Communication in a Globalized World: Advanced English and its Assessment in the 21st Century

Sharon Hartle – University of Verona, Italy

Abstract

The special position of global English, a language used worldwide as a *lingua franca*, poses particular problems for those who teach and assess English, especially in English for specific purposes (ESP) and academic purposes (EAP) contexts. This article, the result of a longitudinal classroom study and reflection, explores key questions asked by test developers in the Language Centre at the University of Verona, when developing new assessment specifications to measure the language competence of advanced undergraduate learners attending the ESP course of English for Tourism Management. The questions that emerged during the re-assessment of existing assessment criteria were: What does it mean to be an advanced user of a global language? How should we redefine advanced levels if the traditional practice of respecting native-speaker norms is to be overturned? How should we assess this advanced level? The test developers explored learner motivations and needs by means of a survey of undergraduates, carried out with questionnaires and focus group interviews. This led to a re-assessment of the criteria for assessment where the example given here is of spoken English. The article shows ways in which these criteria are being reformulated to reflect the real needs of these learners, the majority of whom do not aspire to integrate in native speaker communities but need to be competent in English as a global language.

1. Introduction: Effective Language in ESP Domains

As our world becomes increasingly globalized, language skills, and in particular, English, are an essential fact of life in many fields. Communicating effectively leads to the co-construction of meanings and clarification of ideas, in fact, in *any* situation. It is, however, particularly important in ESP domains. In

Part of
Ennis, M.J., & Prior, J. (Eds.). (2020). *Approaches to English for Specific and Academic Purposes*. https://doi.org/10.13124/9788860461711
CC BY-SA

fields such as aviation, for instance, misunderstandings through ineffective language use can lead to fatal accidents (Estival & Molesworth, 2009), but what does *ineffective language* mean? In Aviation English, it is not only a lack of second language (L2) competence that is problematic. Rather, misunderstandings may occur as the result of a departure from the internationally accepted language conventions used between air traffic controllers and pilots. It may actually be native speakers who use colloquial language, or nonstandard terms, that are misunderstood by those using English as an L2. As Estival (cited by Patty, 2016) explains, non-adherence to conventionally accepted phraseology between air traffic controllers and pilots such as "Mayday" or "Pan Pan", or other such internationally acceptable terms, may lead to the misinterpretation of what are intended as distress signals. This is in fact what happened in the 1990 crash of the Avianca flight in New York, where the plane crew reported that they were "running out of fuel". This shows that effective language use in our world is not merely a matter of attaining high levels of linguistic competence, but is also a question of developing the skill of being able to communicate clearly.

The undergraduate students at the University of Verona are in a hybrid situation. They require both EAP and ESP skills, depending on their fields. The specific group that are the focus of this article specialize in English for Tourism Management and need to develop the skills and specialist language for this field, which increasingly means combining specialized lexis, for instance, with a competence in global English when communicating in a wider context than a native speaker community. Learner aims reflected this need in a recent survey which sought to determine the actual motivations of those learners, and the results show that such needs may go beyond a narrow focus on the specialist language of the field itself. Educators in universities who are teaching ESP language to undergraduates need to examine the question of what "effective English" is and how best to meet the needs of such learners, who will not be communicating exclusively with native speakers in the future. In order to achieve this, the standards that such students need to reach would require re-examination.

This paper explores these questions with reference to learner needs in and beyond the local ESP context of the tourism management course at the University of Verona, at the heart of Kachru's *expanding circle* (1992), and asks what "advanced English" means in such a context and how our oral test proficiency assessment criteria might be adapted to cater for the needs of such students.

1.1 Which Norms are Required for Global English?

The standards learners are usually required to aim for when studying languages have generally been native speaker norms, reflecting the need of many language learners to communicate with native speakers. This is no longer enough for ESP students whose aim is to communicate mainly with other non-native speakers of English in specific professional contexts. Their aim is not to emulate native speakers but to express themselves clearly in their field. The dramatic example of aviation English mentioned above illustrates clearly how failure to communicate according to the accepted norms of a specific field may lead to a breakdown in communication. Global English, in fact, prioritizes clear communication over sophisticated accuracy at advanced levels. Tourism Management English language undergraduates at the University of Verona aspire to this type of global communication both for personal and professional language use. They communicate with friends, other students, and, in the future, intend to interact with a whole range of interlocutors, of whom native speakers form a small minority. English, therefore, stands in the very special position in our world of being a global language used as a *lingua franca* in professional contexts worldwide.

