

Rita Calabrese

**PATTERNS OF ENGLISH THROUGH
HISTORY, ART AND LITERATURE**

22

**Intersezioni/Intersections
Collana di anglistica**

Rita Calabrese, *Patterns of English through History, Art and Literature*
Copyright © 2019 Tangram Edizioni Scientifiche
Gruppo Editoriale Tangram Srl
Via dei Casai, 6 – 38123 Trento
www.edizioni-tangram.it – info@edizioni-tangram.it

Intersezioni/Intersections – Collana di anglistica – NIC 22

Prima edizione: agosto 2019, *Printed in EU*

ISBN 978-88-6458-194-1

Direzione
Oriana Palusci

Comitato scientifico

Silvia Antosa, Università degli Studi di Enna Kore
Maria Teresa Chialant, Università degli Studi di Salerno
Rossella Ciocca, Università di Napoli *L'Orientale*
Lidia Curti, Università di Napoli *L'Orientale*
Laura Di Michele, Università degli Studi dell'Aquila
Bruna Di Sabato, Università degli Studi Suor Orsola Benincasa, Napoli
Paola Faini, Università degli Studi Roma Tre
Mirko Casagrande, Università della Calabria
Vita Fortunati, Università degli Studi di Bologna
Alba Graziano, Università della Tuscia, Viterbo
Gerhard Leitner Faha (Hon.), Freie Universität, Berlin
Carlo Pagetti, Università degli Studi di Milano
Biancamaria Rizzardi, Università degli Studi di Pisa

Il regolamento e la programmazione editoriale sono pubblicati
sul sito dell'editore: www.edizioni-tangram.it/intersections

This book was funded by the Department of the Humanities, University of Salerno

Immagine di copertina: Quilt designed by Heidi Pridemore of The Whimsical Workshop (60" x 60"), e • qui • poise collection, Paintbrush Studio, New York



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	9
---------	---

PART ONE THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Chapter 1: Learning Language through Academic Topics (LLAT)	
1.1. An integrated approach of language and content	13
1.2. Textual competence	15
1.3. Features of specialised texts	17
1.4. Which language? A typology of specialized languages	19
1.5. The 'lexical model' in content and language integrated approaches	24
Chapter 2: Teaching-Learning Projects	
2.1. Types of programmes	31
2.2. Needs Analysis and motivation	35
2.3. LOTS and HOTS as learning objectives	39
2.4. A working hypothesis	42
2.5. Using content to reflect on language	44

PART TWO APPLICATIONS

Chapter 3: Change	
History	49
Literature	59
Art	67
Linguistic focus: Phonemes	75
Chapter 4: Structures	
History	91
Literature	94
Art	106
Linguistic focus: Grammar revision of verb tenses and clause structures	125

Chapter 5: Light	
History	133
Literature	136
Art	153
Linguistic focus: Morphology or The stucture of words	172
 Chapter 6: Enlightenment	
History: From Restoration to the Georgian Era	179
Literature & Philosophy	183
Art	208
Linguistic focus: Noun Phrases	217
 Chapter 7: Nature	
History: Victorian Britain (1837-1901)	223
Literature	225
Art	235
Linguistic focus: Sentence structure	247
 Chapter 8: Migrations	
History	255
Literature	258
Art	272
Linguistic focus: Language variation and change	280
 Chapter 9: Descriptions	
History	293
Literature	295
Art	308
Linguistic focus: Information structure	341
 Chapter 10: Profiles	
History	349
Literature	351
Art	355
Linguistic focus: Using plurals for generalizations	375
 References	377

**PATTERNS OF ENGLISH THROUGH
HISTORY, ART AND LITERATURE**

Preface

This volume is intended to provide a practical resource book for foreign language teachers and students following Arts and Humanities programmes. This is in fact the result of many years of teaching experience with students of Arts and Humanities at the University of Salerno. It includes a selection of materials that could match with students' learning interests and study subjects ranging from History and Art History to Literature, Philosophy and Linguistics. Therefore, the theoretical approach adopted in the selection and later didactization of the study materials is mainly English for Special/Academic Purposes (ESP).

The implementation of *Nuovo Ordinamento* (D. M. 509/99) in Italian universities has led to a radical revision of the subject programmes, curricula and textbooks. In an effort to adapt Italian education to European standards, great emphasis has been given to the introduction of foreign languages in those academic courses that usually did not include them in their curricula. In particular, academic courses such as arts and humanities, medicine, chemistry or engineering had not formally recognized an official position to the study of specific subjects in a foreign language yet.

Consequently, the introduction of foreign languages in the study programmes of these courses has brought about first of all problems concerning both the choice of materials and the ways of connecting a foreign language with a 'non-linguistic' subject.

The possibility of considering a foreign language as a vehicle for transmitting the contents of non-linguistic subjects was an interesting hypothesis but at the same time not without difficulties. For instance, the different competences of teachers and students in dealing with specific topics traditionally implied a radical adaptation/modification of the programmes to new linguis-

tic and cognitive needs. For this reason the activities needed to be graded into different levels of increasing difficulty that had to take into account the development of both receptive and productive language skills.

The book is divided into two parts. The first part provides the theoretical framework of reference within which the language and content integrated programmes as well as the teaching proposals of the second part can be set. The second part includes seven chapters on a variety of subjects characterizing Arts and Humanities courses. In particular, the materials and related activities presented in the second part of the volume constitute a collection of miscellaneous readings taken from online newspaper articles, specialized texts and websites, while the contents of the teaching proposals are arranged in four thematic modules, including History, Literature, Philosophy, Art and a Linguistic focus.

Rita Calabrese

PART ONE
THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Chapter 1: Learning Language through Academic Topics (LLAT)

1.1. An integrated approach of language and content

The idea of using the foreign language as a means of teaching and learning specific contents is not entirely new, considering that in past centuries dominant languages were adopted by many dominant civilizations as a way of spreading their culture among the peoples they ruled over.

It is well known, in fact, that before the emergence of different nationalisms, only a few languages were considered worth of transmitting and interpreting the values or cultures of the nations that fell into great empires. Latin, for example, continued to be the language used as a means of education in the centuries following the fall of the Roman Empire. In Great Britain as well, after the Norman invasion of England, French survived for at least two centuries as the natural language of the ruling class, while English was aimed at communication among lower classes.

