

ISSN 2334-9182 (Print)
ISSN 2334-9212 (Online)

JOURNAL

OF

TEACHING

ENGLISH FOR

SPECIFIC &

ACADEMIC

PURPOSES

Vol. 8, N° 3, 2020



UNIVERSITY OF NIŠ

ISSN 2334-9182 (Print)
ISSN 2334-9212 (Online)

JOURNAL

OF

TEACHING

E

ENGLISH FOR

S

PECIFIC &

A

CADEMIC

P

URPOSES

Vol. 8, N° 3, 2020



UNIVERSITY OF NIŠ

JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES

Editor-in-Chief:

Nadežda Stojković

e-mail: nadezda.stojkovic@elfak.ni.ac.rs

Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš

Aleksandra Medvedeva 14, Serbia

Phone: +381 18 529 105

Telefax: +381 18 588 399

Editor-in-Chief's assistant:

Nebojša Jotović, M.Sci., Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš, Serbia

<http://espeap.junis.ni.ac.rs/index.php/espeap>

International Editorial Board:

Ann Johns, Professor Emerita, San Diego State University, United States

Diane D Belcher, Georgia State University, USA

Maggie Charles, Oxford University, UK

Bojka Đukanović, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Montenegro

Dragan Antić, Rector of the University of Niš, Serbia

Davronzhon Erkinovich Gaipov, Dean of the Faculty of Philology and Educational Sciences, Suleyman Demirel University, Kazakhstan

Nataša Bakić-Mirić, University of Niš, Serbia

Solzica Popovska, Ss Cyril and Methodius University, Macedonia

Melodie Hull, Thompson Rivers University- Open Learning Division and College of the Rockies, Canada

Oleg Tarnopolsky, Vice Rector of the Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine

Basim M. Abubaker Faraj, University of Benghazi, Al Marj, Libya

Besa Bytyqi, South East European University, Tetovo, Macedonia

Masashi Nagai, Nagoya Institute of Technology, Japan

Gabriela Chmelikova, Slovak University of Technology, Faculty of Materials Science and Technology, Slovakia

Ivanka Ferčec, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia

Yvonne Liermann Zeljak, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia

Inese Ozola, Latvia University of Agriculture, Jelgava, Latvia

Erdem Akbas, Erciyes University, Department of English Language Teaching, Kayseri, Turkey, Turkey

Chih-Min Shih, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

Danijela Đorđević, University of Belgrade, Serbia

Svetlana Rubtsova, Saint-Petersburg State University, Saint-Petersburg, Russia

Vanya Katsarska, Aviation Faculty, National Military University, Bulgaria, Bulgaria

Tariq Elyas, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Song Wang, Harbin Institute of Technology, China

Tatyana Dobrova, Saint-Petersburg State University, Saint-Petersburg, Russia

Changyuan Liu, Harbin Institute of Technology, China

Ludmila Hurajova, Slovak University of Technology, Faculty of Materials Science and Technology in Trnava, Slovak Republic, Slovakia

Dmitry Zerkin, Russian Customs Academy, Moscow, Russian Federation

Lisa Nazarenko, University of Applied Sciences Technikum Wien University of Vienna, Austria

Nalan Kenny, Enterprise South Liverpool Academy, United Kingdom

Biljana Čubrović, Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, Serbia

Nijolė Burksaitienė, Institute of Humanities Mykolas Romeris University Vilnius Lithuania, Lithuania

Zorica Prnjat, University of Belgrade, Serbia

Anna Stefanowicz-Kocol, The State Higher Vocational School, Poland

Halina Sierocka, University of Bialystok, Faculty of Law, Poland

Vesna Cigan, Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and Naval Architecture, Zagreb, Croatia

Darija Omrčen, Faculty of Kinesiology, University of Zagreb, Croatia

Zorica Antić, Faculty of Medicine, University of Niš, Serbia, Serbia

Nataša Milosavljević, Faculty of Medicine, University of Niš, Serbia

Danica PirsI, Faculty of sport, University of Nis, Serbia

Valentina Yordanova, Varna Free University "Chernorizets Hrabar", Varna, Bulgaria

Branka Maksimović, University of Banja Luka, the Republic of Srpska
Achilleas Ioannis Kostoulas, The University of Graz, Austria
Dragana Božić Lenard, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Computer Science and Information Technology Osijek, Croatia
Adel Ali, Vocational Training Centre Bach Hamba, Sfax, Tunisia
Slavica Čepon, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia
Somali Gupta, V.Y.T.P.G. Autonomous College Durg Chhattisgarh, India
Delia Lungu, 'Mircea cel Batran', Naval Academy, Constanta, Romania
Marijana Budeč-Staničić, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia
Kabiyat Kubacheva, North-West State Mechnikov Medical University, Saint-Petersburg, Russian Federation
Serafina Filice, University of Calabria, Italy

Copy Editor & Proofreader:

Melodie Hull, Thompson Rivers University - Open Learning Division and College of the Rockies, Canada
Nadežda Stojković, Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš, Serbia

Layout Editor:

Mile Ž. Randelović, University of Niš, Serbia

Technical Assistance:

Nebojša Jotović, M.Sci., Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš, Serbia

UDC Classification Associates:

Branka Stanković, Ivan Mitić, Library of Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš

Secretary:

Olgica Davidović, University of Niš, Serbia

Publisher:

University of Niš

Univerzitetski trg 2, 18000 Niš, Serbia

Phone: +381 18 257 095

Telefax: +381 18 257 950

Printed by

"UNIGRAF-X-COPY" – Niš, Serbia

© 2020 by University of Niš, Serbia

<p>CIP - Каталогизacija у публикацији Народна библиотека Србије, Београд 811.111:37 JOURNAL of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes / editor-in-chief Nadežda Stojković. - Vol. 1, no. 1, (2013)- . - Niš (Univerzitetski trg 2) : University of Niš, 2013- (Niš : Unigraf-x-copy). - 24 cm Tri puta godišnje ISSN 2334-9182 = Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes COBISS.SR-ID 202381836</p>

ABOUT THE JOURNAL AND DIRECTIONS FOR AUTHORS

The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes is an open access peer-reviewed international journal published by the University of Niš, Republic of Serbia. We publish high quality, refereed papers three times a year. Papers reporting original research or extended versions of the already published conference/journal papers are all welcome. Papers for publication are selected through peer reviewing to ensure originality, relevance, and readability. The aim of the Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes is to publish peer reviewed research and review articles fast without delay in the developing fields of ESP, EAP, General and Applied Linguistics. It is our aim for the Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes to become a platform for enhancing these fields of science and teaching practice.

The principal aim of the Journal is to bring together the latest research and development in various fields connected in any way with the ESP, EAP, General and Applied Linguistics.

Online submission system, electronic peer review and production make the process of publishing your article very simple and efficient. Usually, it takes 2 to 3 months before the moment you finished your submission and a response generated by the reviewing system. If your paper is accepted, we will try to publish it in the current issue.

General Journal guidelines for authors can be found at:

http://espeap.junis.ni.ac.rs/files/journals/1/instructions/ESPEAP_Instructions_for_authors.doc

If the authors provide a previously published conference submission, Editors will check the submission to determine whether there has been sufficient new material added to warrant publication in the Journal.

The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes guidelines are that the submissions should contain a significant amount of new material, that is, material that has not been published elsewhere. New results are not required; however, the submission should contain expansions of key ideas, examples, elaborations, and so on, of the conference submission. The paper submitted to the journal should differ from the previously published material by at least 40 percent. Research articles are usually about 10 pages long. However, in special cases, shorter or longer articles may be accepted with appropriate reasoning.

Table of Contents

Svetlana Sakovets, Olga Rodionova, Natalia Lazovskaya SEMANTIC-SEMIOTIC TRANSLATION MODEL AS A CRITERION FOR THE SEARCH FOR A TRANSLATION SOLUTION	163
Salvador Montaner-Villalba WRITTEN EXPRESSION IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES THROUGH BLOGGING AND COOPERATIVE LEARNING	171
Tina Orel Frank NEONYM ANALYSIS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE FOR TOURISM PURPOSES	187
Maryna Rebenko MODELLING ESP TEACHER IDENTITY IN UKRAINIAN TERTIARY EDUCATION.....	201
Iryna Liashenko, Lyudmyla Hnapovska ESP ONLINE COURSE AS A MEANS OF ENHANCING GRADUATE STUDENTS' EMPLOYABILITY OPPORTUNITIES - CASE OF SUMY STATE UNIVERSITY	215
Elena Spirovska RECONSIDERING TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE PROCESSES OF COURSE DESIGN AND TEACHING MATERIALS SELECTION IN THE CONTEXT OF ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES	231
Maria Rudneva CORPUS-DRIVEN ESP PEDAGOGY: A PRELIMINARY CASE STUDY	241
Merilyn Meristo, Francisco Javier López Arias CHALLENGES IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN ESTONIAN UNIVERSITIES.....	249
José Andrés Carrasco-Flores, Gema Alcaraz-Mármol EXPLORING ESP TEXTBOOKS FOR COMMERCE AND MEDICINE: AN ANALYSIS OF SKILLS AND TYPES OF INSTRUCTION	265
Larysa Nikolayeva A STUDY OF ARAB UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS STUDENTS RESPONSE TO TEXT ADAPTATION.....	283
Diana Židová LITERATURE AS A TOOL OF AWARENESS: TRAITS OF AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDERS FOR STUDENTS IN ESP CLASS	297
Neda Radosavlevikj TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND CHALLENGES IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING	307
Svetlana Rubtsova, Tatiana Dobrova ESP/LSP/GE FUSION AS AN IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATION CONTINUITY IDEAS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FOSTERING VITAL SKILLS OF GENERATION Z IN THE SHADOW OF THE NEW REALITY: CASE STUDY	319
Book review Maryna Rebenko ENGLISH PROFICIENCY IN CYBERNETICS TEXTBOOK AS A REFLECTION OF ESP PERSPECTIVES IN UKRAINIAN HIGH EDUCATION	331

SEMANTIC-SEMIOTIC TRANSLATION MODEL AS A CRITERION FOR THE SEARCH FOR A TRANSLATION SOLUTION

Svetlana Sakovets, Olga Rodionova, Natalia Lazovskaya

Saratov State Law Academy, Russia

E-mail: sakovetssa@yandex.ru

Abstract. *The authors turn to the problem of the translation model, which can be relevant to overcoming its lexical difficulties, to the issue of highlighting semantic elements (semes) in the source text and selecting units of the translation language containing the same semes (semantic-semiotic translation model), and identifying factors that make it possible to optimize this process in teaching translation. The authors consider the semantic-semiotic translation model as a criterion for the optimal translation solution for translating polysemants and offer to use the principles of onomasiological analysis of the sentence that is to be translated.*

Key words: *German language, translation, linguistic translation model, semantic-semiotic translation model, context, lexical context, collocation, differential seme, potential seme*

INTRODUCTION

Identifying the most common patterns of translation as a mediating activity, or identifying translation universals¹ are the issues that have always enjoyed special attention by linguists. Scientists study the genre features of translated texts, various forms and types of translations, machine or automatic translation; identify pragmatic and sociolinguistic factors of translation. The task of the translation theory, according to A. Fedorov, is: “1) to reveal regularity in the ratio between the original and the translation; 2) to be able to summarize, in the light of scientific evidence, conclusions from observations of individual particular cases of translation; 3) to indirectly contribute to translation practice, which could draw in it arguments and evidence to find the necessary means of expression and in favor of specific problems solution”².

Translation theory is trying to create a translation model that would show the ratio between the original text and the translation text in linguistic terms. This model allows us to study the laws of translation, the ratio of intra- and extra-linguistic factors. Currently, linguists distinguish: semantic-semiotic translation model, situational (denotative) translation model, functional-pragmatic (dynamic) translation model, hermeneutic translation model. They all reflect a schematic representation of the translation process. German linguists develop, for

Submitted May 24th, 2020, accepted for publication July 9th, 2020

¹ Nelyubin, Lev, *Introduction to the Translation Technique* (Moscow: “Flinta”, 2018), 8

² Fyodorov, Andrej, *Fundamentals of the General Theory of Translation* (Moscow, St. Petersburg: Publishing House of St. Petersburg University, 2002), 14

example, a two-phase translation model, a three-phase (communicative) translation model, a stratification translation model, a functional (factorial) translation model³. There is an opinion that “the object of translation studies should be a virtual taxonomic model of the translation process. It is taxonomic because it allows describing all the principal types of translation. It is virtual because the translation process is always the relationship between the original text and the translation”⁴. Despite the presence of a variety of models of the translation process, which reflect a particular aspect of the analysis, currently there is no universal model of translation. The linguistic model of translation has the consequence of the widespread use of already recognized linguistic laws of translation as the basis for constructing teaching methods.

The relevance of the study is due to the authors’ appeal to the translation model problem, which is relevant for overcoming its lexical difficulties, to the issue of distinguishing semantic elements (semes) in the source text and selecting units of the translation language containing the same seme (semantic-semiotic translation model), and identifying factors that allow to optimize this process in the practice of teaching translation. Scientific novelty consists in considering the semantic-semiotic translation model as a criterion for the optimal translation solution when translating polysemantic words, in using onomasiological analysis of a sentence, componential analysis to determine the change in the semes composition of verbs in a nuclear position in a sentence. The methodological basis of the study was the research of domestic and foreign scientists in the field of general translation theory and didactics of translation (A. Schweitzer, A. Fedorov, L. Latyshev, V. Komissarov, L. Nelyubin, N. Garbovsky, Ch. Bnini, W. Koller, E. Prunč, J. Stegeman), semiotics of the text (U. Eco, J. Lotman, A. Shelkovnikov), linguosemiotic aspects of translation theory (P. Torop, N. Garbovsky.), research of the sentence as a complex sign (E. Krivchenko, E. Kubryakova). According to A. D. Schweitzer, it is the “complete sign” corresponding to the statement in its form that is understood in the theory of translation by the language sign. There is an opinion that the activity of the translator involves the simultaneous use of procedures and semasiological and onomasiological analysis: extraction of the content of the source text (analysis of the linguistic semantic functions of the means of language A and their meanings - semasiological analysis), transfer of these meanings by the means of language B with their semantic functions (onomasiological analysis)⁵. The object of the study is polysemantic words.

The peculiarity of the translation process is pointed out in many works. For example, V. Komissarov, observing the translation process, believes that there is no reason to distinguish between the stages “with equivalence established at one level at each of them”⁶. A. Schweitzer formulates it as follows: “The translation process can be characterized as the process of finding a solution that meets a certain set of varying functional criteria”⁷.

³ Bokova, Olga, “Translation model”, in *Basic Concepts of German-language Translation Studies: Terminological Dictionary-reference Book* (Moscow: INION RAN, 2013), 191.

⁴ Shtanov, Andrej *Translation technology and teaching methods (competence approach)* (Moscow: MGIMO – University, 2011), 99.

⁵ Kubryakova, Elena, *Nominative aspect of speech activity* (Moscow: Nauka, 1985), 34.

⁶ Komissarov, Vilen, *Word about the Translation* (Moscow: International Relations publishing house, 1973), 162.

⁷ Schweitzer, Aleksandr, *Translation and Linguistics* (Moscow: Voenizdat, 1973), 264.

LINGUOSEMIOTIC ASPECTS OF TRANSLATION

Consideration of a linguistic sign as an element of a dynamic system which is the process of transferring information reveals three plans: a plan of expression and a plan of content, as well as a plan for interpreting a message by a recipient⁸. The process of translation from the point of view of semiotics is not only the transfer of a text to another sign system, “it is not reduced to re-coding, but also represents an explanation, clarification, interpretation”⁹, it is a process in which the content is reproduced with certain changes, since linguistic meanings are variable, “to translate means to find for already identified designations of the source text such meanings in the target language that can express precisely these meanings”¹⁰, while maintaining the stylistic, pragmatic and communicative characteristics of the original text. N.Garbovsky speaks in this regard of the semiotic model of translation equivalence, highlighting three levels: pragmatic, semantic and syntactic ones¹¹. A. Kataev talks about the semantic basis of understanding in translation, and calls interpretation an indispensable condition for translation variability. He emphasizes that the object of interpretation can only be another sign (text), but not an object of the surrounding world, it reflects the fundamental inter-sign relationship and symbolic function. The symbolic function of interpretation creates conditions for the free development of the semantic content of the sign. When the sign of the target language replaces the sign of the source language, interpretation arises¹².

The translator, deciphering the meanings of the combinations of signs of the original text, which he has taken as a unit of orientation, performs at least three semasiological operations, following from signs to meanings. He/she determines the subject correlation of the sign (denotative meaning); understands general, objective information about an object (meaning, significative meaning); tries to reveal the subjective meaning of the sign, the information about the subject that the specific author of a specific speech work wanted to convey.

According to P. Torop, the adequacy of translation as a semiotic concept lies in the correspondence of all the components of the sign in both languages, that is, the identity of the described reality in the form as it is extracted from the work itself (denotation identity), the proximity of the description method (identity of the peripheral sense), the conformity of the poetic model (proximity of categorical meaning)¹³.

⁸ Lebedev, Maxim, *Language Value Stability* (Moscow: Editorial, 1998), 38

⁹ Fyodorov, Andrej, *Fundamentals of the General Theory of Translation* (Moscow, St. Petersburg: Publishing House of St. Petersburg University, 2002), 36.

¹⁰ Fyodorov, Andrej, *Fundamentals of the General Theory of Translation* (Moscow, St. Petersburg: Publishing House of St. Petersburg University, 2002), 38.

¹¹ Garbovsky, Nikolaj, *Translation Theory* (Moscow: Moscow University Press, 2007), 27.

¹² Kataev, Aleksej, “Language sign as a category of philosophy, linguistics and theory of translation” in *RUDN Journal of language studies, semiotics and semantics* (Moscow: RUDN Publishing House. 2016), 22.

¹³ Torop. Peeter “New translation status” in *Intermezzo festoso. Liber amicorum in honorem Lea Pild* (Tartu: Tartu Ülikooli Kirjastus, 2019), 378.

PROBLEMS OF POLYSEMANTIC WORDS TRANSLATION

The polysemant values in the source language and in the target language can only partially coincide. Translation of such words requires reference to context analysis, as the main translation device of polysemantic words is differentiation of meanings. The context determining semantic components of the word sets direction for interpretation of meanings. The context refers to the verbal environment in which one or another lexical unit under analysis is used. This is usually a fragment of the text in which the meaning of the word is specified. It is the context that helps to find among the synonyms the correct version of the translation of a polysemantic word or to select an adequate lexical unit in the absence of an equivalent in the translation language.

The subject of a study of translation theory includes the following: situational or extra-linguistic context caused by facts of reality, background knowledge, speech situation; linguistic (lexical and syntactic), logical-semantic context, clarifying the semantics of the analyzed linguistic unit, and stylistic, revealing the connections of the poetic word given by the thesaurus, as well as micro- (phrase or sentence) and macro context (wide context, language environment that goes beyond the scope of the sentence) related to the volume of the statement in question.

The linguistic context, in its lexical (phonetic context, phonemic context, morphemic context) and syntactic aspect, allows us to analyze the lexeme that is significant for translation to identify the specifics of its linguistic environment and to analyze the syntactic structure in which it is used. Let us turn to the concepts of lexical and semantic compatibility, which are of interest from the point of view of the translation of polysemantic words. Compatibility is generally possible on each language tier to create units of an overlying tier, and each tier can be characterized by its own compatibility rules. Studies on the combinatorial analysis of words have found expression in the valency theory at both the syntactic and semantic levels. Actualization of the semantic component obeys the law of syntagmatic coordination or the law of semantic combination of words.¹⁴ It is the actualization of potential seme that makes up the semantic content of the process of transferring the meaning of words. The component analysis method allows determining the seme composition of a language unit. According to the principles of component analysis, a semiotic expression keeps an organized and analyzed content, formed according to certain linguistic conventions as a certain complex (or hierarchy) of elementary semantic features¹⁵. For example, a component analysis of the meaning of the verb reveals its semantic microstructure, distinguishes between differential and potential seme, and determines the compatibility features of this verb¹⁶.

“The lexical side of the organization of the statement is both a process of grammatically combining selected lexemes, and a process in which the chosen lexical element is determined

¹⁴ Gack, Vladimir, “On the Problem of Semantic Syntagmatics”, in *Language Transformations: Several Aspects of Linguistic Science at the End of the XX Century. From Situation to Statement* (Moscow: Publishing House LIBROKOM, 2009), 279.

¹⁵ Eco, Umberto, *The Role of the reader. Explorations in the Semiotics of Texts* (St. Petersburg: «Simposium», 2005) 290.

¹⁶ Sakovets, Svetlana, *Nominative Features of State and Causative Verbs of the German Language* (Dissertation of Candidate of Philological Sciences. Saratov, 2003), 151.

by both pragmatic relationships and its relationships with surrounding words.”¹⁷ Semantic coordination within the framework of syntagma assumes the presence of an identical seme within the framework of the main and dependent members of the syntagma. The concept of seme is the leading one in the semantic translation model. According to U. Eco, “the sememe itself [as such] is a potential (or embryonic text), and the text is an expanded sememe”¹⁸. Possible errors may be associated with a violation of the norms of compatibility due to differences in the volume of the meaning of the original lexeme of the source and translation texts, since in the translation the semantic structure of the signs of the original speech work cannot be repeated or cloned¹⁹. In our opinion, one of the ways to overcome this kind of errors can be the use of the technique of onomasiological analysis of linguistic phenomena. It involves the definition of what a given unit stands for and how the naming takes place, which makes it possible to reveal the linguistic foundations of the nomination mechanism, linguistic technique used to designate certain situations in the practice of teaching translation in order to analyze each of the components of the semantic structure of sentences.

From a semiotic point of view, a sentence to be translated is a complex sign that represents a complete act of semiosis in the language system, which has a holistic event as an object of designation. This is a chain of symbolic units, represented by words of different classes, in some roughness – by words of a certain part of speech. The sign units that make up the sentence are organized according to the laws of the given language and the organizing center is the properties of the verb as a certain class of words²⁰. In this aspect, the concept of a situation, as an object of designation, as a referent of a statement, is relevant. The situation is viewed as a system in which elements of different types interact, referring to a variety of objects and a variety of attributes, or a subject and attribute component. From the point of view of Gack, a situation as a referent of an utterance is “a set of elements presented in the consciousness of the speaker in objective reality, at the moment of ‘speaking’ and determining to a certain extent the selection of linguistic elements in the formation of the utterance itself”. The method of component analysis is relevant for determining the change in the seme composition of verbs in the nuclear position, since the determining factor in establishing the types of situations denoted by sentences with a certain verb in the nuclear position is the denotative relativity of the names that fill the syntactic positions in the sentence.

For example, the component analysis of the meaning of the verb *stehen* allows revealing its semantic microstructure, highlighting the differential and potential semes, determining the compatibility features of this verb, determining the types of situations called sentences with the given verb in the nuclear position²¹. For example, the differential seme of the verb *stehen* – ‘vertical orientation’ is realized if the verb *stehen* is combined with animate nouns or inanimate nouns denoting objects that can be upright, for example: die Zuschauer standen dicht gedrängt, Kopf an Kopf; auf dem Schreibtisch steht eine Fotografie, in der Vase stehen Blumen. Eine, die vorn steht, sagt diesen Satz, und ordnet

¹⁷ Gack, Vladimir, “On the Problem of Semantic Syntagmatics,” in *Language Transformations: Several Aspects of Linguistic Science at the End of the XX Century. From Situation to Statement* (Moscow: Publishing House LIBROKOM, 2009), 277.

¹⁸ Eco, Umberto *The Role of the reader. Explorations in the Semiotics of Texts* (St. Petersburg: «Simposium», 2005) 289.

¹⁹ Garbovsky, Nikolaj, *Translation Theory* (Moscow: Moscow University Press, 2007), 399.

²⁰ Lomtev, Timofej. *The sentence and its grammatical categories* (Moscow: Publishing House of Moscow State University, 1972) 31.

²¹ Sakovets, Svetlana, *Nominative Features of State and Causative Verbs of the German Language* (Dissertation of Candidate of Philological Science, Saratov, 2003), 70.

damit unsere Blicke. Im Auge der Stadt, auf dem großen Platz, steht der Obelisk. Sentences indicate the situation of finding a person, an object in an upright position at a certain point in space. The differential seme 'vertical orientation' loses its communicative significance and the seme 'height' becomes actualized if this verb is combined, for example, with nouns denoting a space object: *die Sonne, der Mond steht am Himmel*. Actualization of the potential seme 'immobility' is observed in the case of a combination of this verb with nouns denoting a vehicle, a mechanism, the situation when a vehicle (or mechanism) is inactive is set, for example, *Mein Vater trägt nie eine Uniform, und die Wagen, die vor dem Haus stehen, sind grau-weiß, ohne Blaulicht*. Seme 'presence', if the position of the subject in the sentence is taken by an abstract noun denoting a phenomenon, a state of nature (the situation of the presence of a certain state perceived by a person), for example, *das Dunkel stand feindlich hinter den Fenstern*,²².

The algorithm for analyzing the compatibility of the lexical unit in the sentence for educational purposes can be presented as follows: analysis of the sentence in terms of its syntactic structure, semantic functioning of the components of the syntactic structure and formation of the semantic structure of the sentence (since the sentence is primarily a formally organized unit, the value of which depends to a greater extent on the lexico-semantic material filling this form), determining the type of situation indicated by the analyzed sentence by means of identifying the denotative attribution of names in the structural scheme of the analyzed sentence (subject, object, instrument, addressee, predicate, semantic specifier (spatial or temporal)), selection of possible equivalent in the target language. In our opinion, the proposed algorithm can be used in an arbitrary pair of languages.

Linguistic corpus of texts can be used to illustrate the features of the usage of a particular lexical unit through authentic material²³, as well as official translations of texts (for example, texts of the Constitution of the Russian Federation, the Basic Law of Germany, etc.), parallel texts corpus.

CONCLUSION

The correct choice of words is determined by their stylistic affiliation and emotionally expressive coloring. The selection of vocabulary, morphological forms, the compatibility of words, the syntactic structure of the sentence, the phonetic design of speech determine the specifics of the functioning of language tools within the framework of a certain functional style. It must be remembered that equivalence at the level of semantics of words is the least degree of semantic commonality, which is hardly possible between the source language and the target language²⁴. The ability to correlate the linguistic means of the source language and the translating language, to determine the necessary equivalent in accordance with the communicative task of the source text characterizes the linguistic competence of the translator.

²² Digitales Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache - DWDS. URL: <https://www.dwds.de/wb/stehen>.

²³ Sakovets, Svetlana, "On the Use of the Linguistic Corpus in the Practice of the German Language Teaching," in *The Russian Language and Literature in Professional Communication and Multicultural Space* (Moscow: Publishing house "Pero", Saratov: Amirit 2018), 296.

²⁴ Komissarov, Vilen, *General Theory of Translation (linguistic aspects): Textbook for foreign languages institutes and faculties* (Moscow: Publishing house Vysshayashkola, 1990), 79.

REFERENCES

- Barkhudarov, Leonid. *Language and Translation. Questions of General and Particular Theory of Translation*. Moscow: International Relations Publishing House, 1975.
- Bokova, Olga. "Translation model." In *Basic Concepts of German-language Translation Studies: Terminological Dictionary-reference Book*. 191-92. Moscow: INION RAN, 2013.
- Bnini, Chakib. *Didactics of Translation: Text in Context*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2016.
- Eco, Umberto. *The Role of the reader. Explorations in the Semiotics of Texts*. St. Petersburg: «Simposium», 2005.
- Gack, Vladimir. "On the Problem of Semantic Syntagmatics." In *Language Transformations: Several Aspects of Linguistic Science at the End of the XX Century. From Situation to Statement*, 264-271. Moscow: Publishing House LIBROKOM, 2009.
- Garbovsky, Nikolaj. *Translation Theory*. Moscow: Moscow University Press, 2007.
- Kataev, Aleksej. "Language sign as a category of philosophy, linguistics and theory of translation". In *RUDN Journal of language studies, semiotics and semantics*. 17-25. RUDN Publishing House. 2016, № 4.
- Kauz, Ulrich. *Handbuch Didaktik des Übersetzens und Dolmetschens*. Goethe Institut. München: Iudicium, 2002.
- Koller, Werner. Die literarische Übersetzung unter linguistischem Aspekt. In <http://wernerkoller.com/onewebmedia/Wissenschaftliches/Die%20literarische%20C3%9Cbersetzung%20unter%20linguistischem%20Aspekt.pdf>
- Komissarov, Vilen. *General Theory of Translation (linguistic aspects): Textbook for foreign languages institutes and faculties*. Moscow: Publishing house Vysshayashkola, 1990.
- Komissarov, Vilen. *Word about the Translation*. Moscow: International Relations publishing house, 1973.
- Komissarov, Vilen. *Modern Translation Studies*. Moscow: Publishing House "ETS", 2001.
- Krivtchenko, Evgenia. *The nominative aspect of the sentence*. Saratov: Publishing house of Saratov University. 1982.
- Kubryakova, Elena. *Nominative aspect of speech activity*. Moscow: Nauka, 1985.
- Latyshev, Lev. *Translation: Problems of Theory, Practice and Teaching Methods: A Teacher's book for German language schools*. Moscow: Publishing House "Prosveshcheniye", 1988.
- Latyshev, Lev. *Translation Technology*. Moscow: Academia, 2008.
- Lebedev, Maxim. *Language Value Stability*. Moscow: Editorial, 1998.
- Lomtev, Timofej. *The sentence and its grammatical categories*. Moscow: Publishing House of Moscow State University. 1972.
- Lotman, Jurij. *Inside the thinking worlds*. St. Petersburg: Azbuka. 2016.
- Nelyubin, Lev. *Introduction to the Translation Technique*. Moscow: "Flinta", 2018.
- Prunč, Erich. *Einführung in die Translationswissenschaft*. B.I. Orientierungsrahmen. Institut für Translationswissenschaft. Graz. 2002.
- Sakovets, Svetlana. *Nominative Features of State and Causative Verbs of the German Language*: Dissertation of Candidate of Philological Sciences. Saratov, 2003.

- Sakovets, Svetlana. "On the Use of the Linguistic Corpus in the Practice of the German Language Teaching." In *The Russian Language and Literature in Professional Communication and Multicultural Space*. 295-98. Moscow: Publishing house "Pero", Saratov: Amirit 2018.
- Shelkovnikov, Andrej. *Philosophy of semiotics: Reflections on metaphysics of sign*. Moscow: Lenand, 2018.
- Shtanov, Andrej. *Translation technology and teaching methods (competence approach)*. Moscow: MGIMO – University, 2011.
- Schweitzer, Aleksandr. *Translation Theory: Status, Problems, Aspects*. Moscow: Nauka Publishing House, 1988.
- Schweitzer, Aleksandr. *Translation and Linguistics*. Moscow: Voenizdat, 1973.
- Stegeman, Jelle. *Übersetzung und Leser: Untersuchungen zur Übersetzungsäquivalenz, dargestellt an der Rezeption von Multatulis „Max Havelaar“ und seinen deutschen Übersetzungen*. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter, 1991.
- Torop, Peeter. "The new status of the translation". In T.Borovikova, L.Kisseljova. *Intermezzo festoso. Liber amicorum in honorem Lea Pild.* (375–391). Tartu: Tartu Ülikooli Kirjastus. 2019.
- Torop, Peeter. *Total transfer*. Tartu Ülikooli Kirjastus. 1995.
- Fyodorov, Andrej. *Fundamentals of the General Theory of Translation*. Moscow, St. Petersburg: Publishing House of St. Petersburg University, 2002.

WRITTEN EXPRESSION IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES THROUGH BLOGGING AND COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Salvador Montaner-Villalba

Universitat Politècnica de València, Spain

E-mail: smonvil@idm.upv.es

Abstract. *This paper explores the use of blogging as a tool to enhance written expression in English for Specific Purposes and, to be more concrete, in the field of Administration and Management within the Cooperative Learning Approach. The learners who participated in this experiment had B1 level English according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The experiment took place in the educational context of vocational training at a post-compulsory state vocational school in the region of Valencia, Spain. The learners who participated in this experiment were studying the first year of Vocational Training Administration and Business Management during the academic year 2018-2019. The sample was formed by 23 learners who, aged between 25 and 45, participated only in the treatment group. The research questions explore how blogging can be utilized to help learners improve their ESP written production within the Cooperative Learning Approach. The action research model is employed to analyze the quantitative outcomes from this experiment.*

Key words: *English for Specific Purposes, blogging, cooperative learning, written competence*

1. INTRODUCTION

This research emerged because of the need to better the quality and competence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) written production by Spanish learners in their first academic year of the Higher Grade of vocational training from the perspective of the Cooperative Learning Approach. This paper is thus framed within the employment of educational technology, in this case, blogging, as a tool for learning English as a foreign language and, specifically, English for Specific Purposes within active educational methodologies, such as the Cooperative Learning Approach. In addition, this research is a response to the lack of publications related to blogging when teaching English as a Foreign Language through the inclusion of active educational methodologies (Montaner-Villalba, 2019b) in vocational training. However, it must be said that there is significant empirical research (Campbell 2003, 2004, 2005; Carney 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2009b; Ducate and Lomicka 2005; Fellner and Apple 2006; Godwin-Jones 2003; Jons and Nuhfer-Halten 2006; Pinkman 2005) on blogging in EFL in university settings.

2. AIMS

This research aims to examine whether EFL learners improved their ESP written competence from the perspective of the Cooperative Learning Approach through blogging in the online platform WordPress (<https://wordpress.com>). It was hypothesized that blogging would help learners improve their ESP written production (Fellner and Apple 2006; Murray and Hourigan 2008) within the Cooperative Learning Approach. At this current research, we aimed to verify whether ESP learners improved their written competence through the use of blogs, in which they had to write their own business plan taking into consideration the postulates of the Cooperative Learning approach. Although blogging, in its primary meaning, implies *informal diary-style entries or posts*, the novelty of this research was to analyse whether ESP learners could create their own business plans with the aid of the blogs by enhancing written competence in the English language.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Information and Communication Technologies & ESP

With regard to applying ICT to teaching ESP, some relevant publications have been based on work in different educational contexts within the University. For example, Lázaro, Pena and Vitalaru (2009) present a qualitative study on teaching English within the field of law as well as translation, through a wiki. Their results showed that there was still a need to explore new methods to define tasks and assess students' contributions. Wikis may be beneficial for improving both collaborative writing and creating glossaries. In her study, Martín-Monje (2010) found that the integration of ICT in an ESP course was not only useful to teachers, who became facilitators within the language learning process, but also helped learners to improve the foreign language that they were learning. In addition, Ghomari (2015) conducted a qualitative research study that investigated how ICT influenced teaching and learning ESP at the Preparatory School of Economic Sciences, Commerce and Management of Oran in Algeria. Preliminary results revealed that the implementation of ICT in this ESP course assisted teachers to identify the necessary strategy to overcome both psychological and pedagogical obstacles. In another study, Akills, Konoplianyk and Pryshupa (2019) explored how students studying civil engineering perceived the implementation of ICT in the ESP classroom through a student survey. Their results revealed that students, particularly those from the treatment group, had significantly improved in comparison to those who participated in the control group. However, little research on ICT in the ESP course has been carried out within the field of vocational training or post-compulsory secondary education and non-university education (Montaner-Villalba, 2016, 2017, 2019a, 2019b).