The University of Verona lies at the heart of Kachru's (1992) *expanding circle*, which is the area of his model inhabited by non-natives, such as Italian undergraduates who study English. In this article, my aim is to examine the role of global English for these learners, to consider the motivations of advanced level ESP learners in our context, and to explore what "advanced English" means to them. Assessment is a key component of the educational system, and this discussion therefore also examines the adaptation of assessment criteria for

oral tests at advanced levels in an attempt to reflect realistic *global English* norms.

1.2 English as a Global Language

English, as mentioned above, plays a new role in its special, global position. Experts refer to the way many use the language around the world in different ways. McKay (2003) refers to the phenomenon as *English as an international language*, Jenkins *et al*. (2011) and Seidlhofer (2004) refer to it as *English as a lingua franca* (EIL). It has now become the *lingua franca* for so many, however, used all around the world, that Crystal (1997, 2003b) refers to it as a "global language," which means, in his words, "when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country" (2003, p. 3) It can be thought of, then, as a massive-scale *lingua franca*, where the numbers of those using the language are what make it a global phenomenon. This raises an interesting question: Who "owns" English? Traditionally, native speakers think of their language as belonging to them, but is that still true when the majority of speakers are non-natives?

1.3 Ownership of English

David Crystal (1997) already considered English to be a global language at the end of the last century, when he explored the idea of *English as a global language* in the news. Every time we switch on the television, he reminded us, we can see the language for ourselves, being used by everyone from politicians to celebrities, to communicate with each other. He stressed the fact that whilst native speakers may express pride in the fact that their language is being used like this, the phenomenon also gives rise to considerable concern about ownership:

We are all sensitive to the way other people use (it is often said, abuse) "our" language. Deeply held feelings of ownership begin to be questioned. Indeed, if there is one predictable consequence of a language becoming a global language, it is that nobody owns it any more. Or rather, everyone who has

learned it now owns it – "has a share in it" might be more accurate – and has the right to use it in the way they want. This fact alone makes many people feel uncomfortable, even vaguely resentful. "Look what the Americans have done to English" is a not uncommon comment found in the letter-columns of the British press. But similar comments can be heard in the USA when people encounter the sometimes striking variations in English which are emerging all over the world. (1997, pp. 2–3)

Ownership is, in my view, the crux of the matter when it comes to teaching and assessing global English in ESP contexts as well. Not only native-speaker but also expert English user teachers who profess their belief in the value of global English still often unconsciously adopt the native speaker model as their standard, putting pressure on learners to reach unrealistic and inappropriate levels that do not reflect the requirements of the fields they intend to work in. Learners who do not need to belong to native-speaker communities do not need to reach native speaker competence. The question that perhaps has to be asked is this. How does the language required for ESP contexts such as tourism management differ from the native speaker model?

2. Advanced Learners at the University of Verona and Their Motivation

In 2015, the Language Centre at the University of Verona decided to revisit both C1 courses and assessment criteria. The question was who our learners are now and what they need when they study English, thinking both of their EAP requirements for the academic coursework they do, and the specialist ESP language of tourism management, but also considering the use they will make of that language in their future professions. Approximately 50 undergraduate tourism management language students, who were attending our C1 level courses at that time, were asked to participate in a fact-finding mission which involved discussion of and reflection on the motivation behind their studies by asking them two questions:

- What motivated you to study English at the University of Verona?
- What do you intend to do with English after you graduate?

2.1 Methodology

The learners, who sometimes find it difficult to appreciate what questions like this might mean, were organized into small discussion groups of five individuals per group. They looked at the questions together and discussed their meanings to them personally. They then gave their own answers by anonymous poll. The questions were open-ended to ensure a measure of free expression to avoid influencing respondents by supplying multiple choice options. A focus group discussion with twenty students was then organized to clarify various points.