As it might be expected in situations of diglossia of the kind described above, classical languages such as Latin and Greek did not possess pragmatic strength, that is to say, they were not means of social interaction, since their use was influenced by prescriptive rules of privileged models. Instead, the distinct feature characterizing the language of dominant classes against the native language was its ‘specialization of function’ marked by a considerable difference in prestige (Ferguson 1959; Varvaro 1978; Freddi 1979).

Even though in some countries diglossia situations are similar to those described for the past, examples of bilingualism occurring in extremely dynamic societies such as those attested in the United States or Canada are becoming increasingly frequent and extended even in Europe.

The evolution of modern societies towards the creation of multi-racial and multilingual communities has paid growing attention towards teaching practices based on the effective realisation of plurilingual and intercultural experimentations in different European educational contexts.

Many projects have recently been designed and carried out in the field of bilingual education at both primary and secondary school levels along with teaching proposals based on precise theoretical principles. At the same time, similar projects concerning new L2 acquisition methods are starting to be applied to academic contexts as well responding to the underlying and unifying principle of what can be termed Learning Language through Academic Topics (LLAT).

The principle of 'naturalness' characterizing Stephen Krashen's second language acquisition theory (1988) has influenced the design of many bilingual experiments in America. The basic theoretical assumption according to which it is necessary to recreate the same conditions that can enhance the learning of any first language is almost obvious in its essential simplicity: if the objective of foreign language acquisition is shifted from the form to the content or if the language input to which the learner is exposed is highly meaningful and therefore highly motivating because it responds to his/her individual needs, then there will be favorable conditions for learning a foreign language. This suggests that in L2 classes meaningful input can be also represented by academic contents along with appropriate methodological innovations and appropriate teaching strategies facilitating the L2 learning process. Thus, for example, information presented in a coherent way and organized by thematic areas are easier to fix in the long-term memory, particularly when explicit reference is made to relevant linguistic structures that are appropriate to the context in which they usually occur. The implication of higher-order cognitive abilities in the performance of intellectually demanding tasks that activate learners' prior knowledge provides additional support for language and content learning¹.

¹ Cummins (1984) defines this type of competence as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

The authenticity of the contents/topics presented in L2 enhances the connection of teaching practice with learners' experiential reality and helps develop the skills they will have to use in the real world.

The presentation of meaningful and coherent information also involves a more complex processing of the contents through the activation of higher cognitive skills such as categorization, comparison, identification of main ideas and relevant relations between them, which help improve language proficiency. Finally, the integration of language and content adheres to the principle of the specificity of the functional use of language which has been set as the essential foundation of any semantically relevant communicative act.

1.2. Textual competence

The acquisition of skills involving the use of both verbal and non-verbal codes leads the learner to the development of specific textual competence that is also part of communicative competence corresponding to the ability of an individual to communicate/receive information in written and/or oral form within a given context. In an integrated communication scheme (Tonfani 1991) shown in Fig.1. textual competence is a complex competence based on multiple factors:

A correct process of text production, processing and comprehension cannot disregard the consideration of the complex nature of the text itself. A text can be in fact organized on several levels of interpretative analysis and according to different textual strategies which have been adopted by the addresser in order to achieve specific communicative purposes. In practical terms, these objectives are achieved through the development of certain lexical, stylistic and syntactic strategies by the text producer, which are in turn interpreted by the recipient-student through the application of specific study techniques during the message decoding process or what may be called pragmatic comprehension (van Dijk, 1977).

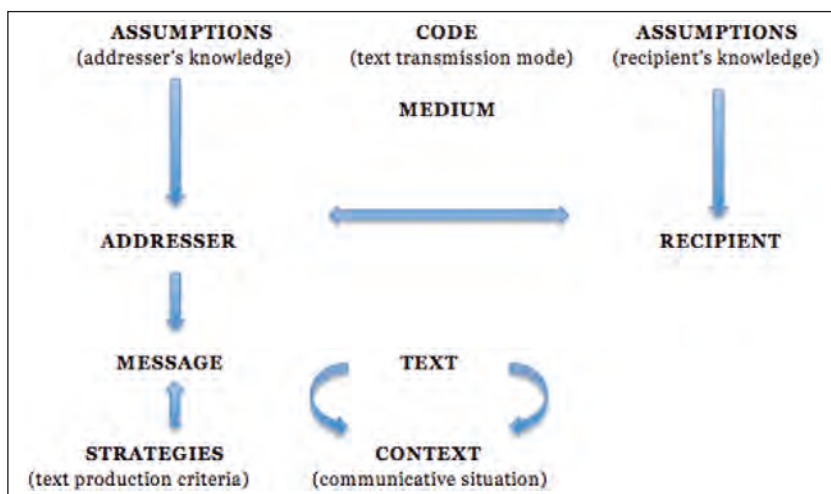


Fig.1. Representation of textual competence based on multiple factors

Finally, by looking at the organization of a text base in terms of fact relations, a level of representation is obtained that corresponds to the “knowledge structures” of Schank and Abelson (1977).

Schank and Abelson have argued convincingly that such a level of representation is necessary in order to account for full comprehension. General world knowledge organized in terms of frames must play a crucial role in this process,

Therefore, the following objectives will be foregrounding within the framework of a bilingual educational curriculum:

- acquisition of increasingly complex organizational cognitive skills along with study techniques that govern the processes of reception and text production;
- acquisition of the two different linguistic systems related to both L1 and L2 along with the acquisition of appropriate grammatical competence;
- acquisition of competence in the use of different registers in both L1 and L2 or acquisition of appropriate pragmatic competence.
- acquisition of the contents of the non-linguistic subject organized into correct oral and written production structures.

1.3. Features of specialised texts

In a language teaching approach in which the text as a linguistic unit in itself has a certain relevance, it is clear that the role of the lexicon becomes equally fundamental. Since every single lexical element acquires its own significance within the text in which it occurs, it is necessary to define some of the most characteristic features of a specialised text. At the same time, it is useful to bear in mind that each subject not only determines the particular connotation assumed by its corresponding lexicon, but, as it will be explained in the following pages, it also influences the speaker's specific morphosyntactic, lexical and pragmatic choices.

