la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de Durham y profesora de ESP en la Universidad de Catania y la Universidad Kore en Enna. Sus artículos de investigación han sido aceptados y publicados en universidades y revistas académicas internacionales.
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Review: Zanola, Annalisa (2023). *La lingua inglese per la comunicazione scientifica e professionale.* Carocci

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ABSTRACT

EN The text is a review of *La lingua inglese per la comunicazione scientifica e professionale* by Annalisa Zanola, published in 2023 by Carocci. The book introduces ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes) as a new research area in English language and linguistics, which aims at exploring the efficiency and effectiveness of native and non-native speakers of English in professional contexts. It is divided into four chapters, each exploring one dimension of ESPP: from an overview of English for scientific popularization and professional communication (chapter 1) to an exposition of the main characteristics of written and oral ESPP (chapters 2 and 3), to an analysis of its possible applications in medicine, economics, law, and engineering (chapter 4). In this volume, professionals, together with their language instructors, will find useful materials to understand, and to master, the main characteristics of English for their own scientific and professional purposes, while scholars in applied linguistics will find interesting insights into theories and practices regarding English for scientific and professional communication.

Key words: ENGLISH FOR SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL PURPOSES (ESPP), ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING, ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING, ACADEMIC WRITING

ES El texto es una reseña de *La lingua inglese per la comunicazione scientifica e professionale* de Annalisa Zanola, publicado en 2023 por Carocci. El libro presenta el ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes) como una nueva área de investigación, cuyo objetivo es explorar la eficiencia y eficacia de los hablantes nativos y no nativos de inglés en contextos profesionales. Se divide en cuatro capítulos, cada uno de los cuales explora una dimensión del ESPP: desde una visión general del inglés para la divulgación científica y la comunicación profesional (capítulo 1) hasta una exposición de las principales características del ESPP escrito y oral (capítulos 2 y 3), pasando por un análisis de sus posibles aplicaciones en medicina, economía, derecho e ingeniería (capítulo 4). En este volumen, los y las profesionales, así como sus docentes, encontrarán materiales útiles para comprender y dominar las principales características del inglés para sus propios fines científicos y profesionales, mientras que los estudiosos de la lingüística aplicada hallarán interesantes perspectivas sobre teorías y prácticas relativas al ESPP.

Palabras clave: INGLÉS PARA FINES CIENTÍFICOS Y PROFESIONALES, ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS, APRENDIZAJE DEL INGLÉS, ESCRITURA ACADÉMICA

IT Nel testo viene recensito il volume *La lingua inglese per la comunicazione scientifica e professionale*, scritto da Annalisa Zanola e pubblicato nel 2023 da Carocci. Il volume introduce una nuova area di ricerca nell'ambito della lingua e linguistica inglese, l'ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes), tesa all'esplorazione dell'efficacia e dell'efficienza con cui i parlanti (nativi e non nativi) si esprimono in lingua inglese all'interno di contesti professionali. Il volume è diviso in quattro capitoli, ciascuno dei quali esplora una dimensione dell'ESPP: partendo da una panoramica dell'inglese per la popolarizzazione scientifica e la comunicazione professionale (capitolo 1) si passa all'esposizione delle caratteristiche principali dell'ESPP scritto e orale (capitoli 2 e 3), per arrivare all'analisi delle sue possibili applicazioni nell'ambito medico, economico, giuridico, e dell'ingegneria (capitolo 4). All'interno di questo volume, professionisti e insegnanti troveranno dei materiali utili per comprendere, e per padroneggiare, le caratteristiche principali dell'inglese per i propri scopi scientifici e professionali; studiosi di linguistica applicata vi troveranno invece spunti interessanti sulle teorie e pratiche dell'inglese per la comunicazione scientifica professionale.

Parole chiave: INGLESE PER LA COMUNICAZIONE SCIENTIFICA E PROFESSIONALE, INSEGNAMENTO DELLA LINGUA INGLESE, APPRENDIMENTO DELLA LINGUA INGLESE, SCRITTURA ACCADEMICA

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EAP (English for Academic Purposes), EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes), ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes), ESP (English for Special Purposes), ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) are only some of the numerous acronyms that are well known to scholars of applied linguistics, especially in the case of those focusing on second/foreign language teaching and learning. Yet, professor Annalisa Zanola's latest volume, *La lingua inglese per la comunicazione scientifica e professionale*, edited by Carocci, convincingly argues for the need to adopt ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes), both in the classroom and as a topic for academic enquiry.

The theorization of ESPP stems from the necessity to help adult learners of English to become linguistically, as well as pragmatically, competent, so as to avoid inadequate or inappropriate language use, especially in light of the increasingly international, multilingual, and multicultural nature of work and professional environments. Indeed, the needs expressed by adult learners of English – be they academics or professionals, in the natural sciences or the humanities – are totally different from those expressed by younger students. In fact, adult learners expressing themselves in English at work may participate in conversations at advanced levels, discuss topics that require sophisticated skills, and be expected to share their knowledge with colleagues, clients and customers, as well as other experts in the field. Therefore, the greatest challenges for these learners lie in the quality of communication, in understanding the communicative context, and in choosing an appropriate register. Furthermore, when trying to make appropriate lexico-grammatical choices, they must also take stock of the communicative purpose, audience type, and communicative context. Often, learners are (painfully) aware that their linguistic abilities can have very real consequences on their professional performance and even their future career options.