2.2 Results

Figure 1 shows *international communication* clearly as the number one motivator, followed by work and travel. The focus group participants added that by international communication they usually meant social media use both personal and professional. Most of the participants felt that, although they had begun their studies because they believed English would help them in practical ways in the future, the more they studied, the more they loved the language itself. They also agreed that working or communicating in an international community did not necessarily mean working abroad, but was more likely to mean dealing with people of different nationalities.

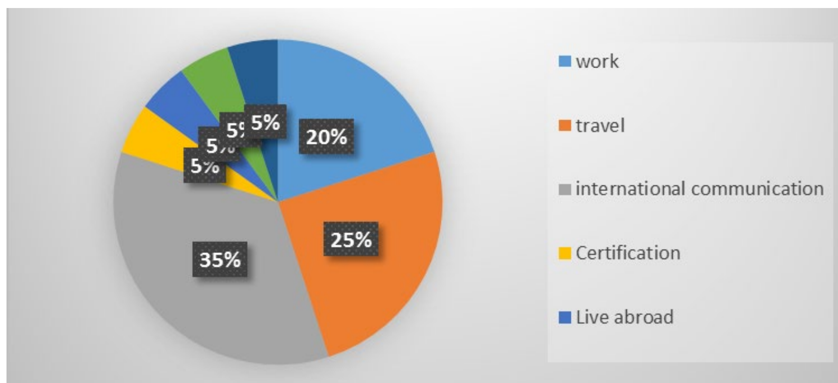


Figure 1 – Motivation to study English at the University of Verona

Figure 2 shows that the second question returned very similar results. When the end of one's university career approaches, thoughts turn inevitably towards careers, so it is not surprising that, when answering this question, a higher number of learners declared that they saw themselves using English at work in the future, the percentage value increasing from twenty to forty-four percent, with *international communication* and *travel* coming in a joint second. The percentage of students who intended or wished to *live abroad*, on the other hand, is small in answer to both the first and the second question, around six percent.

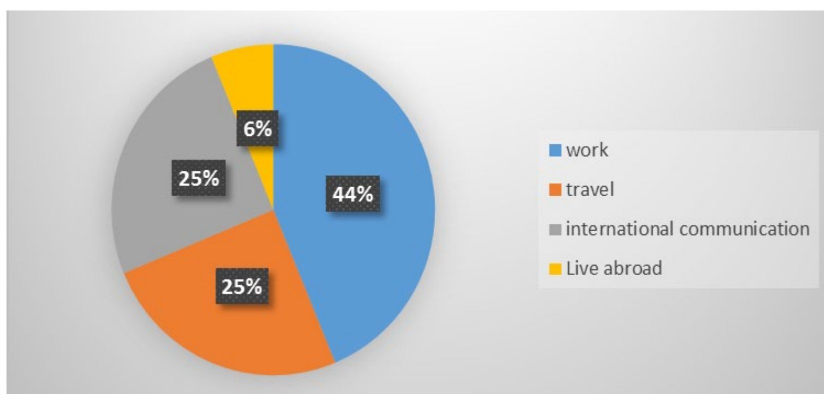


Figure 2 – Plans for future use of English after graduation

Clearly, learners aim not at native-speaker mastery, but at being able to express themselves clearly with other non-native English speakers both socially and professionally. Our teaching priorities, in the Language Centre, to prepare those learners for their future professional contexts, must shift towards ensuring clear expression rather than expecting learners to reach levels of native-speaker proficiency.

3. What Does "Advanced English" Mean?

How can teachers help learners navigate the unknown waters of this new global English? Kramsch and Sullivan (cited by McKay, 2003 p. 145) point out that "an appropriate pedagogy for the teaching of EIL depends upon local professionals thinking globally but acting locally." This may mean teachers looking at their learners and the ways they will use English in the future. We then need to help our learners find the strategies they must develop to express themselves clearly. To determine our learners' goals we asked this question: Who are advanced English learners in the University of Verona and what motivates them?