First, it is important to consider specialized texts from the perspective of a rhetoric of the text that starts from an analysis of the lexical choices and the compositional procedures adopted by authors. In a specialized text, these choices will be very precise and limited, since the primary characteristic of the specialized lexicon is the 'mono-referentiality', which involves a total lack of semantic ambiguity. Among the traditional rhetorical procedures such as metonymy, metaphor, oxymoron, ellipsis, that constitute those specific linguistic means of stylistics used to emphasize one or more aspects of a text, some types are used more extensively in the specialized texts, while others are completely absent. Thus, for example, in scientific texts any use of the metaphor is excluded, since the specificity of the transmitted information requires the maximum referentiality with concrete reality, avoiding the use of linguistic structures from which it can be even inferred.

Technical-specialised texts present instead a very high degree of ellipticity, derived from the high level of presupposition implied in the text receiver. The information conveyed is in fact the product of a previously carefully selected choice of the potentially transferable information. This selection implies, however, very specific knowledge, with regard to both the producer and the text receiver. Thus, in a scientific-technical-specialised type of text, highly specific textual strategies are usually employed, without the use of superfluous elements so that, for each linguistic term used, a precise element corresponds in the extra-linguistic context. At the same time, the reader is presupposed to have specif-

ic knowledge and interests in the topics treated, so the adherence of the text to certain textual strategies guarantees its high degree of consistency.

In the field of rhetoric of the text, the two concepts of 'textual expansion' and 'textual contraction' (Tonfani 1991) are also recurrent. By 'textual expansion' it is meant the expansion of the textual nucleus through the expansion of information contents by means of complex syntactic constructions. The term 'textual contraction' refers instead to the reduction of essential contents and information redundancy through certain rhetorical strategies, first of all through ellipsis. The difficulty represented by ellipses to get specific information retrieval, is however in a certain sense compensated by the informative contribution supplied by the reader-student. Both the concepts of 'expansion' and 'contraction' refer to the principle of information density, so that relevant information in a text can be expanded or concentrated in certain information groups through specific rhetorical strategies. Consequently, this poses the problem of the relationship between specialized vocabulary and information density. Of course, a specialized text that implies certain cognitive frames² and connected expectations conveys a very high informative content, as it relates to certain assumptions and implications. However, it is necessary to specify that even the scientific or technical-specialised type of text contains certain variations determined by the different referents and by the different functions of communication, so that a scientific text will present a different information theme depending on whether it performs an informative or more strictly an instructive function. The change of one of the factors involved in the communicative act will therefore entail a greater or lesser conventionality of the text and its different degree of reproducibility in similar situations.

The consideration of these elements of variability helps further clarify the concept of frames mentioned above. The recognition, comprehension and reconstruction of these frames by the learner will constitute an important stage in the process of deep under-

² Cognitive frames are intended to represent a stereotypical situation; within each frame there is information structured on various levels. As we will see later, it is possible to link this theory with the lexical frames mentioned in Lewis.

standing of a text. In summary, it is possible to distinguish four different communicative areas corresponding to as many text types as those identified by Widdowson in 1979. In the first type, corresponding to scientific exposition, the expert addresses to other experts who share his own knowledge by making extensive use of specialised terms. In the second type, corresponding to the scientific instruction, the expert addresses to non-specialists with an eminently instructive purpose, also employing specific terms to illustrate certain concepts, but explaining them from time to time as happens precisely in the texts intended for university students. In the third type, identifiable by scientific journalism, information is provided by constantly referring to the common language, pursuing an essentially informative goal. The last type is characterised by a highly formal structure that makes extensive use of formulas that condense large amounts of information. The high degree of formalization, typical of this text type, is determined by the shift from the use of verbal languages to the non-verbal language of graphs, histograms and formulas (Gotti 1991).

1.4. Which language? A typology of specialized languages

In order to precisely identify the peculiar characteristics of special languages that can allow an easier and targeted educational intervention³, it is necessary to attempt a more in-depth analysis contributing to define a possible typology of specialized languages⁴.

First, they are part of the research on situational synchronic varieties that studies the relationships between common language and specialized languages, sub-code structure and linguistic registers.

³One of the research areas concerning text genres in specialised languages deals with the identification of recurrent language structures in different professional and academic contexts (Hammond & Derewianka 2001).

⁴In this volume, the terms 'special languages' and 'specialised languages' are interchangeably used.

From what has been said in the previous paragraph, it is possible to identify a tendency, common to all scientific fields, to the “symbolic formulation that frees the specialized language from the connotative constraints of the common language” (Gotti 1991.). This tendency to an almost exclusive use of denotative strategies leads the specialist to limit the use of the verbal code, which in itself is polysemic and to prefer the use of formulas, histograms, graphs. Hence, the recurrent occurrence of such non-verbal elements in specialized texts has led to their inclusion in the deep structure of specialized languages as universal elements that are independent of the particular nature of any world language (Widdowson 1979). However, Gotti (1991, p. 12) in a revised version of the model developed by the British scholar proposes the following:

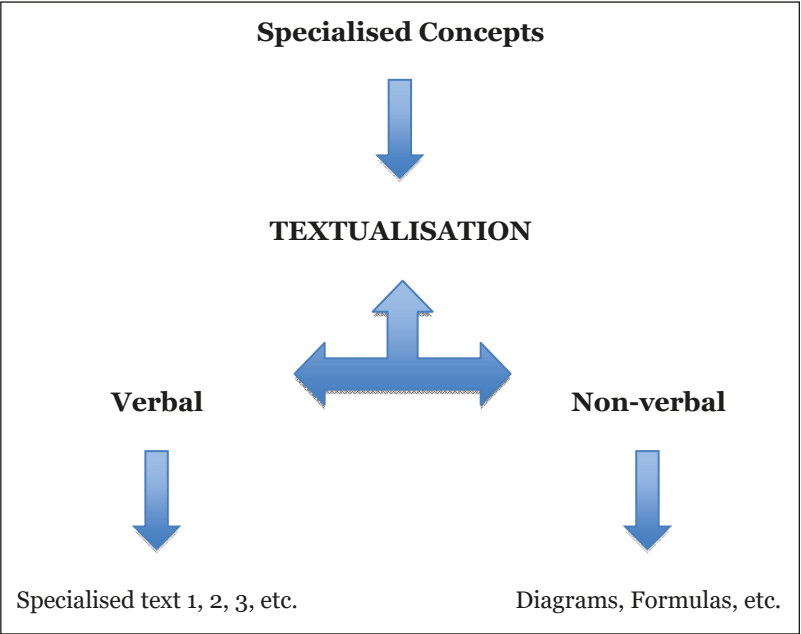


Fig.2. Representation of different textualisation of specialised concepts

In this way, the non-verbal elements would represent an alternative way of representing the same concepts of the specialised subject.