3.2. Blogging in the ESP Classroom

In this section the state-of-the-art related to blogging applied to teaching Languages for Specific Purposes will be described. It is worth mentioning that there is scarcely any empirical research related to blogging applied to teaching English for Specific Purposes in the educational context of vocational training (Montaner-Villalba, 2016, 2017, 2019a) and, to be more specific, there are few publications focusing on blogging within the Task-based Learning Approach in vocational training (Montaner-Villalba, 2019b). However,

empirical research on blogging within the ESP classroom is more common in universities (Murray and Hourigan 2008; Pinkman 2005; Bran 2009; Awada and Ghaith 2014; Patel 2015). For example, Murray and Hourigan (2008) explored blogging with learners, studying languages and technology. The results showed that a balance had to be achieved between offering certain topics and creating a learning context based upon real life so as to help learners become more active within their learning experience. In her study, Pinkman (2005) showed that blogs were beneficial to learners since they were motivated to utilize the English language due to interaction with, and feedback from, both colleagues and educators. However, some students seemed to be more interested in improving their oral skills rather than their written competences through the use of blogs. Moreover, Bran's (2009) research highlighted the usefulness of edublogs in an ESP course in the field of International Relations, as they allowed the students to create meaningful content. Also, interaction between educators and students was key, implying that students became motivated during the intervention.

More recently, Awada and Ghaith (2014) explored blogging as a tool to help learners improve their writing skills in the field of Law. Results showed that the blog gives an authentic learning context to develop not only writing, but also other skills. In addition, Patel (2015) focused on blogging in an engineering course at a governmental Engineering College at Gujarat Technological University. Outcomes proved that blogging in this ESP course was, as a whole, satisfactory for students, permitting them to interact while blogging: this student interaction was the best part of the experiment, and involved other tools, such as Facebook and Twitter.

Nevertheless, little research has been published on blogging within the ESP classroom in the educational context of Vocational Training and, thus, non-university education. Regarding this kind of publication, Montaner-Villalba (2016) explored blogging through quantitative data in a first-year technical English course *CFGS Diseño y Amueblamiento*. The results revealed that learners notably improved their ESP writing skills as well as technical vocabulary related to this field. In this same experiment, Montaner-Villalba (2017) concluded that, as for the written competence, the outcomes did not improve at the end of this qualitative research whereas, on the other hand, the results improved with regard to ESP reading competence and technical vocabulary. Thirdly, Montaner-Villalba (2019a) analysed the rank of outcomes, that is, the difference between the largest and smallest values, of written production in a technical English course through blogging. These results showed that ESP written competence improved notably. Finally, Montaner-Villalba (2019b) explored blogging in an online ESP course with the inclusion of Project-Based Learning. From the outcomes given, the author was able to conclude that ESP written competence improved notably during the study.

3.3. Cooperative Learning

Blogging in this study is done through the Cooperative Learning Approach. Relevant literature on this approach focuses on its practical application in the classroom (Kagan 2009; Pujolàs 2017). The Cooperative Learning Approach aims to organize the various activities within the classroom to transform them into a social experience. Kagan (1995, 2009) defines it as a teaching methodology characterized by forming groups in a heterogeneous manner with respect to their age and educational level. Positive interdependency occurs, but it is necessary to enhance adequate communication within the group to allow members to understand that the main purpose is to carry out diverse tasks in a collaborative manner. Considering that these

principles of the Cooperative Learning Approach must be fulfilled, the teacher should have a clear procedure to obtain a specific result. Cooperative learning offers potential for the development of communicative skills, group work and thinking flexibility (Gómez-Pezuela 2007; Hernández-Sellés, González-Sanmamed, and Muñoz-Carril 2014).

The practical use of the Cooperative Learning Approach as well as its assessment (Johnson and Johnson 2016) acquires special importance here. For this reason, the Cooperative Learning Approach cannot be conceived without technology, as materials and information sources must be diverse, and must break space and time barriers. Although the most widely used digital collaborative resource is Wikipedia, other online tools, such as blogs and social networks, for instance, are also employed. In this line, blogging permits the learners to take part in a wide variety of digital activities, such as creating written texts, or audio in the case of audioblogs, which enable collaborative learning, team learning and more online interaction by learners (Domingo-Coscolla, Sánchez-Valero, and Sancho-Gil 2014; Sevillano and Vázquez 2011).

At this point, it is important to offer a concise state-of-the-art on writing skills in English within the Cooperative Learning approach. On the one hand, empiric research (Mahmoud, 2014; Ghufon & Ermawati, 2018) took place at tertiary university. Mahmoud (2014) proved that the learners' scores in writing were slightly higher for the post-test than the pre-test. Ghufon & Ermawati (2018), in their case study research, showed that Cooperative Learning was successful in helping learners improve their EFL written skills. On the other, empiric research (Nair & Sanai, 2018; Hertiki & Juliati, 2019) focused on EFL written competence within the Cooperative Learning approach at A-level. Nair & Sanai (2018) showed, from the outcomes obtained in both the quantitative as well as the qualitative data, that the cooperative learning approach helped EFL learners improve their writing skills. Additionally, Hertiki & Juliati (2019), in their action-research study, determined that cooperative learning is key to improve writing skills in English.

As for the ICT to enhance English written competence within the said approach, Aghajani & Adloo (2018) explored the potential of Telegram to enhance ESP written competence. These authors proved that the treatment group showed slightly higher outcomes in the post-test writing than the control group and, at the time, when comparing both groups, there were significant differences regarding variables such as content, organization, grammar, vocabulary and spelling. Regarding blogging, Montaner-Villalba (2020a) found out that the use of blogs to promote EFL writing skills at Secondary Education was successful while, on the contrary, Montaner-Villalba (2020b) showed, in his quantitative research at A-level, that there was neither a significant improvement nor a deterioration. At this current research, we aim to verify whether blogging helped ESP learners improve their written competence within the Cooperative Learning approach at Vocational Training. Since there is not much empiric research focused on this issue, this paper offers worth.

The focus of this study is, on the one hand, to evaluate the correctness and competence of the written English of vocational training learners and, on the other hand, to test whether using blogging will have a positive impact on students' competence in written production in ESP. The following research question is established: 1. Does blogging help learners improve written production in ESP within the Cooperative Learning Approach?

4. METHODS

4.1. Sample

Twenty-three learners, in the first year of the Higher Grade (VET) in Administration and Management during the academic year 2018-2019, participated in the experiment. The learners were chosen for an experimental study. All 23 learners participated in the experiment (there was no control group for this study). Learners were aged between 25 and 45. After an initial test (Section 5.1), designed to determine students' previous knowledge, we established that their level of English was B1 in the case of the youngest learners and between A1 and A2 for the oldest learners, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This difference of level is due to learners' own educational contexts. Normally, the youngest learners in Vocational Training have recently finished studies at university while the oldest learners (aged 45) are people who probably do not have higher studies. In both cases, these learners in Vocational Training are usually unemployed people who enrol in a Vocational Training course with the aim to search for a job upon finishing the studies.

4.2. Didactic Treatment

This study took place during the academic year 2018-2019, commencing in the first term, 2018 and finishing in the second half of May, 2019. During this period, learners performed the intervention in the computer cluster in the school. Learners participated in at least six 55-minute sessions each in the three different terms of the academic year. Therefore, a total of eighteen sessions were addressed in the experiment.

At the beginning of the academic year in the second week of September coinciding with the beginning of the academic year 2018-2019, the learners took a pre-test to assess their EFL written production, EFL reading comprehension and, in general terms, some grammar and vocabulary, which they were supposed to have learnt at previous levels. However, in this research we will only focus on digital written production taking into consideration the ESP perspective. Learners had to introduce themselves professionally in this pre-test. Moreover, they were asked to explain why they were studying Administration in vocational training. In this same week, the study was explained to students (4.4). In the meantime, we focused four sessions on explaining to students how the online platform Word Press works. Informed consent by learners was obtained.

Next, the first digital written task on blogging took place from the first week of October to the first week of December, 2018. In this phase of the experiment, learners were required to begin writing their business plan through their corresponding blogs. Students, in groups of 4, wrote versions of this business plan in different periods corresponding to the three terms. However, before they commenced writing this first draft of the business plan, we had noticed from the pre-test that the results of both grammar and vocabulary were not as satisfactory as was initially expected. Therefore, we thought that it was very adequate to offer learners four reinforcement sessions, as input, each, with the aim of assisting them to improve their ESP digital written competence while blogging for the second task.

Then, in the second week of January 2019, students commenced the second main online written task which had to be finished by the second week of March 2019. In the second digital writing task, students had to write a second draft of their business plan from the first term, taking into consideration the feedback given by the instructor.

Next, the third digital written task was carried out during April and May 2019. Taking into consideration feedback received by the both the EFL teacher as well as the expert teacher on Business, the students were required to make the appropriate changes to the business plans in their corresponding blogs and finish writing their final versions. However, given the poor outcomes obtained in the content variable of the second digital writing task, we decided it would be appropriate to offer students, as input, five sessions focused on training students how to write their business plans, firstly, in their mother tongue and, secondly, in English. This was done with the aid of the instructors who were business experts. This sort of input possibly helped learners to improve their ESP written competence while blogging and, thus, to obtain better results in the third digital written task.

4.3. Research Tools

Before explaining the research tools used in this work, it is important to note that the action-research model was chosen for this study since the author of this current work fulfilled a double role, as both teacher and researcher. Taking this into consideration, it must be highlighted that this is a quantitative study. The different research tools used in this study are now presented. Firstly, we used the pre-test or initial test, to collect quantitative data. Secondly, three different written tasks were employed (Section 4.2). Lastly, we used the post-test to collect further quantitative results. There were, thus, a total of five tasks throughout the experiment. The diverse tasks took place at different moments to coincide with the three terms during the academic year 2018-2019 so that the pre-test was done before commencing the experiment. The first task was completed during the first term, the second task took place during the second term, the third task was done in the third term and, lastly, the post-test was developed after finishing the experiment. The quantitative outcomes of the research were obtained from the said ESP activities with the ultimate purpose of verifying changes in learners' written ESP production.

4.4. Variables

The dependent variables are the marks from the corresponding tasks, while the independent variables are classified into: 1) Writing process; and 2) Final product. In this research, we emphasized the final product. Since this paper is focused on ESP written expression, we should distinguish within the final product the following variables (Shehadeh 2011): 1) Content of the text; 2) Organization and structure of the text; 3) Grammar; 4) Vocabulary; 5) Spelling. In correlation with this, the rubrics utilized to assess these variables cover presentation, cohesion and coherence, grammar, vocabulary and spelling (which is considered as part of vocabulary learning). As for the content, students were required to write their own business plan in blog format during the experiment. This business plan had to be written in the corresponding blogs with adequate cohesion and coherence, that is, as a well-organized text. Students were asked to use specific vocabulary from the field of Administration and Management in order to write their business plan in a digital form. Regarding spelling, they were just required to check that there were no spelling mistakes while blogging, which is indeed important regardless of whether it is an ESP course or a proficiency course.

To evaluate this ESP written competence while blogging and, in particular, the different variables, mentioned above, which configure the final product, a basic descriptive statistics analysis through Microsoft Office Excel was carried out. Marks were given, individually, to

learners for each rubric, mentioned above. The marks on each rubric were validated by introducing in Excel the average obtained from each rubric, and then the total average of each task was calculated. This was done similarly for each task of this intervention. The average of each rubric was calculated with the ultimate purpose of obtaining the total average for each digital task, so that we could observe and analyse how the different outcomes evolved throughout the whole experiment from the graphs obtained. The written assignments were only rated by the teacher-researcher of this study, implying, thus, that there could not be inter-rater reliability while evaluating. These variables were assessed through traditional marking from the Spanish educational system by the teacher who conducted this current research. Grade A varies between 9 and 10, grade B is between 7 and 8, grade C is 6, grade D is 5 and, finally, less than 5 is a fail, which means that learners will not pass either their different subjects within the official curriculum or the different variables of this current experiment, explained above.

4.5. Research Procedures

In table 1 the different procedures, as well as their corresponding descriptions and, also, the different moments along the procedures, can be observed:

Table 1 Procedures, Moments, and Descriptions

Procedures	Timetable for the tasks	Descriptions
Pre-test	Beginning first term	Pre-test takes place.
Presenting experiment	First term-second week of September	Teacher presents experiment, explains aims, methodology, and timeline. Digital written tasks are distributed
Beginning experiment	Between last week in September and first week in October	Four sessions are focused on explaining how Word Press functions.
Experiment takes place	First, second and third term	The online written tasks take place in the computer cluster of the school. The teacher guides and helps learners throughout the whole process, either physically or via e-mail.
Post-test	At the end of the academic year, having finished the experiment	Final test takes place.

5. RESULTS

5.1. Pre-test

Firstly, the pre-test will be analyzed. In the graph below, the average for the results of the pre-test can be seen.

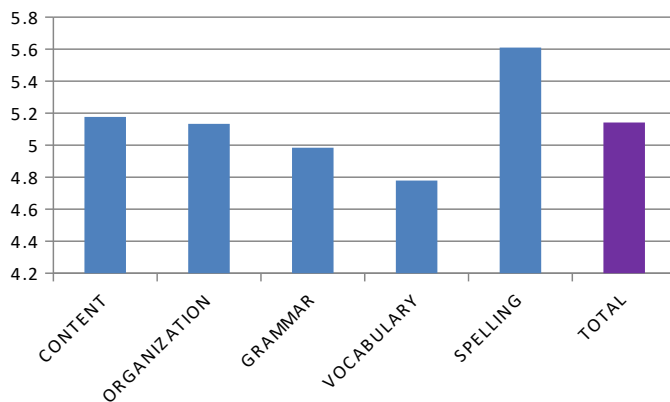


Fig. 1 Average outcomes of pre-test

Students were able to spell words correctly, even though their vocabulary was below the passing threshold (spelling is usually regarded as part of learning vocabulary). Regarding the grammar variable, even though the scores were slightly better than for vocabulary, learners did not seem to have a good command of English grammar and, more precisely the specialised constructions which can be found in Business English. On the other hand, it is curious to observe that the scores for both the coherence and the cohesion of pre-test writing were better than for grammar and vocabulary, although this aspect of writing had not been taught previously to the test. Lastly, regarding the content of the pre-test writing, students managed to obtain scores above the passing threshold.

5.2. Three Main Digital Production Tasks

5.2.1. First Written Task

Below, the outcomes from the three digital writing tasks will be analysed. In the graph below, the average of the results from the first task can be seen.

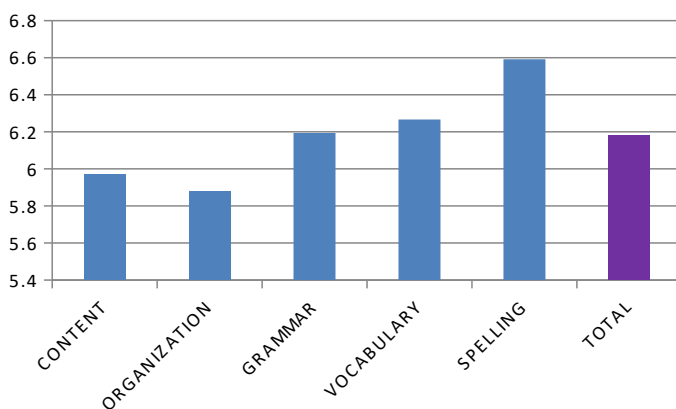


Fig. 2 Average outcomes of first written task

In this task - as was also the case in the pre-test - students obtained high scores for spelling. However, as it can be seen in the graph, learners obtained much better scores for vocabulary on this first written task than in the pre-test. Regarding the grammar, students also improved here in comparison with the pre-test. If we compare the results of the organization variable between the pre-test and this first digital writing task, we can observe that learners also wrote their business plan in a more cohesive and coherent manner. Finally, as for the content of this writing, a slight improvement occurred in comparison with the pre-test.

5.2.2. Second Written Task

The outcomes of this second digital writing task can be observed in the figure below.

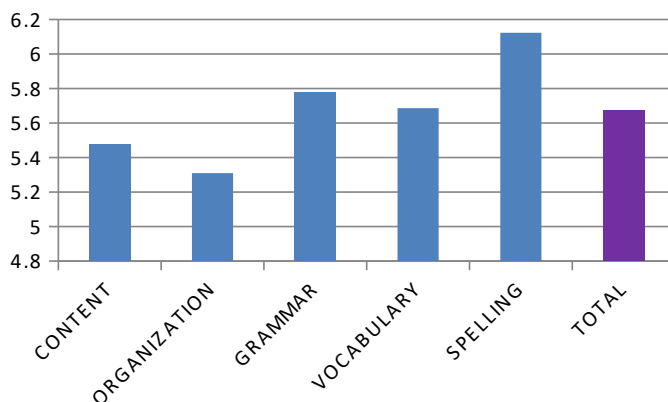


Fig. 3 Average outcomes of second written task

It is curious to observe that scores for spelling were still high, while the vocabulary variable reduced slightly in comparison with the first digital written task. Tentatively, this is because spelling has nothing to do with specific vocabulary within the field of business, which means that students do well with spelling whereas they do not manage to use specialized vocabulary in an adequate manner. As for the grammar variable, it can be observed that the scores on this second digital task were slightly lower than in the first one. It is possible that students did not manage to understand the specific business grammar constructions. Related to the organization variable, this graph above shows that students did not write their digital texts in both a cohesive and coherent manner since this variable decreased slightly. It should be mentioned, at this point, that these variables did not differ much throughout the experiment. This may be indicative that students have special difficulty creating cohesion and coherence when writing in English. However, in contrast to these variables, we can observe that the scores for content in this second digital written task were slightly lower here than in the first task.

5.2.3. Third Written Task

In the third digital writing task, students wrote their final drafts, having received feedback from the teacher. The outcomes of this third online writing task can be seen in the figure below.

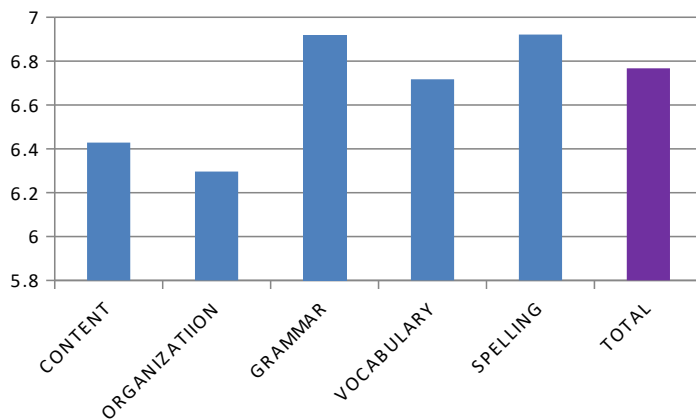


Fig. 4 Average outcomes of third written task

We can observe in the graph above that the highest marks on this third online written task were for spelling. In addition, compared with both the first and the second task, it can be clearly seen that this variable had improved notably. The fact that this variable was not difficult to master could be one reason why students improved notably on this variable. In the same line, the vocabulary also improved in this task in comparison with the previous tasks. After the second online task, and before starting the third task, students were required to review specialised vocabulary related to the field of business and, particularly, specific lexis on business plans. This may have influenced the fact that students did better on this third digital task with vocabulary. As for the grammar, it is interesting to note that students improved here slightly, when we compare outcomes with the two previous tasks. When we noticed that learners' marks decreased on the second digital task, we asked students to do further practice with specific business grammar constructions. Also, both coherence and cohesion improved slightly in comparison with the previous tasks, without reaching excellence. Before beginning with this task, students were asked to practice on the use of specific connectors, which helped students to improve the organization of the text. Lastly, the content variable also improved compared it with the previous tasks. This could be due to continuous practice on writing digitally their own business plan.

5.3. Post-test

Next, the outcomes of the post-test must be analyzed. The structure of the post-test was similar to the pre-test. In this post-test, learners had to write the final version of the business plan, having received feedback from the instructor. They were asked to check that the final product, that is, the definitive business plan, was structured in an adequate manner (Navarro, 2015). In the figure below, the outcomes of the post-test can be clearly observed.

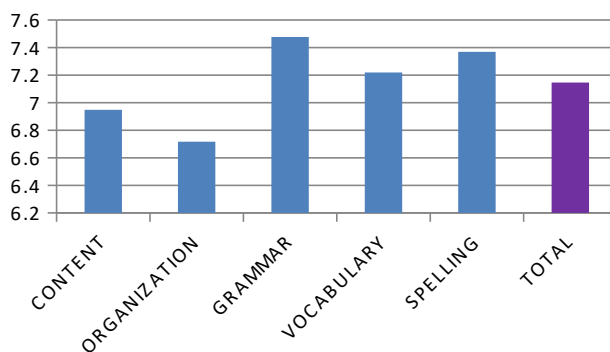


Fig. 5 Average outcomes of post-test task

Compared with the previous tasks, it is interesting that the grammar variable on this graph shows the highest outcomes. Moreover, comparing it with the previous tasks, this variable improved notably in the post-test. This may be indicative that students managed to understand how to use certain business grammar structures appropriately for their own business plan. What is more, in the post-test, the grammar mark appears slightly higher than the spelling mark, which fell to second place. Both vocabulary and spelling slightly improved in the post-test in comparison with the previous tasks. Between the second task and this one, we required students to keep practicing on the use of the specialized vocabulary in the field of business. Regarding the grammar, it is interesting to observe how this variable improved on the post-test. Finally, as for the organization variable, even though it increased slightly in comparison with the previous tasks, it seems that students still needed to do further practice on the use of connectors and, thus, they still did not manage to create digital texts in a cohesive manner while blogging.

6. DISCUSSION

This discussion will try to justify the different reasons for the outcomes throughout the whole experiment. Firstly, let us consider the pre-test. Grammar (4.9) and vocabulary (4.7) were the lowest marks, which could be due to the low level of learners studying in vocational training. Regarding the components content (5.17) and organization (5.13), learners seemed not to understand what the main aim of the pre-test was. Moreover, they did not comprehend that both coherence and cohesion were indeed important while writing a text, either a regular one or a digital one while blogging. The data from the pre-test was important, even when the students did not produce what was expected, to understand how this current experiment evolved from the commencement to the end.

Secondly, the outcomes of the three main digital written production tasks will be justified. In the corresponding graph, where the average of the first written task is presented, it can be observed that learners improved in comparison with the pre-test. Concerning the organization component (5.8), learners seemed to understand the importance of writing a text divided into appropriate paragraphs, although their texts were not clear or easy to understand. As for the grammar component (6.1), a relevant improvement can be observed in comparison with the pre-test. Four previous sessions to reinforce grammar issues were

given previous to this digital writing task. Likewise, the vocabulary component (6.2) also improved in comparison with the pre-test since learners revised, with the help of the teacher, key vocabulary related to the field of business, which was useful to complete the task well. These four reinforcement sessions were indeed necessary to help students improve, as a whole, their digital written competence while blogging.

Next, the outcomes of the second online production task will be tentatively justified. It can be observed that there is a slight decrease between the first digital writing task (6.17) and the second online writing task (5.6), which implies that there are no relevant differences in statistical terms between both tasks. This slight decrease in the second writing task could be due to either the low level of EFL ability in a relevant number of learners in vocational training, even though this aspect was considered initially in the research design to analyse how we could help these ESP learners in vocational training; or because of some difficulty that implies specific language use within the field of administration and management, such as the passive voice, relative pronouns, and superlative, among others. Learners of English in vocational training did not seem to understand that they should be aware of the importance of using specific language within the field of specialized English in the area of business and administration, although the instructor had previously explained the intended learning outcomes as well as the grading criteria. For this reason, the average of this second online writing task decreased notably in comparison with the first digital writing task.

The hypothetical reasons of the outcomes related to the third digital written task will be addressed. When learners were doing both the first and second task, it became clear that they did not know how to write a business plan, even in their mother tongue, which is Spanish. As for this issue, there was a lack of expertise among teachers on how to write business plans in Spanish. Therefore, we asked expert co-workers help to teach learners how to write their own business plans in their mother tongue. Five sessions were dedicated to training learners how to write their business plans. This specific training on writing their own business plans in Spanish helped learners to better the outcomes of this third written task. Therefore, the results of the third digital production task were notably higher than the outcomes of the second online production task. However, this suggests that it was the input which students received from these teacher colleagues that helped the students learn and, thus, it was not the use of blogs.

Having addressed the outcomes of both the first and the second task, there will now be a discussion of the possible reasons for the results of the post-test. In the post-test, learners had to write various texts related to various professional careers related to the field of Administration and Business Management. The main purpose of this task was to make it more authentic to learners taking into consideration the professional reality of learners and, thus, our main concern here was to adjust the various tasks of the experiment to learners' needs. This might be one of the reasons why the outcomes of the post-test were quite satisfactory. Having justified the various outcomes of the experiment, it is important to note that the outcomes were positive as initially expected before commencing the experiment.

It can therefore be stated that a high percentage of learners completed the post-test quite satisfactorily in comparison with the average of the pre-test. Therefore, it has been observed that the quantitative data have notably improved with regard to the competence in ESP written production. Both the pre-test as well as the post-test verify that there are positive and relevant differences in learning how to write in English for Administration and Management, within the Cooperative Learning Approach.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Utilizing WordPress will allow ESP teachers at Vocational Training help their learners to improve their written competence. WordPress, as a blogging tool, helps learners to improve their written competence in foreign language learning. What is more, blogging makes the experience more meaningful and authentic since it encourages team learning, as well as collaborative work by learners in Internet. Overall, it can be said that learners' writing performance was improved with the use of WordPress and, thus, through blogging within the Cooperative Learning approach and, particularly, in Cooperative Writing at this experiment. In fact, the use of the blogs create more meaningful learning environment.

In light of the outcomes of this research, teachers of English for Specific Purposes at Vocational Training need to be conscious that blogging can be an effective method to help their learners to improve their writing scores. Teachers of EFL in Spain and, particularly, at non-university education need to be aware of the implications of this current research since it will offer them options in teaching their learners to write. Moreover, as this was only one-year research, there is a need for longitudinal study looking at the development of written competence over a longer period of time, following learners for, at least, four years, which is the period formed by studies at Vocational Training in Spain.

Utilizing blogging as a tool for language learning actively encourages a Cooperative environment, builds positive attitude, augments motivation and learners' participation, and enhances teachers-students relationships (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007). The teacher can enhance the use of WordPress by encouraging learners to follow updates from their colleagues in order to, lately, interact while blogging not only with their partners but also with other learners from other places worldwide.

In answer to the research question on whether blogging can improve competence in ESP written production and, particularly, within the field of English related to Administration and Management according to the Cooperative Learning Approach, from the data obtained in the post-test it can be observed that in this study competence in written production improved quite notably. Therefore, considering the information provided in the previous section, it seems reasonable to conclude that the students may have learnt and improved their ESP writing skills due to the use of the blogs at this experiment. However, it must be mentioned that learners were exposed to preparation sessions that helped them perform better in their blogging tasks.

To conclude, given that the existing references (Montaner-Villalba, 2016, 2017) related to blogging in teaching ESP in vocational training are scarce, even with the inclusion of active educational methodologies (Montaner-Villalba, 2019b), this current paper offers initially worthwhile and significant value within the field of technology-enhanced language learning applied to English for Specific purposes in vocational training through the use of active educational methodologies. At any case, the results of this research might provide a strong argument for further empirical research on the use of blogging in teaching English for Specific Purposes in vocational training with the inclusion of diverse active teaching methods.

REFERENCES

- Aghajani, Motjaba & Mahsa Adloo (2018). "The Effect on Online Cooperative Learning on Students' Writing Skills and Attitudes through Telegram Application", *International Journal of Instruction*, 11 3(2018): 433-448. Accessed 10 October, 2020. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2018.11330a>
- Akilli, Erman, Lesia Konoplianyk and Yuliia Pryshupa. "ICT in Teaching ESP to Future Civil Engineers at Technical University," *Advanced Education* 6, 11 (2019): 93-99. Accessed 19 July, 2020, DOI:10.20535/2410-8286.148507.
- Awada, Ghada, and Ghazi Ghaith. "Effect of Using the Blog Educational Tool on Writing Achievement and Motivation for Legal Writing". *International Journal of Education and Research*, 2 12 (2014): 371-388. Accessed 10 July, 2018.
- Bran, Ramona. "Do the Math: ESP + Web 2.0=ESP2.0!", *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 1 (2009): 2219–2523. Accessed 23 May, 2019.
- Campbell, Aaron P. "Weblog applications for EFL/ESL classroom blogging: A comparative review". *TESL-EJ*, 9 3 (2005). Accessed 20 January, 2012.
- Campbell, Aaron P. "Using LiveJournal for authentic communication in EFL classes". *The Internet TESL Journal*, 10 9 (2004): 64-68. Accessed 01 May, 2012.
- Campbell, Aaron P. "Weblogs for use with ESL classes". *The Internet TESL Journal*, 9 2 (2003): 33-35. Accessed 01 May, 2012.
- Carney, Nat. "Blogging in foreign language education". In *Handbook of research on web 2.0 and second language learning*, edited by Michael Thomas, 292-312, New York: IGI Global, 2009a.
- Carney, Nat. "Language study through blog exchanges". *Wireless Ready Symposium e-Proceedings Japan*. Accessed 20 March, 2014. <http://wirelessready.nucba.ac.jp/Carney.pdf>, 2009b
- Carney, Nat. "Blogging in foreign language education". In *Handbook of research on web 2.0 and second language learning*, edited by Michael Thomas, 292-312, Hershey and New York: Information Science Reference, 2008
- Carney, Nat. "Language study through blog exchanges". *Wireless Ready Symposium: Podcasting Education and Mobile Assisted Language Learning*, 2007: 109-120
- Domingo-Coscolla, María, Joan Anton Sánchez-Valero, and Juana Mª Sancho-Gil. 2014. "Investigar con y sobre los jóvenes colaborando y educando". *Comunicar*, 42 21 (2014): 157-164. Accessed 20 June, 2020. DOI:10.3916/c42-2014-15
- Ducate, Lara C. and Lara L. Lomicka. "Exploring the blogosphere: Use of web logs in the foreign language classroom". *Foreign Language Annals*, 38 3 (2005): 410-421. Accessed 12 April, 2010. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02227.x>
- Fellner, Terry and Mathew Apple. "Developing writing fluency and lexical complexity with blogs". *The JALT Call Journal*, 2 1 (2006): 15-26
- Ghomari, Soraya Halfaoui. "Bridging the communicative competence gap of the English language in the workplace through an ICT-ESP based approach of teaching in Algeria", *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199 (2015): 756-762. Accessed 03 November, 2018. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.608>
- Godwin-Jones, Robert. "Blogs and wikis: Environments for online collaboration". *Language Learning & Technology*, 7 2 (2003): 12-16
- Gómez-Pezuela Gamboa, Guadalupe. *Desarrollo psicológico y aprendizaje*. México: Trillas, 2007

- Gufhrhon, M. Ali & Siti Ermawati. "The Strengths and Weaknesses of Cooperative Learning and Problem-Based Learning in EFL Writing Class: Teachers and Students' Perspectives". *International Journal of Instruction*, 11 4 (2018): 657-672. Accessed 10 October, 2020.
- Hernández-Sellés, Nuria, Mercedes González-Sanmamed, and Pablo C. Muñoz-Carril. "La planificación del aprendizaje colaborativo en entornos virtuales". *Comunicar*, 21 42 (2014): 25-33. Accessed 14 April, 2018. DOI:10.3916/c42-2014-02
- Hertiki, Hertiki and Juliati Juliati. "Improving students' writing skills using Cooperative Learning at SMPN 2 SUKODONO". *Journal of English for Academic and Specific Purposes*, 2 2 (2019): 36-56. Accessed 10 October, 2020. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.18860/jeasp.v2i2.7853>
- Jones, Zachary and Bernice Nuhfer-Halten. "Uses of blogs in L2 instruction". In *Selected Proceedings of the 2006 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching and the Florida Foreign Language Association*, edited by C. Maurice Cherry, 25-35, Roswell, GA: Valdosta State University, 2006.
- Johnson, David W. and Roger T. Johnson. *La Evaluación en el aprendizaje cooperativo* (Biblioteca Innovación Educativa), Madrid: SM. 2016
- Kagan, Michael, Louise Robertson, and Spencer Kagan. *Cooperative Learning Structures for Classbuilding*, San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing. 1995
- Kagan, Spencer. *Cooperative Learning*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing. 2009
- Lázaro, Raquel, Carmen Pena, and Bianca Vitalaru. "Wikis en lenguas para fines específicos y su traducción". *Red U - Revista de Docencia Universitaria*. Monograph V in co-edition with *Revista de Educación a Distancia (RED)*. (2009): 1-22. Accessed 02 April 2014. http://www.um.es/ead/Red_U/m5/
- Mahmoud, Montasser Mohammed AbdelWahab. "The effectiveness of Using the Cooperative Language Learning Approach to Enhance EFL writing skills among Saudi University Students". In *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5 3 (2014): 616-625, DOI: 10.4304/jltr.5.3.616-625
- Martín-Monje, Elena. "Interactive Materials, Collaborative Work and Web 2.0 in the context of ESP". In *Technological Innovation in the Teaching and Processing of LSPs: Proceeding of TISLID'10*, edited by Noa Talaván Zanón, Elena Martín-Monje and Francisco Palazón Romero, 101-113, Madrid: UNED, 2010
- Mazer, Joseph P., Richard E. Murphy & Cheri J. Simonds. "I'll see you on Facebook: the effects of Computer-Mediated Teacher Self-Disclosure on Student Motivation, Affective Learning, and Classroom Climate". *Journal Communication Education*, 56 1 (2007): 1-17. DOI: 10.1080/03634520601009710
- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "La competencia en producción escrita en lengua inglesa mediante el *blogging* en un entorno de aprendizaje cooperativo en la Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria". *E-SEDLL*, 3 (2020a): 158-171.
- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "Written Production in EFL through blogging and cooperative learning at A-level", *Tejuelo*, 31 (2020b): 97-118. DOI: 10.17398/1988-8430.31.97
- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "La producción escrita en la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos mediante el *Blogging*: análisis del rango de la producción escrita". In *Focus on Learning: Contributions to the field of ESP*, edited by Cristina Calle-Martínez and Slavka Madarova, 19-26, Madrid: UCJC, 2019a

- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "Competencia en producción escrita en inglés para fines específicos mediante el Blogging en un entorno de Aprendizaje Basado en Proyectos". *Revista de Lenguas para fines específicos*, 25 2 (2019b): 173-192, DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.20420/rife.2019.292>
- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "La competencia en producción escrita del inglés técnico mediante el Blogging". *Verbeia. Monograph: Language Teaching and Multilingual Education*. (2017): 84-102
- Montaner-Villalba, Salvador. "La competencia en producción escrita del inglés técnico mediante el Blogging (Investigación-Acción)". *Actas del I Congreso Internacional de Enseñanza del Inglés en Centros Educativos*, (2016): 233-242
- Murray, Liam, and Triona Hourigan. "Blogs for specific purposes: Expressivist or socio-cognitivist approach?". *ReCALL*, 20 1 (2008): 82-97. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344008000719>
- Nair, Subadrah M. & Mogana Sanai. "Effects of utilizing the STAD Method (Cooperative Learning Approach) in Enhancing Students' Descriptive Writing Skills". *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 6 4 (2018): 239-252. DOI: 10.18488/journal.61.2018.64.239.252
- Navarro, Federico, Y. "Business plan: A preliminary approach to an unknown genre." *Ibérica, Revista de la Asociación Europea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos*, no. 30 (2015):129-153. Redalyc, <https://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?id=287042542007>
- Patel, Tarun. "Analyzing the Impact of Blogging on Writing and Grammar Editing Skills of Engineering Students", *International Journal of Humanities in Technical Education*, 1 2 (2015). Accessed 19 July, 2020.
- Pinkman, Kathleen. "Using blogs in the foreign language classroom: Encouraging learner independence". *The JALT CALL Journal*, 1 1 (2005): 12-24. Accessed 14 April, 2014. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.29140/jaltcall.v1n1.2>
- Pujolàs, Pere. *Aprender juntos alumnos diferentes (Recursos)*. Barcelona: Octaedro. 2017
- Shehadeh, Ali. "Effects and student perceptions of collaborative writing in L2". *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20 4 (2011): 286-305. Accessed 28 November, 2017. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.010>
- Sevillano García, M^a Luisa and Esteban Vázquez Cano. *Educadores en Red. Elaboración y Edición de materiales audiovisuales para la enseñanza*. Madrid: Ediciones Académicas-UNED. 2011

NEONYM ANALYSIS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE FOR TOURISM PURPOSES

Tina Orel Frank

University of Primorska, Faculty of tourism studies - Turistica, Department of Cultural Tourism,
Portorož, Slovenia
E-mail: tina.orel@fts.upr.si

Abstract. *Languages are subject to constant change, with new lexis being just one, yet the most sensitive. Languages for specific purposes are no exception, and this is particularly true in areas that are currently undergoing rapid development, such as tourism. The aim of the research is to analyze neonyms in the English tourism language from the perspective of new lexicon-building processes. Neonyms are understood as terms in the neologistic phase of the lexical life cycle. The contribution extracts them according to their subjective time-bound definition in the field of tourism based on the use of Internet sources as corpus, which is particularly suitable for the research of new language. The paper contributes to the understanding of tourism as a field and its specific language and sheds light on recent (often unsystematic) term formation processes. It shows indirect theoretical word formation tendencies, which are also applicable when comparing word formation processes in General English as opposed to the English language for tourism purposes.*

Key words: *neonym, term-formation processes, tourism, terminology*

1. BACKGROUND

Languages are subject to constant change, with the new lexis being just one of them, but it is the most alive and therefore a mirror of the world that uses them (Halliday in Yallop 2007; Kecskes 2015). New expressions are shaped out of the need to fill the gaps in naming new things and concepts (Crystal 2003; Lehrer 2003: 371; Stojičić 2004; Gložančev 2009; Francl 2011: 417; Janssen 2013; Barrs 2015: 372), and out of the need to keep languages alive and diverse. Only a fragment (20%) of the lexicon used in the English language a millennium ago is still in use, the rest having been altered by newly coined or borrowed expressions (Minkova and Stockwell, 2009). According to Fischer (1998: 7) “an investigation of lexical change must look at the new coinages in their social context and describe their possible dissemination against the background of relevant, actual events.” As well as “language change may be explained by the same mechanisms that govern social diffusion of non-linguistic innovations” (Maybaum 2013: 152). Malenkina & Ivanov (2018) define tourism as the dominant cultural industry and as one of the most important economic fields of activity under the effects of globalisation, which underlines the importance of language commodification in the sense of changing identities, interpersonal relationships and community structure modifications.