Starting from this premise, the author defines ESPP as a new research area in English language and linguistics, which aims at exploring the efficiency and effectiveness of native and non-native speakers of English in professional contexts. She suggests developing this research area both inside and outside academia as a corrective to the European tradition of ESP, in order to reinforce the idea that this long-standing tradition of teaching and researching ESP could be updated and strengthened, so as to facilitate learners' personal as well as professional growth. The demands from professionals in various fields are quite significant, as is the number of academic studies on the subject; however, the specific research questions on written and oral communication required by the world of work in second-language and foreign-language contexts still seem to lack adequate and satisfactory answers.

The four chapters of the volume attempt to provide such answers. Chapter 1 offers an overview of the concept of English for scientific popularization and professional communication. It starts by sketching its history starting from the 1960s-80s, going through the 1990s and the new millennium, to conclude with future perspectives offered by the evolution from ESP to ESPP. It proceeds by exploring the different dimensions of English for scientific and professional communication, highlighting the difference between formal and informal texts and contexts. Indeed, despite the fact that academic English is considered formal by nature, professionals who are expressing themselves in English need to be able to recognize – and adapt to – the different levels of formality required by the various situations and relationships developing in their workplace. Therefore, they need the ability to effectively discriminate between, for example, research articles, press releases, company reports, meeting agendas, minutes (for written communication), as well as between seminars, pitch presentations, job interviews, meetings with customers/clients or with co-workers. They may need to adjust their language and register choices accordingly, paying attention to their lexico-grammatical, argumentative, as well as stylistic choices. These can also be informed by intercultural components: the author specifically delves into the pragmatic concept of politeness and its realization through hedging, which aims at creating the psychological conditions that are conducive to cross-cultural communication by avoiding conflict, minimizing threatening acts and mitigating impositions. The chapter then closes with a discussion of the different genres of scientific and professional popularization, both written and oral. The tables effectively exemplifying formal and informal (academic) texts, which can be of practical use to ESPP learners, are of particular interest to the teacher of ESPP who intends to adopt the volume for classroom teaching.

Chapter 2 and chapter 3 are at the core of the volume, as they are devoted to the description and exposition of the scientific foundations of ESPP. More specifically, chapter 2 deals with written ESPP skills, providing the basics of syntax, semantics, and textual pragmatics, with the goal of examining and developing academic, as well as ESPP, writing skills. The author discusses the numerous factors influencing the production of written texts (such as the recipient, aim, textual organization, and style) and accompanies readers through the process of drafting a written ESPP document, organizing information and revising for fluency and clarity.

This section is rich in diagrams and tables comparing examples of successful vs. unsuccessful language choices; moreover, the author presents and discusses several real-life examples of scientific and popularizing academic texts from a number of disciplines (medicine, economics and finance, law, and engineering) which are valuable for instructors and learners alike. These analyses aim at underscoring the characteristics of written academic texts (such as density, abstraction, objectivity, and rigour) by highlighting the specific ways in which information is arranged and presented, the specialised vocabulary that is used throughout, and the lexico-grammatical features that characterise written academic productions, such as passives and nominalizations. Moreover, the author underscores the competencies and skills needed to first devise and then produce a written academic text, namely the ability to contextualize, to summarize, to assess and discriminate between sources, and to sustain agreement as well as dissent.

Chapter 3 focuses on oral ESPP skills, providing the basics of phonetics and phonology and delving into the question of teaching and learning pronunciation and prosody. The chapter then closes with an overview of public speaking in the academic and professional environment, outlining the intercultural, personal, and contextual factors which are likely to influence the success – or otherwise – of a performance. This chapter in particular appears to be clearly informed by the author's extensive knowledge of and experience in researching and teaching oral communication and public speaking in professional contexts.

Finally, chapter 4 illustrates some possible areas of application, once again showing the peculiar characterization of some contexts in particular, namely economics and finance, law, medicine, as well as theoretical and applied engineering. For each context, the author briefly examines the history of the applied linguistics studies that focussed on that specific context and language, helping to define its specific lexico-grammatical characteristics. She then proceeds to describe the different profiles of contemporary professionals and language experts helping learners to navigate these languages; and describes some possible audio and visual aids, together with some practical cases and descriptions of users and contexts which are supported by updated and annotated bibliographical notes. Of note here is the special attention devoted to new technologies (such as chats, videoconferences, and online shared documents) which have now steadily entered and profoundly influenced professional communication, and which should therefore be integrated into ESPP materials and curricula.

As was stated at the beginning, the text convincingly argues for the introduction of the acronym ESPP (English for Scientific and Professional Purposes) to complete and maybe substitute the more familiar, but also more generic, ESP (English for Special Purposes). Indeed, ESP does not seem to adequately respond to the increasing and increasingly specialised requirements of adult workers who have to use English as a second/foreign language in their everyday scientific and professional (academic) environment. Since the main aim of the volume is to lay the theoretical foundations of ESPP, the section devoted to the main application areas of ESPP is in its nascent stage and awaits further research. Nevertheless, professionals, together with their language instructors, will find useful materials in this volume to understand, and to master, the main characteristics of English for their own scientific and professional purposes, while scholars in applied linguistics will find interesting insights into theories and practices regarding English for scientific and professional communication.

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