To attempt to describe what it means to be an advanced user of English in our world, one of the best places to start is the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) description.

3.1 C1 and the CEFR

The CEFR groups advanced users into the *C* levels which come under the umbrella term of "proficient user." It classifies a C1 level as "effective operational proficiency" (2001, p. 5), which, despite a certain vagueness, suggests that advanced English users can "operate" in all situations. The descriptors in the framework do not refer to specific contexts, as they were designed as general guidelines to apply and adapt to specific, local contexts such as work, study, or social interaction. The framework, in fact, aims to describe what can be

done rather than to create prescriptive norms which are set in stone. Chapter 4, furthermore, clearly underlines the fact that when non-natives communicate in an L2, the L1 does not simply disappear, and instead aspects of interculturality invariably arise, which need to be considered. When English users of different cultural backgrounds add their own cultures and linguistic backgrounds to the mix, the most successful ones will be those who know how to make their meaning as clear as possible and cater for misunderstandings that occur due to cultural factors or differences in proficiency level. In this scenario native-speaker competence may actually hamper communication if the interlocutor's competence is less advanced and that speaker is not able to accommodate to the level of others. A successful communicator, in fact, can accommodate his or her language level to the level of the interlocutor.[1] When considering advanced language, three concepts that are often used in assessment criteria are accuracy, fluency, and complexity, but whilst accuracy and fluency are possibly easier to define, complexity is somewhat more challenging.

3.2 Complexity

Many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have explored the notion of "complexity" (Housen, Folkert, & Vedder, 2012; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Ortega, 2003). Contemporary researchers, in fact, often investigate the concept in two broad ways. The first is to approach the concept as an independent variable which has an indirect effect on the L2, such as the effects of instruction on certain areas of L2 performance or proficiency (Bulté & Housen, 2012; Spada & Tomita, 2010). The second approach, on the other hand, investigates complexity as a dependent variable, often grouped

1 *Accommodation* in linguistics is a term originally coined by Giles (1973) as part of his Communication Accommodation Theory. It has been extended (Crystal, 2003a; Jenkins, 2000; Walker, 2010) to refer to interlocutors adapting their language by converging, or adapting speech, language and pronunciation patterns to reflect the other interlocutor's patterns, to gain acceptance or to create rapport with that person, or simply to increase the effectiveness of the interaction.

together with accuracy and fluency, as a basic descriptor of performance and proficiency. (Bygate, 1996, 1999; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Pallotti, however, writes that complexity is still "poorly defined" (2015, p. 1) and proposes a simple view of the construct, limiting it to the structural complexity of language, "the complexity directly arising from the number of linguistic elements and their interrelationships" (2015, p. 1).

An interesting afterthought to the idea of complexity as we commonly conceive of it stems from The Cambridge Dictionary. The online site for this dictionary defines "complexity" as: "the state of having many parts and being difficult to understand or find an answer to." Complexity, then, if it is "difficult to understand" should, on the face of it, be avoided, but when it comes to language, the opposite may prove true, because the vaguer the language you use, the less clear your message actually becomes. In spoken language, it is often a case of the number of clauses and information units conveyed that creates this complexity. "I like Verona,"[2] which is a simple statement actually does not tell us very much. Does the speaker like the people, the architecture, the food? Adding more constituent parts or a more specific word choice can make the meaning clearer. "I like Verona because it is a beautiful city"[3] is already more complex in that it has a subordinate clause which tells us that what this person likes is the beauty of the city itself.