Submitted July 22nd, 2020, accepted for publication October 12th, 2020

Tourism has become one of the leading and fastest developing global industries. Between January and June 2019, international tourist arrivals increased by 4% year-on-year (UNWTO 2019) and are projected to grow twice as fast in emerging market destinations as in advanced tourism economies (UNWTO 2016). Leisure and recreation have become more accessible as the growing part of the world's population is more urbanised, well-educated and with sufficient financial resources. New generations, such as millennials, value travel experiences more than the purchase of material products (Future Foundation 2016). Moreover, many new destinations, attractions and tourism markets are opening up. Tourism is also adapting to the new circumstances in terms of communication (Telfer & Sharpley 2015). Dann (2012) noted that communication within the tourism discourse community has advanced from the phase of monologue to the current dialogue which means that the development of the Internet and globalisation at any given time means that a large part of communication is destined for all participants in the tourism discourse community. Communication is thus spread in all directions and has evolved from vertical, mono-linguistic information to a horizontal and participatory form (Francesconi, 2014: 27), especially with the development of social media (Sparks et al., 2013). This, according to Zalmont, Pappu and Thadani (2019: 425) resulted in an increased use of neologisms.

“The expansion of terminology in a branch of learning is stimulated by the progress of scientific discoveries within the field” (Stojičić 2004: 32). In the past, tourism was described as “indiscipline” (Tribe 1997), while tourism research was described as “stale, tired, repetitive and lifeless” (Franklin and Crang 2001: 5). Now it turns out that “tourism research is not a theoretical desert and that it has seen the emergence of new concepts, specific to the object studied” (Decroly and Diekmann 2018: 2). The question of whether tourism is an independent discipline is still open (Butowski 2016). Nonetheless, specific knowledge represented by concepts as mental entities called terms is present, and this is the main focus of this work. New forms of tourist expression not only arise from a denominative need to name new discoveries, concepts or subjects, but also result from a creative language development. The aim of this work is to analyse neonyms in the English tourism language from the perspective of new lexicological processes. They will be examined as a “temporary inventory” (Stojičić 2004: 34), as neonyms (more recent terminological candidates) from the field of tourism and thus treated as terms in the neologistic phase of lexical development over the last nine years. As terms they cannot (yet) fully comply with general terminological principles, they are not (yet) standardized.

As we have argued that new expressions define novelties in a society, culture, as well as disciplines, they “should be integrated into the vocabulary material offered to English learners” (Rets 2016: 813). The author (*ibid*) also argues that nevertheless the majority of studies on new words belongs to the field of linguistics rather than language teaching, these two areas are interconnected in several aspects. This paper thus presents a list of tourism neonyms with an explanation on their formation processes that are a useful material to be implemented in an ESP classroom for various reasons. They are a reflection on language as well as tourism development, helping students learn the “here and now” English language with the added bonus of understanding the processes behind the language development.

2. TOURISM TERMINOLOGY

The one most defining characteristic of a certain field is its field specific lexis, denoting content information of a field, materialized in field specific language units called terms. In defining tourism terminology we refer to Vintar (2008: 37-39), who says that the only possible criteria for the definition is its function and its specialized use, stressing that there can be no formal and generally applicable criteria for the definition. Accordingly, Gabrovšek (2005: 16-17) defines terms as expressions that are bound to certain concepts in the field of a particular target field and form a subsystem of knowledge. As an update of the tourism terminology typology of Mikolič (2013: 258) we present a model of tourism terms based on the Hoffman model or as summarized by Vintar (2008: 38). Tourism terms are divided into three categories:

- tourism specific terms - terms that are exclusively coined and used in tourism, e.g. to *touristify*, *undertourism*);
- tourism transterms - terms that are common to many areas and that have passed among different fields in the process of transterminologization with or without semantic changes (e.g. *destination management*, *peer-to-peer economy*);
- tourism pseudoterms - terms that have been (or have not yet been) passed in the first two categories (e.g. *winterscape*, *weekendismo*, *wefie*, *urbexing*, *sleepcation*, *genervacation*, *maximoon*, *earlymoon*, *dadvertising*, *hotumm*, *hamdog*, *flashpacker*, *dronfie*, *dark kitchen*). Looking at the topic from a socio-terminological point of view and suggesting that terms should always be examined in their context, this category also includes all terms (although they do not follow the classical rules of terminology) from the general language used in the context of tourism. Tourism terms are pseudo-prescriptive terms which, in contrast to prescriptive terms (coined in the natural sciences), are often not monosemantic, not established, non-economical, text non-dependant, etc. All this makes their standardization difficult, and the connection between term, concept and definition is loose (Žagar Karer 2011: 39).

Tourism terms are specific from various reasons. Firstly, tourism is highly interdependent on other fields and disciplines and as such it is hard to specifically determine the sphere of its reach, as well as all the connections with other fields and disciplines (Bergenholz and Tarp 1995: 58). Secondly, tourism terminology does not always comply with the classic view on terminology due to the fact that tourism terms are deeply connected with the general lexis. Liverani & Canals (2011 in Malenkina & Ivanov, 2018) describe tourism discourse as the general language mixed with thematic components (like cuisine, art, history and economy). Thirdly, as an interdisciplinary field, it mixes with other fields and disciplines as well. Among individual specific languages there are constant interlanguage processes of expression passing. (De/trans)terminologization processes are used when languages try to cope with current constant changes and innovations induced by globalisation. Term passing among general and specific languages in tourism is a result of contemporary popularity of tourism topicality on all levels. With the processes of expression passing (de/trans-terminologization) terms are in constant relation among the three layers of tourism discourse community (professionals, tourists and tourees). Fourthly, tourism terminology tends to be internationalised and globalized due to the core practice of tourism, meaning, the process of language borrowing is common, but Cabre (1998: 88-90) stresses that borrowed terms are often misused in the recipient language system. This is observable in languages which predominantly borrow terminology from global languages, mainly from English, and fail to establish standardized and uniformed language units. Due to tourism being a globalised industry and an extremely fertile field as an

industry as well as a discipline, new concepts emerge frequently and terminology often lags behind in naming them in a standardized manner. As a result of the actualization of tourism, the intrusion of foreign language elements and a high level of (de/trans) terminology, tourism terminology mainly faces two issues that Kalin Golob and Logar (2008) define within the concepts of unambiguity and systemicity: different terms are used to name the same content and the same terms for different content.

3. NEONYMS

Neonyms are neologisms that are bound to a specific field and its discourse. The classification of general and terminological neologisms (neonyms) results from the study of these neologisms in different language systems, contexts and fields of application. New expressions are not only bound to general languages, but also occur in specific languages. Cabré (1998) speaks of the lexical neology of general language (general neology or only neology) in the lexical neology of specialised languages (specialised neology, terminological neology or neonymy).

Since neologisms are characterised above all by their spontaneity and do not necessarily require new lexical creations for the purpose of naming a new concept, neonyms are coined out of the denominative need to fill a terminological gap. The denotative meaning denotes new (recently invented or newly discovered) things and concepts (Rets 2016 and Ulanova 2014). Necessary expressions, as the first lexicalizations of new objects and concepts fill a gap in language and are likely to spread and be stored in the mental lexicon (MacKenzie 2014). They have a high probability of entering a lexical system, since they are rarely formed as synonyms for already existing words. Such cases are usually a consequence of inconsistent use of terms. Neonyms tend to be rather stable, monosemantic, without synonyms, neutral and free of connotations. They are especially relevant in one specialised field (Hormingo 2012).

Neonyms are terms in the neologistic phase of the lexical life cycle. Neologisms are most often described as newly coined words or phrases or as those that have overcome a recent semantic change (Oxford Dictionary; Collins Cobuilt Dictionary; Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary; Newmark 1995; Muhvić-Dimanovski 2005; Algeo 1991: 2; Simeon 1969: 904-905). They must be defined according to the subjective attitude of each researcher (Rey 1995; Cabré 1998) and are very time-dependent (what was considered new ten years ago does not necessarily have to be perceived as such today). Due to the complexity of the relationship between old and new neologisms and thus neonyms, their definition can only be understood according to several separate or overlapping approaches (Cabré 1998: 445):

- diachronic approach defines neologism as a lexeme that has only recently emerged, is fairly well established, but has lost the status of a nonce- word (Toporišič 2000: 130; Fischer 1998);
- psychological approach defines neologisms as expressions that are stylistically marked as new by the members of a particular discourse community (Rey 1995; Fischer 1998; Cabre 1998; Csak 2011; Anesa 2018);
- lexicographic approach defines neologisms as newly coined expressions that have not yet been lexicalized - not yet registered in dictionaries (Algeo 1991; Sanders 2010 in Rets 2016; Ficher 1998; Kerremans 2015);
- system approach, defining neologisms as lexemes that exhibit both formal (morphological, graphical and phonetic) and semantic instability.

When defining neonyms, none of the approaches should be considered in isolation. For example, dictionaries are not stable, wide enough, regularly updated sources to be a

defacto signal of an expression that is in the neologistic phase. In this research, neonyms are English tourism terms in their neologistic phase of the lexical life cycle. This means that they are always considered here as 'only' potential terms that have passed their nonce- word development stage (they are used more than three times - a number defined by Csak (2011), are institutionalised (fairly established) but not yet lexicalized (not listed in tourism terminological dictionaries), or terminologically standardised and stylistically marked as new by the tourism discourse community.

4. TERM FORMATION PROCESSES

Neonyms share the formation processes with the general lexicon, therefore they are analysed here according to the formation processes of neologisms. Cabré et al. (2012), for example, divide neonyms, like general neologisms, into two large groups according to their origin: those that have arisen through the emergence of new knowledge/behaviour within a particular language, and those that are transferred from other languages through the transfer of knowledge from other language groups. However, some of the causes in term formation may occur more frequently in comparison to the general vocabulary. Jemec Tomazin (2010: 163) describes that terms are formed predominantly by intralingual (metaphorical) transfer, transfer from other languages and calques. Vintar (2008) points out the combination of phrases in the context of intralingual acquisition in terminology.

In Table 1 we define a typology of neologisms in relation to origin. There are, according to one of the dividing lines, two basic forms of formation of new expressions which can also emerge according to the second dividing line as denominative/expressive or stylistic/aesthetic neologisms:

- intralingual acquisition (original neology): a) new formation in systemic or non-systemic ways of word formation, b) vocabulary shifts: necessarily semantic, where it is a matter of adding meaning to already existing words, and not necessarily semantic, where it is a matter of shifting outdated lexicons, grouping into multi-word units, or shifts between general and field-specific languages, or between field-specific languages, where words transfer and do not necessarily change meanings;
- interlingual acquisition (secondary neology).

Table 1 Term formation processes of neonyms with respect to origin

Intralingual		Interlingual
New coinages	Shifts	
Systematic coinages	Semantic shifts	Citation form
	Metaforisation	
Non-systematic coinages	Metonimisation	Calque
	Non-necessarily semantic shifts:	
	Reactualisation	Loanword
	Revitalisation	
	Combining in multi-word units	
	Terminologisation	
	Determinologisation	
	Transterminologisation	

5. NEONYMS IN AN ESP CLASSROOM

Introducing new expressions from a certain field can enhance students' understanding of the field's development in general. This paper provides a list of tourism neonyms to be introduced to students as mirrors of tourism development and sheds light on most common term formation processes in the language of tourism, which is particularly beneficial for advanced English learners. Hence it functions as a presentation of a linguistic study with an ESP teaching developmental aim.

The paper supports the implementation of neonyms in the English for tourism purposes classroom, but the advice can be used in all ESP subjects, as the topic can be used on all language levels. The general use of neologisms or neonyms helps students understand the development of the language community or a certain discipline coining the new expressions, thus unraveling the changes in society. It is noteworthy that especially advanced English learners can benefit from the understanding of term formation processes in neonyms from their field. Gong and Hong (2019) mention that analysing the word-formation mechanisms or strategies of neologisms learners can not only reinforce their understanding about the unique linguistic features of the language that they acquired before but also obtain a better understanding of the social and cultural aspects that shape a certain language. Nevertheless, the mentioned authors research the learning process of the Chinese language, so the statement can be applied to all languages. Also Rets (2016) points out that more advanced students could be more interested in the laws of language development and hence neologisms can be taught according to the factors that motivated their formation.

6. NEONYM COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This research draws attention to term formation processes in tourism neonyms. The selection of neonyms, later analysed in terms of term formation processes, was compiled using corpus-driven research that extracted neonyms using the Internet as a corpus best suited for the extraction and analytical study of lexical novelties, according to Gložančev (2009: 17) and Michelizza (2015: 57 and 66). It was based on the assumption of Paryzek (2008: 164), as he noted on the basis of his and other research, that neologisms tend to appear after certain phrases, namely '(so)called', '(also) known as' in English or quotation marks. To test whether the expressions are perceived as new by the tourism discourse community, a Delfi analysis was also conducted. This part of the research was determined in November 2019 and is described in detail in the doctoral dissertation *English and Slovene Neologisms in the Language of Tourism* (Orel Frank, 2019). The mentioned research was carried out with a purpose of gathering new terminology from the field of tourism in a glossary. The whole list of gathered English new tourism expressions is also presented as an Appendix 1 (available at: <https://docs.google.com/document/d/1R7irPZA1GpsD41mEt2zeDIUoSWLy8DBS9tu5psWSa1k/edit?usp=sharing>) to this article. As Table 2 shows, it extracted 290 English tourism neologisms (152 one-word neologisms, 124 multi-word neologisms and 14 acronyms). In terms of word classes, the picture is rather typical of terms where most neologisms are nouns.

Table 2 English tourism neologisms

	English
One-word neologisms	152 (139 nouns, 10 adjectives and 3 verbs)
Multi-word neologisms	124
Acronyms	14
Sum	290

Among the collected English neologisms, our research from the point of view of word formation also shows a typical picture of the frequency of use of English word formation methods. The most common feature, which is also characteristic of technical languages, is the compounding process, which is considered in the context of semantic shifts in the sense of the more recent word formation English theory, which understands the English compounding process as a semantic shift or use of words for other purposes (repurposing), i.e. the combination of two words to form a new lexeme with a new meaning (O'Dell 2015: 2). In this category tourism terminology expanded especially in combinations designed to denote new tourism types, forms, concepts, etc. Our research encountered a long list (62!) of those appearing in “adjective + tourism” or “noun + tourism” forms: e.g. *adventure tourism*, *anthropocene tourism*, *beauty tourism*, *black tourism*, *disaster tourism*, *ethical/ethic tourism*, *experimental tourism*, *family tourism*, *fertility tourism*, *film tourism*, *film-induced tourism*, *food tourism*, *genealogical tourism*, *grief tourism*, *health tourism*, *historic tourism*, *medical tourism*, *memorial tourism*, *non-vital medical tourism*, *religious/faith tourism*, *reproductive tourism*, *residential tourism*, *pop-culture tourism*, *post-disaster tourism*, *transplant tourism*, *war tourism*, *wildlife tourism*. This phenomenon was in the past already observed by Rata (2012) under the term adjectival tourism, which refers to various forms of tourism that have emerged.

Compounding is followed by affixation. With the implementation of a semantic view in combination of the term formation one, selected neonyms showed a list of clipped forms reappearing with or without a semantic change in many expressions by the use of several term formation processes (blending, clipping or affixation). These forms are a phenomenon called libfixes. Blends are very common as well. There are also some acronyms and loanwords. As an example of back formation, only one noun (*famil*> *familiarization*) was recorded, derived from the phrase familiarization trip. The verb *cowork* (from co-working) was also formed as a back formation. In the following segments we give attention to the unsystematic processes most frequent in tourism term formation procedures.

6.1 Coinages derived from *tourism*

The development of several possible word-forming abilities in naming is due to the intensive popularization of an object or phenomenon (Žele, 2010: 132). The fact that tourism is a current topic is reflected in our research by the appearance of coinages derived from tourism: *to turistify*, *touristification*, *anti-tourism*, *overtourism*, *post-tourism*. The suffix -cation gave rise to the noun *touristification*, which describes the process of the emergence or implementation of tourism in a place.

6.2 Abbreviations

Abbreviations are common among the English neonyms in our study. Since these are newly created abbreviations, they usually appear with an explanation in brackets: *DMC* (destination management company), *DMO* (destination management organization), *FBB* (family business brand), *FIT* (fully independent traveler/tourist or foreign independent tour/traveler), *ITO* (inbound tour operator), *OTA* (online travel agency), *OTO* (outbound tour operator), (pay per click), *RTBS* (real-time booking system), *TTA* (traditional travel agent). There are also examples of compounds with an abbreviated first part: *GPS hiking*, *VR tour*.

6.3 Blending

According to Bauer (2002), blends are combinations of clips or whole words, whereby Lehrer (2007: 117-119) adds that the parts blended are not necessarily equivalent, and lists many different ways of blending. Mattiello (2013) on the other hand distinguishes blends from clipped compounds and demonstrates in particular that a large number of non-uniform denominations indicate a not (yet) entirely clear picture of blends and their related forms in English word formation, although he claims the same as Lehrer (2007) and Plag (2003) above, that they can be understood as compounds from the original point of view, since they have more than one basis of merging. Nevertheless, the process of blending was detected as fruitful in the creation of tourism pseudoterms, which indicates that the process is less used in academic and professional circles. There were cases where both lexemes are clipped and blended (e.g. *netnography* (internet + ethnography), *urbexing* (urban + exploring); and cases where only one is clipped (e.g. *histourism* (history + tourism), *mil tourism* (military + tourism), *commjacking* (communication + jacking), *glocalisation* (global + localisation), *homesitting* (home + babysitting), *foodventure* (food + adventure), *educrafting* (educational + crafting), *footicial* (foot + facial), *genervacation* (generation + vacation). It is worth mentioning that inside the process of blending there appeared several analogy strings. The analogy in English word formation processes is described by Mattiello (2017, 2018), who, nevertheless, defines it as a special word formation process in which a new word is formed according to the model of another existing word or in a series of prototype words that share the same word formation process. This is closely tied to the formation with the use of libfixes, described in the forthcoming paragraph. One of the analogy strings derived out of brunch (breakfast + lunch) actually showed the instability of the blending process in English by offering as many as three examples of blends of identical or semantically related words: *linner* (lunch + dinner), *lunner* (lunch + dinner), *lupper* (lunch + supper).

6.4 Libfixes

A libfix was first defined by Arnold Zwicky (2010) as a clip of an established word, freed from its original and added to other words with the aim of creating a new expression. Vidovič Muha (2011: 296) describes it broadly as newly emerging defining contents, which are also interesting as internationalisms, since they occur in several languages. With regard to libfixes, the semantic view of affixes is emphasized, as they can be clipped from the original word and added to new ones to form a new expression by keeping their original meaning (as edu- > educational) or changing it (-holic > workaholic). As far as the word formation process is concerned, “libfixes are parts of words that share properties with both

blends, compounds and affixes” (Norde & Sippach 2019: 353). Therefore, we consider libfixes primarily from a semantic point of view as a form of detachment (retaining their original meaning) or alienation (changing their meaning) from the original word in the form of a clip in order to attach it to another word. They are time-bound to the time in which they are topical and contribute above all to the formation of schematic analogies. In our analysis, we found a frequent use of the following libfixes:

- *gastro-*

Our analysis detected frequent use of the *gastro-* as a detached libfix: e.g. in *gastro-onomie* (otherwise originally French), *gastro-attraction*, *gastrobrand*, *gastronout*.

- *pro-*

Pro- (from professional) appears several times: e.g. *protecture* (professional + protecturus - Latin) in terms of the professional protection of personal data online offered by companies; *prosumption* (professional + consumption) in terms of semi-professional consumption; *prosumer* (professional + consumer) in the sense of a semi-professional consumer.

- *-packer*

The detached *-packer* (from backpacker) appears in: *begpacker*, *bratpacker*, *flashpacker*.

- *-moon*

English libfix *-moon* (from honeymoon) is particularly interesting in this context. We detected it in a schematic analogy in a series of new English expressions: *jobbymoon*, *earlymoon*, *maximoon*, *minimoon*, *mommymoon*, *daddymoon*. There have been extensions of meaning (similar to the pronoun *-holik*) with respect to the meaning of the original word honeymoon. As a clipped form, it is widely used today, i.e. also for trips/vacations, which are not necessarily honeymoons (*jobbymoon*). When a particular element becomes so widely accepted that people use it frequently, it can lose its connection with its original word and become an independent morpheme, according to Lehrer (2007: 121). The transition from a newer fragment to a new productive morpheme is a gradual diachronic process with intermediate stages, most often involving semantic reinterpretation and generalization (Mattiello 2018), which also happened in the *-moon* case.

- *eco-*

Among the fertile libfixes in English, we find the content *eco-*, which Voršič (2013) classifies as a polyphonic prefix. As a detached libfix in our research in English, *eco-* appears in: *ecosystem services*, *ecomuseum*, *ecologisation*, *eco-management*, *eco-conscious* and *eco-metropolis*, and as a unifying content in *ecophobia* (with a meaning broader than ecological, namely on fear of the familiar home environment).

6.5 (De/trans)terminologization processes

Within these processes our research came to prove a statement by Mikolič and Beguš (2011: 315) who find that in the field of tourism, terminologization is the most common term formation process, because due to the specifics of the complex activity of tourism, which extends beyond professional and scientific language, in which the general public intervenes, general vocabulary assumes a specific meaning and becomes a term. As an example of terminologisation, that often occurs together with metaphorization (e.g. *sales funnel*).

Determinologisation is the reverse process, although we must emphasize that here we are no longer talking only about the directions of transition of terms, but terminologizing is the naming of something new using a term from general vocabulary (often a metaphor), and determinologizing is expanding the visibility of denotation from specific to general lexicon (Vidovič Muha 2000: 116–177). As for example, the neonym *scattered hotel* (also: *diffused hotel*, *dispersed hotel*, *virtual hotel*), previously used only by the tourism professionals.

The process of transterminologisation (also: reterminologisation Žagar Karer (2011) / broader terminologisation Žele (2012: 113) marks the transition of terms between disciplines or specialized fields. Tammerman (2000) finds that terms are no longer strictly tied to the frameworks of one profession, but move through the contents of different disciplines, most often those that are related, or at least partially consistent in content. The authors merely name the same process differently, where the denotation retains its basic meaning, but minor, especially semantic, changes are possible (Bidnenko 2013). The interdisciplinary nature of tourism accepts terms from a wide range of disciplines and specialized fields (e.g. marketing - *experience marketing*, FBB (*family business brand*); sociology - *glocalization*; sports – *sup*, etc.). Transterms can semantically adapt to the transferring field or retain the original meaning. A multidisciplinary term with the same meaning in several fields is, for example, the term *glocalization*, which can be described and researched by several disciplines or disciplines, each from its own point of view, also, the term *global healthcare*, the meaning of which in tourism logically differs from that enlisted in medical terminological dictionaries.

6.6 Interlinguality

Many authors have already researched the phenomenon of contact languages also on the examples of the language of tourism (Dann 1996; Francesconi 2007; Cappeli 2013; Gandin 2014; Dumitrascu 2017; Karpova 2019).

English today has a great influence on other languages, but foreign language influences can also be traced among the more recent lexicon of tourism. The terms come from different languages:

- Greek: *eletheromania* (fanatical desire to travel), *hodophile* (someone who loves to travel);
- Swedish: *livsnjuture* (someone living a full life), *resfeber* (feeling uncomfortable before traveling);
- Danish: *onism* (awareness of an individual that he/she will visit/feel only a small part of the world in his/her life);
- German: *fernweh* (desire for distant places; desire to travel);
- Italian: *latte (levy)* (tax on non-refundable plastic coffee pots in the UK);
- Spanish: *jinterismo* (illegal or partially legal activities related to tourism in Cuba - prostitution, pimping, unlicensed guides or taxi drivers, etc.);
- Japanese: *yugen / Yūgen* (a deep, mysterious feeling at the beauties of the universe).
- The adoption of foreign language terms to describe well-being, philosophy of life, and terms more directly related to tourism is on the rise in English in general.

7. CONCLUSION

The paper contributes to the understanding of tourism as a field and its specific language and sheds light on recent (often unsystematic) term formation processes in tourism and in general. The total of 290 English tourism neonyms were analysed with regard to their creation process. English is a global language with a large effect on other languages, the tourism terminology broadens its list with interlingual acquisition, especially inside the topics of well-being or philosophy of life. An intralingual perspective reveals a rather typical picture of the use term formation processes. As in many other terminological systems, compounding and repurposing were proven to be most fruitful, including a long list of adjectival tourism forms. The more recent processes, that were particularly evident in the analysis, were presented in detail. The process of blending proved to be still unstable and was mainly used in pseudoterm creation, including the use of libfixes, which tend to generate new analogy strings, with the use of other word formation processes as well. Nevertheless, it cannot be claimed that the term formation processes used in tourism neonyms necessarily differ from those used in other disciplines or fields. A comparative study between different fields could be the next research step.

This paper contains a list of tourism neonyms to be presented to students as a mirror of tourism development, highlights the most common term formation processes in the language of tourism, which is particularly beneficial for advanced learners of English, and aims to promote the implementation of the topic of language novelties in an ESP classroom. Therefore, it acts as a presentation of a linguistic study with the purpose of developing the teaching of ESP. The latter statement, however, goes hand in hand with the fact that the monitoring and proper enforcement of new concepts is a “moral obligation of a profession and its experts to their own and external public” (Verhovnik 2002: 755), which was achieved in collaboration between linguists and LSP lecturers.

It could be argued that the implementation of neonyms in an ESP classroom is irrelevant, since we are dealing with unstable units for which it is just as difficult to predict whether they will remain parts of the language fond or disappear quickly. But the paper was built on the idea that language is a living entity that reflects our time, and we strongly believe that it should be presented to students as such. The question that remains open for any language teacher is whether to use neonyms as a separate learning unit or integrate them into other subject areas.

REFERENCES

- Algeo J (ed.). 1991. *Fifty Years Among the New Words: A Dictionary of Neologisms, 1994–1991*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Anesa, P. 2018. *Lexical Innovation in World Englishes: Cross fertilization and Evolving Paradigms*. London, New York: Routledge.
- Barrs, K. 2015. Catachrestic and Non-Catachrestic English Loanwords in the Japanese Language. In *Abstract Book of Corpus Linguistics*, edited by Formato, F. & Hardie, A., 372-374. Lancaster: UCREL.
- Bauer, L. 2002. *English Word-Formation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bergenholtz, H. & Tarp, S. 1995. *Manual of Specialised Lexicology: The Preparation of Specialised Dictionaries*. Amsterdam in Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

- Bidnenko, N. P., 2013. Modern Tendencies in the Process of Term Formation. *News of Dnepropetrovsk University named after Alfred Nobel* 1 (5). 205–210.
- Butowski, L. 2016. Tourism as a Discipline in the light of non-classical sociology of science. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 16(4), 436–454.
- Cabré, M. T. 1998. *Terminology: Theory, Methods and Applications*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Cabré, M. T. Estopa Bagot, R. & Chelo Vargas, S. 2012. Neology in specialized communication. *Terminology* 18(1). 1–7.
- Crystal, David (ed.), 2003. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Csak, E. 2011. The Translation of Neologisms in Special Terminology. *Translation Journal* 5(3). Available at: <http://translationjournal.net/journal/57neologisms.htm>. (Accessed on 16.4.2013).
- Dann, G. 2012. Remodelling a changing language of tourism: from monologue to dialogue and triologue, *PASOS*, 4 (10), 59–70.
- Decroly, J.-M. & Diekman A. 2018. The Production of Tourism Concepts. *Via Tourism Review*, 13, 1–7. Available at: <https://journals.openedition.org/viatourism/2725>. (Accessed on 3. 3. 2020).
- Fischer, Roswitha, 1998. *Lexical Change in Present-Day English: A Corpus Based Study of the motivation, Institutionalization and Productivity of Creative Neologisms*. Tübingen: Gnv.
- Francesconi, S. 2014. *Reading Tourism Texts: A Multimodal Analysis*. Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Francl, M. 2011. Neolexia. *Nature Chemistry*, 3, 417–418.
- Franklin, A. & Crang, M. 2001. The trouble with tourism and travel theory? *Tourist studies*, 1(1). 5–22.
- Future Foundation. 2016. *Millennial Travel Report*. Available at: <https://www.foresightfactory.co/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Expedia-Millennial-Traveller-Report-Final.pdf>. (Accessed on 5. 11. 2018).
- Gložančev, A. 2009. Analitična osvetlitev novejšje slovenske leksike. In *Novejšja slovenska leksika (v povezavi s spletnimi jezikovnimi viri)*, edited by Gložančev, A., Jakopin, P., Michelizza, M., Uršič, L. & Žele, 9–35. A. Ljubljana: Založba ZRC, ZRC SAZU.
- Gong, W. & Hong, H. 2019. Using Corpus-based Analysis of Neologisms on China's New Media for Teaching Chinese as a Second or Foreign Language. In *Computational and Corpus Approaches to Chinese Language Learning*, edited by Lu X., Chen B., Chinese Language Learning Sciences. Springer, Singapore.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Yallop, C. 2007. *Lexicology: A Short Introduction*. London: Continuum.
- Hormingo, M. T. D. 2012. Lexical Creation and Euphemism: Regarding the Distinction *Denominative or Referential Neology vs. Stylistic or Expressive Neology*. *Lexis - E-Journal in English Lexicology* 7. Available at: <https://journals.openedition.org>. (Accessed on 31. 7. 2018).
- Janssen, M. 2013. Lexical gaps. In Chapelle, C. A. *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing. Available at: <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0693/full>. (Accessed on 15.1. 2014).
- Jemec Tomazin, M. 2010. Slovenska pravna terminologija: od začetkov v 19. stoletju do danes. Ljubljana: Založba ZRC, ZRC SAZU.

- Kerremans, D. 2015. *A Web of New Words: A Corpus-Based Study of the Conventionalization Process of English Neologisms*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Lehrer, A. 2003. Understanding Trendy Neologisms. *Italian Journal of Linguistics*. 15 (1), 271–384.
- Lehrer, A. 2007. Lexical Creativity in Texts: Advertising and the Media. In *Lexical Creativity, Texts and Contexts*, edited by Munat, J., 114–134. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- MacKenzie, I. 2014. Lexical innovation: cromulently embiggenin a language. *Alicante Journal of English studies*. 27 (2014). 91–105.
- Malenkina, N. & Ivanov, S. 2018. A Linguistic Analysis of The Official Tourism Websites of the Seventeen Spanish Autonomous Communities. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 9, 204–233.
- Mattiello, E. 2013. *Extra-grammatical Morphology in English*. Berlin in Boston: Walter de Gruyter.
- Mattiello, E. 2017. *Analogy in Word-Formation: A Study of English Neologisms and Occasionalisms*. Berlin in Boston: Walter de Gruyter.
- Mattiello, Elisa, 2018. Paradigmatic Morphology: Splintes, Combining Forms and Secreted Affixes. *SKASE Journal of Theoretical Linguistics*, 15 (1), 2–22.
- Maybaum, R. 2013. Language Change as a Social Process: Diffusin Patterns of Lexical Innovations in Twitter. *Berkley Linguistics Society*, 39, 152–166.
- Michelizza, M. 2015. *Spletna besedila in jezik na spletu: Primer blogov in Wikipedije v slovenščini*. Lingua Slovenica. Ljubljana: Založba ZRC, ZRC SAZU.
- Mikolič, V. 2013. Področni govor in terminologija na primeru jezika turizma. In *Infrastruktura slovenščine in slovenistike, Obdobja 32*, edited by Žele, A., 255–261. Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete.
- Minkova, D. & Stockwell, R. P. 2009. *English Words: History and Structure*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Muhvić-Dimanovski, V. 2005. *Neologizmi. Problemi, teorije i primjene*. Zagreb: Zavod za lingvistiku, Filozofska fakulteta Sveučilišta v Zagrebu.
- Newmark, P. 1995. *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Norde, M. & Sippach, S. 2019. Nerdalicious scientainment: A network analysis of English libfixes. *Word Structure*. 12 (3). 353–384.
- O'Dell, F. 2015. Creating new words: affixation in neologisms. *ELT Journal* 70 (1). 1–6.
- Orel Frank, T. 2019. *Angleški in slovenski neologizmi v jeziku turizma*. University of Ljubljana, The Faculty of Arts. Doctoral dissertation.
- Paryzek, P. 2008. Comparison of selected methods for retrieval of neologisms. *Investigationes Linguisticae*, 14 (2008). 163–181.
- Plag, I. 2003. *Word-Formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rets, I. 2016. Teaching Neologisms in English as a Foreign Language Classroom. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232 (2016), 813–820.
- Rata, G. 2012. Adjectival Tourism. A Case Study. In *The English of Tourism*, edited by Rata, G., Petroman, I. & Petroman, C., 3–18. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholar Publishing.
- Rey, A. 1995. *Essays on Terminology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Sanders, E. 2010. *Nooit meer uitslapen. Kleine kroniek van het moderne gezinsleven. Veen*, 10de herziene editie.
- Simeon, R. 1969. *Enciklopedijski rječnik lingvističnih naziva*. Zagreb: Matica hrvatska.