Therefore, it is possible to identify some features which are common to all specialised languages (Gotti 1991):

1. clarity of exposition
2. objectivity
3. density of information
4. lack of ambiguity
5. impersonality
6. use of technical terms, symbols and figures

to which some supplementary factors/variables can be added, such as:

7. specific pragmatic and social function
8. type of discourse
9. type of recipient and level of scientific competence

These elements, together with those presented in more detail in the following paragraphs, lead to a clear identification of special languages if compared to common language, but at the same time they also trace a network of continuous references to it and to its own linguistic strategies⁵.

1.4.1. The lexical level

To better understand the differences and similarities that link special languages to the common language, it will be worth starting from an analysis of that area of the language in which these peculiarities are most evident: lexis.

Meanwhile, it is important to clarify that special lexicons are mostly formed by words occurring in the common language that take on a more specific meaning or are enriched with terms derived from foreign languages and used in particular professional contexts in the form of borrowings.

According to Berruto (1987), the vast circulation of technical and scientific terms and the fact that many new groups present a

⁵For example, many new technicisms derive or are borrowed from the common lexicon.

common classical basis, means that most of the specialized terminology is predominantly international.

This phenomenon, fostered by the wide circulation of ideas implemented by the spreading of new information media, has led to an increasingly wider diffusion of internationalisms. More specifically, bilingual terms based on a foreign lexicon, show, however, special adaptations to the morphosyntactic structures and the phonological characteristics of the receiving languages. This further aspect of the 'globalization of knowledge' with the consequent phenomena of massification of specialized training has enhanced the spreading of the specialized culture in ever deeper layers of the social structure. This process has also favoured a diversification and modulation of languages as well as the typology and transmission methods of specialised texts.

Making the student aware of the presence of such dynamics in specialised communication must be part of the learning outcomes of curricula characterised by an integrated structure of content and language.

Some word formation devices in the field of special languages will be discussed below, since it can help students reflect on those aspects which are useful for educational purposes.

In addition to the monoreferentiality and semantic transparency that characterise the specialised lexicon, the high frequency of hyponyms first emerges. In specialised languages, lexical units that are subordinate to a higher unit that includes them all are widely employed (e. g. *enterprise* > *company* > *partnerships*; *vessels* > *arteries* > *veins*; *building materials* > *concrete*): such phenomenon can be explained by considering the need to condense information with the ease and expressive essentiality of special languages.

Another extremely productive linguistic device as a gradual and ongoing phenomenon is represented by the mechanism of derivation, through which, once a new lexical unit has been built, the whole system will be created, including verb-noun-adjective, as for example in the 'apply' series *application-applicable-applicability*, which can also include the adverb. Sometimes, even antinomial pairs are attested, as in the case of the compressible adjectives. The uncompressible deverbatives of compress.

The ongoing creation of acronyms, that is to say of terms formed by the initials of other words that make up a given phrase, represents an extremely interesting linguistic phenomenon, through which, in a diachronic perspective, one can understand the pragmatic dynamics that have led to the creation and dissemination of new words in a community of speakers. Over time, these dynamics may no longer be transparent for speakers of a particular society at a given historical moment, see for examples words such as LASER (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation), CIF (Cost Insurance and Freight), LSE (London Stock Exchange), identified by the speaker's linguistic awareness as self-standing units, independent of the elements that compose them.

1.4.2. The syntactic level

What distinguishes special languages from common languages is not the application of exclusive morphological or syntactic rules, rather their different distribution and frequency within a text.

The need for clarity and transparency of a specialised text results in fact in the use of linguistic forms that express not only the precise semantic content of the text, but is also able to highlight, in an immediate way, its pragmatic value. This requisite can be also observed through the wide use of prepositions and conjunctions that serve to express those semantic-pragmatic relations in discourse. Hence the use of verbs such as *be*, *illustrate*, *exemplify* or even the use of structures as *for example*, *such as* to introduce examples or *so*, *because of* to illustrate the cause of a fact or event. On a seemingly opposite side the problem of expressive conciseness is mostly achieved through affixation (*allowable*, *applicable*, *programmable*) which synthesizes a more complex syntactic structure consisting of NP + VP.

Phenomena of 'lexical creativity' involve the change from post-modification, characterized by the occurrence of relative constructions, to premodification which provides greater conciseness of the derived noun phrases. The process of nominal adjectivation (for example, *manuscript illuminators*) is also a representative case of the use of premodification, giving the noun

phrase a greater “semantic significance” (Gotti 1991). Complex constructions such as *high-minded, fairly puritanical place* or *the resultant downwards spiral* can create a certain ambiguity of meaning that constitutes one of the main causes of misunderstanding by non-native readers or students. The use of hyphens between the semantically related words often helps disambiguate such constructions as for example in *context-induced changes* or *corpus-based research*, but the meaning of such noun phrases can be fairly transparent to readers with poor linguistic skills⁶.

1.5. The ‘lexical model’ in content and language integrated approaches

In the last decades, studies concerning the acquisition, structuring and teaching of vocabulary in EFL classes have become increasingly specific and widespread. Some of the basic principles of this approach are applicable to teaching practice in ESP classes based on language-content integrated structure programmes.

The lexical approach, spread around the 1990s following the lexicographical research conducted within the COBUILD project, finds its first theoretical formalization in Willis’ *Lexical Syllabus* (1991) who had participated in that project and in Lewis’ *Lexical Approach* (1993). The lexical approach develops from fundamental principles of second language acquisition (SLA) research that, following Krashen’s theories, had become one of the focal points of his communicative approach. In particular, Krashen had highlighted the need to transmit highly significant contents during the language acquisition process that leads to focus attention on the main vehicle of meaning represented by the lexicon. According to this theory, the achievement of appropriate linguistic and communicative competence will therefore depend on the acquisition of a wide lexical repertoire consisting of *prefabricat-*

⁶ Many textbooks propose transformation exercises from postmodified syntactic structures to premodified ones aiming at the practice of nominalization.

ed items. Linguistic creativity of speakers will depend therefore on the knowledge of grammar consisting in a persistent creative recombination of the acquired lexicon. In this way, the traditional grammar-lexicon dichotomy that inevitably assigned a primary function to the structure of the language to which vocabulary is later applied, was overturned so much as to induce Lewis (1998) to affirm that "the central tenet is [that] language consists of grammaticalised lexis not lexicalized grammar" (p. 95). From this perspective, language production is not a process governed by syntactic rules but a phenomenon of recovery of larger phrasal units from memory⁷.