When learners reach even higher levels, complex utterances enable them to express their meaning in much more precise ways, as they have greater linguistic resources to draw on. This is one such example: "I love the town centre, here... it's the atmosphere and the mix of colours and styles… hmm, in the buildings, ..as I wander along its romantic, old streets."[4] The resources the individual draws on, such as the more sophisticated word choice of "wander,"

---

2 Produced at an A2 level by leaners at the Language Centre at the University of Verona.

3 Produced at a B1 level.

4 Produced at a C1 level.

are much higher and, therefore, the language itself is more complex, with multiple constituent elements such as coordinated clauses and discourse markers such as pronouns. This learner wove all these elements skillfully together to create a clear meaning of what she liked about Verona. Using complex language, then, can actually make the meaning clearer and less difficult to understand. Indeed, complexity can be both structural, as discussed above, and also a matter of lexical choice, which includes choosing the most appropriate words or lexical items to convey meaning, where "appropriate" refers both to meaning, form, and register. When is it appropriate to use the verb "grab," for instance, and when would "take" be the better choice? When thinking about collocation, clarity of expression falls down when learners talk about "making breakfast" when what they actually mean is "having breakfast." The constituent parts of such collocations are not difficult, but what makes them challenging is the combination itself (Conzett, 2001; Granger, 2014; Martinez, 2013). A close examination of learner errors can therefore reveal which choices hinder the clarity of their expression.

3.3 What do C1 Undergraduate Learners Find difficult?

Analysing errors in L2 production often reveals major language areas that learners struggle with. Figure 3 shows the results of a study of ten descriptive texts written by learners on C1 level courses at the Language Centre at the University of Verona (see one sample text in Appendix A). Although writing gives us no insight into pronunciation or interaction skills, it does tell us what structural elements our specific learners need to focus on. In this case, as the statistics clearly show, one of the largest problems is lexis, with the highest rate of 57 of 195 errors related to word choice, many of which come from L1 transfer errors such as "The historical part of the city is collocated in the highest part…," where "collocated" actually means "located" or "they promote the city with a lot of interesting manifestations such as "Eurochocolate…," where "manifestations" means "events." Collocation

errors also abound[5] such as "Umbrians are really proud about their…" instead of "proud of" or "Feltre is one of the most populated cities…" where it would be more natural, according to a corpus search in The Corpus of Contemporary American English (https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/) to say "densely"/"sparely"/ "highly populated."[6]

Other areas that learners struggle with are orthography, as can be seen in errors such as spelling "wich" instead of "which"[7] and "holydays" instead of "holidays", word classes, such as "bakeries product the well-liked sweets" instead of "produce," or possessives: "the Pope power" instead of the "Pope's power." Syntactic errors also affect clarity of expression, and these errors often take the shape of missing words such as articles or pronouns: "Historic part of the city" instead of "The historic part of the city" or "in addition to the pleasant surprises that offers" instead of "that it [the city] offers." Many of these, as mentioned above, are transfer errors from the L1, and if what learners seek to do is to communicate clearly, then what matters is how far such errors impede the clarity of their message.

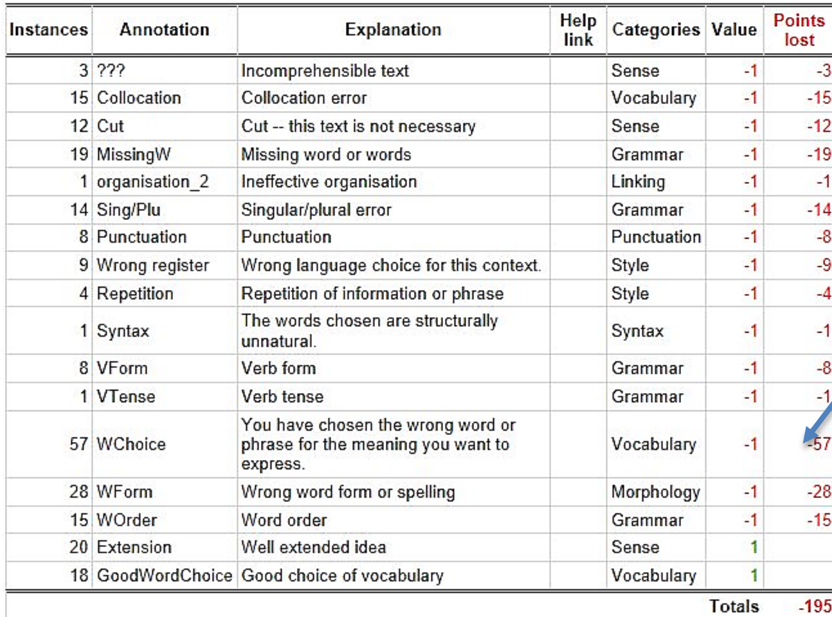
In spoken production, pronunciation features also play their role, in that incorrect single sounds, or even word or sentence stress can impede the clarity of the message. One of the problems learners face most frequently is that of having to "search for the word," which causes long, unnatural pauses in their discourse. What the analysis tells us about the problems learners face is that they are primarily structural. Expressing your ideas clearly with the appropriately complex lexical and syntactic features means focusing first of all on these