- Sparks, B., H. Perkins & Buckley R. 2013. Online travel reviews as persuasive communication: The effects of content type, source, and certification logos on consumer behaviour. *Tourism Management*, 39, 1–9.
- Stojičić, V. 2004. Sociolinguistic stimuli to the development of the English lexicon – language contact and social need. *Linguistics and Literature*, 3(1), 29–36.
- Toporišič, J. 2000. *Slovenska slovnica*. Maribor: Založba Obzorja.
- Tribe, John, 1997: The Indiscipline of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* ,24 (3), 638–657.
- Telfer, D. J., & Sharpley, R. 2015. *Tourism and development in the developing world*. (2nd ed.). Oxon: Routledge.
- Ulanova, S. 2014. Affix semantics (terms vs. neologisms). *Terminology Science in Russia today: From the Past to the Future*, 116, 389.
- UNWTO. 2016. *Tourism Highlights*. 2016 Edition. Available at: <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418145>. (Accessed on 20. 1. 2019).
- UNWTO. 2019. UNWTO World Tourism Barometer and Statistical Annex. Available at: sitcon.singidunum.ac.rs/. (Accessed on 13. 11. 2019).
- Verhovnik, T. 2002. Slovensko izrazje odnosov z javnostmi. *Teorija in praksa*, 39 (5), 755–765.
- Vidovič Muha, A. 2000. *Slovensko leksikalno pomenoslovje: govorica slovarja*. Ljubljana: Znanstveni inštitut Filozofske fakultete.
- Vidovič Muha, A. 2011. *Slovensko skladijsko besedotvorje*. Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete.
- Vintar, Š. 2008. *Terminologija: Terminološka veda in računalniško podprta terminografija*. Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete v Ljubljani.
- Voršič, I. 2013. *Sistemska in nesistemska leksikalna tvorba v novejšem besedju slovenskega jezika*. Maribor: Univerza v Mariboru, Filozofska fakulteta.
- Zalmon, N., Pappu, A. & Thadani, K. 2019. Unsupervised Neologism Nominalization Using Embedding Space Mapping. *Proceedings of the 2019 EMNLP Workshop W-NUT: The 5th Workshop in Noisy User-Generated Text*. 425–430. Hong Kong: Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zwicky, A. 2010. *Libfixes*. Available at: <https://arnoldzwicky.org/2010/01/23/libfixes/>. (Accessed on 16. 11. 2018).
- Žagar Karer, M. 2011. *Terminologija med slovarjem in besedilom. Analiza elektrotehniške terminologije*. Ljubljana: ZRC SAZU.
- Žele, A. 2010. Pomenotvorne zmožnosti z vidika /de/terminologizacije (v slovenščini). In *Terminologija in sodobna terminografija*, edited by Ledinek, N. & Žagar Karer, M. & Humar, M., 125–139. Ljubljana: Založba ZRC, ZRC SAZU.
- Žele, A. 2012. *Pomensko-skladijske lastnosti slovenskega glagola*. Ljubljana: ZRC SAZU.

MODELLING ESP TEACHER IDENTITY IN UKRAINIAN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Maryna Rebenko

Foreign Languages for Mathematical Faculties Department, Institute of Philology, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine
E-mail: m.rebenko@knu.ua

Abstract. *In an attempt to leverage knowledge in an ESP classroom, some university teachers find not much support from the university staff and administration in Ukraine. Yet, it hardly restrains ESP teachers to eagerly develop and construe their professional identity aimed at equipping students with employability literacy skills. A two-stage survey of three different groups of respondents was conducted at Taras Shevchenko University of Kyiv, Ukraine. The findings on the open-ended questionnaire allowed designing a rank of identity constituents, which appeared to be different in research groups' perceptions. While both language and subject teachers valued "individual features" as the most significant and "work experience" as the least, the students correspondingly ranked the other categories – "professional knowledge" and "foreign language competence". Within the close-ended questionnaire dataset, these discrepancies vanished. All research groups agreed on the model of "ideal" ESP teacher identity as a combination of significantly ranking categories: "methods of teaching" → "professional knowledge" → "individual features" → "foreign language competence" → "work experience". The "professional knowledge" category was estimated twice as significant as the "work experience" domain. The research results are consistent with the recent studies on teacher identity simulation. New was ranking the ESP teacher identity model on constituents' significance based on opinions of three different social groups – students, language teachers, and subject teachers. The worked-out model could remedy ESP teacher identity ambiguity due to approach fruitfulness.*

Key words: *ESP teacher, identity model, questionnaire, identity constituents ranking*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the Ukrainian tertiary environment, similar to Asian policies (Cheng & Anthony, 2014), the Bologna reform pushed internalization of social, economic, and academic contexts, and initiated ESP programs' implementation as one of the most fruitful facilitators of this process.

Identity formation of an ESP teacher has become a globally relevant and highly regarded topic. The ongoing curriculum reform of foreign language (FL) teaching in Ukrainian tertiary institutions as a whole and ESP, in particular, has challenged the ESP teacher identity formation due to pushing FL teachers to make a shift in their educational priorities. Such teachers are bound to acquire "skills beyond their primary FL teaching expertise" (Tao & Gao, 2018) as a key path to meet their audience expectations. Unfortunately, as Tao and Gao have stated (2018), it is not a rare case when "the marginalized status of ESP", imposed by the

Submitted July 25th, 2020, accepted for publication October 8th, 2020

corresponding institution, makes this process less successful. For instance, at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv ESP courses at all non-philological faculties are optional, and students attend them less in comparison to the compulsory General English (GE) courses at linguistics departments. It also occurs that ESP students anticipate immersing themselves into a job-related classroom atmosphere, while their teachers struggle to overcome “subject-matter knowledge gaps” (Wu & Badger, 2009). On the other hand, linguistics department staff could consider ESP courses as a “threat” (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Long & Uzcinski, 2012; Sánchez-López, et al, 2014). One of the keynote speakers at the 4th International Conference on ESP, LSP, GE in Serbia (July 17-19, 2020) Dr. Mary Risner (University of Florida, USA) correspondingly commented on a similar feeling of competition among traditional literature faculties and ESP departments across the US regarding LSP faculty interactions. In Risner’s words, there is a perceived threat that US grammar-focused faculties see practical language training courses connected to professions as taking away from a general liberal arts training and one of the causes of enrollment reduction in literature faculties. Additionally, some courses professors could question ESP teachers’ qualifications (Tsou & Chen, 2014), so treat them rather sceptically. Such a threatening tendency is being experienced around the world and should promote further talking across disciplines. All mentioned above might result in the lower status of teaching for non-philological students and constant ESP teachers’ “identity struggles” (Tao & Gao, 2018) as a necessity to build, or even “rebuild their [professional] identities” (Kanno & Stuart, 2011).

It is against this background that most researchers explore the phenomenon of teacher identity, yet just a few ones consider the issue of ESP teacher identity as one of the keys to tertiary education enhancement, both internationally and locally. Hence, our paper aims to design a model of ideal ESP teacher identity within the reality-based higher education in Ukraine.

Our study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What features does ESP teacher identity imply?
2. In which categories do different social groups (ESP students, language, and subject teachers) construe the ‘ideal’ ESP teacher identity?
3. Are all the facets of the ESP teacher identity model valued the same within the three different relational contexts?
4. How do our findings correlate to other researchers’ results?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Since its first mentioning by French writer Jean-Baptiste A. Karr in 1849, the notion of teacher identity has been described diversely in the educational landscape (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020). As the teacher identity contexts are varied (e.g. personal, autobiographical, work-related, instructional, professional, etc. (Pennington & Richards, 2016)), and often tend to change according to newly come students and/or the updated job requirements, this phenomenon is dynamic (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009, p.177) and always in flux (Pennington & Richards, 2016, p.5), so it could be featured as constantly evolving. The concept of teacher identity was viewed in terms of “the unique set of characteristics associated with a particular individual relative to the perceptions and characteristics of others” (Pennington, 2015, p.16) and then was enriched with the idea of “a reflection of the context or activity in which the individual is situated” (Pennington &

Richards, 2016). The researchers inferred that teacher identity is about to link personal characteristics to the collective identity of a professional area.

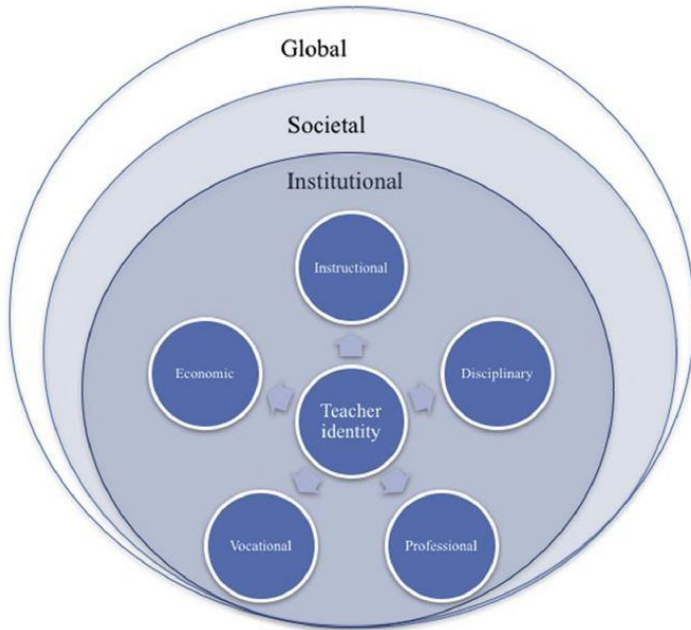
As Lontas stated in his study *Understanding Teacher Identity* (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020), the interpretations of the teacher identity concept involve various facets such as “individual-social matter and communities of practice,” “role enactment and role negotiation,” “sense of self and relationship to the world”, “self-positioning and positioning by others”, “social affiliation and discourse interaction”, or what Gee has called “affinities” (Gee, 2001), as well as “cognition and emotion”, and “agency change and subjectivity”. The notion of “occupational identity” is also one of the constituents of the identity framework. In Vondracek’s studies (Vondracek et al, 1995; Vondracek & Skorikov, 1997) the factor of self-readiness for would-be career decision-making forms the occupational identity domain. Similar to the initial concept of teacher identity, the notion of occupational identity as its constituent has also been defined diversely. For instance, Ireri’s team definition of occupational identity as “a complex developmental process involving the interaction of personality, age and other related factors” (Irer et al, 2013, p.88) hardly sheds light on the correlation between attitude to work versus age and gender of Kenyan university freshmen, and as a result, makes the idea of occupational identity rather vague. Richards (2012) does not define the teacher identity context itself but identifies ten dimensions which are the core in language teaching. Accordingly, it is affirmed that teacher identity nature is multifaceted due to the complicated interaction of various factors (Beijaard et al, 2004).

Drawing on Pennington’s findings (2015), Tao and Gao (2018, p.3) attempted to build a model of ESP teacher identity (Figure 1). They adapted Pennington’s concepts of local and global frames’ influence on teacher identity formation and focused on contextual frames due to “a greater effect on teacher identity” (Tao & Gao, 2018, p.3) of the former. The researchers delineated Pennington’s local frame into the institutional and societal ones, following Varghese’s team investigation layout (Varghese et al, 2005). Then, they refined the model with professional development and work experience facets, leaving without changes a professional layer, elaborated by Pennington. All the made replacements were due to limited relevance of their study.

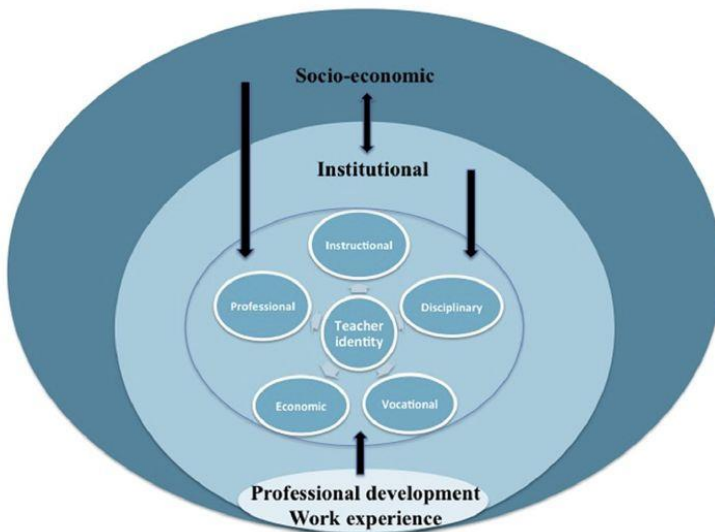
Against this background, Sachs observed that “teacher identity is not something that is fixed nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience” (Sachs, 2005, p.15). Pennington and Richards (2016) synthesized teacher identity competences (Foundational and Advanced) and illustrated factors that influence their development. The researchers worked out such a scheme when the synthesis of Foundation Competences (language-related identity, disciplinary identity, context-related identity, student and self-knowledge, and awareness) and Advanced Competences (community membership and the concepts of “knowledge into practice”, and “practice into knowledge”) make the desired outcome of creating language teacher identity (Pennington & Richards, 2016).

In the project of Taylor’s team (2013) teacher identity was investigated from a new perspective. The researchers addressed the need to explore the relationship between identity perception and academic achievements. Profound was the comparison of learning and teaching English as L2 and mathematics through online questionnaires of three respondent groups from four European countries. The project emphasized practical significance of encouraging identity development in a FL classroom and declared personally relevant learning and teaching environments. It is the first study in which the problem of low student motivation is linked to unidentified L2 teacher

identity. The cross-sectional European study conducted by Taylor’s research team (2013) attempted to generalize the results with the potential to influence educational policy globally.



An adapted model of ESP teacher identity (Tao & Gao, 2018, p.3)



A refined model of ESP teacher identity (Tao & Gao, 2018, p.11)

Fig. 1 The adapted and refined models of ESP teacher identity

As shown, much research has been devoted to the issue of teacher identity or language teacher identity development, yet quite a few studies construe an ESP teacher model beneficial for successful in-class work and motivation enhancement of both students and staff. While the above-mentioned studies have all contributed useful insights into the topic, hardly any research has offered an empirical evaluation of the ESP teacher identity model through open- and closed-ended surveys within different relational contexts – ESP students, language and subject teachers.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

To conduct research, we applied the observation method, collection and analysis of open-ended and close-ended questionnaires' data, and statistical methods for ranking data. In particular, we collected and analyzed open-ended and close-ended questionnaires' data and applied the Likert scale statistical method for its ranking in a case study. A case was designing a model of "ideal" ESP teacher identity, and an analysis unit was ranking categories of ESP teacher identity simulated through a two-stage questionnaire.

4. PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

Against this background, we conducted a case study aimed at designing a model of ideal ESP teacher identity through questioning 36 participants – 15 senior ESP students (years 3 and 4), 15 language teachers and 6 content teachers of Computer Science and Cybernetics Faculty at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine. In our study, by "language teachers" we mean GE practitioners and by "content teachers" – the lecturers teaching the major courses at the Cybernetics faculty.

The study encompassed 3 stages:

1. opened-ended questionnaire;
2. closed-ended questionnaire;
3. cross-analysis of data output and modelling the 'ideal' ESP teacher identity.

5. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Firstly, we divided the respondents into three research groups – Research Group 1 (RG 1) involved senior students, Research Group 2 (RG 2) – language teachers, and Research Group 3 (RG 3) – subject teachers. The participants answered the straightforward question "What, in your opinion, should an ideal ESP teacher be?" We targeted to pose the respondents an easily understood question to answer which would not take up much time and effort. There were no restrictions as to one response only. The respondents were free to express themselves in as many choices as they would prefer. Thorough scanning of the collected responses enabled us to group them in 5 categories – professional knowledge, work experience in the related field of knowledge (in our research it is IT), individual features, foreign language competence, and methods of teaching (Table 1).

Table 1 Most common answer choices of RG 1-3 respondents in the open-ended questionnaire

Response categories	RG 1	RG 2	RG 3
Professional knowledge	Profound subject-matter knowledge; highly qualified teacher.	Subject competence; linguistic intelligence.	Subject specific skills; subject-related research experience.
Teaching methods	Interesting classroom activities; the ease of information rendering; teacher-student collaboration.	Teaching flexibility; continuous development of training materials; digitalization of teaching.	In-class activities to make students more engaged; compilation of teaching strategies and approaches.
Individual features	Communicativeness; enthusiasm; sense of humour.	Fairness; keen interest in students' needs; encouragement.	Reliability; communicativeness; strictness.
Foreign language competence	Fluent L2 speaker; experienced in communicating with native speakers.	An advanced L2 speaker; a professional EL expert.	FL knowledge that is sufficient for scientific literature comprehension.
Work experience	Some IT field experience; knowledge of technologies.	Pedagogical working background; computer-based training strategies.	Desirable but not essential subject-related work experience.

Table 1 reveals the top most frequent and common open-ended questionnaire responses of RG 1-3 respondents to the question “What, in your opinion, an ideal ESP teacher should be?” As the maximum number of answer choices was 5 and the minimum – 1 (only one respondent gave a single statement response – content teacher who wrote that it is “the student audience feeling an ideal ESP teacher needs to possess”), we chose on average 2-3 most frequent choices and included them in each table cell.

Then, we processed the collected multiple responses of each research group in MS Excel. Table 2 reveals the five response categories significantly loading onto the factors following the Likert rating scale.

Table 2 Results on the open-ended questionnaire answer interpretation into response categories
 (“prof” – professional knowledge; “fl” – foreign language competence;
 “mt” - teaching methods; “ind” – individual features; “exp” - work experience

Response categories	Category of significance				
	most significant	significant	moderately significant	slightly significant	not significant
RG 1					
1	prof	prof	mt	mt	ind
2	prof	prof	mt	fl	ind
3	ind	ind	prof	ind	fl
4	mt	ind	prof	ind	ind
5	prof	exp	exp	mt	exp
6	exp	fl	fl	ind	ind
7	mt	exp	mt	mt	ind
8	exp	prof	fl	exp	mt
9	ind	mt	prof	ind	mt
10	prof	ind	ind	prof	ind
11	mt	ind	mt	prof	fl
12	mt	mt	ind	mt	ind
13	prof	prof	prof	prof	fl
14	prof	ind	mt	fl	ind
15	prof	fl	ind	mt	prof
RG 2					
1	ind	ind	ind	ind	ind
2	fl	ind	ind	ind	ind
3	fl	exp	ind	ind	mt
4	fl	mt	mt	ind	ind
5	ind	fl	ind	ind	ind
6	mt	mt	ind	fl	fl
7	fl	ind	fl	ind	ind
8	fl	ind	exp	mt	mt
9	prof	exp	exp	fl	ind
10	fl	ind	ind	ind	ind
11	mt	fl	fl	ind	ind
12	fl	ind	ind	mt	ind
13	prof	ind	ind	ind	fl
14	fl	mt	mt	prof	ind
15	ind	prof	mt	exp	prof
RG 3					
1	prof	exp	exp	ind	mt
2	prof	fl	mt	ind	exp
3	prof	ind	ind	mt	fl
4	ind	ind	ind	mt	ind
5	prof	fl	mt	ind	ind
6	ind	ind	fl	mt	prof

Next, we interpreted the obtained response categories quantitatively, assigning each response a point value from 0 as “not significant” to 4 as “most significant” (Table 3).

Table 3 Identifying categories of significance on the sum of values

Response categories	Category of significance					Value	%
	4 – most significant	3 – significant	2 – moderately significant	1 – slightly significant	0 – not significant		
RG 1							
prof	7	4	4	3	1	51	34,0
mt	4	2	5	5	2	37	24,7
ind	2	5	3	4	8	33	22,0
fl	0	2	2	2	3	12	8,0
exp	2	2	1	1	1	17	11,3
RG 2							
prof	2	1	0	1	1	12	8,0
mt	2	3	3	2	2	25	16,7
ind	3	7	8	9	10	58	38,7
fl	8	2	2	2	2	44	29,3
exp	0	2	2	1	0	11	7,3
RG 3							
prof	4	0	0	0	1	16	26,7
mt	0	0	2	3	1	7	11,7
ind	2	3	2	3	2	24	40,0
fl	0	2	1	0	1	8	13,3
exp	0	1	1	0	1	5	8,3

Within the dataset, we designed a rank of values, which appeared to be different for the research groups. Table 3 shows that both language and subject teachers valued the most “individual features” (the sums of points are 58 and 24) and the least “work experience” (11 and 5 correspondingly), whereas the surveyed students estimated correspondingly “professional knowledge” (51) and “foreign language competence” (12).

Since the open-ended questionnaire outputs provided us with the “scope for greater exploration” (Brace, 2008, p.2), we targeted further expertise through the closed-ended questionnaire. We specified the range of five survey questions, i.e. gave the respondents the option to select from the defined list of choices – from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. Table 4 represents the closed-ended questionnaire layout.

Table 4 Closed-ended questionnaire layout

Survey questions	Rating scale
1. Do you think that <u>individual characteristics</u> (e.g. communicativeness, humour, creativeness, patience, responsibility, etc) are most important for an ESP teacher?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Not sure <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree
2. Do you think that <u>professional knowledge</u> (e.g. knowledge of technologies, specific terms, vocabulary, etc) is most important for an ESP teacher?	
3. Do you think that <u>work experience</u> (e.g. previous employment and skills in the IT field, etc) is most important for an ESP teacher?	
4. Do you think that a <u>method of teaching</u> (e.g. clear explanation of the topic, encouragement of students' discussion and teamwork, etc) is most important for an ESP teacher?	
5. Do you think that <u>English language fluency</u> (i.e. when a teacher sounds natural in English) is most important for an ESP teacher?	

All the research participants completed the closed-ended questionnaire laid out in Google forms. The technical provision ensured accurate and complete recording of the questionnaire responses. The format of the questions was predetermined by the open-ended survey data entry. We applied the classic Likert 5-point response scale and calculated the sums of points (Value) aimed at estimating the significance of each category. The question types were not varied and the rating scale remained the same for each question aimed at simplifying the question perception and comprehension, and on the other hand, ensuring a more accurate assessment of the respondents' opinions. All the responses were again processed in MS Excel. The tailored survey questions provided the information which was sought (Table 5).

Table 5 Closed-ended questionnaire layout data

Research group	Scale	Survey questions				
		q1 (ind)	q2 (prof)	q3 (exp)	q4 (mt)	q5 (fl)
RG1	2 – strongly agree	29,2	50	20,8	47,7	25
	1 – agree	54,2	30,3	50	46,7	45,8
	0 – not sure	16,6	15,5	20,9	5,6	20,8
	-1 – disagree	0	0	8,3	0	4,2
	-2 – strongly disagree	0	4,2	0	0	4,2
	Value	112,6	121,9	83,3	142,1	83,2
RG2 + RG3	2 – strongly agree	43,8	70	12,5	67	37,5
	1 – agree	37,5	15,5	62,5	33	50
	0 – not sure	18,8	14,5	12,5	0	12,5
	-1 – disagree	0	0	12,5	0	0
	-2 – strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0
	Value	125,1	155,5	75	167	125
Total	237,7	277,4	158,3	309,1	208,2	
%	20,0	23,3	13,3	26,0	17,5	

As the ranges of values in RG 2 and RG 3 responses were similar to each other, we combined this data into one group, which is set out in the RG2+RG3 column of Table 5. As shown, the obtained data on the closed-ended questionnaire diminished the differences between the constituents' significance in the ESP teacher identity image. Although the research data was obtained from three different social groups of respondents whose opinions varied at the first stage of the questionnaire, their closed-ended responses specified and balanced all the facets of the model. Based on the sums of the values (Total in Table 5), the designed common model of the "ideal" ESP teacher identity implied the following categories (from the most significant to the least): methods of teaching → professional knowledge → individual features → foreign language competence → work experience (26% → 23% → 20% → 18% → 13% correspondingly). Interestingly, the difference between the most and the least significant categories is double (26% versus 13%). Both students and teachers estimated the most training techniques and methods combined with professional knowledge and considered work experience less important for a teacher who is imposed to equip students with professional skills and competitive knowledge in the ESP classroom.

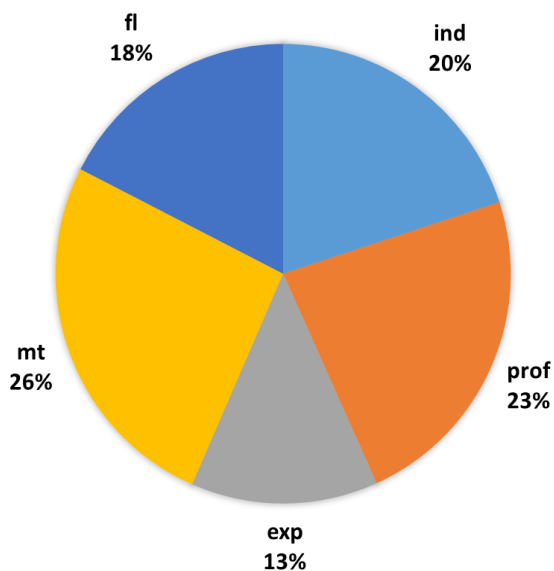


Fig. 2 The multi-faceted model of an 'ideal' ESP teacher

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Following Tao and Gao (2018), we also examined the teacher identity phenomenon and built a model of ESP teacher identity. In Research Question 1, we targeted to identify the features that ESP teacher identity implies. Instead of adapting Pennington's model of TESOL teacher identity frames (2015) and working out a refined framework, we constructed our own, inter-personally determined model relevant to the Ukrainian academic setting.

Following Research Question 2, we interviewed three different groups, ESP students, language and subject teachers, and designed a simpler but more exact model of ESP teacher identity's priorities influenced by Pennington's (2015), and Tao and Gao's (2018) much more general global, socio-economic and institutional contexts. As summarized by Tao and Gao (2018), professional development ensures meaningful work of teachers and foregrounds the elaborated model. Similarly, we applied the idea that L2 teaching methodology and knowledge in ESP related fields make ESP teacher identity, but we made a deeper investigation on the assumption of a two-stage survey of 36 respondents within three social groups (contrary to 8 ESP teacher respondents in Tao and Gao's study). Similar to Pennington and Richards' study (2016) we also considered the role of EL teacher identity crucial in both ESP teaching and learning. Additionally, our result echoes the findings of Taylor's cross-sectional European study (2013) that ESP student and teacher identity perceptions are closely related. Different from the other research is the specification of the teacher identity concept to 5 exact facets (methods of teaching, professional knowledge, individual features, foreign language competence, work experience) from three relational contexts – ESP students, language teachers, and subject teachers. The investigation of Research Question 3 shows that the participants have valued the five facets differently. Discrepancies in ESP teacher constituents perception of the survey respondents correlate to the other topic-related research (Research Question 4) and prove that struggles are inevitable and require adjustments, as a prerequisite for evolution (Pennington & Richards, 2016, p.5). The standardized questionnaire format allowed interpreting the obtained data accurately, enabled us to achieve the study objective and answer all the research questions. Such findings do not contradict other researches' data and prove the relevance of our model.

Considering the aforementioned discussion, a pedagogical repertoire of an "ideal" ESP teacher is likely to comprise such skills that enable a teacher to convey content-based knowledge for students' easy comprehension and productive application. Such a teacher seems to be eager to train on the spot, he/she could hardly overload students with excessive hand-outs, and looks like an engaging and engaged L2 proficient mediator with some content-matter practical experience in the related field of knowledge.

With the growth of IT, Cybernetics and Computer Sciences enrolment in the Ukrainian tertiary education system, institutions and faculties administrations are urged to redesign the specialty curricula, particularly ESP. While striving for the best student academic results in major courses and their future successful employability, it is necessary to demarginalize the status of ESP courses from optional to obligatory not only in Ukraine but also worldwide. Within the globalized international scenario of the 21st century, it is no more relevant to consider ESP as a threat but, on the contrary, one of the most productive teaching approaches to enable students to acquire high-level knowledge and skills to serve them personally and professionally.

Hereby, we believe that consideration of the ESP teacher identity domains identified in our research could aim to develop the collective identity of self and profession. Not less importantly, it is to focus on the learner's identity as a "starting point" or "a primary resource" (Miller, 2009, p.178) for FL teaching as a whole and students' disciplinary literacy development in particular. The built model boosts much-needed further investigation of a set of training techniques and practices to best fit the needs of ESP teachers' self-professional development and graduates' employability.

7. LIMITATIONS

There might be some limitations to this research. From a practical standpoint, the worked-out model of the ESP teacher simulated from perceptions of three different groups could be stable and relevant inside the academic context of Ukraine, as the students and staff of Taras Shevchenko University of Kyiv were surveyed. The relatively small participants' quantity does not allow generalizing the research results to other educational environments.

REFERENCES

- Beauchamp, C. & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding Teacher Identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175-189. doi:10.1080/03057640902902252.
- Beijaard, D., Meijer, P. & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering Research on Teachers' Professional Identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(2), 107-128. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2003.07.001.
- Bolton, K., & Kuteeva, M. (2012). English as an Academic Language at a Swedish University: Parallel language use and the 'threat' of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 33(5), 429-447. doi:10.1080/01434632.2012.670241.
- Borg, S. (2006). The Distinctive Characteristics of Foreign Language Teachers. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(1), 3-31. doi:10.1191/1362168806lr182oa.
- Brace, I. (2008). *Questionnaire Design: How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Cheng, A., & Anthony, L. (2014). ESP Research in Asia: Guest editorial. *English for Specific Purposes*, 33, 1-3. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2013.07.002.
- Gee, J. P. (2001). Identity as an Analytic Lens for Research in Education. *Review of Research in Education*, 25(1), 99-125.
- Ireri, A., Thuku, P., & Karugu, N. (2013). Relationship Among Occupational Identity, Attitude toward Work, Age and Gender of First Year University Students in Kenya. *Psychology and Social Behavior Research*, 1(4), 88-97. doi:10.12966/psbr.10.01.2013.
- Kanno, Y., & Stuart, C. (2011). Learning to Become a Second Language Teacher: Identities-in-Practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(2), 236-252. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01178.x.
- Long, M., & Uzcinski, I. (2012). Evolution of Languages for Specific Purposes Programs in the United States: 1990–2011. *Modern Language Journal*, 96(1), 173-189. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01303.x.
- Miller, J. (2009). Teacher Identity. In: Burns A. and Richards J. C. (eds). *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education*, 172-181.
- Pennington, M. C. (2015). Teacher Identity in TESOL: A Frames Perspective. In: Cheung Y. L., Said S. B., and Park K. (eds). *Teacher Identity and Development in Applied Linguistics: Current Trends and Perspectives*, 16-30.
- Pennington, M. C., & Richards, J. C. (2016). Teacher Identity in Language Teaching: Integrating Personal, Contextual, and Professional Factors. *RELC Journal*, 47(1), 1-19. doi:10.1177/0033688216631219.
- Richards, J. C. (2012). Competence and Performance in Language Teaching. *The Cambridge Guide to Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching*, 46-59.

- Sachs, J. (2005). Teacher Education and the Development of Professional Identity: Learning to Be a Teacher. In: Dencicolo, P. & Kompf, M. (eds). *Connecting Policy and Practice: Challenges for Teaching and Learning in Schools and Universities*, 5-12.
- Sánchez-López, L., Long, M., & Lafford, B. (2014). Research Interests and Needs in Languages for Specific Purposes in Higher Education in the United States: A survey study. Paper presented at the Second International Symposium on Languages for Specific Purposes, Boulder, CO, April 17-19.
- Tao, J. (Tracy), & Gao, X. (Andy). (2018). Identity Constructions of ESP Teachers in a Chinese University. *English for Specific Purposes*, 49, 1-13. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2017.09.003.
- Taylor, F., Busse, V., Gagova, L., Marsden, E. & Roosken, B. (2013). *Identity in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching: Why Listening to Our Students' and Teachers' Voices Really Matters*. ELT Research Papers, The British Council, The University of York, London.
- Tsou, W., & Chen, F. (2014). ESP Program Evaluation Framework: Description and application to a Taiwanese university ESP program. *English for Specific Purposes*, 33(1), 39-53. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2013.07.008.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnston, K. (2005). Theorizing Language Teacher Identity: Three Perspectives and Beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1), 21-44.
- Vondracek, F. W., & Skorikov, V. B. (1997). Leisure, School, and Work Activity Preferences and Their Role in Vocational Identity Development. *Career Development Quarterly*, 45, 322-334.
- Vondracek, F. W., Schulenberg, J., Skorikoc, V., Gillespie, L. K., & Wahlheim, C. (1995). The Relationship of Identity Status to Career Indecision During Adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 18, 17-29.
- Wu, H., & Badger, R. G. (2009). In a Strange and Uncharted Land: ESP teachers' strategies for dealing with unpredicted problems in subject knowledge during class. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(1), 19-32. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2008.09.003.
- Yazan, B. & Lindahl, K. (2020). *Language Teacher Identity in TESOL: Teacher Education and Practice as Identity Work*. New York: Routledge. doi:10.4324/9780429342875.

ESP ONLINE COURSE AS A MEANS OF ENHANCING GRADUATE STUDENTS' EMPLOYABILITY OPPORTUNITIES - CASE OF SUMY STATE UNIVERSITY

Iryna Liashenko, Lyudmyla Hnapovska

Sumy State University, Ukraine

E-mail: i.liashenko@uabs.sumdu.edu.ua, l.hnapovska@uabs.sumdu.edu.ua

Abstract. *Along with providing plentiful job market opportunities, the ongoing growth of various technologies in a wide range of fields is currently creating a high level of graduates competitiveness. The issue of employability, which is the crucial concern of higher education institutions, is getting vital these days among employers, educators, researchers, and future professionals. This study aims to determine the mechanisms through which an ESP distance course can facilitate employability enhancement with graduate students. Although the idea of implementing distance learning in the professional training is not new, coherent research on how to make online tasks more enriching for future professional activity and thus resulting in enhanced employability has not been proposed so far. A survey conducted within the framework of the study reveals a correlation between critical thinking skills tasks as part of an ESP course and growing professional competence as an integrated component of employability. The data obtained have been verified by statistical analysis. Another investment in the employability field has been made through suggestions on how to design online tasks properly.*

Key words: *employability, graduate students, online course, ESP, distance learning, blended education*

1. INTRODUCTION

The issues of employability have been gaining momentum these days as the core task facing the modern market demands. Today's technologies are developing rapidly to let the educators apply all possible techniques in increasing the graduates personal and professional potential in the labor market. Although some researchers have paid due attention to the importance of developing employability in higher education (McQuaid et al. 2005; Lowden et al. 2011), the aspect of raising the motivation to the professional activity remains a debatable research issue (Smith 2010; Ehiyazaryan 2009). Furthermore, many courses taught at universities involve a lot of supplementary activities, which makes students deficient in being fully engaged in all tutorials: e.g. sports students may miss considerable part of their university contact classes attending their meets and participating in sports competitions (Fallows et al. 2000; Butcher and Rose-Adams 2015). The importance of blended education is nowadays overgrowing at universities as a successful means of organizing the learning process for those students who lack possibilities to attend classes

Submitted August 11th, 2020, accepted for publication September 9th, 2020

regularly (Liashenko and Hnapovska 2019; Liashenko 2019). In this case, online learning appears to be an essential educational tool that has to be encouraging in professional issues as it mostly lacks live communication (Lim et al. 2011; Nenzhelele 2014). That is, the main task of modern educators is to find the mechanisms which make online learning more enriching to the labor market requirements.