In spoken discourse as well the pervasive and differentiated nature of the 'conventionalized language' is evident. The use of *routinized and prefabricated expressions* as defined by Altenberg (1998), is presented at all levels of linguistic organization and characterizes any type of statements from the simplest to the most complex one.

It is now necessary to see how these *prefabricated items* actually appear in the language. First, they are not only in the form of single words, but also as *chunks* made up of words. Since words are not usually used alone, it is valuable to learn them in a typical frequency model in the actual use of the language. This is the foundation principle of the concept of *collocation*⁸ which is referred to a group of words that frequently co-occur in a language.

Benson (1985) distinguishes two types of collocations: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. To explain the first type, the linguist uses an example taken from Chomsky's *Aspects of the theory of Syntax* (1965), concerning the possible double meaning of the clause *decide on the boat*. In its meaning of 'taking the decision to purchase a boat', the expression re-

⁷According to Bettoni (2001), in a natural communicative context the first production of spontaneous speech is made up of fixed formulas and of some words organized according to semantic rather than syntactic principles. These are stored without analysis of its components, they are initially not productive, but later they will follow a certain evolution in increasingly complex structures (e. g. *I don't know* > *I don't know what's this*).

⁸See further Chapter 8.

fers to a grammatical collocation, while ‘making a decision while on a boat’ represents a simple association of words set side by side. Thus “a grammatical collocation is a recurrent combination usually consisting of a dominant word (noun, word, adjective) followed by a grammatical word, typically a preposition” (p. 61). Thus it is possible to establish collocations of V + Prep as *aim at*, *adhere to*, *account for* or of N + Prep. These examples are not equivalent to *idioms*⁹ since the meaning of these collocations can be more or less inferred from the meaning of its collocates, even though the choice of prepositions is by no means predictable.

Lexical collocations, on the other hand, do not contain any subordinate element, but consist of two lexical components of the same word class. These collocations can appear as sequences of Agg + N (*pure chance*, *serious concern*), N + V (*adjectives modify*, *bells ring*), V + N (*make an impression*, *compile a dictionary*). The principle of arbitrariness therefore seems to govern also collocations: for example a *relative* can be *close* but not *near*; expressions composed of multi-word items such as *I hope so/I hope not*, *I think so/I don’t think so* are well constructed and accepted, while forms such as * *I don’t hope so* and * *I think not* (Lewis 1998) are unlikely to occur in everyday speech.

Particularly valid are the arguments relating to semi-fixed expressions that can be identified in the English language. These expressions consist of a ‘pragmatic or functional’ frame, which can be completed with a referential element linked to the particular context in which it occurs (e. g. *c contains evidence of y* or *c enables y to*). These patterns or *frames* were initially observed mainly in the recurrent patterns of specialised languages. These patterns are based on the assumption that it is possible to imagine a text as consisting of two distinct sections: one related to a schema (frame) that structures the whole discourse and the other consists of gaps (or slots) filled in on occasion by linguistic elements that carry the whole meaning. Content is specific to the topic, while frame is specific to the function and genre of the text.

⁹ *Idioms* are partly fixed expressions the meaning of which does not reflect the meaning of its individual constituent parts.

Making students identify frames and slots of a specialized text constitutes an important prerequisite for its deep understanding and acquisition of specialized linguistic competence: "The principle of suppression of the content bearing words and examine what is left [...] is a powerful lexical tool for ESP and EAP teachers" (Lewis 1998, p. 158).

In an interesting essay on the stylistic potential of phraseological units, Gläser (2001) defines them as groups of lexicalized words of the bi- and polysematic type which, in the common use of the language, possess a certain syntactic and semantic stability. These units perform an emphatic function within the text and sometimes contain connotations determined by the particular context in which they occur and the type of text. Through the application of procedures such as the replacement of phrasal units with other lexemes, it is possible, for example, to verify the different stylistic effect made to a given phraseological unit, while the sentence or cancellation of certain elements will be a useful operation for determine their level of redundancy within the sentence.

The theory of collocations therefore fits within the contextual theory of meaning elaborated by the linguist Firth (1957), according to which words do not combine with other words specifically chosen, but with certain meanings. According to Sinclair (1991) in the use of language many words or phrases show a certain tendency to occur in a given semantic environment: this phenomenon called 'semantic prosody' occurs whenever a word is associated with a given set of meanings and not to others. For example, if we examine the adjective *rife* (*with*), the analysis of its right collocates (Fig. 5) will reveal the occurrence of nouns with strong negative connotations such as *rumors*, *speculation*.

This inductive procedure allows for generalizations concerning the most recurrent patterns of language use occurring in the target language. It primarily aims at knowledge structuring and processing as well as at the acquisition of critical competences along with the SLA process.

Concordances for *rife*

1 encourage fly tipping, which is rife already because most of the office
2 of a bici in the banking sector is rife, although it appears that the spe
3 Counterfeiting is rife and profitable, and Peking seems un
4 and ethnic tension are still rife and violence is rising in Nairobi
5 er, that suspicion in the area was rife and was not confined to any special
6 ption and mismanagement which is rife in the military leadership," said P
7 ears of creeping privatisation are rife. Last week, it passed a vate of n
8 country-house burglaries which are rife now, but which though there were
9 ear. Elsewhere, rumours are rife over the future of Fairlme Boats,
10 how once again thai sexism is as rife perhaps even more so the world o
11 a. NEED TO KNOW: malaria is rife, so bring a course of pills (mefloq
12 said. Speculation has been rife that Mr Saatchi and his brother cur
13 move to New York. Rumours are also rife that the Prince of Wales has reta
14 ts closing stages. Speculation was rife that they would be given death se
15 resistant cerebral malaria, stili rife throughout the country. it killed R
16 of 1,600 passengers, so bonding was rife. was far better than my expe
17 \umps of the ground elder thai was rife when we came here. But the easily
18 so weak thai Washington is already rife with speculation about which Demo
19 , Byatt retains an odd respect). Rife with symbolical patterns, allego
20 hiking away: so absenteeism became rife. it was coolly calculated. They kn
21 e past two months, Wall Street was rife with rumors thai Inie\ would pre-
22 ce the summer. Shanghai has been rife with speculation that either Mr Hua

Fig. 5. Sample of collocations for the adjective *rife*

1.5.1. Tools

Most lexicographical research on its possible educational implications make use of the important resources offered by the large databases set up thanks to the enhancement of IT tools which are often available online. In fact, the ability to manage large amounts of data offered by computers has allowed to define new standards and research principles that are universally valid in the collection of linguistic material to be analyzed. Thus, it is now possible to store large amounts of texts in the computer memory, contributing to the gradual creation of enormous corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC), namely the Bank of English that contains up to 500 million words occurring in 'authentic' contexts of written and spoken language.