5 Some of these have been classified as missing word errors, where the error is a missing adverb/adjective collocation such as "well known".

6 A collocate search in the American Corpus reveals the most frequent eight adverb collocates with "populated" to be, in order of frequency: "densely," "sparsely," "heavily," "more," "most," "less," "highly," "thinly."

7 Many spelling errors may in fact be slips made when typing rather than a lack of knowledge of orthography.

aspects. In short, L2 users who have an easily accessible repertoire of sophisticated lexical items as well as the underlying grammatical structures, will be able to express their meanings effectively.



Instances	Annotation	Explanation	Help link	Categories	Value	Points lost
3	???	Incomprehensible text		Sense	-1	-3
15	Collocation	Collocation error		Vocabulary	-1	-15
12	Cut	Cut -- this text is not necessary		Sense	-1	-12
19	MissingW	Missing word or words		Grammar	-1	-19
1	organisation_2	Ineffective organisation		Linking	-1	-1
14	Sing/Plu	Singular/plural error		Grammar	-1	-14
8	Punctuation	Punctuation		Punctuation	-1	-8
9	Wrong register	Wrong language choice for this context.		Style	-1	-9
4	Repetition	Repetition of information or phrase		Style	-1	-4
1	Syntax	The words chosen are structurally unnatural.		Syntax	-1	-1
8	VForm	Verb form		Grammar	-1	-8
1	VTense	Verb tense		Grammar	-1	-1
57	WChoice	You have chosen the wrong word or phrase for the meaning you want to express.		Vocabulary	-1	-57
28	WForm	Wrong word form or spelling		Morphology	-1	-28
15	WOrder	Word order		Grammar	-1	-15
20	Extension	Well extended idea		Sense	1	
18	GoodWordChoice	Good choice of vocabulary		Vocabulary	1	
					Totals	-195

Fig. 3 – Advanced learner production statistics from 10 C1 level descriptive writing texts

The next step to take is to consider how to assess this advanced language, and we are currently revising our entire C1 course. However, for the purposes of this article I will focus mainly on the criteria we are developing for advanced spoken English.

4. New Assessment Criteria for C1 Level Spoken Performance

Although language production, especially in our new world of global communication, goes beyond the purely structural level, the statistics here show

how interaction can be hampered by lacking complexity in areas such as word choice, and that not knowing the specific word to use completely blocks communication. In our context, however, where we want to assess global English, we need to go beyond simply testing the structural level of the language. Our existing assessment construct is based on criterion-referenced performance assessment used to determine communicative language ability (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980). This reflects our learners' goals in part, but in order to assess learners with an eye to global English, such factors as language accommodation skills, or meaning negotiation also need to be included. They are part of interaction, which needs to be emphasized and developed. Kramsch described this skill as *interactional competence*:

Interaction always entails negotiating intended meanings i.e., adjusting one's speech to the effect one intends to have on the listener. It entails anticipating the listener's response and possible misunderstandings, clarifying one's own and the other's intentions and arriving at the closest possible match between intended, perceived and anticipated meanings (1986, p. 367).