Against this background, the purpose of this research is to answer the research question: What are the mechanisms that make it possible for an online course of contributing to developing graduate students employability? More specifically, this research has two objectives:

- to define the main features of employability in online training;
- to explore the correlation between the specific professional course and employability growth.

This paper has four parts. First, it reviews the extant literature relevant to the concept of employability and how it can be influenced by online education, which is followed by a description of the research methods and procedures used in the study. The results of our analysis are then discussed. Finally, implications, limitations, and directions for future research are highlighted.

2. THEORETICAL FRAME

Employability is known as a central tenet of the labor approach in professional training which plays a vital role in informing the current labor market and training policies (McQuaid et al. 2005) The modern broad, holistic model of employability has been argued as consisting of three main interrelated components that influence a person's employability:

- individual factors covering employability skills and attributes, demographic characteristics, health and wellbeing, job seeking, adaptability, and mobility;
- personal circumstances which include household circumstances, work culture and access to resources;
- external factors, which are demand and enabling support factors. (McQuaid et al. 2005)

These components are possibly influenced by different circumstances, which can be efficiently used in forming employability patterns.

A metaphorical model of employability suggests a correlation of the following interrelated components which lead to employability through reflection and evaluation including self-efficacy, self-confidence, and self-esteem: Career Development Learning, Experience (Work & Life), Degree (Subject, Knowledge, Understanding & Skills), Generic Skills, Emotional Intelligence (Pool et al. 2007). This model covers the principal constituents, which are possible to be measured and developed in the classroom setting.

The primary skills the employers consider as the influential factors of successful employability are requirements to the graduates to have good communication skills for expressing themselves persuasively; 'soft' skills, mainly team working which is thought to be even more critical than most 'hard' skills; and professional work abroad (Andrews and Higson 2008). The higher-order skills like critical/creative thinking and problem-solving along with self-management, efficient collaboration, and conscious engagement in the core organization process are stated as the leading factors in getting the job as well

as the specific learning related to the professional situation (Lowden et al. 2011; Rebenko et al. 2019).

In other words, employability skills are interchangeable essential skills of the 21st century, which are crucial for career success at the workplace in spheres (Overtoom 2000). According to Smith, one of the ways of increasing employability is through identity work, which develops a culture of the personality, such as "...the linguistic aptitude, norms for the presentation of self, and interactional styles that are specific to different occupational and professional environments" (Smith 2010). Another way of enhancing employability is training and networking. Many different types of self-development strategies as a guarantee of successful employment, training, and professional development outside the company, as employees are responsible for network development and training (Smith 2010). It performs the reasons to support the graduates in the educational process in the higher institutions while teaching them the related subjects.

We suggest that the students should obtain professional education, which is the most relevant to real-life situations and which will enable them to perform efficiently in the authentic professional setting. We state that reflective practice is one of the bridges, which has also found its justification in modern research (Ehiyazaryan and Barraclough 2009.) The two factors that may impact employability development are employability development opportunities and experience as well as extracurricular activities, which mostly related to the graduate, as they affect the graduate's ability to be applied (Harvey 2001). In addition to increasing the level of employability, there must be a critical reflection on the skills essential for the workplace (Deeley 2014). We argue that critical thinking increases the level of professional self-acceptance and conscious engagement in professional development.

Work-based learning, along with work-integrated learning experience, results in developing employability in the academic environment at universities, which requires more integrative, cooperative, and action pedagogy to obtain better results (Franz 2008). The experience of transformative and integrative work-based learning should play the leading role in increasing professional motivation and therefore employability.

Listed below are some of the interpersonal 'soft' competencies considered to be integrative to graduate employability (Andrews and Higson 2008):

- Professionalism
- Reliability
- The ability to cope with uncertainty
- The ability to work under pressure
- The ability to plan and think strategically
- The capability to communicate and interact with others, either in teams or through networking
- Good written and verbal communication skills
- Information and Communication Technology skills
- Creativity and self-confidence
- Good self-management and time-management skills.

The relationship between work and study seems to be essential within the framework of work-based learning with a sustained connection to the specific professional environment.

Employability can be influenced by learning. The most basic employability variable skills are communication and team working. Higher educational institutions have been the most suitable places for developing the skills and personal attributes as the components of employability (Tymon 2013). As modern education offers ongoing development of form and

methods, educators should always bear in mind the specificity of the applied courses and their connection with the professional motivation, which correlates with employability.

Employability skills are suggested to be a set of necessary key skills or attributes related to required activity from an employer, so that is connected to the specific skills within the subject, sector, company, or other specific requirements (Harvey 2001). The role of self-awareness is increasingly becoming one of the leading issues in self-perceived employability (Qenani et al. 2014; Lim et al. 2011). This quality may show how mature the future professional is and their ability to organize the work. Employability is directly connected with competency development. Moreover, competency development is positively related to self-perceived employability (De Vos et al. 2011).

The alarming number of students state that distance learning has a lack of employability component, which is more defined to gain while learning at full-time study at university (Butcher and Rose-Adams 2015). When designing the distance course, the educators should take into account this issue and permeate the studying with the vital element of employability. We approve the methods of acquiring employability skills through the distance learning described in modern research, where the results show a positive correlation between the marital status and employability skills, such as written communication, ability to work in teams, problem-solving skills, numeracy skills, and management skills (Nenzhelele 2014; Botha et al. 2015). It proves that maturity and self-directedness towards employability are mostly inherent in self-determined graduates and professionals, who have enough motivation to attain the proper professional level.

Another point to keep to the discussed topic is the fact that IT technologies are constantly developing, which enables a wide range of modern technologies exploits. The specificity of the graduate students is that they are often engaged in part-time work, the sports students may be participating in the competitions, therefore, they may miss the classes. In this case, blended or distance learning seems to be the most suitable pattern for them to take. Thus, our task is to provide students with an efficient education course for developing their professional activity and motivation, as well as the necessary skills for the successful completion of the future job.

Based on the aforementioned discussion, it is hypothesized that the properly designed online course for specific purposes will impact the growth and development of the important skills in employability, particularly, in our research, we assume that raising the amount of critical thinking in an online course will likely develop professional competency.

$H_0: \mu_{\text{critical thinking}} = \mu_{\text{professional competency}}$

$H_1: \mu_{\text{critical thinking}} \neq \mu_{\text{professional competency}}$, where critical thinking covers all relevant variables and professional competency, is considered as any or some of the constituents according to the theoretical background.

Critical thinking and professional competency constituents will be assessed using a questionnaire, which is the evaluation of the English for Specific Purposes course design to be distributed among the university graduate students of Sports and Finance Faculties.

The study was conducted by means of an online questionnaire distributed amongst a convenience sample of graduate students at Sumy State University, Sports and Finance Faculties. The study was presented as research on the professional impact of critical thinking tasks used in an online ESP course. The development of professional competency was manipulated by randomly assigning participants to a condition where they had a short 8-hour online course within blended learning. The course for the students was designed

according to their professional needs. The students' perception of professional competency and critical thinking were assessed using the sum score on a questionnaire consisting of sixteen items that are indicative of professional course design, each rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Participants were debriefed about the real purpose of the study after completing the questionnaire. Participants in the experimental condition who complete the online ESP course with critical thinking tasks are expected to have a significant congruency with professional competency development, which will lead to a more defined level of employability.

3. METHODS

In order to explore the objectives of the study, we applied the descriptive survey research. Aimed to collect research data, we applied the survey to analyze the situation with developing professional qualities and which factors stated in our survey might influence them. The data obtained were analyzed by means of statistical methods using software IBM™ SPSS™ Statistics (Version 26) software, namely descriptive statistics, and one-way ANOVA analysis.

3.1. Setting and participants

The target group for this study consisted of 30 graduate students of mixed faculties (Sports and Finance) who had taken their studies in the fall term of the 2018/2019 academic year. The choice of graduate students is explained by the fact that these students are mostly self-assured at this time and are consciously interested in getting prepared for their future job. Moreover, part of the students already had a job, and they could know the specific requirements for being employed. Taking into account the specificity of the graduate students being often on part-time work or competitions and training, therefore being often on individual education schedule, the students were offered an eight-hour blended course with some distance online assignments and tests for a month.

3.2. Materials

The description of the online course elements is provided below.

3.2.1. Course description

Taking into account the main characteristics of the academic work, which make the course employability oriented, we tried to include the elements for developing communication, collaboration, creative and critical thinking, reflection, and arising the self-characteristics. Thus, at the beginning of each unit, the tasks are aimed at engaging the students into a specific professional topic of their interest and increasing their motivation. The direct questions of this speaking task are designed to awaken personal involvement and critical thinking.

The professional constituent of the course was developed specifically for the specialism of the students, so the sports students study sports and training professional content, and the finance students study the professional content related to their specificity. The element of personalization makes the tasks close to students, getting them involved in the topic. The features of the communication element are used in the tasks to make professional situations appropriate for real-life and specific needs. The design of the online course is difficult:

much speaking yet writing as another productive skill is amply used in the tasks. Writing is integrated with authentic situations in listening in forms of short videos, and the assignments are made to apply critical thinking and reflective practice. We tried to blend collaboration as well. The course has the tasks to evaluate other students' work and to discuss a point in blog activities and on the Padlet platform. The tasks also require reflective practice in the responses.

3.3. Data Collection

The questionnaire on the Google Form had the aim to assess the online tasks given to the graduate students to define whether the training had the component for raising employability. The questionnaire contained the positions designed to find particular employability characteristics. The students were asked to rate the questions from 1 to 5 where 5 is the highest rank of the statement relating to them.

1. This course is relevant to my professional goals.
2. Overall course was practical and useful for my job
3. The lexis used in the course was relevant to the specificity of my profession.
4. The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations.
5. The course contained videos from real professional situations.
6. The tasks made me think and reflect.
7. I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job.
8. The course gave me the possibility to organize my learning process correctly.
9. I often had opportunities for a personal response.
10. I did my best in the process of learning.
11. I had enough possibility to communicate with my peers.
12. I had enough of writing tasks.
13. This course was not technically difficult.
14. The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills.
15. The course raised my self-organizing skills.
16. The course developed practical professional communication.

The general criteria for evaluating employability we defined were:

1. professional component (Questions 1-5);
2. critical thinking and reflection development (Questions 6-7, 14);
3. self-directedness and self-organizational skills (Questions 8-10, 15);
4. ability for collaboration (Question 11, 16);
5. other relevant Media skills, like Writing and IT literacy (Questions 12-13).

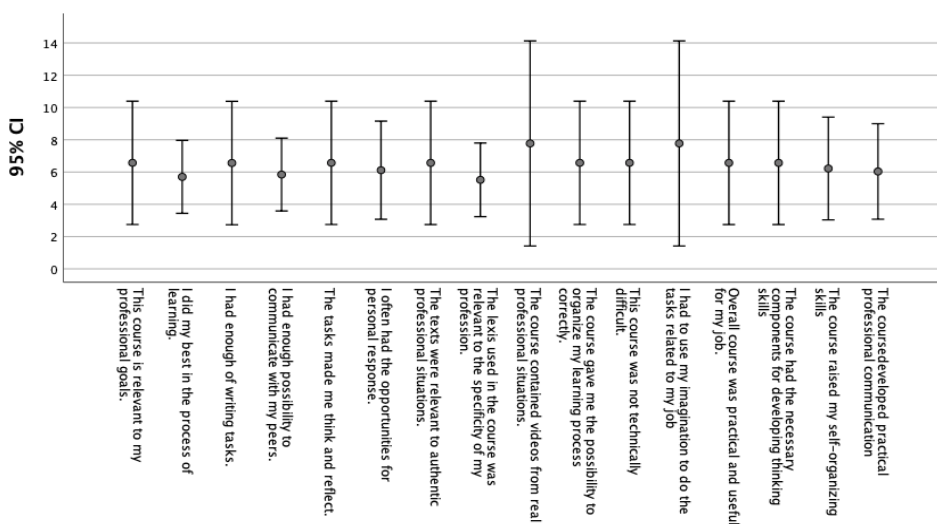
Data for the main study was collected after a week after completing the course. The survey was conducted anonymously. There were 30 answers registered.

4. RESULTS

The data collected from the survey revealed the following. The items were labeled ranging according to the Likert scale from 1 to 5, where 1 relates to the initial level and is the lowest one, and 5 is the highest - and refers to 'excellent'. In order to conduct further analysis of this survey, we applied descriptive statistics and effect size measurement (Table 1).

Table 1 Summary descriptive statistics of the variables

No	Variable	Mean	Std. Dev	Min	Max
1	This course is relevant to my professional goals	4.43	0.82	2	5
2	I did my best in the process of learning	4.07	0.87	3	5
3	I had enough of writing tasks	4.7	0.53	3	5
4	I had enough possibility to communicate with my peers	4.27	0.83	3	5
5	The tasks made me think and reflect	4.67	0.55	3	5
6	I often had opportunities for a personal response	4.23	0.82	3	5
7	The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations	4.8	0.41	4	5
8	The lexis used in the course was relevant to the specificity of my profession	4.37	0.72	3	5
9	The course contained videos from real professional situations	4.83	0.38	4	5
10	The course gave me the possibility to organize my learning process correctly	4.63	0.56	3	5
11	This course was not technically challenging.	4.73	0.53	3	5
12	I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job	4.57	0.63	3	5
13	Overall course was practical and useful for my job.	4.87	0.35	4	5
14	The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills	4.77	0.43	4	5
15	The course raised my self-organizing skills	4.57	0.63	3	5
16	The course developed practical professional communication	4.67	0.48	4	5

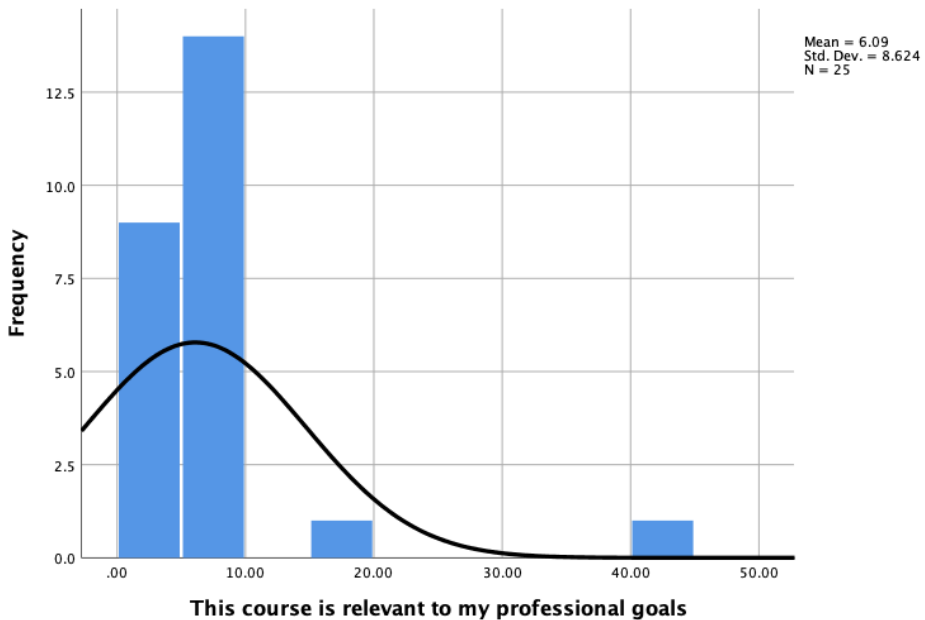


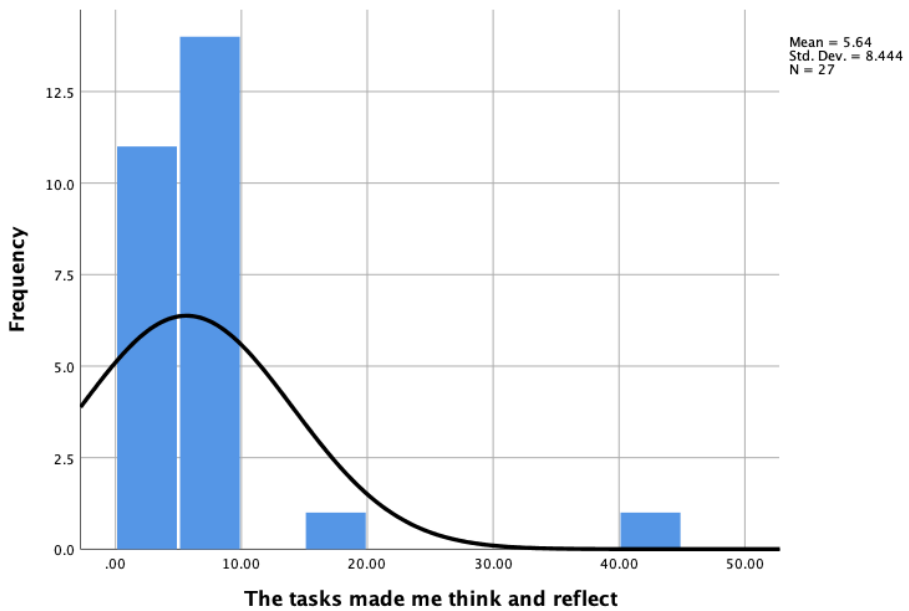
Distribution of the variables

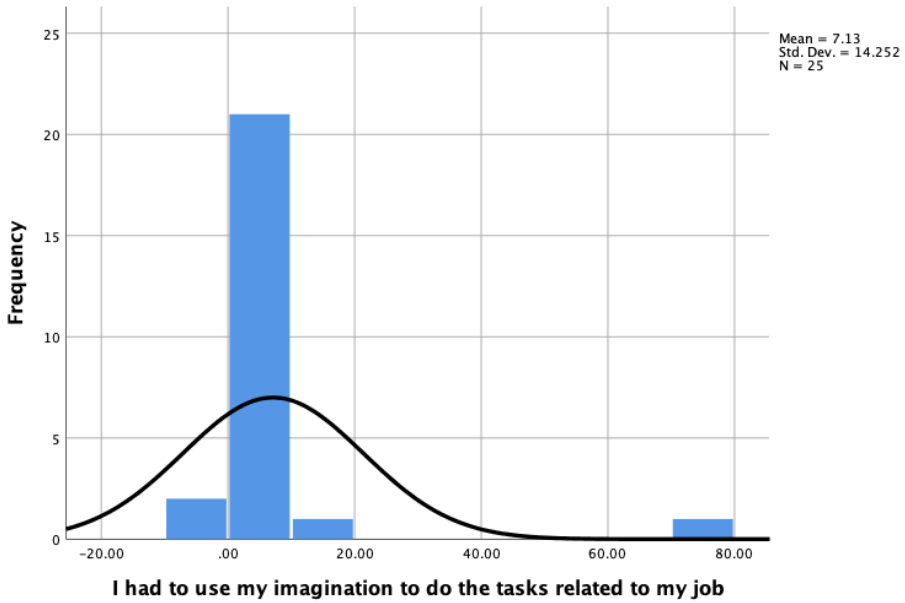
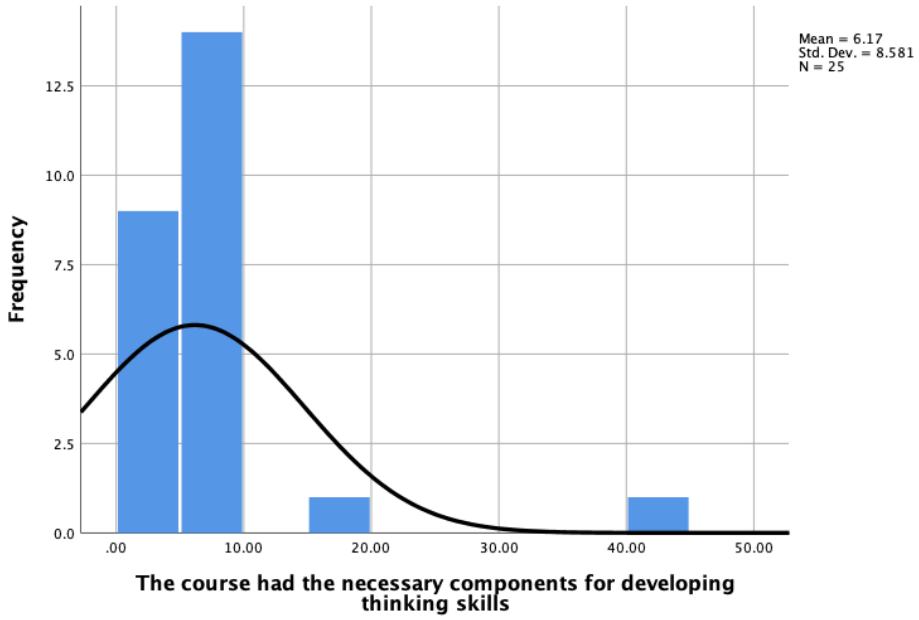
The results show that the highest meaning relates to the professional and critical thinking aspects where the respondents processed the statements related to professional content and thinking skills, as well as the characteristics of the easily operated course from the technical point of view.

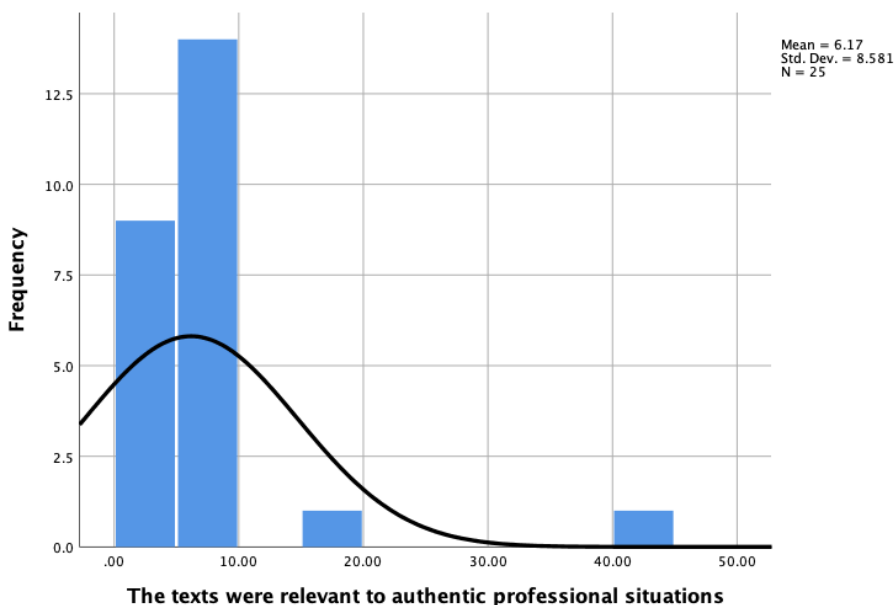
To prove the questionnaire results statistically, we first needed to check the assumptions of ANOVA. Our observations are independent – either selection or assignment in the experiment was random. The graduate students at Sumy State University have the same curriculum and the conventions in the study process. Then, the response variable is normally distributed, proving the normality of the test. The histograms of the main factors in our research look acceptable, which proves normal distribution.

As we have chosen *The task made me think and reflect as a factor* – explanatory variable to the response variables: *This course is relevant to my professional goals*, *The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations*, *Overall course was practical and useful for my job* and *I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job*, we checked the normality of distribution of these variables and presented them in the histograms.









Another assumption we met was the homogeneity of variances. The means of the samples are approximately the same. Moreover, in each group, we have more than ten observations. We made computations in the statistics software and found an F-value statistic test with the within-group and between-group variances. The results of the F-value are shown in Table 2 with the degrees of freedom for each factor. The software provides an exact p-value of 0.00. We can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that at least one of the professional competency groups differs from the others in terms of mean critical thinking.

Table 2 ANOVA results on the factors

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Overall course was practical and useful for my job	Between groups	1767.45	10	176.75	1048.94	0.000
	Within groups	2.36	14	0.17		
	Total	1769.81	24			
This course is relevant to my professional goals	Between groups	1782.5	10	178.25	1057.88	0.000
	Within groups	2.3	14	0.17		
	Total	1784.8	24			
I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job	Between groups	4873.75	10	487.38	7391.86	0.000
	Within groups	0.92	14	0.07		
	Total	4874.68	24			
The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations	Between groups	1764.7	10	176.47	1047.32	0.000
	Within groups	2.36	14	0.17		
	Total	1767.07	24			
The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills	Between groups	1764.71	10	176.47	1047.32	0.000
	Within groups	2.36	14	0.17		
	Total	1767.07	24			

Further on, we tried to check the correlation between these variables to answer the research question about the individual relation between them. At this stage, we applied Pearson's correlation analysis to check strength and direction of association that exists between our target set of variables ("This course is relevant to my professional goals," "The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations," "I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job," "The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills," "Overall course was practical and useful for my job" and "The tasks made me think and reflect" (Table 3).

Table 3 Pearson's correlation analysis

		This course is relevant to my professional goals	The tasks made me think and reflect	The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations	I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job	Overall course was practical and useful for my job	The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills
This course is relevant to my professional goals	Pearson Correlation	1	0.999**	0.999**	0.987**	1.000**	0.999**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1784.87	1784.98	1774.61	2911.86	1776.4	1773.61
	Covariance	74.37	74.37	73.94	121.33	74.02	73.9
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
The tasks made me think and reflect	Pearson Correlation	0.999**	1	0.998**	0.987**	0.998**	0.998**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1784.98	1853.87	1774.2	2913.89	1776.12	1774.2
	Covariance	74.37	71.3	73.93	121.41	74.01	73.93
	N	25	27	25	25	25	25
The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations	Pearson Correlation	0.999**	0.998**	1	0.987**	1.000**	0.999**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1774.61	1774.2	1767.07	2897.13	1768.39	1766.07
	Covariance	73.94	73.93	73.63	120.71	73.68	73.5
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job	Pearson Correlation	0.987**	0.987**	0.987**	1	0.987**	0.987**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	2911.88	2913.89	2897.13	4874.68	2899.77	2896.13
	Covariance	121.33	121.41	120.71	203.11	120.82	120.67
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Overall course was practical	Pearson Correlation	1.000**	0.998**	1.000**	0.987**	1	0.999**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000

and useful for my job	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1776.44	1776.12	1768.39	2899.77	1769.81	1767.39
	Covariance	74.02	74.02	73.69	120.82	73.74	73.64
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills	Pearson Correlation	0.999**	0.998**	0.999**	0.987**	0.999**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1773.61	1774.2	1766.07	2896.13	1767.39	1767.07
	Covariance	73.9	73.93	73.59	120.67	73.64	73.63
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results presented in Table 3 show the strong correlation in all factors we have chosen with the significant meaning in correlation between each other.

We checked the partial correlation between the variables and found a significant positive correlation (Table 4).

Table 4 Partial Correlation Analysis

Control Variables			This course is relevant to my professional goals	Overall course was practical and useful for my job	The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations
<i>The tasks made me think and reflect & I had to use my imagination to do the tasks related to my job & The course had the necessary components for developing thinking skills</i>	This course is relevant to my professional goals	Correlation	1.000	0.79	0.68
	Overall course was practical and useful for my job	Correlation	0.79	1.000	0.99
	The texts were relevant to authentic professional situations	Correlation	0.68	0.99	1.000

The correlation between critical thinking and professional components is appeared to be strong positive 0.791, 0.684, and 0.987, which proved our hypothesis about congruency between these constituents.

5. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the potential role of critical thinking in influencing the development of employability qualities in graduate students. The important contribution of this study lies in applying critical thinking tasks in the ESP online course. The statistic test proved the grounded theory about correlation between the factors we have chosen for our research: critical thinking is congruent with professional competence, consequently, increases employability of the graduate students at Sumy State University. The positive connection between these factors shows the constant growth of the researched qualities, which enables them to be developed in this combination.

Our findings are congruent with the arguments laid out in the recent research about the mutual relationship between the professional competency and the critical thinking tasks (Lowden et al. 2011; Deeley 2014). The results of this study also support the argument that employability is influenced by self-awareness and self-organization (Qenani et al. 2014; Lim et al. 2011). In our study, the correlation between self-organization and professional factor is not the highest, yet it is expressed by moderate positive growth.

However, our findings indicate that the factor of communication is not significantly expressed in online education. Although the students could complete the written tasks related to communication and relation to their peers, they considered this type of communication not as real, which is expressed in face-to-face professional communication and collaboration. Another reason for this is that this course was a pilot project and it might have had some instructional and design faults which will definitely be taken into account for the next course.

6. CONCLUSION

Today the increasing demand for self-aware professionals with developed critical thinking and problem-solving skills is a clear need in the employability sector in all spheres of our community life (McQuaid et al. 2005; Lowden et al., 2011). To meet the demand of the employers, educators need to understand the significance of including the components of professional learning, which aim the professional factor essential for successful employability. The results of this study define the main features of employability in online training, which enable teachers to pay more attention to crucial factors. In this study, the development of critical thinking was the essential factor in determining the professional skills necessary for employability. The other relevant important variables which were argued in the study were collaboration and self-organization.

The design of the research presents one of the limitations of the study. The online course may lessen the development of critical professional qualities as it has a wide range of possibilities for written communication. However, it may have just a model of live professional communication. The other limitation is the number of students in this study. The research may have a higher degree of validity with the larger sample. Besides, not all possible factors which have a direct impact on professional development were measured in this research.

Moreover, the personal interpretation of the questions in the questionnaire might be various depending on the students' aims. Future work should examine other potential factors that might influence the employability sphere. In particular, the relationship between the design of online courses with more advanced functions and self-organization as a means of motivation growth for developing professionally.

REFERENCES

- Andrews, Jane, and Helen Higson. 2008. "Graduate Employability, 'soft skills' versus 'Hard' Business Knowledge: A European Study." *Higher Education in Europe* 33 (4): 411–22.
- Botha, Jo-Anne, Melinde Coetzee, and Mariette Coetzee. 2015. "Exploring Adult Learners' Self-Directedness in Relation to Their Employability Attributes in Open Distance Learning." *Journal of Psychology in Africa* 25 (1). Informa UK Limited: 65–72.
- Butcher, John, and John Rose-Adams. 2015. "Part-Time Learners in Open and Distance Learning: Revisiting the Critical Importance of Choice, Flexibility and Employability." *Open Learning* 30 (2). Routledge: 127–37.
- De Vos, Ans, Sara De Hauw, and Beatrice I.J.M. Van der Heijden. 2011. "Competency Development and Career Success: The Mediating Role of Employability." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 79 (2): 438–47.
- Deeley, Susan J. 2014. "Summative Co-Assessment: A Deep Learning Approach to Enhancing Employability Skills and Attributes." *Active Learning in Higher Education* 15 (1): 39–51.
- Ehiyazaryan, Ester. 2009. "Enhancing Employability: Integrating Real World Experience in the Curriculum." *Education and Training* 51 (4): 292–308.
- Fallows, Stephen, and Christine Steven. 2000. "Building Employability Skills into the Higher Education Curriculum: A University-Wide Initiative." *Education + training*.
- Franz, Jill. 2008. "A Pedagogical Model of Higher Education / Industry Engagement for Enhancing Employability and Professional Practice." *Proceedings Work Integrated Learning (WIL): Transforming Futures, Practice...Pedagogy...Partnerships 2008*: 164–69.
- Glass, Gene, and Kenneth Hopkins. "Statistical methods in education and psychology." *Psycritiques* 41.12 (1996).
- Harvey, Lee. 2001. "Defining and Measuring Employability." *Quality in Higher Education* 7 (2): 97–109.
- Liashenko, Iryna, and Lyudmyla Hnapovska. 2019. "Blended Education: Patterns of Implementation at Sumy State University." *Revista Romaneasca Pentru Educatie Multidimensionala* 11 (3). Asociatia LUMEN: 141–62.
- Liashenko, Iryna. 2019. "Students Perceptions of ESP Course for Cynological Translators." *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes* 7.1 (2019): 017-030.
- Lim, Tina, Mansor Fadzil, Latifah Abdol Latif, T Goolamally, Norlia, and Norziati Mansor. 2011. "Producing Graduates Who Meet Employer Expectations: Open and Distance Learning Is a Viable Option." *The International Lifelong Learning Conference 2011*, 374–88.
- Lowden, K., S. Hall, D. Elliot, and Lewin, 2011. "Employers' perceptions of the employability skills of new graduates". London: Edge Foundation.
- McQuaid, C. D., J. R. Lindsay, and Griffith. 2005. "Interacting Effects of Wave Exposure, Tidal Height and Substratum on Spatial Variation in Densities of Mussel *Perna Perna* Plantigrades." *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 301 (October). Inter-Research: 173–84.
- Nenzhelele, Tshildidzi Eric. 2014. "Employability through Experiential Learning Course in Open Distance Learning Institution." *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences* 5 (20). Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research: 1602–12.

- Overtom, Christine. *Employability skills: An update*. ERIC Clearinghouse, 2000.
- Pool, Lorraine Dacre, and Peter Sewell. 2007. "The Key to Employability: Developing a Practical Model of Graduate Employability." *Education and Training* 49 (4): 277–89.
- Qenani, Eivis, Neal MacDougall, and Carol Sexton. 2014. "An Empirical Study of Self-Perceived Employability: Improving the Prospects for Student Employment Success in an Uncertain Environment." *Active Learning in Higher Education* 15 (3). SAGE Publications Ltd: 199–213.
- Rebenko, Maryna, Oksana Nikolenko, and Victor Rebenko. "Listening Comprehension Proficiency Development of Information Technology Students in ESP classroom." *International Journal of Learning, Teaching, and Educational Research* 18.11 (2019): 245-264.
- Smith, Vicki. 2010. "Review Article: Enhancing Employability: Human, Cultural, and Social Capital in an Era of Turbulent Unpredictability." *Human Relations*.
- Tymon, Alex. 2013. "The Student Perspective on Employability." *Studies in Higher Education* 38 (6): 841–56.
- Wuensch, Karl L., and James D. Evans. 1996. "Straightforward Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences." *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 91 (436). JSTOR: 1750.

RECONSIDERING TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE PROCESSES OF COURSE DESIGN AND TEACHING MATERIALS SELECTION IN THE CONTEXT OF ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

Elena Spirovska

South East European University,
E-Mail e.spirovska@seeu.edu.mk

Abstract. *The aim of this article is to analyze, from teachers' point of view, the processes of needs analysis, syllabus design and the materials selection and adaptation in the context of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). These aspects of course design will be presented by examining in more detail the existing teachers' views and opinions on the factors which influence syllabus design, materials selection and deciding on the grading criteria. English for Academic Purposes is a discipline which emerged and was developed from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) context. The context of English for Academic Purposes is defined by a number of authors as a discipline which focuses on language learning in academic contexts and improving skills which can be transferred beyond the language curriculum and used in every area of academic studies. Some examples of these skills include the following: writing, research, presentation skills, providing arguments and debating. The research for the study is conducted by review of the relevant literature and previous studies on the topic, in addition to examining teachers' attitudes via open-ended interview questions.*

Key words: *English for Academic Purposes, teachers' views, course design, materials*

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to provide theoretical as well as empirical research on the process of establishing course aims and objectives, materials selection and setting assessment criteria in the context of teaching English for Academic Purposes courses, designed and provided by the Language Centre at South Eastern European University in Tetovo, Republic of North Macedonia.

2. ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES - DEFINING THE PURPOSES, CONTENT AND SETTING, DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN GENERAL ENGLISH COURSES AND EAP

The theoretical framework for English for Academic Purposes courses offers several definitions. Jordan (1997, p.1) mentions the first official use of the term English for Academic Purposes. According to him, the term was used and recorded initially in 1974. By 1975, the term was in widespread use. The definition (ETIC, 1975) in Jordan (1997p.1) of English for

Academic Purposes states the following: “EAP is concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems”. This definition specifies the essential aim of English for Academic Purposes courses, which is to provide tertiary education students with skills which can facilitate their learning and their study progress in an academic teaching and learning environment and enable them to use those skills in both foreign language (native language classroom) as well as content areas. This notion is also supported by Dudley-Evans and St. John (199:34), who state the following about EAP courses: “English for Academic Purposes (EAP) refers to any English teaching that relates to study purposes. Students whose first language is not English may need help with both the academic discipline and the specific study skills required of them during their academic course.”

According to Gillett (2011) the content of EAP courses, apart from language instruction, includes the following skills:

- Research and using the library;
- Using sources and referring to sources correctly;
- Paraphrasing, summarizing, describing processes and developments, providing arguments and reasons, describing a sequence of events, developing arguments and ideas, refuting arguments and drawing conclusions;
- Writing skills: organization, presentation, including graphs and charts, revising and proofreading.

Zohrabi (2010) argues that the EAP emphasis is on the common core rather than specific subject matter which would encompass the language system (vocabulary, grammar), study skills, language skills and communicative elements. The essence of EAP courses according to him is preparing students to tackle their university courses and to be able to function properly in their area of studies.

Alexander (2008, p.3) explains the differences between general ELT and teaching English for Academic Purposes. The division, which can be applied to the context of EAP, can be summarised in the following terms and as follows:

1. Syllabus: the focus of general ELT syllabus is on the aims and goals presently (what the student can or cannot do presently, while EAP syllabus is focused on future goals in terms of academic skills.
2. Teacher-student roles: Alexander (2008) differentiates between the unequal roles of students and teachers in general ELT situations (teachers are seen as experts and more dominant in comparison to students) and equal (in terms of EAP courses, where both are learning about the academic environment).
3. Language content in general ELT situations is unlimited and students need to be equipped for a wide range of communicative situations. In EAP the content is limited to academic discourse and associated grammar and discourse features.
4. Language skills balance: while speaking and listening are predominantly addressed in the context of general English, the emphasis in EAP is on reading and writing.
5. Study skills: while in general ELT situations, there is very little emphasis on study skills, EAP focuses on developing learning skills, particularly learner autonomy, cognitive skills and critical thinking. Gillett (2011) argues that it is useful to make a distinction between general study skills that are not related to language instruction and language study skills, which will form an essential component of EAP courses, for instance planning essays and acquiring formal language.

After the first step of defining the course aims and objectives of English for Academic Purposes courses, the next step is structuring the course syllabus and weekly schedule. In the context of English for Academic Purposes courses, the aspects of the course design and the emphasis put on them are subjects of an ongoing debate. Jordan (1997) lists the factors which need to be taken into consideration when creating a syllabus for EAP courses. This list includes the following: needs, aims, means (the teachers, materials, facilities, time, and financial factors) and the variables/constraints (lack of teachers, time, financial means or materials). All of these factors are to be taken into consideration when planning English for Academic Purposes course syllabi.

Needs analysis or needs assessment was predominantly conducted via informal discussions with students in terms of their expectations of the course and their perceived needs based on content area courses and needs for academic skills. For instance, academic writing and delivering a formal presentation are transferable skills which are incorporated in other courses offered by the faculties. It is reasonable to infer that the students will benefit from the instruction and practice.

The number of hours for both Academic and Advanced Academic English equals to four 50 minutes classes per week or 60 hours per semester. Usually, they are scheduled as block of 2 hours with 10 minute break in-between, twice per week.

3. ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES COURSES TARGET POPULATION

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses are introduced in the language learning curriculum and taught for the past nine years at South East European University Republic of North Macedonia. When enrolling at SEEU, new students are tested for their English proficiency level. The proficiency test is created for the needs of the institution and so far, it proved to be quite reliable and precise. The majority of the students are placed in one of the four General English levels: elementary (level 1) pre-intermediate (level 2) and intermediate (level 3 and 4).

The students whose language proficiency level is upper-intermediate are placed in Academic English groups. During some periods in the past, due to lack of teachers, monetary cuts or other factors, including the requirements of the faculties, these students were exempt from taking English language courses during their first year of studies and awarded automatically the credits for the course. The first contact with English in a university setting for those students used to be ESP courses during their second year of studies. However, the need to introduce a language course at the beginning of their academic studies was soon perceived, which resulted in introducing Academic and Advanced Academic English courses. The course introduced in the first semester is Academic English, while Advanced Academic English is introduced in the second semester. Both are intended only for first year students from the following faculties: Faculty of Contemporary Social Sciences, Faculty of Contemporary Sciences and Technologies, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Business and Economics and Faculty of Languages, Cultures and Communication.

The number of students per each group varies from 15 to 25, although, due to the course nature and content, it is very difficult to work with groups which exceed that number of students. The number of Academic English groups varies each academic year. Sometimes, according to the proficiency test, there are enough students to create 5-6

groups. Sometimes, there are only two groups and approximately 30-40 students who are placed in this level. They are 18-20 years old, both male and female students and coming from diverse educational background and with differences in their language proficiency. Despite the fact that the placement test is introduced at the beginning of every academic year, the EAP groups may be described as mixed abilities groups.

4. TEACHING MATERIALS IN THE CONTEXT OF EAP COURSES

Robinson (1991) in Jordan (1997, p.127) states the following regarding textbooks: "No textbook is likely to be perfect, of course, and practical considerations, such as cost, may have to take precedence over pedagogic merit". Sheldon (1988, in Jordan, 1991 p.127) argues the following: "It is clear that course book assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule of thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick". The quotes above illustrate some of the issues that EAP teachers have encountered in the context of teaching EAP.

The dilemma of selecting either a textbook or other teaching materials in the context of EAP courses offered by the Language Center was always present. Initially, no specific textbooks for EAP courses were selected. Instead, the choice of the course materials was based on the projected learning outcomes and the tasks and activities to be done in class. For instance, if the projected learning outcome was to introduce the students to the appropriate structure of thesis statements, the practice was to select several handouts from academic writing books, online sources and to adapt them according to the learning outcomes, needs of the students and other factors (whether handouts are interesting, understandable and if they offer possibilities for further practice). After several semesters, a textbook created for EAP was selected and introduced to the students. However, the reactions from the students and teachers using a textbook varied. Due to the fact that Academic English groups were mixed abilities groups, the reading texts presented in the textbook were not very understandable or accessible for some of the students. The majority of the students, as well as the teachers, during staff meetings or exam preparation weeks, stated the impression that the reading texts were too challenging at times, that the textbook did not include relevant or appealing topics and that the overall impression is that using a textbook only does not meet the criteria expected from EAP teaching materials. The questionnaire used in this study research addresses this issue.

5. ASSESSMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF EAP COURSES

The selection of assessment methods and design of assessment criteria was also debated in the context of EAP courses provided by the Language Center. Throughout a decade during which these courses were offered, different assessment methods were introduced. Occasionally, the course assessment would emphasize tests and final exams, placing the focus and the highest weight of the final grade on the final exam. This practice was not very successful, mainly due to the fact that placing the importance on the final exam cannot reflect the course aims and objectives of EAP courses. Another mode of assessment in these courses emphasized the written tasks, including research projects writing, essay writing, book reviews and film reviews, as well as other written tasks. This mode was also not very successful, due to the fact that it inevitably placed extreme

importance or writing skills and written projects and less importance on other skills, which was not adequate to the perceived needs of the students. In any academic environment, students need other skills besides writing, including speaking, learning skills and other examples of academic skills. When it comes to assessment and forming assessment criteria, the most important premise was that it should reflect the learning goals and objectives. In addition, it was important not to overemphasize or neglect certain study and language skills and to achieve the necessary balance.

6. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF COURSE DESIGN AND SELECTING TEACHING MATERIALS IN ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES STUDY CONTEXT

The purpose of this paper is to analyze teachers' views on the important issues related to English for Academic Purposes course design, the selection of teaching materials and forming the assessment criteria. The teachers, or EAP practitioners, responded anonymously in a written form to a questionnaire consisting 10 questions and additional notes related to their views on EAP issues. In total, 10 (ten) teachers responded to the questionnaire. The teachers are between 35-55 years of age and their teaching experience varies from 15-28 years. All of them taught English for Academic Purposes for at least one or more semesters. Therefore, their replies reflect their opinions related to EAP courses and need to be taken into consideration. The most illustrative responses to the questions will be presented below.

1. Which course aims and objectives should be prioritized, in your opinion, when creating a syllabus for Academic English courses?

- *Developing transferable skills which will help them in meeting their short term needs related to their studies as well as their long term needs related to their future employability.*
- *It would depend on the setting/type of academic institution and whether students will be oriented more towards working or academic career. However, greater focus and real academic skills, like extensive reading, academic writing and research and less on skills development (communication, presentations, etc.).*
- *Developing critical thinking skills: critical reading, understanding and applying academic writing.*
- *I think that this depends on the institution itself and the policies, vision and mission they have. This pretty much sets the baseline upon which all courses are designed. But in the case of Language Center community, digital literacy and critical thinking skills should be prioritized.*

2. When creating a syllabus for Academic English courses, should the emphasis be given to skills which can be transferred/used in every academic setting (presentation skills, writing skills, debating)? Why/ Why not?

- *Yes, definitely. Academic English courses should be focused on developing and improving students' writing and speaking skills.*
- *Yes, students should be able to use various communication strategies to participate in the discussions, to select and evaluate different resources and to form and support their opinion with arguments.*
- *Students should have developed their language skills and soft skills by this stage. The emphasis should be given to developing reading, writing and research.*
- *The emphasis should be given to transferable skills to meet students' needs related to content area courses, for instance presentations, note taking, paraphrasing or referencing.*

3. When creating a syllabus for Academic English courses, should the emphasis be given to grammar, vocabulary and other traditional aspects of language learning? Why/ why not?

- *Yes, but only as an integral part of writing, not as a focus on language by itself.*
- *No, it is important for students to produce accurate grammar forms and appropriate vocabulary but in the context of previously mentioned transferable skills.*
- *I think that there is space to incorporate that too, because they should not be mutually exclusive. They should be complementary.*

4. Are materials and the process of materials selection important when creating a syllabus for Academic English courses? Why/ why not?

- *I would say crucial, because achieving academic goals is based on books and the materials used.*
- *Very important. The more authentic the material, the more students will be exposed to real life situations and relate to the content.*
- *The materials and their selection are very important. However, the selection of materials should be done after the syllabus is created.*
- *Yes, the materials are very important, as they give directions in which way the course will be developed and oriented.*
- *Yes, they should be closely connected to the learning objectives.*
- *Yes, definitely. Materials should be selected from a variety of resources. I do not think that only one source (a book) is enough for teaching an EAP course.*

5. Is choosing an appropriate textbook for Academic English course design important? Why? Why not?

- *Yes and no. A textbook comes with an already designed course syllabus and provides students with security, in the sense that they will know what to expect. However, textbooks sometimes include boring texts and activities and the material is not authentic.*
- *I do not believe that one course book can satisfy the needs of EAP courses, because of the variety of course goals and objectives.*
- *Yes, because it might have a serious impact on the ways you deliver the course and the quality of teaching.*
- *The textbook chosen must include materials that would meet the identified students' needs and the specified goals and objectives listed in the syllabus. Choosing a textbook should be the last stage of the course design.*
- *Yes, but it is not necessary. The teacher should be able to teach this course using a variety of resources.*

6. When selecting a textbook for Academic English, which selection criteria should be taken into consideration?

- *I do not think that only one textbook is enough for teaching an EAP course. The textbook should be used together with other additional materials.*
- *Topics, content and vocabulary.*
- *Availability, the price of the textbook. The teaching methodology it is based upon. Appropriateness of the topics. Additional materials available online and online support for students' autonomous work outside a class.*
- *User-friendly, understandable, easy to navigate and visually appealing.*

7. Are authentic materials (visual/audio/texts) useful in the context of Academic English? If yes, what are the benefits? If no, what are the reasons?

- *Authentic materials are very important as they expose the students to the real language and should enable students to communicate on their own, without teacher's guidance.*
- *Yes, students love authentic materials. They are more appealing and more useful.*
- *Authentic materials are very useful. Students get to listen or watch authentic conversations and native speakers. They develop both listening and speaking skills.*
- *They are very useful. Authentic materials bring the outside world in the classroom and build academic vocabulary.*

8. What are the most notable issues/problems when selecting teaching materials for Academic English courses?

- *Not appropriate in terms of difficulty and not tailored to students' needs.*
- *Text adaptation, authenticity, relevance of the material for the students.*
- *Students' needs and topics of their interest.*
- *Most of the materials are too specific. For instance, they prepare the students for taking a certain test. In addition, textbooks for EAP courses are focused on reading and writing, whereas speaking is slightly neglected.*

9. When setting assessment and grading criteria for Academic English courses, do you believe that the priority should be given to tests, final exams and quizzes. Should the priority be given to presentations, debates and written assignments? Why? Why not?

- *It all depends on the goals that should be achieved.*
- *Exams and tests should not be used. Other forms of more authentic assessment should be used.*
- *Presentations, debates and written assignments engage students and provide practice for students. They develop their argumentative skills.*
- *Tests of any kind only measure what students memorized. Other assessment tasks show how students apply their knowledge.*
- *No tests. Creativity and higher order thinking skills should be the focus of EAP courses and they are not measured by tests.*

10. Your comments and thoughts on the issue of Academic English course design, materials selection and assessment criteria.

- *EAP courses should prepare students for continuation of their academic study and future career. Therefore they should be developed and organized in this regard. If this means that only certain students attend them, as a kind of ESP it should not be an issue. Another option for developing EAP courses is preparation for standardized tests and preparing the students for academic environments in English speaking countries. So, the emphasis should be on acquiring academic skills.*
- *Every EAP course should balance satisfying students' immediate study-related needs and long terms employability skills. The course design should start by analyzing students' needs, specifying the course aims and objectives, the most appropriate teaching methodology and finally selecting the most appropriate teaching materials, adapting and supplementing them. The assessment criteria must ensure continuous assessment which allows students to use the language learned and not just memorize rules and reproduce them.*

7. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS DRAWN FROM TEACHERS' OPINIONS

The comments and responses on the questionnaire presented above provide important insight into the aspects of syllabus creation, materials selection and assessment in the context of EAP courses. The responses reflect the need of developing critical reading and critical thinking skills, digital literacy and research skills as well as academic writing. According to teachers' responses, the emphasis should be given to reading and writing skills, as well as skills which are transferable and can be used in any academic setting and content area courses. Grammar and vocabulary should be incorporated in the context of teaching other content. However, they should not be taught independently.

Teachers' responses clearly state that the materials in the context of EAP courses are crucial and the process of their selection is very important and that they should address the learning goals and objectives. According to the responses, materials should be chosen from a variety of resources. According to the participants' responses, a textbook is important but not necessary. Furthermore, they believe that using one textbook only cannot meet the needs of EAP course. According to them, selecting a textbook should be a step which follows after defining the course goals and objectives. Among the relevant factors when selecting a textbook for EAP courses are appropriateness, availability, the price of a specific textbook. In addition, visual attractiveness, relevance of topics and online support are also noted. Participants state that assessment should not rely on exams and quizzes. Instead, assessment should rely on a number of tasks which ensure continuous assessment such as research projects, presentations, debates and a variety of written tasks.

Participants also emphasize the need of addressing students' academic skills and preparation for further academic study. In this regard, one of the suggestions is that EAP courses should include an element of preparation for standardized tests of English, for instance TOEFL, IELTS, or other similar tests, which are required for scholarship opportunities and study programs.

Several conclusions can be derived from the analysis of the theoretical overview and reviewing participants' response and the teaching practices so far, the following conclusions can be reached. First, it can be concluded that English for Academic Purposes courses are considered necessary and indeed a very important part of tertiary education. The function of EAP courses should not be limited to completing the necessary number of credits or filling in a gap between the secondary and tertiary language education. EAP courses should focus their aims and objectives on critical reading and thinking, facilitating students' academic skills and introducing the concept of study skills to students who are already proficient, for instance research skills, project and essay writing, listening, presenting, stating arguments and participating in a debate. It is important to understand that these study skills extend beyond language education and are needed for the majority of academic courses, including content area courses. The students, especially in the educational context in which their content area courses are delivered in English, should be aware of the necessity of the study skills and the fact that they are transferable and used in every academic setting.

The second important conclusion is that the course goals and objectives should be reflected in grading criteria and assessment, which should be balanced in terms of assessed tasks, without overemphasizing tests, exams or quizzes. Instead, importance should be placed on research projects, written projects and projects which allow assessment of students speaking skills.

The third important conclusion pertains to the course materials. The selection of the course materials should follow the process of analyzing students' needs and defining course goals and objectives. The course materials cannot be limited to a single course book only, regardless of the quality and relevance of it. If a textbook is chosen, it needs to be relevant and accessible, supported by online additional resources or other handouts and additional materials. Therefore it can be concluded that the best choice of materials in the context of EAP course would be a blend of materials, based on an appropriate textbook and upgraded with supplementary materials/handouts. These conclusions and recommendations were derived from the theoretical overview of the relevant literature, but even more from the experience and practices in the context of designing English for Academic Purposes courses at the South East European University.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, Owen., Argent, S. and J. Spencer 2008. *EAP Essentials: A teacher's guide to principles and practice*. Reading: Garnet Publishing Ltd.
- Dudley-Evans T. and M.J. St John 1998. *Developments in ESP: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 0 521 59675 0.
- Gillett, A.J. (2011) What is EAP? Accessed from <http://www.uefap.com/bgnd/>
- Jordan, Robert R. 1997. *English for Academic Purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zohrabi, M. "A New Outlook on EAP Literacies: General and Specific English Territories." *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, Vol.14 No 2 (2010):165–186.
Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ920540.pdf>

CORPUS-DRIVEN ESP PEDAGOGY: A PRELIMINARY CASE STUDY

Maria Rudneva

Foreign languages department, RUDN University, Russia

E-mail: rudneva-ma@rudn.ru

Abstract. *The study explores application of a freely available EcoLexicon online corpus in specific language classes at Environmental studies faculty of RUDN University, Russia. Although corpus tools are traditionally used by linguists, I intend to demonstrate how they can be offered to non-linguist students to facilitate better understanding of inherent semantics, depart from generic surface understanding of professional texts and delve deep into structures and meanings, enhancing overall linguistic competence of learners and instructors alike. One of the main results of the study is that implementation of corpus-based tools clearly demonstrates unreliability of automated translated tools and fosters departure of novice professionals from assisted translation towards independent exploration of semantic nuances of target specialized languages. Despite numerous benefits, corpus-based tools can present certain challenges as well. These deficiencies, however, may be remedied by careful design of teaching materials and assignments.*

Key words: *data driven learning, specialized corpora, ESP*

1. INTRODUCTION

The paper investigates potentials and limitations of direct application of a specialized corpus in ESP classes. Since 1960's corpora have been used to inform pedagogic content of grammars, textbooks and dictionaries alike. Their value for pedagogic material design has been widely recognized (Römer, 2011). This approach is known as data driven learning (DDL) (Johns & King, 1991) and has been applied in a number of contexts for second and foreign language acquisition in a few educational institutions. Content-wise DDL can be divided into two major categories featuring indirect and direct application of corpus tools (Vyatkina & Boulton 2017). Indirect application involves utilizing corpus tools for material development by second language instructors, in this case learners are not involved in hands-on experiences with corpus query outputs. Direct application, however, involves corpus searches by learners and can target various aspects of lexicogrammatical contextualization of linguistic units. According to meta-analysis conducted by Boulton and Cobb (2017) DDL proved to be an efficient approach for increasing linguistic awareness of learners and instructors alike. Besides, numerous perception studies suggest that learners are on the overall of a positive attitude towards DDL. DDL activities allow departure from traditional deductive learning, promoting learner autonomy as well as developing problem-solving and analytical skills. Using a

Submitted August 30th, 2020, accepted for publication October 27th, 2020

specialized corpus as a reference tool allows novice professionals to achieve better understanding of L2 terminology and eventually overcome terminological asymmetries between source and target language. Contextualization of near synonyms fosters better understanding of semantic and functional nuances and provides important information which can not be elicited from bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Delving deep in professional contexts, understanding inherent semantics also allows for patching lexical gaps which inevitably emerge when translating specialized texts. Co-creation of new professional terminology is one of the key aspects novice professionals face on a daily basis, especially in rapidly developing technological contexts. In this sense it seems very promising and important to provide them with lexicographic reference tools that would allow for departure from calques as well as for resolving the issue of false cognates.

Besides apparent benefits that DDL approach has to offer, there are a few limitations that hinder its wider dissemination. The limitations have been discussed in literature from the instructors' and learners' perspective. Past research (Römer, 2009) demonstrates language teachers' reluctance to implement corpus tools in the classroom for various reasons, such as lack of necessary computing skills, as well as unavailability of user-friendly and free resources. According to Callies (Callies et al. 2016) to implement DDL approach language instructors need at least three kinds of competencies. The broader one would be technical skills, high level of proficiency in corpus query tools. Secondly, the instructors need to be able to formulate queries and interpret results, thus corpus linguistics proficiency is necessary. Thirdly, pedagogical skills are necessary to incorporate data retrieved from a corpus in teaching materials. Apart from professional competences DDL activities require significant preparation time and yet available materials are few (Vyatkina & Boulton 2017).

On the learners' side there are several obstacles as well. First of all, all available corpora were designed by linguists for linguists, therefore user interface might seem complex and unfriendly. Apart from that, the output of concordances might be overwhelming for inexperienced users, it takes time and effort to induce linguistic information, which might be discouraging.

Despite abovementioned limitations there has been a shift from using corpora as a learning aid towards their use as a reference resource, especially in language for specific and academic purposes (Vyatkina & Boulton 2017). ESP textbooks are usually overseen by publishers due to limited target audience and questionable potential profitability (Bennett, 2010). Therefore, ESP instructors have to draw on their own resources to design pedagogic materials, thus specialized corpora are of invaluable assistance.

Having taken into consideration the abovementioned potentials and limitations, the author intends to explore the benefits of utilizing a freely available specialized corpus of environmental texts for ESP classes, as well as to what extent we can push non-linguist students in their quest for semantic and functional features of the target language, and what their perceptions of the hands-on DDL experience are.

2. METHODS AND OBJECTIVES

The research focuses on investigation of learners' perception of using EcoLexicon specialized corpus in ESP classes. The students were offered training, guided and then independent practice with a freely available corpus of environmental texts. At the end of the semester a de-identified questionnaire on the DDL experience was administered to the students.

2.1. Participants

A hands-on corpus experience was offered to three groups of students (N=39) aged 19-21 at RUDN university. All students are Environmental sciences majors and also minor in specialized translation. Their English proficiency level is B2-C1 CEFR, according to the results of Cambridge English exams, which all students take at the university exam center. All students had at least two years of prior training in ESP by traditional textbooks.

2.2. Instruments

The students were offered preliminary training on a freely available corpus of contemporary environmental texts EcoLexicon (León-Araúz et al 2018). EcoLexicon is the newest and most expensive terminological knowledge base on the environment, it is widely used by language and ecology experts. The corpus is available in the Sketch Engine query system, which has user-friendly interface and offers numerous modes of data representation.

2.3. Procedure

The students had no prior knowledge of corpus tools, or any formal training in lexicographic research, therefore the training consisted of several stages as presented in Figure 1.

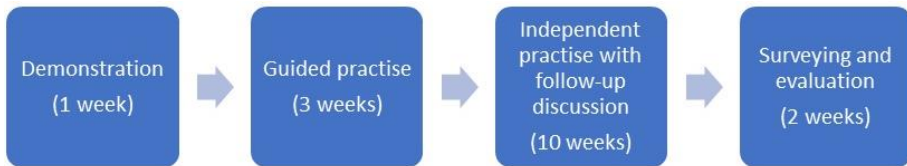


Fig. 1 Corpus training

At each stage the feedback was collected and the course was aligned to achieve better understanding and higher degree of engagement and motivation. The following query functions were introduced:

- normalized frequencies as the most revealing means to ensure proper linguistic choices. The issues of L1 interference, calques, as well as false cognates were consistently addressed and supported by quantitative corpus data;
- wildcards and frequent chunks – invaluable source of authentic contextualization to develop written and oral fluency;
- word sketch difference function – a complex yet powerful tool to elicit semantic and functional differences between near synonyms.

3. DISCUSSION

The first objective of corpus training was to achieve proper understanding of query system functionality. The participants were offered an orientation session with brief introduction of corpus methodology followed by demonstration of key features of Sketch Engine tool. After the class the participants were asked to rate their perception of the experience, the results are presented in Figure 2. As indicated in Figure 2, 13% of the

participants (N=5) considered corpus tools impossible to comprehend, 18 % (N=7) found the query system extremely complex, 41 % (N=16) acknowledged it was quite complex and only 28% (N=11) admitted the corpus tool was understandable. Since 69% (N=27) rated their experience as fairly positive. It was decided to extend the training session with three weeks of guided practice to ensure better understanding of the corpus tool functionality. On week 4 the participants were requested to rate their experience again, and this time the rating yielded a more positive result. Only 5% of the students (N=2) considered the corpus tool impossible to comprehend, 13% (N=5) still found it quite complex. However, the majority of the participants found the challenge agreeable with 33% (N=13) rating the tool as quite complex and almost a half, 49% (N=19) confirming corpus tool functionality was understandable.

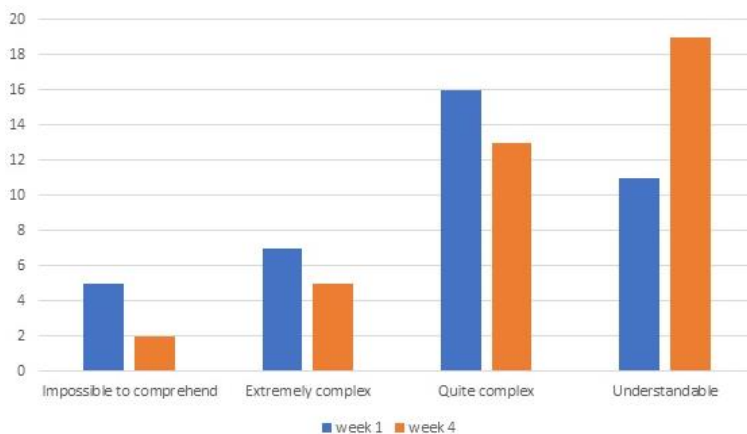


Fig. 2 Complexity

From week 5 onwards, the participants were offered weekly take-home corpus-based assignments which they were supposed to perform independently with a follow-up discussion in class. The students who still struggled or were reluctant to use corpus tools were still participating in discussions, using the data that their peers managed to induce; therefore, the activity was overall beneficial for the entire group.

The participants were offered to explore several basic functions of the query tool.

Normalized frequencies

The frequencies function ensures proper linguistic choices, tackling false cognates and calques as well as L1 interference. Table 1 illustrates the case of assessing variant of translation:

Table 1 Normalized Frequencies

Экологические проблемы	Ecological problems	Environmental problems	Environmental issues
	1.08/mln	12.16/mln	9.75/mln

Due to L1 interference the students tend to translate collocation «экологические проблемы» as “ecological problems”. However, quick frequency check demonstrates, that this choice is the least authentic (1.08 occurrences per million words), whereas “environmental problems” and “environmental issues” would be more appropriate in the given context.

Wild cards and frequent chunks

Wild cards and frequent chunks functions allow for the creation of authentic multi-word expressions, which is of critical importance for developing written and oral fluency. Informing academic writing with corpora data is not new, however, corpus-informed ESP writing seems under-researched. The students were assigned to revise their ESP writing tasks searching for multi-word expressions in the corpus in order to enrich their vocabulary, as well as increase authenticity. The excerpts below represent initial text produced by the student and its revised version.

Initial text

According to our recent research of air pollution, the amount such of outdoor pollution as smog in Cherepovets region is alarming. There is a big necessity of technological modernization in coal-burning factories to prevent from stronger pollution. Also the indoor pollution is caused by bad ventilation. Different pollutants like formaldehyde and other chemicals are exposed inside cheap homes. Another cause of indoor pollution is tobacco smoke that appears in buildings where people use cigarettes. These two types of pollution, outdoor and indoor, affect people's health and ecological situation of the world.

Revised text

*According to our recent research of anthropogenic air pollution, the amount of such types of **atmospheric** pollution as **industrial and photochemical** smog is alarming. There is **ultimate demand** for technological **advances** in coal-burning factories to prevent **severe** pollution. Indoor pollution, however, is caused by **poor** ventilation. The **negative effects of such range from exposure to various pollutants, such as formaldehyde, to tobacco smoke**. These two types of pollution, outdoor and indoor, affect people's health and **global** ecological balance.*

The examples above demonstrate that consulting a specialized corpus allows to significantly increase the level of sophistication of the text, as well as its authenticity, which, in its turn, dramatically improves overall quality of written production.

Word sketch difference

Word sketch difference function is a powerful tool for disambiguation of key terminological concepts. Contextualization of lexical bundles allows for inducing linguistic information which cannot be found in traditional monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. This is specifically valuable for improving the quality of specialized translation, eliciting inherent semantic information as informing the content of ESP pedagogic materials.

To illustrate the features of word sketch difference function I would like to analyze semantic and functional differences of near-synonyms *pollution* and *contamination*, which are both offered by bilingual dictionaries as a translation of the key environmental concept *загрязнение*.

According to the results of the query *pollution* is used more frequently than *contamination*, with normalized frequencies of 198.84 per million vs 47.94 per million. Apart from that, there are a few functional differences.

Figure 3 indicates collocations of *pollution* and *contamination* as object.

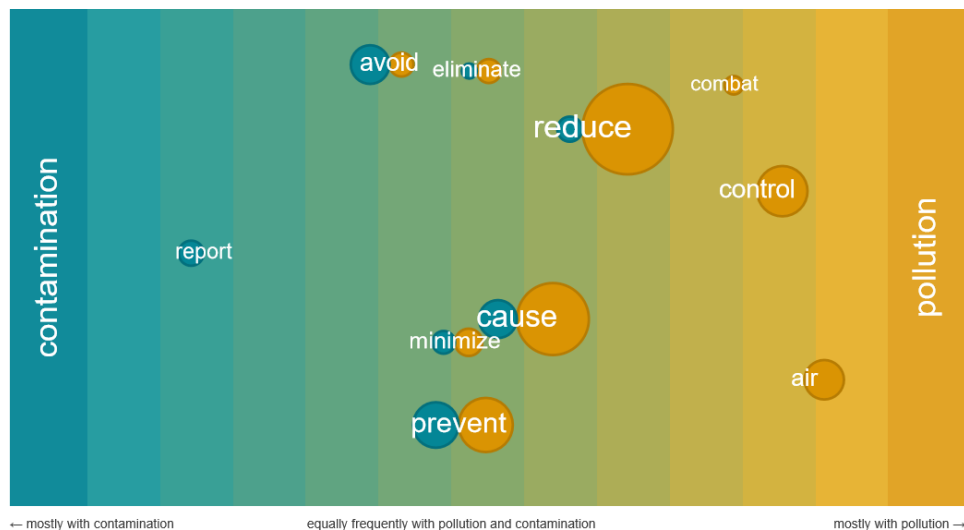


Fig.3 Verbs with pollution/contamination as object

As we can see, the verb *report* mostly collocates with *contamination*, whereas *combat* and *control* are mostly used with *pollution*. The verbs *cause* and *reduce* gravitate towards collocating with *pollution*, even though there are a few occurrences of *reduce contamination* and *cause contamination* in the corpus. Verbs *prevent*, *minimize*, *eliminate* demonstrate equal degree of co-occurrence with both terms, however, the verb *avoid* gravitates towards *contamination*.

Figure 4 represents modifiers of *pollution* and *contamination*.

The query indicated that modifier *air* is linked through a high frequency number of occurrences with *pollution*, but no statistically significant link has been established for *air contamination* collocation. The search returned high frequency collocations with the term *pollution* when speaking about big-scale location, i.e. *transboundary*, *air*, *indoor pollution*. There is collocation differentiation depending on the modifying agent, as demonstrated, i.e. we normally collocate *contamination* with *fecal*, *metal*, *radioactive* and *nitrate*, whereas *oil* usually co-occurs with *pollution*.

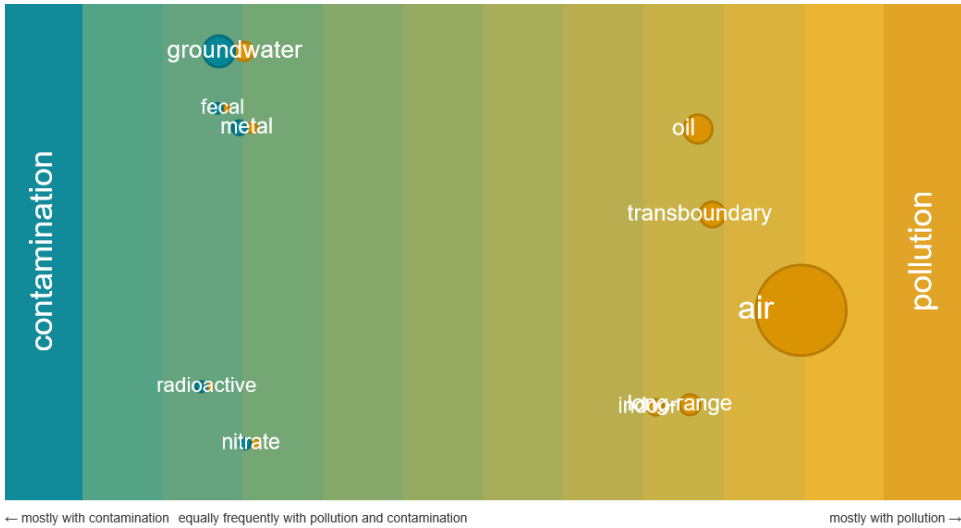


Fig. 4 Modifiers of pollution/contamination

This query output is a valuable source of information on the syntagmatic behavior of key terminological units.

4. RESULTS

An important part of the experiment was the evaluation of learners’ perception of corpus-based experience. The author conducted a de-identified open answer survey in which the participants were asked to highlight their overall attitude towards using the corpus tool as well as to comment on key challenges that they faced. Figure 5 demonstrates the results of the open answer survey.

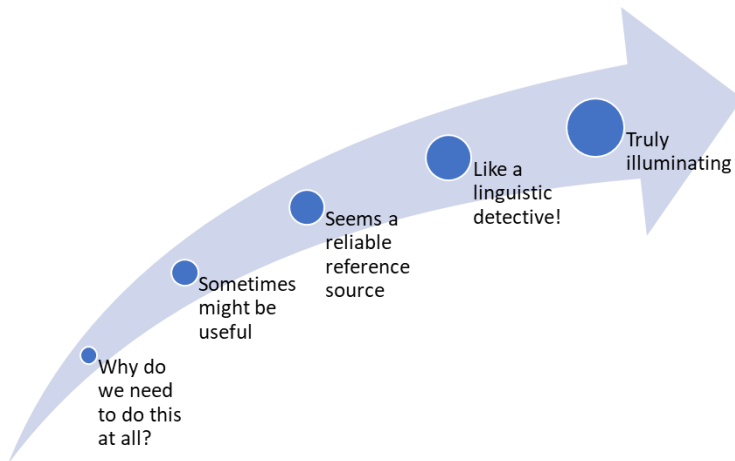


Fig. 5 Learners’ perception

According to the results of the survey 85% of learners (N=33) considered corpus tools useful for terminology disambiguation, as well as the development of oral and written fluency. Some of them were more optimistic and compared the experience to a linguistic detective investigation, and also called it illuminating. Others responded in a moderate manner acknowledging overall benefits of corpus tools as reliable reference sources that can be useful sometimes. The remaining 15% of learners (N=6) were less enthusiastic about the corpus experience and questioned rationale behind data-driven activities.