The main instrument of analysis of a corpus is represented by a particular type of concordance programme (*concordancer*) which provides lists of occurrences for a given linguistic query from which it is possible to obtain a series of sta-

tistical or more specifically linguistic information concerning the preference or semantic prosody of specific collocates. The concordances thus highlight those aspects of language use that emerge through the recurrence of certain patterns. These concordances, arranged in the KWIC format (Key Word in Context) which places a given node in the middle of a line with double lateral spacing, will be read vertically and considered not as examples of a given linguistic phenomenon, but as samples of language uses.

The possible teaching implications of this approach could be oriented in two directions. The first aiming at identifying words with the same semantic prosody; the second aiming to identify the most frequent terms and patterns as well as the main characteristics of specific textual genres in specialized languages, through a comparative analysis of different corpora.

For example, the analysis of the collocations of the word *illuminated* (Fig. 3), taken from the BNC, could be carried out by filling in the form in Fig. 4.

British National Corpus (BNC)									
SEARCH			FREQUENCY		CONTEXT			HELP	
CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT					[?]			SHOW DUPLICATES	
1	KLT	S_meeting	A	B C	be there, sound recording, cosmetics, food and toys (source) comic illustrations, illuminated manuscripts, eighteen and nineteenth century painting, the whole				
2	F7R	S_classroom	A	B C	week is going to be quite difficult. I'm going to bring in some illuminated medieval books for you to have a look at, because what you're going				
3	F7R	S_classroom	A	B C	're going to do is to write this out in best on special paper using illuminated letters and if you're very good we will try to get them laminated so				
4	AAC	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_misc	A	B C	also claimed to have seen a banana shaped object in the sky, and a characteristic illuminated sign'. Confirmation of this astounding occurrence – which must b				
5	AAC	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_misc	A	B C	Meanwhile, one odd coincidence must be noted: the 'banana-shaped object and characteristic illuminated sign' were apparently similarly described by an Ame				
6	ATY	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_report	A	B C	theatre yesterday, writes William Hartston. Two huge screens above the chess boards carried illuminated chess graphics to display the games. After short spee				
7	ABW	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_report	A	B C	little joint comprising one bar, 15 or so rickety wooden tables, and an illuminated picture of a woman's bottom which flashes on and off. But La Fama				
10	A2G	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_arts	A	B C	's favourite watering holes. Annotated, logged and indexed, his book scarcely illuminated Belushi's demons, or the system that supposedly destroyed him. But				
11	A56	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_editorial	A	B C	politics its particular charm. Recent years have seen a succession of second-rate political memoirs illuminated by the self-serving clarity of hindsight, stashed w				
12	A56	W_newsp_brdsh_tat_editorial	A	B C	with benefit be read by anyone interested in foreign affairs. The whole manuscript is illuminated by a genuinely cultured temperament. His final, understated c				
13	K57	W_newsp_other_arts	A	B C	One large oil painting Ash Grove Shadow features the burly backs of spectators facing the illuminated circuit disciplined by the geometry of cast shadows, while				
14	K54	W_newsp_other_social	A	B C	he asked about the goods but was told to keep driving. But when police illuminated their blue light he pulled over. # DARLINGTON has always prided itself on i				
15	CR5	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	were offered for significant decision-making despite the operation of ostensibly progressive policies. This research illuminated the contradictions of a transito				
16	EDD	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	contention that the issues which we simplify are genuine, very much alive, and illuminated by philosophical treatment as well as by reference to the internatio				
17	EDD	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	and opinion – between what is true objectively and rationally, supported by evidence and illuminated by reason, and what is only a subjective judgment, divore				
18	FDS	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	to injure one's neighbour by want of reasonable care. Now Potts J. has illuminated the way for the definitive judgment of Phillips J. As they have shown, the				
19	GOR	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	familiar is suddenly seen in a new way; the student's core discipline is illuminated under a different cognitive perspective. The student comes to appreciate tha				
20	G19	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	p. 124) observes, the 'attacks on Quargos have obscured, rather than illuminated , the serious issue of how ministerial patronage might be replaced by alternat				
21	G1G	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	the basket of problems to which we have been referring. Other case studies have illuminated in particular ways general theories about politics, and certainly so				
22	H0F	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	form the basis for many hours work in class later on. (5) illuminated manuscripts. An in-depth study of the production of hand-written illuminated manuscripts				
23	H0F	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	, (5) illuminated manuscripts. An in-depth study of the production of hand-written illuminated manuscripts by medieval monks. Pupils find out about the life an				
24	H0F	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	out about the life and work of the monks. They look at examples of illuminated manuscripts, and investigate how they can be used as evidence for life in the				
25	H0F	W_ac_polit_law_edu	A	B C	In improvised sheets, work (in total silence) on the production of illuminated manuscripts. They pause at intervals for prayers; and so on. A messenger				