Our assessment criteria already measure interaction, but the added aspects of "anticipating possible misunderstandings" or "clarifying" had not previously been well-defined in our descriptors. We have not completed the work on our C1 oral production descriptors yet, and our descriptors should be considered as a starting point for further work. A draft of the new descriptors, however, compared with a hypothetical model of commonly used descriptors gives some insight into the changes we are making. The lexico-grammatical criteria reflect a move away from pure competence to the ability to be able to use language for clear expression, where accuracy and complexity may determine the clarity of a specific message. With reference to word choice, which is particularly problematic for our learners, this means the ability to select appropriate lexis to express required meanings clearly. The first descriptors for pronunciation reflect native speaker norms, when they require candidates to be intelligible at all times. Testers who develop such descriptors have fallen prey to the lure of native-speaker norms. The focus in the new model lies, once again, in communicating clearly. Non-impeding pronunciation errors do not cause

communication breakdown and are therefore not overly taken into account. The new discourse descriptor highlights the skill of organization, with candidates required to use clear signposting to aid their message. Candidates must organize their ideas logically and extend their repertoire to include abstract thoughts, but the key here is to make that organization clear to the listener. Last, but definitely not least, comes interaction. This descriptor has grown in depth to go beyond factors such as turn-taking and to embrace mutual support and negotiation towards new meanings, seeing spoken discourse as a jazz improvisation where all the musicians build on what has gone before to make new music.

Table 1 – A comparison between a hypothetical C1 level model for spoken assessment criteria and the new draft for global English descriptors.

Hypothetical model of commonly used descriptors	Our model in progress
Lexical and Grammatical Resource: being able to use appropriate forms and make appropriate choices to express complexity.	**Ability to use a range of grammar and lexis** to communicate clear messages in as specific a way as possible.
Pronunciation: being intelligible at all times with a command of natural sound production, rhythms, and patterns.	**Pronunciation** must be clearly comprehensible with minimum impeding errors both of single sounds or prosodic features in general.
Discourse Ideas should be developed clearly even when complex and unfamiliar to speaker. Hesitation should be natural rather than prolonged as learners search for vocabulary.	Ideas should be structured and **signposted** logically to help support the listener. The language produced should be relevant and go beyond basic everyday meanings.
Interaction: speakers should respect the norms of turn-taking and neither dominate nor speak too little.	**Ability** to listen to other speakers and to negotiate towards new meanings. The ability to provide support for other speakers in order to reach mutual comprehension

5. Conclusion

Our C1 undergraduate English learners definitely aim to develop their own English voices particularly in the ESP field of tourism management. Clear expression is prioritized over native-speaker mastery, as mutual comprehension between interlocutors is key. Educators need to revise their strategies both when teaching and assessing this type of L2 use. Our new speaking assessment criteria seek to move in this direction by stressing two main points. Firstly developing criteria at the lexico-grammatical, structural level that focus on the clear expression of the message rather than only accuracy and range. Secondly, developing awareness of others means focusing also on learners' interactional competence and negotiation skills. By adapting the assessment criteria, we hope to be moving towards a more effective measurement of the type of language skills required by those learners to communicate internationally in their future professional fields.

References

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bulté, B., & Housen, A. (2012). Defining and operationalising L2 complexity. In A. Housen, F. Kuiken, & I. Vedder (Eds.), *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency investigating complexity, accuracy and fluency in S*L (pp. 21–46). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: Appraising the developing language of learners. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching* (pp. 136–146). Oxford: Heinemann.

Bygate, M. (1999). Quality of language and purpose of task: Pattern of learners' language on two oral communication tasks. *Language Teaching Research*, *3*(3), 185–214. doi:10.1177/136216889900300302

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Approaches to communicative competence. SEAMEO Occasional Papers, *14*(14), 104–180.

Complexity. (n.d.) In Cambridge online dictionary. Retrieved from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/complexity

Conzett, J. (2001). Integrating collocation into a reading and writing course. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation* (2nd ed., pp. 70–86). Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2003a). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (5th ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Crystal, D. (2003b). *English as a global language.* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1353/lan.2005.0220

Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing learner language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Estival, D., & Molesworth, B. (2009). A study of EL2 pilots' radio communication in the general aviation environment. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *32*(3), 1–16. doi:10.2104/aral0924

Giles, H. (1973). Accent mobility: A model and some data. *Anthropological Linguistics*, *15*(2), 87–105.