The students were also asked to provide feedback on the most challenging aspects of data-driven learning. Their elaborations can be divided into three major categories. The first issue was overall complexity of authentic professional contexts which require high degree of L2 proficiency. This issue can be addressed by careful tailoring of offerings for lower level students. Secondly, as Figure 5 demonstrates, non-linguist students are generally less motivated by the notion of linguistic discoveries, therefore corpus tools should be introduced thoughtfully. Thirdly, as Figure 2 demonstrates, many students consider corpus tools complex, which can be partly remedied by resorting to basic query functions only as well as sufficient instructional intervention.

5. CONCLUSION

Overall, the learners demonstrated positive attitude towards hands-on corpus-based experience. Corpus tools have immense potential for providing precise, accurate and non-ambiguous data on specific terminology in professional contexts. Increasing availability of specialized corpora holds great promise of new advances for ESP learners, shifting the pedagogic focus from prescribed vocabulary lists to inductive learning and learner autonomy.

REFERENCES

- Bennett, G. R. (2010). *Using corpora in the language learning classroom: Corpus linguistics for teachers*. University of Michigan Press.
- Boulton, A., & Cobb, T. (2017). Corpus use in language learning: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 67(2), 348-393.
- Callies, M., Kreyer, R., Schaub, S., & Güldenring, B. (2016). Towards corpus literacy in foreign language teacher education: Using corpora to examine the variability of reporting verbs in English. *Angewandte Linguistik in Schule und Hochschule*, 391-415.
- Johns, T., & King, P. (1991). Classroom Concordancing: *English Language Research Journal*, 4. *University of Birmingham: Centre for English Language Studies*, 1-31
- León-Araúz, P., Martín, A. S., & Reimerink, A. (2018). The EcoLexicon English corpus as an open corpus in Sketch Engine. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1807.05797*.
- Römer, U. (2009). Corpus research and practice: What help do teachers need and what can we offer? Aijmer, K.(Ed.) *Corpora and Language Teaching* (pp. 83-98).
- Mukherjee, J. (2006). Corpus linguistics and language pedagogy: The state of the art—and beyond. *Corpus technology and language pedagogy: New resources, new tools, new methods*, 5-24.)
- Römer, U. (2011). Corpus research applications in second language teaching. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 31, 205-225
- Vyatkina, N., & Boulton, A. (2017). Corpora in language learning and teaching. *Language Learning and Technology*, 21(3), 1-8

CHALLENGES IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN ESTONIAN UNIVERSITIES

Merilyn Meristo, Francisco Javier López Arias

Tallinn University, Estonia
E-mail: merilyn.meristo@tlu.ee

Abstract. *Due to the growing importance of globalization, the English language has acquired an even more influential role, and at the tertiary educational level it has provoked the necessity of teaching not just general English, but also English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which meets the demands of students' field of study. Moreover, the preparation of undergraduate students for both entering the labour market or continuing their academic path has prioritized the significance of ESP. This paper aims to investigate how ESP teachers working in Estonian state-funded HEI with General English teaching background perceive their work in the field of ESP. Specifically, this abductive qualitative research seeks to obtain a deeper insight into the challenges posed by teaching ESP and to detect problematic issues to better support university teachers to improve their work. The results highlight three major challenges: coping with changes through the lenses of professionalism; insufficient collaboration, and instability in conducting ESP courses.*

Key words: *Cooperation, English for specific purposes, professionalism, university teachers challenges*

1. INTRODUCTION

In Estonia, the internationalization of the workplace has accelerated since the country joined the European Union on January 1st, 2004, impacted by the implementation of the free movement of citizens among member states. In many international working environments located across Estonia, most professional and interpersonal communication among employees is usually conducted in English, in line with its status as an international lingua franca, and the use of the Estonian language seems to be, at best, variable and irregular. However, this shift in workplace culture has presented some challenges for all the actors involved, with the most obvious, and yet, crucial, being the difficulty for workers to carry out their duties in a language that is not their native one. Their knowledge of English, traditionally grounded in General English courses with a lack of focus on specialized environments and professional settings that it traditionally entails, has seldom provided them with enough language skills to develop their professional careers as efficiently and productively, as it could have been expected with the subsequent negative impact that lost time and communication breakdowns have on their companies' workflow (Ufier 2014).

Higher education institutions across Estonia have noticed this divergence between the teaching of General English and the professional use that migrating students make of it, and, as a result, they are starting to take steps to narrow this gap by refocusing their English courses on providing a working knowledge of English in professional spheres as

Submitted September 4th, 2020, accepted for publication October 17th, 2020

well as in the personal field. This trend is not exclusive to Estonia, and the very noticeable increase in academia related to English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the last decade is a direct consequence of it (cf. Leonardi 2015, Rackevičienė et al. 2019, Stojković et al. 2015). Estonian higher education institutions have begun this refocusing by implementing new ESP courses designed, among other things, to prepare students, language-wise, for the European-wide labour market they now have access to. Of course, this has brought new challenges to every stakeholder involved - teachers, students and the institutions themselves. The challenges posed by ESP teaching and learning have been thoroughly studied over the last two decades, but there has never been an exploration of these issues on the Estonian national level.

This paper aims to start that exploration by taking a closer look at one of those stakeholders, the ESP teachers in Estonia. Without any previous training on teaching and learning processes specific to ESP, most of them have transitioned from teaching General English and have had to transform their practices and methodologies by themselves while juggling, at the same time, the instability caused by the introduction of a reformed legal basis affecting the Estonian Higher Education system, the trial and error processes that always appears when a new system is introduced, and the changes that the widespread introduction of a new ESP environment caused on their job description and on their self-perception (Meristo 2020). In order to do so, interviews with Estonian ESP teachers from several higher education institutions have been conducted and analysed through a qualitative approach based on an abductive model. This paper is grounded in a theoretical framework heavily based on Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and further research emerging from their ideas. Our goal is to find out what kind of challenges and difficulties they have faced during the transition from General English to ESP teaching, and how they assess their own status and self-perception, and whether this assessment is consistent, and if so, how much according to our selected theoretical model. Gaining deeper insight into ESP teachers' experiences will inform stakeholders and employees responsible for managing ESP courses to better plan and organise their work in order to reduce the tension and support the teachers and their working environment. This study, conducted in the four biggest Estonian state-funded HEI might thus as well offer an interesting insight to the international audience.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Over three decades ago, in their seminal *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centred Approach*, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 158) described certain challenges that many ESP teachers face over their careers. Since Hutchinson and Waters' book, ESP has experienced a great increase in the amount of research carried out into it, and in its public awareness. Nonetheless, this research has been uneven: the spotlight has been mostly put on the methodological side, while the elaboration of actual specialized classroom materials has been relatively neglected, or as Belcher (2013, 544) puts it: "It is no surprise that ESP professional education has not been a popular research topic, though calls for the development of more instruction in specific-purpose areas, such as Medical English, are not uncommon". This disparity has introduced new challenges for ESP teachers and students. However, the challenges introduced by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) seem very relevant even today. According to them, these issues can be grouped

into three main categories: 1. The lack of an ESP orthodoxy to provide a ready-made guide; 2. The new realms of knowledge the ESP teacher has to cope with; 3. The change in status of English Language Teaching. The following will look into these categories.

2.1. The lack of an ESP orthodoxy to provide a ready-made guide

The reason behind this challenge is the sudden and constant changes in the orientation of ESP teaching as regards its purpose and effectivity. The most evident manifestation is the conflict between the use of authentic materials vs. constructed ones as the most appropriate means of helping the student's learning process. Woodrow (2017) highlights the importance of the role of authentic materials in the ESP classroom and that these materials should be selected in cooperation with stakeholders in the field (38) or even with students (56). Yet, Anthony (2018) argues that using authentic material can be one of the most challenging tasks in the light of its difficultness and context. The most evident one is the lack of teaching materials for ESP, especially regarding fields outside of technology, law or business (Franceschi 2015, Kardaleska and Nedelkoska 2017). Currently, it is a widely accepted tenet of teaching methodologies that catering to the individual needs of each student is paramount as regards the optimization of their learning outcomes, but the main consequence of the lack of availability of ready-made materials is that teachers have to spend copious amounts of time elaborating their own, usually almost from scratch (Charles 2018, Lenard and Lenard 2018, Woodrow 2017). However, there are ESP coursebooks available in the market which often do not satisfy the students' needs as they are not stimulating enough for students' engagement because of the risk of being tedious (Tomlinson 2020a), i.e. during the university courses students learn subjects related to their study area and acquire specific knowledge and skills through extensive reading materials. An ESP course is expected to cover the terminology of their discipline, by offering it through texts too generic for their area, coursebooks do not actually offer any new information and may undermine their enthusiasm to engage into language learning. Furthermore, Tomlinson (2020b) warns about the lack of human approach in ready-made ESP materials, which are supposed to be efficient and quick, yet deprived of a personal dimension which might facilitate the contextualisation of acquired materials. Yet, maintaining students' interest towards learning is a teacher's priority (Coxhead 2018). According to Anthony (2018) the choice of materials to be used in the classroom is the biggest challenge. Moreover, even if there are materials available in a particular ESP field, there is a need to adapt them (Hyon 2018, Kithulgoda and Mendis 2020, Noguera-Díaz and Pérez-Paredes 2019, Woodrow 2017). Adapting materials to better match students' needs can only be conducted if the students' needs have been identified. Many researchers consider needs analysis of utmost importance to be conducted prior to designing an ESP course (Anthony 2018, Basturkmen 2014, Hyon 2018, Flowerdew 2012, Woodrow 2017). This suggestion cannot be underestimated. Anthony (2017) draws attention to a mismatch between learning objectives and stakeholders' actual needs. That mismatch could be avoided by conducting a detailed needs analysis. Identifying target needs can be challenging because different stakeholders with different expectations and views are involved (Hyon 2018). For instance, in Business English, in order to create a significant goal-set of ESP training, the teacher has to "analyse national economic goals, identify industry sector/business needs, review the education/training available, present a business case for English communication skills in

the workforce, and understand the related advantages and responsibilities of multinational corporations for the growth and competitiveness of the economic stakeholders” (Stojkovic et al. 2015, 256).

2.2. The new realms of knowledge the ESP teacher has to cope with

As Kim et al. (2018) describes it, these are the difficulties teachers face when dealing with technical vocabulary related to academic areas alien to their lifelong fields of study. While specialized in foreign language teaching and general English teaching methodologies, ESP teachers need an academic knowledge of the terminology, the concepts and the processes related to the field they are teaching ESP for (Coxhead 2018, Woodrow 2017). This is often a challenge to ESP teachers, as they lack content knowledge (Li and Flowerdew 2020, Woodrow 2017). In addition, there are differences in methodologies when compared to General English. For example, in ESP there is a greater focus on teaching ‘Genre’, i.e. communicative events (Paltridge 2014). Anthony (2018) suggests that ESP teachers cooperate with subject specialists to receive their input for the course design as well as their feedback on the results. He adds that the importance of collaboration emerges especially in the situation where the ESP teacher is not a subject specialist and lacks knowledge in the field. Collaboration involves not only subject specialists, but learners who can give input concerning the content of the course. The learners might already be experienced in the field and give more insight on the target community, thus bringing valuable knowledge to the classroom. However, in reality, collaboration between ESP teachers and subject specialists remains scarce, even within the same institution, as the epistemological and ontological background of both parts may create difficulties in understanding each other (Woodrow 2017). Furthermore, Norton (2018) warns about ‘Pedagogic solitude’, that some ESP teachers find themselves in, and highlights the need for a support network. As mentioned, it is possible to involve students in course design and let them guide the vocabulary teaching and learning process (Woodrow 2017, 56). However, this student-centre instruction, where the teacher should play a facilitator role, usually becomes stunted, as the teacher does not have enough knowledge to guide, check, and expand on the middle and final stages of the learning process, usually devoted to the deep and specialized parts of the field. Moreover, especially in the first stages of Tertiary Education, the student may not possess enough knowledge to actually be able to guide his own learning process without heavy teacher input, which, in turn, has a deep impact on student attitudes towards ESP (Laanemaa 2015). A study carried out by Slavica Čepon (2016, 188-198) has found out that one of the reasons why students experience anxiety during practicing speaking skills in the ESP classroom is “a lack of knowledge of the carrier content”, defining ‘carrier content’ as “the specialist subject matter relating to a certain discipline”.

2.3. The change in status of English Language Teaching

The change in status has been triggered by the transition from a subject in its own right to being a service industry subordinated to other specialities. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain the changes in status modification by situational-contextual factors, which remain quite relevant (low priority in timetabling; little contact with subject teachers as well as with colleagues in the ESP field). While Hyon (2018) argues that ESP teachers are often ‘practitioners’ who do research in the field of ESP (5), it is a common situation that ESP

teachers are recruited as teaching-only staff who are not engaged in research (Lehtonen 2018). Furthermore, Stewart (2018) draws attention to the fact that ESP teachers experience concerns about their professional status. Their work might be regarded as second-rate by faculty members and ESP teachers are not considered as equal colleagues, their contribution becomes marginalized in the eyes of their colleagues. Another emerging issue is the increasing workload of ESP teachers as most materials need to be compiled and designed according to each student group and their needs (Hyon 2018). Woodrow (2017) informs about ESP teachers facing difficulties in adopting research-informed practice which might be a consequence of the heavy workload. Given the real-life situation, conducting research in the field might be too demanding (Hall 2012).

The above described challenges may put increasing pressure and tension on ESP teachers and their coping with demanding working conditions is reflected by an individual process, affecting their physical and psychological well-being (Lazarus 1993). There are several identified coping strategies that are relevant in the context of a working environment: problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance-orientated coping strategies (Lazarus 1993, Sears, Urizar and Evans 2000). The personal choice of a coping strategy affects the teacher's well-being: an emotion-focused strategy might lead to depression, while a problem-focused strategy might promote feelings of self-efficacy.

To conclude on a positive note, regardless the challenges ESP teachers face daily, a learner's perspective demonstrates that ESP students are motivated by the prospect of advancing their professional careers within international and multicultural environments (Bakić-Mirić and Gaipov 2015, Koltai 2012), and they appreciate ESP courses as good academic preparation for their professional career (Arnó-Macià et al. 2020).

3. ESP WITHIN THE ESTONIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Secondary Schools

The Estonian school system is characterized by providing each educational centre with considerable freedom to shape their own curriculum. In addition to the compulsory national curricula, some provisions in the education laws have been included, allowing schools to offer additional courses in any field of their choice. More often than not, the decisions on which additional courses to offer are based upon the particular characteristics of the given school and upon its specialization at the secondary school level. Three different specializations recurrently appear, one of the most popular ones being foreign languages and/or focusing on different aspects of the English language. These specializations usually compose of ESP courses as well. However, they are mostly limited to Business English, followed by British Literature and Translation Studies.

Universities

There are 6 state-funded public universities in Estonia, of which four¹ have a history of teaching ESP that can be traced back for several decades. However, the initial extent of ESP courses was limited to certain academic fields, such as Health and Sport Sciences (with the exception of Medicine), Law and Business. Over the years, further disciplines

¹Estonian University of Life Sciences, Tallinn University, Tallinn University of Technology and Tartu University

have been added to the ESP fold, including, but not limited to, Info-technology, Engineering, Life Sciences or Social Sciences. In addition, state-funded institutions of applied sciences have enlarged this list by offering courses of ESP on Aviation, ESP for the Military, and ESP for Police Forces.

Despite the fact that ESP courses are not a novelty in Estonia, they became a widely spread phenomenon at Estonian universities, in the form of compulsory courses during the last six years. The motives for such a curriculum change have been similar in all universities – to enhance students English language skills to be able to read scientific literature in their field. As a result, in the majority of the offered degrees, achieving graduation requires passing a mandatory ESP course in their study area. For most disciplines, ESP courses at B2 or C1 level (as defined by the CEFR²), as well as Academic English at C1.2 level are offered. Every student deemed as required to complete an ESP course is expected to take a placement test after enrolment. Another option is to provide a proof of proficiency by means of an internationally recognized exam certificate (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL, CAE³) issued not earlier than 2 years before the start of the studies. Students with lower language levels are provided with courses at A2, B1.1 and B1.2 level in order facilitate reaching a proficiency level sufficient to allow them to take part in the compulsory ESP course.

Another aspect specific to Estonian universities is the combination of different disciplines into the same ESP group of students of related academic field (e.g. Biology and Environmental Management; or Geography, Geology and Environmental Technology; or Media, Journalism and Film; or Public Administration and Political Sciences). The reason for this development is the rather small number of students representing each discipline at each language level. Although this does prove to be a demanding task for ESP teachers, and once the previously compiled materials have proven adequate for reuse with minimal adaptation, the amalgamation of disciplines has achieved a relative stability.

4. METHODOLOGY

This study sets out to understand how ESP teachers with a General English teaching background perceive their work in the field of ESP. Specifically, the research seeks to obtain a deeper insight into the challenges posed by teaching ESP and to detect problematic issues to better support university teachers to improve their work. The research question central to the study was formulated as “How do ESP teachers perceive their work in the field of ESP?” The focus of this qualitative study is on the teachers’ personal experiences in light of their sustained careers in teaching English. We focus not on factual events, but namely on personal experiences and the highly subjective meanings given to them. The qualitative research process was guided by an abductive approach. In abduction, researchers examine how the data is supported by existing theories or to the contrary, how the data may suggest modifications in theories by, for example, combining and reshaping old ideas (Kennedy and Thornberg 2018). “Pre-existing theories are used as a source of inspiration, and identification and interpretation of patterns” (Alvesson and Sköldberg 2008, as cited in Kennedy and Thornberg 2018, 52).

² CEFR: *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*

³ The International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Cambridge Assessment English (CAE)

4.1. Participants

The sample was formed of 13 English teachers working in four different state-funded HEI of Estonia, two in Tallinn and two in Tartu. Convenience sampling was applied and the participants were contacted personally. All who agreed to participate were female (age between 26-60 years), with an average teaching experience in HEI of 20 years in General English and 5 years in ESP.

4.2. Data collection

In order to answer the research question, 13 semi-structured interviews were conducted with ESP teachers from four Estonian state-funded public universities. The duration of each interview was approximately 45 minutes. The teachers were asked to describe their experiences in teaching ESP. The interviews were conducted both in Estonian and in English depending on the preference of the interviewee. The participation was voluntary and no personal delicate information was asked.

4.3. Data analysis

The data analysis was carried out according to content analysis (Cohen et al. 2007). All experiences – positive, negative and neutral – were extracted from the interviews. Every extraction was assigned a keyword (a code) that described it best. Those keywords carrying similar meanings were grouped into broader categories. A close analysis of the interviews rendered 3 main categories that we later identified as challenges: professionalism, cooperation and stability. E.g. ‘professional training’, ‘lack of experience’, ‘professional career’ formed the category “PROFESSIONALISM”; ‘sharing materials’, ‘discussing methodology together’, ‘meetings about ESP assessment’ formed the category “COOPERATION”; and ‘reusing the materials’, ‘same ESP field every year’ formed the category “STABILITY”. The next step was comparing the categories with existing theory

5. RESULTS

A close analysis of the responses in the interviews has suggested that there are three main axes of challenges that ESP teachers in Estonia have to face.

1st Challenge – Professionalism

The interviewees expressed several opinions which fell into this category. Firstly, readiness to adapt to new professional situations:

I have worked as an English teacher my whole life, but always teaching General English. 2 years ago I started teaching ESP courses. First, I objected to this idea, as I have not received any training for that, but then I realised that it's me who is responsible for my own professional training. I accepted the challenge and I haven't regretted it. (Elsa)

I prepare all my materials myself, although I know there are other teachers in the same ESP field. I could ask them, but I don't feel comfortable as if I am not able to manage my own courses. (Tina)

Elsa's opinion as an example here, reflects the development of her feelings from negative into final positive ones. She admits that professional development is an essential part of being a teacher, and that it is the teacher's responsibility to be professionally updated and complete the training available to her. On the contrary, Tina displays a sense of inadequacy and lack of confidence when it comes to asking for advice which creates for her a sense of false shame which in her opinion could be interpreted as a sign of being unprofessional. However, the feeling of not being professional is not transmitted to other people, i.e. it is only perceived intrinsically towards oneself.

Secondly, the choice of a coping strategy, which directly reveals how the ESP teachers perceive the problem (changes): Is it solvable? Or is the teacher not willing to put any effort into it?

I was not happy when I realised that I had no choice but to accept teaching ESP courses. I had no experience in this field. I am not that young anymore and would honestly prefer the daily routine I am used to have. (Kate)

For example, Kate expresses a rather strong objection. She admits not being experienced in ESP, yet she shows confidence in what she has been doing for many years. In her interview, Kate does not show any evidence of a problem-focused coping pattern, on the contrary, she sees the situation as frustrating, but she remains passive towards it.

Thirdly, the topic of career expectations emerged. Kelly, as an example, perceives changes as a possibility to enhance her professional path:

I had no preferences in courses that I was about to teach. I like changes and I hate routine. Besides, I'm sure that courses with new content add new value to my professional career. (Kelly)

This challenge – Professionalism - is mostly related to the perceived lack of knowledge and professional training for the teaching of ESP courses. Both Elsa and Kate show some lack of confidence in themselves, but the way they cope with the situation is different. Elsa finds the strength in herself and develops further, whilst Kate remains emotional. Elsa performs problem-focused coping strategy, i.e. she makes task-oriented efforts to solve the problem which in turn strengthens her perceptions of self-efficacy, while Kate refers to an emotion-oriented coping strategy through self-preoccupation and emotional reactions and the problem remains rather unsolvable to her (Lazarus 1993, Sears, Urizar and Evans 2000). Kelly does not need any coping strategy as she does not see the situation as a problem, but rather as an opportunity for her.

2nd Challenge – Cooperation

This challenge is described by the following ideas which were expressed during the interviews. Firstly, sharing materials with colleagues which is surprisingly ineffective and passive.

I would gladly share my materials and give recommendations if anyone asked.
(Kate)

I have tried to use the materials [ESP] of my colleague, but I find it difficult to use them. We do have different working methods, therefore only sharing some relevant texts could be useful, though I prefer choosing materials together with students.
(Megan)

All given examples imply that the cooperation with colleagues is limited and mostly due to a personal choice. Either there is a passive readiness (Kate) or a rather rigid choice of individual methods which leaves no room for experimenting with colleagues' propositions (Megan).

Secondly, the interviews showed a distinction between sharing materials and discussing methodology. The latter is seen a true form of collaboration which could take place among very good and valued colleagues.

My colleague and I, we share everything we find as suitable materials for ESP as there are no ready-made books. We've been working together for many years and we have always discussed how to better deal with obstacles and different issues. (Mary)

Mary's example is illustrative of teachers' opinions. There were others with similar experience that colleagues who have become friends or with who there is a long history of working together are the ones to collaborate with. Shared training sessions and meetings join academic staff members.

Thirdly, a separate category as 'Meetings about ESP assessment' came forth.

I found very useful all kinds of training in a situation where none of us had been specifically trained for ESP teaching and where we could openly share our experiences. Trainings about assessment, for example. (Elsa)

We sometimes worked in tandem-pairs to validate our grading. To reach upon an agreement, it took some time in meetings. (Jane)

Elsa and Jane's statements reflect the need for organised meetings, which could be in the form of training or a more informal meeting as long as it is guided by another professional or even by a particular topic. It suggests that meetings should have a certain objective so that they could be called as a part of collaborative activity (Wenger et al. 2002).

3rd Challenge – Stability

'Stability' emerged during the interviews through several viewpoints. Firstly, the idea about reusing the materials surfaced repeatedly.

I am glad that every year I am offered the same ESP field. Thus, I can use the materials I have prepared already and don't have to start compiling everything from zero. (Rebecca)

The suggestion by Rebecca, being able to reuse the materials in a situation where there are no suitable coursebooks available, represents the opinion of most interviewees. It also reflects greater help that might reduce their stress level due to unstable working conditions of which some are out of teachers' control (i.e. timetable, group size).

Secondly, the participants expressed the wish to teach the same ESP field every year.

What bothers me the most is the situation where ESP classes contain several disciplines. I understand that these disciplines can be within one field of studies, such as the Humanities [e.g. History, Anthropology, Philosophy] and I also understand there may not be enough students of each discipline to form an ESP group at a particular language level, I still am frustrated by the workload of managing such heterogeneous groups.' (Hannah)

Finally, the amalgamation of different disciplines within the same ESP group has been widely mentioned as a challenge across the respondent's answers. Given that different students from different fields present different needs, the process of creating a coherent and cohesive curriculum that is able to include a social component among students becomes even more challenging, especially as regards the vocabulary used in each lesson plan. It becomes a balancing act, where the configuration of the exercises and activities used in each class has to aim at achieving very different goals at the same time.

6. DISCUSSION

The Didactics of teaching ESP is not yet a part of the teacher training programme for future English teachers in Estonia. Although future English teachers receive a theoretical preparation in the CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) methodologies used in several Estonian lower and upper secondary schools, the ESP teaching methodology has not yet been introduced in the programme. Hence, English teachers working in Tertiary Education are expected to have a high professionalism and aptness to adapt to the students' and to the university's needs. The interviewees expressed the need for continuous in-service training and workshops, which suggest their readiness for professional development. Since teaching ESP courses involves linguistic and grammar elements, as well as group work and presentations, the methodology used for classroom activities related to that content does not differ from other language courses. The need for in-service training mostly concerns the methodology related to specialized terminology and content knowledge. This finding aligns with recommendations for training proposed by Anthony (2018).

The professionalism of ESP teachers is shaped by their readiness to adapt to new professional situations; by how conscious they are about the need for their own professional development; and by which coping strategy they select as a reaction to changes. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that coping with the challenges in the field of ESP are related to teacher's knowledge. Teachers with 20 years of teaching experience consider themselves professionals with a high level of self-efficacy. Changes in their work, such as in our case teaching ESP, might need an exercise of reconceptualisation (e.g. change in content, methods and assessment) which would be facilitated by the cooperation with colleagues in a similar situation. Nonetheless, teachers of ESP tend to collaborate more with colleagues they know well, rather than to seek new partners. Based on their stories, they often lack materials dealing with any given subject or content, yet they show minimal initiative to make contact with subject teachers of that particular field. This finding confirms partly Woodrow's (2017) explanation that ESP teachers and subject specialists come from different paradigms and it is hard for them to find a common language for cooperation. Our results reveal a certain passivism to make the first step towards collaboration. On the one hand, ESP teachers are ready to adapt content-based materials to the students' needs, while, on the other hand, they express worries about finding and choosing suitable materials. Furthermore, the cooperation between teachers of the same ESP content usually depends on their personal relationship, rather than on the practical need to collaborate. When they are asked for advice and to share their materials, they are willing to help a colleague, but, in most cases, they do not take the first step themselves. As Hutchinson and Waters highlighted in 1987, there is little cooperation between teachers of ESP and other colleagues, recent studies show that creating an atmosphere with a stronger sense of community and broadening its limits outside the teacher's office might promote collaboration as well as have a positive effect on teachers' job satisfaction (Meristo 2016).

Universities are big institutions and it may happen that teachers of different disciplines may not know each other personally. Building communities of learning and practice could help them establish a network of professional connections, as the importance of cooperation cannot be underestimated (Norton 2018, Wenger et al. 2002). In addition, creating an atmosphere with a stronger sense of community and broadening its limits outside the teacher's office might promote collaboration as well as have a positive effect on teachers' job satisfaction (Meristo 2016). Stability in teaching ESP courses in Estonian HEI is affected by administrative details. They are hardly ever based on one discipline (as, for example, Law or Psychology), they usually deal with a combination of related disciplines. This situation arises due to the small number of students from a given academic area allocated in each of the ESP groups, combined with the impact of the finiteness of budgetary and human resources that any institution faces. As a result, the amalgamation of academic areas can differ from one year to another. These circumstances, in turn, are a source of stress for ESP teachers. While adapting the course materials to the particular nuances of each group of students is a very common and recommended practice (Hyon 2018, Kithulgoda and Mendis 2020, Noguera-Díaz and Pérez-Paredes 2019, Tomlinson 1998, Woodrow 2017), the variance on the nuance that the yearly recombination of academic disciplines for ESP courses presents is substantially bigger, and, as such, it calls for the constant creation of new materials from scratch, as well as for a long adaptation process, usually involving a thorough retooling, of those materials than can be salvaged from previous courses.

The most direct consequence of this course of action is the decrease of available time that teachers can dedicate to the other responsibilities inherent to the teaching process, such as the personalised attention to students, or the demand of quality in bureaucratic procedures. Furthermore, if the teacher is working for a Higher Education Institution, this constant creation and retooling of materials leads the teacher to an even more lopsided use of their time, usually neglecting the academic research side of the job description, as also highlighted by Lehtonen (2018). This, in turn, might drive them, in the long term, to a slowdown in the pace of their professional advancement, reducing thus the teacher's job satisfaction.

Figure 1 suggests the factors that might help to enhance ESP teacher's perception of job satisfaction. HEI representatives, responsible for organising and managing ESP courses should provide ESP teachers with constant support by offering opportunities for professional development through training and promoting collaborative learning networks. In addition, as this research confirmed, teachers do not take the initiative for establishing collaborative relationships with colleagues. Thus, HEI representatives could introduce and enhance conditions for collaboration between practitioners and subject experts. Last, but not the least, is to offer stable working conditions.



Fig. 1 Factors leading to ESP teacher's job satisfaction

7. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate how ESP teachers with a General English teaching background perceive their work in the field of ESP, to detect the challenges posed by teaching ESP in order to support university ESP teachers working conditions. Three challenges emerged: Professionalism, Cooperation, and Stability. These keywords reflect the actual situation experienced by ESP teachers at Estonian universities. Although the focus of this study is set within the Estonian context, which is relatively recently developed and still finding its optimal configuration, we can see that the results of the present study are in line with what seems to be the universal implications of the uneven development of the ESP field as a whole, more focused on the theoretical side than in resolving the practical obstacles experienced by teachers. Estonian ESP teachers seem to perceive the same problems as their colleagues in other places in the world, such as the lack of ready-made materials, a faulty cooperative environment with subject specialists and other colleagues, the large size of the ESP groups, and constant insecurity about their own knowledge of the specialized target content.

Our research puts forth the idea that, in Estonia, due to the small size of the ESP groups and budgetary concerns, the amalgamation of students from different, seemingly related fields in the same ESP group has indeed become a hurdle to overcome when designing curricula and lesson plans. This is especially true for those teachers who are transitioning to ESP from General English, who have to design their new, own materials from scratch, while experienced ESP teachers can, and often do, resort to adapting their past materials.

However, in order to truly be able to provide a full picture of the Estonian ESP landscape, more research is needed. This study only covers public, state-funded higher education institutes in Estonia, leaving aside the private ones. Given that these privately funded centres have to comply with a different set of legal regulations, there might be a chance for their ESP teaching methodologies to be affected, which, in turn, would have an impact on the teacher's perception of their job. Also, our present study has not taken into account the perceptions of the main protagonist of ESP teaching: the student. It would be necessary to see if the opinions of teachers and students as regards the difficulties and limitations of ESP teaching in Estonia line up in some way, and if so, how and why.

REFERENCES

- Anthony, Laurence. 2018. *Introducing English for specific purposes*. Routledge.
- Arnó-Macià, Elisabet, Marta Aguilar-Pérez, and Dietmar Tatzl. 2020. "Engineering students' perceptions of the role of ESP courses in internationalized universities." *English for Specific Purposes* 58: 58-74.
- Bahrani, Vahid, Mehrdad Hosseini, and Mahmood Reza Atai. 2019. "Exploring research-informed practice in English for academic purposes: A narrative study." *English for Specific Purposes* 54 (2019): 152-165.
- Bakić-Mirić, Nataša, and Davronzhon Erkinovich Gaipov. 2015. "The Importance of Teaching Intercultural Communicative Competence in English for Specific Purposes Course in European Medical Schools." *Iperstoria* 5: 44-50.
- Basturkmen, Helen. 2014. *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes*. Routledge.

- Belcher, Diane D. 2013. "The Future of ESP Research: Resources for Access and Choice." In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 535-551. Chichester: Wiley Blackwell.
- Čepon, Slavica. 2016. "Teachers' and Students' Perspectives on the Reasons for Speaking Anxiety in English for Specific Purposes." *ESP Today*, 4 (2): 84-201.
- Charles, Maggie. 2018. "Using Do-It-Yourself Corpora in EAP: A Tailor-Made Resource for Teachers and Students." *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes* 6 (2): 217-224.
- Cohen, Louis, Lawrence Manion, and Keith Morrison. 2007. *Research Methods in Education* (6th edition) London: Routledge.
- Coxhead, Averil. 2018. *Vocabulary and English for specific purposes research: Quantitative and qualitative perspectives*. Routledge.
- Ding, Alex, and Gemma Campion. 2016. "EAP teacher development." In *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes*, pp. 571-583. Routledge.
- Franceschi, Valeria. 2015. "Nursing Students and the ELF-Aware Syllabus: Exposure to Non-ENL Accents and Repairs Strategies in Coursebooks for Healthcare Professionals." *Iperstoria* 5: 51-61.
- Hall, David R. 2012. "Teacher education for language for specific purposes." *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*.
- Hutchinson, Tom, and Alan Waters. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centred Approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hyon, Sunny. 2017. *Introducing genre and English for specific purposes*. Routledge.
- Kardaleska, Ljubica, and Gabriela Nedelkoska. 2017. "Teachers as Material Designers – Insights from Designing an ESP Course Book (English for Political Science and Diplomacy)." *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes* 5 (3): 545-552.
- Kennedy, Brianna L., and Robert Thornberg. 2018. "Deduction, Induction, and Abduction." In *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Collection*, edited by Uwe Flick, 49-62. London: Sage Publications.
- Kim, Jeongyeon, EunGyong Kim, and Soo-Ok Kweon. 2018. "Challenges in implementing English-medium instruction: Perspectives of Humanities and Social Sciences professors teaching engineering students." *English for Specific Purposes* 51: 111-123.
- Kithulgod, Erandi, and Dushyanthi Mendis. 2020. "From analysis to pedagogy: Developing ESP materials for the Welcome Address in Sri Lanka." *English for Specific Purposes* 60: 140-158.
- Koltai, Andrea. 2012. "Exploring Student Motivation: Teaching Students Specializing in EU English." *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy* 6: 46-63.
- Laanemaa, Elen. 2015. "Application of CLIL at the Estonian Academy of Security Sciences." In *Vistas of English for Specific Purposes. Chapter Five*, edited by Nadezda Stojković, 49-59. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publisher.
- Lazarus, Richard S. 1993. "Coping Theory and Research: Past, Present, and Future." *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 55: 234-247.
- Lehtonen, Tuula. 2018. "Practitioner research as a way of understanding my work: Making sense of graduates' language use." In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education*, edited by Yasemin Kirkgöz and Kenan Dikilitaş, 129-140. Springer, Cham.