27	HOF	W_at_eit_polit_low.edu	A	B	C	listen to a story about Canton and the printing press Pupils compare and contrast an illuminated manuscript and an early printed page and list the advantages
27	HOF	W_at_eit_polit_low.edu	A	B	C	analysing the information as evidence for the enquiry. These skills are further illuminated by the general requirements stated at the beginning of the Key Stage
28	BMV	W_religion	A	B	C	a dog sniffing its way along a scent path, but as a motoway , illuminated by very particular lighting signals. So had these cunning little creatures marked out the
29	BMV	W_religion	A	B	C	In fact, since ants, like other insects, have a variety of these illuminated chemical communicators, each meaning different things, their highways – especially w
30	CEE	W_religion	A	B	C	, has become for them an inanimate object of scientific investigation. The divine drama illuminated for us by the Holy Spirit disintegrates into puzzles, conund
31	CEE	W_religion	A	B	C	God's authority would sometimes flash across the universe in miracles and signs which illuminated the true nature of Satan's shadowed kingdom. But after t
32	EFT	W_religion	A	B	C	form of the covenant between God and Israel in Exodus and Deuteronomy has been helpfully illuminated by recent discoveries of Hittite seizure-arrest-treaties m
33	GIY	W_religion	A	B	C	'had been solemnized without a bonfire, but that the separation should be better illuminated '. Johnson reports this and other gory tales, tongue-in-cheek so f
34	GA3	W_religion	A	B	C	, 4:1-3). It explains why Paul will not allow that there are specifically illuminated : gnostic Christians at Colossae: the divine mystery of the god
35	IPC	W_advert	A	B	C	with silk satin #10 # RCA Brian Kirby, Joanna Silvestren Fibre optics and illuminated circuit boards over jersey. Fibre optics by Eurptec, #11 # RCA Paul Hum
36	OFK	W_advert	A	B	C	on the grill canopy, which ensures that your grill and hotplate are always clearly illuminated . There are four burners on the hotplate, set in two deep, easy
37	OFK	W_advert	A	B	C	. Or for a romantic touch, you can see many more of them beautifully illuminated from the rivers as you cruise on a boat over dinner. You could even
38	UUN	W_advert	A	B	C	As you cruise the watersway on a luxury motor launch feast your eyes on the illuminated city and feast yourself on a delightful 4 course dinner – aperitif, wine
39	EBN	W_advert	A	B	C	experience, and a popular choice for visitors to Amsterdam. Cruise through the romantic illuminated waterways to a background of soft music. During the
40	EBN	W_advert	A	B	C	the delightful sights of 17th century Amsterdam. By night when the canals are beautifully illuminated , canal basking becomes extremely romantic. # A WALKING
41	EED	W_advert	A	B	C	gas lighting was in 1802, this was when the outside of the Soho Manufactory was illuminated for the Peace of Amiens. By 1805 the firm of Boulton & Watt were
42	JTE	W_email	A	B	C	a special mention for that wonderfully talented frenchman Monsieur Cantona. His gallic hair was illuminated Old Trafford and the United supporters have tak
43	H08	W_essay_school	A	B	C	upon and transcend it: The darknesses of the beginning of the poem is suddenly illuminated to 'a low stream-line brightness' towards the end when she picks u
44	A16	W_instructional	A	B	C	'system first' is not always # # ELECTRICITY # Bell push is an illuminated bell push heavy on batteries/ illuminated bell push should be used with transformers as they get k
45	A16	W_instructional	A	B	C	# ELECTRICITY # Bell push is an illuminated bell push heavy on batteries/ illuminated bell push should be used with transformers as they get through
46	A16	W_instructional	A	B	C	chime, you'll need to use special bulbs in the bell push. The illuminated versions can be handy if sited near the keyhole – they will probably give you
47	CGS	W_instructional	A	B	C	chance to win an Armitage Sharks bathroom suite # GARDENISE # Designing an advertisement, illuminated garden # FEDERATIONS # Planning a new kitchen
48	A11	W_misc	A	B	C	anything seen before on British stations. Passengers-and-passen-by alike found its value, illuminated photographs of multi-watering meals irresistible – thou
49	ASC	W_misc	A	B	C	and his world of trephachans and banquets was under my window at night. The illuminated Moorish fountain in the cinema foyer contained glistens. One c
50	ASC	W_misc	A	B	C	started without certain opals. A cinema scene in like a baby, my old. illuminated from within. A most spectacular scene that changed colour, appearance, texture

Fig. 3. Sample of collocations of the word illuminated

ITEM/NODE	LEFT COLLOCATES			RIGHT COLLOCATES		
	-1	-2	-3	+1	+2	+3
PATTERN						

Fig. 4. Scheme for the analysis of collocations

After analysing and comparing the collocations from different corpora, students should be able to distinguish varied meanings and contexts of use of the word under study.

A teaching approach that develops, therefore, throughout the enhancement of such extremely varied competences can offer enormous advantages especially when grammatical reflection is carried out inductively by the same students, increasing therefore their autonomous research abilities. In conclusion, this approach can include different levels of analysis ranging from the more strictly lexical study concerning the frequency of certain lexico-semantic choices to the analysis of larger morpho-syntactic structures.

Chapter 2: Teaching-Learning Projects

2.1. Types of programmes

In the last decades, the development of cross-curricular planning has been also fostered by the innovations introduced in the normative field concerning education. These changes of perspectives in the educational process have led to the emergence of new teaching methods and planning criteria that, at cognitive level, involve an ongoing restructuring of learners' knowledge. The result of this process is not the mere coexistence of discrete units of knowledge, but the creation of a complex network of interconnections and cross-references. Sometimes it follows that the acquisition of contents in a given subject acquires a certain significance only if it is correlated to the contents of another subject and vice versa. Figure 1 shows an example of a cross-curricular module on the theme '*Structures*' (see Chapter 4 in this volume) involving Art History, Literature, Philosophy and Linguistics. The term can be intended in its broader meaning when applied to the hierarchical structure of the medieval society or to the narrative framework of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* and Dante's *La Divina Commedia* or the variability of clause structures in the English language.

Thus the teaching of a foreign language will enormously benefit from those educational contexts based on the integration of language and contents.

So far different types of programmes inspired by the idea of the language as a medium of subject instruction have been proposed across time. In some programmes, the content of the 'non-linguistic' subject is a means to teach the foreign language, so a greater emphasis is placed on the acquisition of language skills rather than learning content.