Granger, S. (2014). The use of collocations by intermediate vs. advanced non-native writers: A bigram-based study. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *52*, 229–252. doi:10.1515/iral-2014-0011

Housen, A., Folkert, K., & Vedder, I. (2012). Complexity, accuracy and fluency Definitions and research. In A. Housen, F. Kuiken, & I. Vedder (Eds.), *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency - Investigating complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA* (pp. 1–20). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., Dewey, M., King's, M. D., & London, C. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, *44*(3), 281–315. doi:10.1017/S0261444811000115

Kachru, B. (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. Chicago, IL: The University of Illinois Press.

Kramsch, C. (1986). From language proficiency to interactional competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(4), 366–72. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05291.x

Martinez, R. (2013). A framework for the inclusion of multi-word expressions in ELT. *ELT Journal*, *67*(2), 184–198. doi:10.1093/elt/ccs100

McKay, S. L. (2003). Teaching English as an international language: The Chilean context. *ELT Journal*, *57*(2), 139–148. doi:10.1093/elt/57.2.139

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*(3), 417–518. doi:10.1111/0023-8333.00136

Ortega, L. (2003). Syntactic complexity measures and their relationship to L2 proficiency: A research synthesis of college-level L2 writing. *Applied Linguistics*, *24*(4), 492–518. doi:10.1093/applin/24.4.492

Patty, A. (2016). Fatal consequences of miscommunication between pilots and air traffic controllers. Retrieved from http://www.smh.com.au/business/workplace-relations/the-fatal-consequences-of-miscommunication-between-pilots-and-air-traffic-controllers-20160927-grq1d9.html

Seidlhofer, B. (2004). 10. Research perspectives on teaching english as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *24*, 209–239. doi:10.1017/S0267190504000145

Spada, N., & Tomita, Y. (2010). Interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *60*(2), 1–46. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00562.x

Walker, R. (2010). *Teaching the pronunciation of English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Appendix A

One Sample of C1 Level Written Production from the Study

Text Two

Perugia is a nice and medieval[1] gothic city that raises[WChoice] in the green heart of Italy. Founded by {*}[MissingW]Etruscan[Sing/Plu] between {*}[MissingW] XI and X century b[Punctuation].C Perugia represents[WChoice] nowadays one of the most ancient city[Sing/Plu] visited by tourists every year.

The historical part of the city is collocated[WChoice] in the highest part of {*}[MissingW]Umbrian hills: in the past it was a very strategic place to get by[WChoice] [2] during war periods. "Corso Vannucci,"which incorporates the most important sites like Palazzo dei Priori and August Arch, extends his[WChoice] allyways[GoodWordChoice] from the "Fontana Maggiore" to "Piazza Italia" where you can find the principal[7] terrace from which[Wrong register] spreads[WOrder] all the valley within the modern part of the city.

{*}[WOrder]From the principal[3] train station you can admire the rest of the Etruscan constructions: only a little anticipation[???] of the incredible "Rocca Paolina" symbol of the Pope[WForm] power and nowadays used as an exposition site[WChoice]. Along the streets[WOrder] every restaurant invites you to taste the best truffles and cold meat ever[GoodWordChoice], of course not forgetting red wine.

Umbrian[Sing/Plu] are really proud about[Collocation] their treasure[9] so that they promote the city[GoodWordChoice] with a lot of interesting manifestations[WChoice] such as "Eurochocolate" which takes place every October and let[VForm] {*}[WChoice] people discover another sweet secret of the city: Perugina chocolate, one of the most {*}[MissingW]sold all over Italy. Umbria Jazz is another great bargain[WChoice] during {*}[MissingW]summer holydays[WForm] in which[Wrong register] a lot of artists delight people with their music[GoodWordChoice].

So what are you waiting for? The green heart is waiting for you!

1. Link attributive adjectives with a comma.
2. I'm not sure what you mean here? Do you mean "pass"?
3. Why would "main" be better than "principal"?