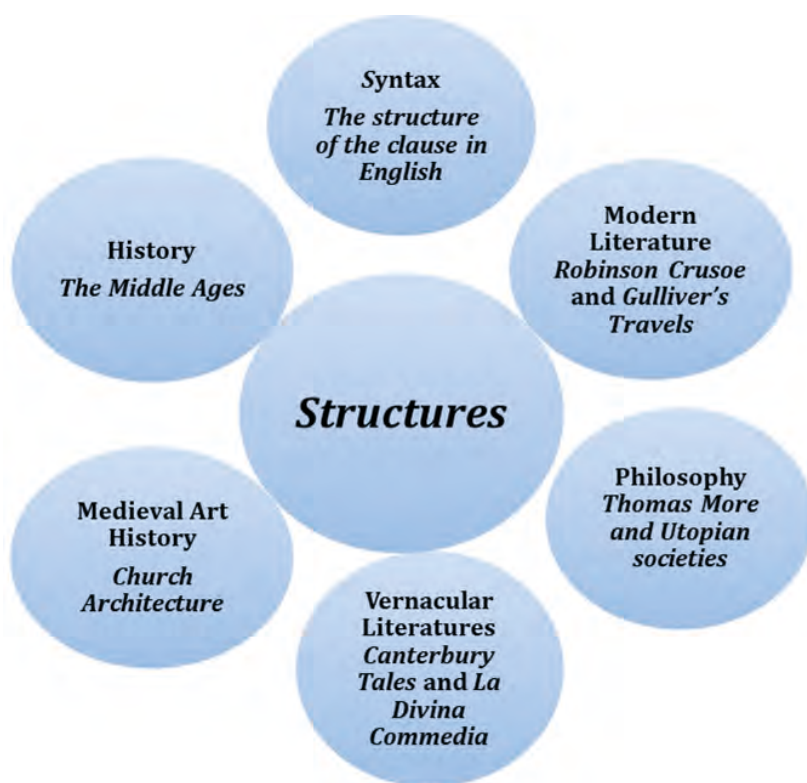


Fig. 1. Example of cross-curricular module on the theme 'Structures'

In other *theme-based* programmes, the language curriculum develops around topics chosen from the curriculum of the specific subject, with the aim of improving students' language skills through interesting contents (Crandall 1994).

In the *content-based language instruction* type, instead, the study techniques and the types of tasks are preferred, while adopting material and teaching methods which are typical of the 'non-linguistic' subjects. In this approach, teaching is conducted solely by the language teacher or in conjunction with the teacher of the 'non-linguistic' subject.

In *sheltered instruction*, the curriculum of the non-linguistic subject is adapted according to students' foreign language skills. In this model, generally adopted in immersion programmes, part of the study curriculum is taught through the foreign language.

The expression *language across the curriculum* indicates a type of teaching focused on the transmission of content aiming to integrate the teaching of the language into other degree programmes.

Chamot and O'Malley in 1987 provided a very complex model of language acquisition known as CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) an instructional model designed to increase the achievement of English-language-learning (ELL) students in the US. The CALLA model, which is based on cognitive learning theory, integrates content-area instruction with language development activities and explicit instruction in learning strategies and study techniques.

In recent years also in Europe the teaching approach based on the 'instrumental' use of the foreign language for the acquisition of specific contents is gradually spreading within the general framework of Content Based Instruction (CBI), also known with the acronym *CLIL* (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*).

The methodological approaches behind these definitions are inspired by the same basic principles: all include, for example, immersion programmes, content-based teaching, bilingual education, etc.

Since these approaches have all in common the basic idea of a full integration of foreign language acquisition and specific content learning, attention is consequently shifted from the formal acquisition of the foreign language to the learning of the language through the study of the contents of a specific subject. In this way, students are given the opportunity to come into contact with the pragmatic and communicative aspects of a given language in academic contexts and not the purely formal features of grammatical norms.

In sum, it is possible to identify two different types of orientation: the former is particularly widespread in bilingual education programmes and oriented towards the acquisition of subjects in which the medium of instruction is the foreign language; the latter, typical of the teaching of special languages or micro-languages, focuses on the study of a foreign language conveyed by the content of non-linguistic subjects.

However, the two orientations present a fundamental difference: while bilingual education responds to educational needs at school level, special languages refer to specific sectors of technology, science, information science, commerce or other domains particularly widespread at academic level.

However, despite the innovative nature covered by such approaches in the field of language teaching and their spreading in primary and secondary education, they do not seem to have had special interest in academic education, where on the contrary they would deserve greater attention not only from a theoretical point of view, but above all for the implementation of innovative teaching practice.

Similar experiences regarding bilingual classes and immersion programmes in Canada and US should not be neglected, since in these geographical areas the problem of ethnic minorities has for long time imposed a serious reconsideration of the ways of learning an L2 through the learning of contents that are already known in L1. These experiences can be a useful starting point also in the European context, especially in relation to the monitoring actions aiming at establishing the quality and quantity of L2 learned by control groups with respect to 'mainstream' classes.

If to these reasons we add the need, determined by the new structure created within the European Union, to improve the level of knowledge and competence in foreign languages in view of an expansion of the labor market beyond the borders of individual countries as well as of the network of possible contacts between people of different languages and cultures, then it is even more important to look for new teaching approaches that may enhance adequate knowledge of foreign languages.

Before briefly explaining the contents of some experiences carried out in academic contexts, it is worth pointing out that they can only be partially placed within the framework of the language and content integrated typology for various reasons.

First, the objectives of the courses to which the materials provided in the second part of the volume are intended. Initially these materials and related activities were designed for under- and post-graduates' courses in Arts and Humanities essen-

tially aiming at improving students' reading and comprehension skills in foreign languages. Graduates in these subjects are involved at different degrees in the acquisition of foreign languages in view of their future professional experience and training. In order to make the teaching **in** a foreign language more responsive to their training and professional needs, it was planned a selection of topics from their academic curriculum as possible topics around which to organize exercises and activities in the foreign language.

However, it is necessary to insist once again on the particular character of these experiences due to the lack of some elements characterizing experiments based on foreign languages as media of instruction. For example, the co-operation between the foreign language teacher and the non-linguistic subject teacher would be particularly useful to provide the language teacher with the essential foundations of the contents to be transmitted in L2. At the same time, however, other interesting factors may emerge from these contexts as the role played by students. In fact, university students are supposed to already possess essential knowledge, skills and abilities that characterize the subject field so that they should be able to compensate with specific interventions during classes the content-specific deficiencies of the foreign language teacher. In this way, the teaching-learning process can also be renewed taking the form of circular progression which is typical of interactive lessons characterised by constant teacher-student exchanges.

2.2. Needs Analysis and motivation

It is known that the new orientations brought to the teaching practice by the so-called humanistic-affective approaches developed in the eighties, have shed a new light on the teacher-student relationship, but above they have given great emphasis to the centrality of the learner. The attention drawn to the emotional aspect and the role of affectivity in the cognitive processes has caused other variables to come into play during the learning pro-