- Lenard, DraganaBosic, and Ivan Lenard. 2018. "Examining Pedagogical Content Knowledge of ESP teachers." *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes* 6 (3): 353-364. <https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP1803353B>
- Leonardi, Vanessa. 2015. "Bridging the Gap Between ESP and CLIL in the University Context." *Iperstoria* 5: 18-26.
- Li, Yongyan, and John Flowerdew. 2020. "Teaching English for Research Publication Purposes (ERPP): A review of language teachers' pedagogical initiatives." *English for Specific Purposes* 59: 29-41.
- Meristo, Merilyn. 2020. "Emotional turmoil or peaceful agreements? A Collective Case Study: Coping with Reforms in Higher Education Institution." Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Meristo, Merilyn. 2016. *Personal and Contextual Factors Shaping Novice Teachers' early Professional career*. Tallinn University. Dissertations on Social Sciences. Tallinn: Tallinn University Press.
- Noguera-Díaz, Yolanda, and Pascual Pérez-Paredes. 2019. "Register analysis and ESP pedagogy: Noun-phrase modification in a corpus of English for military navy submariners." *English for Specific Purposes* 53: 118-130.
- Norton, Julie. 2018. "Lesson Study in Higher Education: A Collaborative Vehicle for Professional Learning and Practice Development of Teachers of English for Specific Purposes." In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education*, edited by YaseminKirkgöz and Kenan Dikilitaş, 95-109. Springer, Cham, 2018.
- Paltridge, Brian. 2013. "Chapter 18. Genre and English for Specific Purposes." In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 364–384. Chichester: Wiley Blackwell.
- Rackevičienė, Sigita, VioletaJanulevičienė, and LiudmilaMockienė. 2019." English For Specific Purposes and the Second Foreign Language: Reaching Beyond Language Training in BA Philology Study Programme." *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes* 7 (2): 135-146. <https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP1902135R>
- Sears, Jr. Samuel F., Guido G. Jr. Urizar, and Garret D. Evans. 2000. "Examining a Stress Coping-Model of Burnout and Depression in Extension Agents." *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5 (1): 56-62.
- Stewart, Tim. 2018. "Expanding possibilities for ESP practitioners through interdisciplinary team teaching." In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education*, edited by YaseminKirkgöz and Kenan Dikilitaş, 141-156. Springer, Cham.
- Stojković, Nadezda, NatašaBakić-Mirić, Aleksandra Nikčević-Batričević, and Nebojša Jotović. 2015. "The Hidden Content in the Syllabus of English for Specific Purposes: Issues of Culture and Globalization." In *Vistas of English for Specific Purposes.Chapter Twenty-One*, edited by NadezdaStojković, 255-262. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publisher.
- Tomlinson, Brian. 1998. *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, Brian. 2020a. "Developing Principled Frameworks for Materials Development." In *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*, edited by Brian Tomlinson, 95-118. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

- Tomlinson, Brian. 2020b. Humanizing the Coursebook. In *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*, edited by Brian Tomlinson, 139-156. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Ufier, Alexander. 2015. *The Impact of English Language Skills on National Income: A Cross-National Comparison*. Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.
- Wenger, Etienne, Richard McDermott, and Williams C. Snyder. 2002. *A guide to managing knowledge: Cultivating communities of practice*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Woodrow, Lindy. *Introducing course design in English for specific purposes*. Routledge, 2017.

EXPLORING ESP TEXTBOOKS FOR COMMERCE AND MEDICINE: AN ANALYSIS OF SKILLS AND TYPES OF INSTRUCTION

José Andrés Carrasco-Flores¹, Gema Alcaraz-Mármol²

¹Official School of Languages of Murcia, Spain.

²Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha, Spain 2

E-mail: joseandres.carrasco@murciaeduca.es, gema.alcaraz@uclm.es

Abstract. *The present study explores the communicative potential of two ESP textbooks. It examines a sample of activities of English for Commerce and English for Medicine textbooks with an instrument of analysis consisting of three parts: (1) a section for the metadata of the activities, (2) a checklist which assesses the presence and distribution of language skills and systems, and (3) a scale devised by Criado (2016) which measures the weight of meaning-focused and form-focused instruction found in activities. To study these elements, a framework describing and illustrating each component was designed. Inter-rater reliability tests were carried out to ensure the validity of the results. The findings of the study suggest that these textbooks are mainly meaning-focused, although some differences as regards the extent to which each of these elements is promoted can be found. Moreover, several methodological issues are raised in order to improve future research concerning materials analysis.*

Key words: *ESP textbooks, materials analysis, language skills, language systems, type of instruction*

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Williams (2014), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has gained so much presence that it seems to be the most widely spread form of English Language Teaching (ELT) nowadays. Indeed, the current flow of people travelling worldwide for professional and academic purposes has situated ESP programmes as the key to successful communication. This reality is mirrored in the thriving market of commercially produced teaching materials which seek to meet the specific needs of each context. Considering the widespread adoption of these materials and the fact that they constitute the core of most teaching programmes and are the most visible representation of what occurs in the classroom (Almagro, 2002; Harwood, 2014; Tomlinson, 2012) it becomes paramount to assess the extent to which they are meeting the needs of the target situation. In fact, as Hyland and Wong (2019) aptly point out, this is essential in that there is a risk of not doing what is really necessary for learners to develop their communicative competence for the corresponding target situation, especially in the increasingly demanding and ever-changing scenarios.

Submitted September 7th, 2020, accepted for publication October 25th, 2020

Besides English for Academic Purposes, nowadays Business English and Medical English are the most representative branches of ESP (Anthony, 2018). On the one hand, most economic and business transactions among different countries are carried out in English even if it is not the mother tongue of any of the participants. As a result, the industry of Business English has developed exponentially, resulting in the publication of a myriad of textbooks aimed at meeting the needs of a growing audience. On the other hand, with the current flow of people freely travelling worldwide, health professionals are faced with the challenge of providing medical care in English. Accordingly, these professionals need to be trained to communicate effectively in English.

Despite the fact that ESP is characterised by the use of specialised vocabulary, it is now widely accepted that ESP is not about lists of vocabulary and language functions. On the contrary, it is an approach to language teaching where students' communicative needs are foregrounded (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). These needs are used as the unifying thread that provides students with the basic and specialised language that they will be using in their target situation in terms of grammar, vocabulary or functions. This approach is chiefly communicative, meaning that fluency is prioritised over accuracy and that language forms are studied in context.

Despite the numerous studies addressing ESP materials evaluation in terms of the various teaching aspects mentioned above, to our knowledge, there are not any particularly examining their communicative potential, i.e. the extent to which language skills and systems are promoted. Therefore, the purpose of this study is twofold. Firstly, it aims to analyse the extent to which meaning-focused and form-focused instruction are promoted in ESP textbooks for commerce and medicine by means of Criado's (2016) scale. Secondly, it purports to examine the distribution of language skills. To do so, an instrument of analysis designed ad hoc will be used.

2. ELT MATERIALS EVALUATION

Nowadays, the pervasiveness of textbooks as the main teaching material in ELT contexts is unquestionable. Consequently, in the last few years there has been an increase in the number of studies evaluating materials to verify whether these meet learners' needs. Materials evaluation, therefore, is considered any procedure that involves measuring the value of a material (Tomlinson, 2003) or the appropriateness of such a material for a particular purpose (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Ellis (1997) differentiates two types of materials evaluation: *predictive evaluation* and *retrospective evaluation*, which can be equated to *pre-use* and *post-use* evaluations, respectively. Predictive evaluation is carried out to assess the potential performance of materials and make a decision as to which materials should be used, whereas retrospective evaluation seeks to examine materials that have already been used in order to establish the extent to which they meet the specified needs (McDonough and Shaw 2003). A brief review of the literature on materials evaluation reveals that, to date, research has primarily focused on predictive evaluation (Sari, Ülğü & Ünal, 2014). However, considering that most teachers use already published materials, retrospective evaluation becomes an essential element of the learning-teaching process for it provides teachers with invaluable information regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the syllabus and activities contained in those materials.

Numerous attempts have been made in order to systematise materials evaluation. Nonetheless, the ever-changing needs of the teaching-learning situation have proved it impossible. In line with this, most of the research on materials evaluation is of a theoretical nature, debating conceptual or methodological issues of such an enterprise (Benesch, 2001; Brindley, 1989; Brown 2016; Gollin-Kies et al., 2015; Huhta et al., 2013; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, to name a few). However, if we have a look at the studies that have actually conducted in-depth analyses of materials (of one or more aspects), the number of publications is more limited. Among these studies, we can observe that in the last decade a number of areas have especially attracted the attention of researchers worldwide, namely vocabulary, type of instruction, critical thinking, affective factors, and EFL.

In the field of vocabulary, frequency and functionality have been explored (Alcaraz-Mármol 2009, 2011, 2015; Destiani, Andayani & Rohmadi 2018; Sakata 2019). Other aspects such as dispersion and variation have been considered a focus of study (Matsuoka & Hirsh 2012; Alcaraz-Mármol 2015; Nordlund 2016). As regards type of instruction, particularly relevant are the works by Criado, Sánchez and Pascual (2010) and Criado (2016), although these studies are predominantly concerned with methodological issues in that they seek the validation of a scale that can objectively measure the loads of explicit and implicit instruction of textbook activities.

As far as critical thinking is concerned, Talebinezhad and Matou (2012) examine how frequently and to what extent critical thinking is promoted in EFL reading comprehension textbooks at university level. Following the philosophy-based language teaching approach, Baleghizadeh and Javidanmehr (2017) analyse ELT textbooks to examine how philosophical dialogue and group achievement and cooperation is fostered. Khodadady and Karami (2017) explored the relationships between inference and deduction abilities as two aspects of critical thinking.

Regarding affective factors, Işık (2018) conducts a questionnaire-based study to analyse aspects such as topics, layouts, instructions, repertoire of activities, and visuals. Within the EFL framework, Syrbe and Rose (2016) look into how English as a global language is presented in ELT textbooks. They examine how these materials present the owners of English, target interlocutors, models and norms of English in the audios, the issue of culture, and concepts related to the global use of English. Finally, of a more comprehensive nature is the study by Dülger (2016), who uses Mukundan and Nimehchisalem's (2012) checklist to examine syllabus and curriculum, methodology, suitability to learners, layout and visuals, outlay of supplementary materials, content, and some features of reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation activities.

3. ESP MATERIALS EVALUATION

Almagro (2001) explains that the main differences between ESP and General English (henceforth GE) may be established in terms of specificity, the student's profile, the context, time, the teacher's profile, and the skill focus. Firstly, ESP focuses on learner need, whereas the needs in GE are established according to more general parameters enabling the students to communicate in society. Secondly, ESP is usually targeted at adult learners with some basic knowledge of the language, whereas GE is targeted at any type of student, regardless of their age or previous knowledge of the language. Thirdly, in ESP courses there is a direct connection between the academic context and the target

context, whereas GE is characterised by the lack thereof. Moreover, ESP courses tend to be taught in a more limited time span. Additionally, ESP teachers need to be acquainted with the target situation in order to know the communicative needs and develop or adapt materials accordingly). Finally, whereas ESP courses may favour some skills over others considering the target needs, GE seeks to develop all skills homogeneously. Yet, it is important to mention that the line dividing GE and ESP is not clear-cut, for GE is part of ESP in that there are inherent linguistic relationships and ESP learners may need general skills and competences (Wales, 1993). For this reason, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest that the whole ELT spectrum be presented on a continuum that runs from clearly definable GE courses to very specific ESP courses.

As far as teaching materials are concerned, numerous authors agree that nowadays ESP is the most widely spread form of ELT. Accordingly, there is a myriad of specific materials in most of the areas of expertise. However, there still appears to be insufficient research when it comes to ESP materials evaluation, especially when compared to its GE counterpart.

Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) study English for Social Sciences in Iran. They use questionnaires to evaluate course objectives, language skills, the variety of tasks and activities, and the layout of materials in general. Al Fraidan (2012) examines Business English materials in terms of the skills promoted and the authenticity and appropriateness of the activities. Danaye and Haghighi (2014) look into English for Computer Engineering in Iran. They use qualitative and quantitative interview-based methods to evaluate a textbook in terms of aims and approaches, design and organisation, skills and strategies, topics, illustrations, language content and exercises. Shooshtari, Bordbar and Banari (2017) use qualitative methods to study how pragmatic competence (specifically politeness) is developed in two English for Academic Purposes textbooks in the Iranian context. Karimnia and Jafari (2017) examine an English for Visual Arts textbook in Iran. They use qualitative methods to evaluate the list of contents and the skills promoted.

More currently, Ou (2019) conducts a corpus-assisted evaluation of three ESP textbooks in China to obtain insights into the development of vocabulary, resorting to concordances, wordlists and keyword lists. Purwanti (2019) evaluates a textbook for vocational training for the hotel industry in Indonesia. Using the qualitative checklist-based method, this study explores language form and function, and patterns of communicative interactions. Elizondo, Pilgrim and Sánchez (2019) examine the impact of task-based language teaching (TBLT) on the promotion of vocabulary and grammar in ESP textbooks in Costa Rica. Finally, Carrasco-Flores (2019) evaluates the only commercially available material of a new and flourishing branch of ESP (namely English for Translation and Interpreting) in terms of skills, competences and type of instruction.

Much of the research above has been approached from a qualitative perspective following impressionistic methods. Moreover, these studies have predominantly focused on specific dimensions of communicative competence, but none seem to have examined the communicative potential of these materials, or the presence and distribution of language skills and systems. Accordingly, there appears to be a void in terms of in-depth empirical investigations addressing ESP materials evaluation (see Carrasco-Flores 2019).

Finally, although ESP has permeated most education levels, research on NA seems to be somewhat scarce. Considering the wide range of techniques that can be used for gathering information for NA, and how time-consuming this enterprise is, it comes as no surprise that numerous textbooks may have been developed solely resorting to some questionnaires and interviews with some of the stakeholders involved in the ESP context.

This scarcity of studies is evidently mirrored in the areas selected for this study. In the field of health professionals, Mitra (2014) mentions that the aspects of language that students are mostly concerned about are speaking and vocabulary, closely followed by reading. In terms of language functions, students report on the need for learning to give instructions, request information from patients, and offer help and treatments. In the realm of Business English, Benabdallah (2014) concludes that students are particularly interested in learning specific vocabulary and developing language skills in this order of importance: speaking, listening, writing and reading.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Materials

Following the results in Anthony (2018), one textbook of each of the business and health disciplines have been selected: *Commerce 1* by Hobbs and Starr (2010) and *Medicine 1* by McCarter (2013). They specifically target professionals in two particular areas of expertise who study English as a foreign language. These two textbooks belong to a specific editorial line of Oxford University Press called Oxford English for Careers. It is a special section within a wide range of materials and resources offered by Oxford for English teaching. This section comprehends several ESP textbooks for different professions, among which we can find the ones selected here but also others such as engineering, finance or tourism. This kind of teaching material is used in the degrees of several Spanish universities in order to offer their students a more specific and accurate training in English.

Commerce 1 and *Medicine 1* pursue the achievement of B1 level according to the CEFR (2018). The former is structured in 15 teaching units and the latter contains 12. Nonetheless, and despite the different number of units, both have the same structure. The units in the two textbooks contain three types of content. The first one is related to career skills and knowledge. This is observed, for instance, in terms of business know-how and customers in the case of *Commerce 1*, and as regards patient care in *Medicine 1*. The second type of content that can be found in these textbooks focuses on language skills, i.e. listening, reading, speaking and writing. Finally, there is a third type of content which deals with what is called language knowledge, which comprehends functions, vocabulary and pronunciation.

In order to obtain a representative picture of the textbooks, circa one third of each textbook is analysed. For *Commerce 1* (henceforth textbook A), units 1, 6, 10, 12 and 14 are selected, whereas in the case of *Medicine 1* (henceforth textbook B), the units to be analysed are 1, 5 and 9. The units in commerce contained fewer activities than medicine, so more units were necessary to find the balance between the two books.

4.2. Instruments and procedure

McGrath (2016) distinguishes three basic methods of textbook evaluation, namely the impressionistic method, the in-depth method and the checklist method. In our study, data compilation and analysis are checklist-based. Mukundan et al. (2011, p. 21) consider checklists a “more sophisticated evaluation of the textbook in reference to a set of generalizable evaluative criteria”. Likewise, McGrath (2016) advocates the use of this type of instrument, which has been proved “systematic, comprehensive, reliable and cost- and time-effective method for materials evaluation” (Carrasco-Flores 2019, p. 7).

The study is based on textbook content analysis, not consumption analysis, i.e. only what is contained in the textbook is considered. The potential use that the teacher may make of the material is not taken into account. The unit of analysis is the activity, specifically its instructions. Doyle (1986, p. 398) defines activity as the “basic unit of classroom organisation”. Criado (2008, p. 15), however, elaborates on the concept by specifying that it is “a unit of action in the classroom or teaching materials, involving goals, contents and strategies as an integrated construct”. We are aware of the fact that there is much controversy surrounding the concept of activity, for it can be examined in varying degrees. For instance, Tomlinson (2003) uses the term *staging* to refer to steps within a particular activity on its own, and Carrasco-Flores (2019) puts forward the concept of *multi-componentiality* whereby the different outcomes found within activities are considered as independent activities. On these bases, for the purposes of this study, we will adopt the concept of activity used by Criado (2008) whereby activities are signalled by a number, a letter, or otherwise in the layout of the textbook. Besides, we will only analyze activities where an outcome is required. For instance, let us consider a listening section divided into two activities, the second of which simply asks students to listen to the recording again to check their answers. This type of activities will not be quantified as real activities in that they do not entail a different outcome or other means to achieve such an outcome. On the contrary, they simply involve the repetition of the activity, which could have been conveniently included in the first activity.

In the present study, our instrument of analysis is composed of three parts. The first part corresponds to the metadata of each activity, which is assigned a code indicating the textbook, the page and the number of the activity. Then, its instructions are registered. The second part consists of a checklist assessing the language skills and systems put forward by the CEFR (2018). Finally, the third part of our instrument compiles the results of the analysis carried out with the Criado’s (2016) scale, which yields the results concerning FFI and MFI. Table A in the appendix section shows a framework describing and exemplifying how these language skills, language systems and types of instruction are treated in this study.

It is important to highlight that the analysis hinges on the product of the activities rather than the means. That is to say, activities are analysed on the basis of their results, not on the way through which this result has been achieved. For instance, in an activity where students are asked to write a cover letter, students might use some resources such as a dictionary. However, if this is not specified in the instruction of the activity, its use is not taken into consideration for our analysis, as it is a particular learning strategy which can vary from student to student.

Criado’s (2016) scale relies upon the constructs of declarative (DEC) and procedural (PRO) knowledge. In broad terms, whereas the former can be verbalized and implies awareness, the latter develops automatically in an unconscious way. An important part of research on second language acquisition has resorted to these two constructs in order to explain language learning in analogy to other skills. Consequently, a dearth of studies has focused their attention on how DEC and PRO may contribute to second language teaching (Carrasco-Flores 2019; Criado 2016; Criado, Sánchez & Cantos 2010; DeKeyser 2007; Dörnyei 2009; Ellis 2005; Schmidt 1995). They particularly investigate the interrelation between these two constructs and how they complement each other, DEC turning into PRO, and PRO improving through DEC. These two concepts are on the ground of some teaching approaches such as the one suggested by Criado (2016), who distinguishes between form-focused instruction (FFI) and meaning-focused instruction (MFI). While FFI favours DEC as

it deals with language forms, MFI favours meaning and it is therefore linked to PRO. Despite the fact that it has been widely used in GE materials analysis, to the best of our knowledge, it is the first time this scale is applied to the analysis of ESP materials.

Criado, Sánchez and Cantos (2010), and later Criado (2016) warns that activities cannot normally be ascribed to FFI or MFI, given the continuum that these two aspects constitute. Accordingly, they should not be measured in absolute terms. The scale is designed upon explicitness as opposed to implicitness in the learning-teaching process. Thus, Criado's scale suggests eight different items accounting for FFI to be measured in terms of presence or absence: use of metalanguage; language analysis; formal accuracy favoured; controlled input- or output-based use of the language; mechanical repetition; L1 use; individual work of the language; language use for a non-communicative purpose. Therefore, the absence of these items corresponds to MFI. By means of this scale, Criado aims to go beyond the dichotomy observed in previous studies, acknowledging the blurred line which separates DEC and PRO and the continuum-like character of FFI and MFI. Table 1 illustrates the data compilation process and their analysis:

Table 1 Sample analysis.

ID act	Instructions	L	R	SP	SI	WP	WI	OM	WM	G	V	P	FFI	MFI
23755	Listen to a doctor checking the chart with a colleague and complete the missing information in the chart	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,5	7,5

4.3. Data analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistic techniques were carried out. As for descriptive, the percentages of presence of each skill plus those of FFI and MFI were calculated. In order to know whether there were significant differences between the two textbooks, the inferential analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run. The inter-rater reliability test through Kappa coefficient was calculated as a way to assess agreement on the results of the activity analysis. Thus, evaluator A analysed the activities of one unit in textbook B (the one previously examined by evaluator B), whereas evaluator B analysed another set of activities of a unit in textbook A (the one previously examined by evaluator A). The analysis was carried out in the least time possible so that the time factor was not determinant for the results. The Kappa analysis revealed a moderate to high agreement between the two evaluators, with more than 0.70 in most cases and reaching over 0.90 or even 1, meaning complete agreement in some of the aspects analysed (see Table 2).

Table 2 Kappa coefficient for the inter-rater reliability test.

Textbook	L	R	SP	SI	WP	WI	OM	WM	G	V	P	Type of inst.
Commerce	1	0.86	0.62	0.90	1	1	1	1	0.86	0.36	1	0.30
Medicine	1	0.32	0.61	0.55	0.64	1	1	1	0.77	0.72	1	0.48

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Skills and type of instruction

Table 3 shows the percentages of each skill for both textbooks. As can be observed, speaking interaction holds the highest presence with 32.6% -i.e. 43 activities- in *Commerce 1* and 19% -i.e. 23 activities- in *Medicine 1*, where there is also 19% for reading. The weight of reading in *Commerce 1* is remarkable as well, with 23%, which amounts to 30 out of the 133 activities analysed. This is followed by listening (17%) and grammar (12.1%). Those with less presence in *Commerce 1* are speaking production (9.8%), writing production (6.8%), vocabulary (5.3%) and pronunciation (4.5%). Aspects such as writing interaction and oral and written mediation are very scarce or even absent in the case of the last two. As for the *Medicine 1* textbook, vocabulary constitutes 17%, and grammar and speaking production represent 16% of all the analysed activities. In this case, the number of pronunciation and mediation activities is also very low.

These results contrast with other studies on ESP, where the main interest seems to be found in oral skills (Benabdallah, 2014) and vocabulary (Mitra, 2014). As stated above, the number of reading activities is prominent in both textbooks, whereas it is one of the last aspects to be considered in the needs analyses carried out by Benabdallah (2014) and Mitra (2014). Furthermore, even though there is no specific mention of language for specific purposes in the CEFR, the last version of this document (2018) states the importance of mediation in the development of communicative competence. In fact, some studies such as Dendrinós (2006) and Chovancová (2018) highlight the special role of mediation in ESP, as one of the most important skills needed by professionals.

Table 3 Presence of skills in the textbooks (%).

Textbook	L	R	SP	SI	WP	WI	WM	OM	G	V	P
Commerce t=132	17	23	9.8	32.6	6.8	0.76	0	0	12.1	5.3	4.5
Medicine t=122	11	19	16	19	3.3	0	0	1.6	16	17	3.3

As regards the communicative value of the units analysed, both the *Commerce 1* and the *Medicine 1* textbook contain a higher number of activities where MFI is predominant (see Table 4). The predominance of meaning-focused instruction is found in 69.17% of commerce activities and in up to 81.14% of activities in the medicine textbook. We can also find activities where there is a balance between form and meaning instruction, but these cases are only around 10% in the commerce units, and hardly 5% in the medicine units. These results are in line with the recommendations of the CEFR (2018, p. 23) in terms of communicative competence, broadening “the perspective of language education

[...] co-constructing meaning”, for communicative language teaching primarily serves a communicative and meaning-focused goal (Lowie, 2012).

Table 4 Presence of type of instruction in the textbooks

Textbook	FFI		MFI		Balanced	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Commerce	27	20.30	92	69.17	14	10.52
Medicine	17	13.93	99	81.14	6	4.91

5.2. Comparison between the *Commerce 1* textbook and the *Medicine 1* textbook

In order to find out whether there are differences between the two textbooks, ANOVA analyses were run for the categories *skills* and *type of instruction*. Table 4 contains the results of the analyses of variance regarding skills in both textbooks. As stated above, some skills such as those of mediation and writing interaction are hardly representative. Therefore, they

Table 5 Results from the ANOVA of skills

Skill	Test	Sum of squares	df	Quadratic mean	F	Sig.
L	Inter-groups	0.21	1	0.21	1.73	0.18
	Intra-groups	31.41	253	0.12		
	Total	31.63	254			
R	Inter-groups	0.08	1	0.08	0.52	0.46
	Intra-groups	41.89	253	0.16		
	Total	41.98	254			
SP	Inter-groups	0.27	1	0.27	2.47	0.11
	Intra-groups	28.45	253	0.11		
	Total	28.72	254			
SI	Inter-groups	1.15	1	1.15	6.12	0.01
	Intra-groups	47.76	253	0.18		
	Total	48.91	254			
WP	Inter-groups	0.07	1	0.07	1.59	0.20
	Intra-groups	12.25	253	0.04		
	Total	12.33	254			
G	Inter-groups	0.07	1	0.07	0.67	0.41
	Intra-groups	30.11	253	0.11		
	Total	30.19	254			
V	Inter-groups	0.90	1	0.90	9.57	0.00
	Intra-groups	24.01	253	0.09		
	Total	24.92	254			
P	Inter-groups	0.00	1	0.00	0.25	0.61
	Intra-groups	9.59	253	0.03		
	Total	9.60	254			

were not objects of analysis. We can observe that the critical level associated to F is higher than .05 only in two cases, namely speaking interaction (.01) and vocabulary (.00). In other words, no significant differences were found between the two books in most of the skills analysed. This suggests that the null hypothesis that the means are equal cannot be rejected, with the exception of speaking interaction and vocabulary. A possible explanation for these significant differences in speaking interaction and vocabulary is the subject of knowledge of each textbook. In other words, in the field of *Commerce 1*, speaking interaction is one of the most important skills, as professionals in this area constantly require oral interaction for business. In the case of *Medicine 1*, a higher number of activities dealing with vocabulary is expected to be found, for this area relies on a wider range of specialised vocabulary.

As for type of instruction, the ANOVA in Table 5 indicates that both textbooks are similar, as the critical level associated with F (.65) is higher than .05. Therefore, no significant differences can be found in the type of instruction promoted by both textbooks, where there is a clear prevalence of meaning-focused instruction.

Table 6 Results from the ANOVA of type of instruction

Type of inst.	Test	Sum of squares	df	Quadratic mean	F	Sig.
FFI	Inter-groups	1.40	1	1.40	0.20	0.65
	Intra-groups	1775.02	253	7.01		
	Total	1776.43	254			
MFI	Inter-groups	1.40	1	1.40	0.20	0.65
	Intra-groups	1775.02	253	7.01		
	Total	1776.43	254			

We have to take into account that the textbooks belong to a low level of proficiency (A2-B1). This means that despite the predominance of meaning-focused instruction, the level of scaffolding is high, so numerous activities aim at controlled output-based use of language. As an example, the following activity in *Commerce 1* is classified as a speaking interaction activity since students are asked to discuss in pairs the ideas presented in a previous activity. However, it becomes a highly controlled output activity as it shows some example sentences on which the learners will presumably base the discussion, given their low level of proficiency.

- (1) *Work in pairs. Think about your own culture. Discuss the ideas in exercise 1. (Commerce textbook)*

Examples:

The host normally starts a business discussion in my country, too.

Unlike Germany, you don't have to use titles.

We have a rule, but it's different from China.

It is also important to remark that some of the activities have been classified attending to more than one skill, as two or more skills appeared integrated. The following two activities serve as examples of this:

- (2) *Choose a country or region where you work or would like to work. Go online and find out how to behave in a business environment. Write a short report giving advice to people working there. (Commerce textbook)*
- (3) *Work in groups. Discuss the question of compliance among patients in your country by answering questions 1-7 in 1, by comparing the statistics at the top of page 41 with those for your own country, if they are available. (Medicine textbook)*

As can be observed, in the first one, reading and writing production are required as students are asked to read some information and write a short report based on it. In the second one, reading and speaking interaction are developed as students read a text and then have to discuss in pairs.

Regarding Criado's (2016) scale, although its comprehensiveness and utility must be duly acknowledged, this study has identified a number of methodological issues worth addressing. Despite the fact that the scale appears to be validated, this study provides evidence that: 1) not all parameters ought to have the same weight, for some of them clearly represent a higher load of form-focused instruction; 2) some of them remain somewhat vague and thus may yield differing results; 3) some descriptors may exhibit characteristics of both FFI and MFI simultaneously; and 4) activities asking students to work in pairs and produce different outcomes are not contemplated. In line with this, the descriptors that have been found particularly problematic are 'involves L1 use', 'involves individual work on the language', and 'aims at controlled input/output-based use of the language'.

Thanks to the contributions of pedagogical translation in current accounts of communicative competence, the use of the L1 is no longer seen as a solely form-focused type of instruction. On the contrary, there are numerous studies that show that the L1 may be used to raise language awareness in an attempt to promote communicative competence. Even though the contrast of language forms may be at the core of the activity, its goal may be to communicate, and not necessarily to produce accurate language forms (Pintado, 2018). Accordingly, this descriptor, as is formulated, may account for both form-focused and meaning-focused instruction.

Individual work has long been ascribed to form-focused activities (Swain, 2001). The emergence of more communicative methods and approaches in which students began to take a more active role and communicate between themselves reinforced this idea, suggesting that real communication is achieved through interaction and that individual work should be reserved for activities focusing on accuracy. However, nowadays there are manifold writing and reading activities that are genuinely communicative in that they focus on the message being transmitted. It is true that the negotiation of meaning that usually derives from interactions is a stereotypical form of meaning-focused instruction. Yet, this does not mean that individual tasks cannot be completely communicative or that all the activities asking students to work in pairs are irrefutably communicative.

The descriptor that alludes to controlled input/output-based use of language appears somewhat controversial when it comes to receptive skills. Whereas it is clear when activities ask students to produce either controlled or free output, it is not so clear when activities address input. As a rule, in an L2 classroom, input is controlled in the sense that it usually serves as an excuse to work on language forms, provides appropriate examples of language use, or acts as a pre-text to produce a more or less controlled output. This may not be the case for summative evaluation where students may have to show their

communicative competence in random scenarios. Therefore, we assume that whenever students have to complete a reading or listening activity in an instruction, input will always be - to a greater or lesser extent - controlled. It is also worth mentioning that the degree of freedom in students' outcome will depend on the level they are at. In other words, at an A level, students' output will always be more controlled than those at a C2 level, which does not mean that A-level students produce a freer, more communicative outcome.

To illustrate these issues, let us consider the following activity:

(4) *Read the article and decide if the statements are true (T) or false (F).*

1. *You can stand close to an American when you speak to him or her.*
2. *It is normal to shake hands briefly when you meet for the first time.*
3. *Most Americans smile and look at each other when they greet.*
4. *It is offensive to wink in America.*
5. *It is not unusual for an American to ask a stranger about their job.*

Firstly, the results of the type of instruction are 2.5 FFI and 7.5 MFI. Criado's (2016) scale assigns 25% of the activity to FFI simply because the input is controlled and students work individually. Consequently, this activity could not be treated as completely communicative. Nonetheless, as can be observed, it is an example of a chiefly communicative and meaning-focused activity.

Secondly, as can be observed from Table 3, both textbooks present a higher load of MFI, the percentage of MFI in *Medicine 1* being higher. However, table 1 shows that the number of activities devoted to language systems (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) is higher in *Medicine 1*, which somehow contradicts the previous finding. This could be the result of the limitations of the scale we have addressed, which does not seem to accurately contemplate the actual weight of FFI and MFI.

Finally, as we advanced earlier, we believe that not all the descriptors should be assigned the same weight in the scale. For instance, 'involves the use of metalanguage', 'involves analyzing language', 'favours formal accuracy' and 'requires using the language for non-communicative purposes' appear to be clearer instances of explicit instruction. Nonetheless, perhaps the latter could be left out in that it encompasses the whole nature of the activity under scrutiny and is analysed through other descriptors. Thus, although we are aware of the methodological complexities that these changes would entail, these limitations suggest that the scale should be revisited.

6. CONCLUSION

The present study has explored the communicative potential of two ESP textbooks. More specifically, it has examined the loads of FFI and MFI and the extent to which each language skill and system is promoted. The results point to a similar pattern in both textbooks as regards skills and type of instruction, which is predominantly meaning-focused. The most widely promoted skills are speaking interaction and reading in both textbooks. The number of vocabulary activities is especially significant in *Medicine 1*. Yet, it is comparatively scarce in *Commerce 1*. Moreover, the presence of mediation is very limited or even non-existent.

The pedagogical implications of these results point to the need for complementary materials considering the needs of each target situation. Accordingly, both contexts should include a larger number of writing and mediation activities. After all, the latter has been proved an essential skill in the current internationalised world where intercultural communication is the norm.

In order to carry out our analysis, Criado's scale (2016) together with a checklist for skills and systems have been used. While the value of the scale is acknowledged, various limitations have been found as regards its operationalisation. Some of the items accounting for form-focused instruction are assumed to indicate a low communicative potential of activities. Yet, this assumption does not always correspond to reality. The use of the dichotomic values to indicate the presence or absence of the parameters in the scale contributes to the viability of the methodology. Nevertheless, those parameters should be revised from a qualitative perspective - both in nature and formulation - to achieve a more accurate analysis, for some of them do not appear to report a low communicative potential. Thus, it seems that the context of use cannot be ignored, and some other elements beyond the activities themselves are to be considered, namely the student's output and activity sequencing, i.e. what precedes and follows the activity under scrutiny. All in all, these issues render evident the complexity of systematising the analysis of teaching materials by means of this type of scales.

There are some limitations to this study that might be usefully addressed. While we can conclude that the results of the study are in line with the communicative principles of the ESP approach, these results cannot be extrapolated. Only a sample of two branches of ESP have been analysed, and other aspects might well be examined in order to provide other useful insights to this line of research. Yet, it is hoped that the present study serves as a catalyst for future and more in-depth studies concerning ESP materials content analysis, especially those looking into their communicative potential and adequacy to the standards established by the European Union through official documents such as the CEFR.

REFERENCES

- Al Fraidan, A. (2012). Evaluation of Two ESP Textbooks. *English Language Teaching*, 5(6), 43-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n6p43>.
- Alcaraz-Mármol, G. (2009). Vocabulary input in EFL textbooks: Frequency levels. *International Journal of English Studies*, 9(3), 61-72.
- Alcaraz-Mármol, G. (2011). Vocabulary input in classroom materials: Two EFL coursebooks used in Spanish schools. *Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada*, 24(1), 9-28.
- Alcaraz-Mármol, G. (2015). Dispersion and frequency: Is there any difference as regards their relation to L2 vocabulary gains? *International Journal of English Studies*, 15(2), 1-16.
- Almagro, A. (2001). Rasgos que diferencian la enseñanza de ESP de la enseñanza de inglés general: ¿una metodología diferente? In S. Posteguillo, I. Fortanet & J. C. Palmer (eds.), *Methodology and new technologies in languages for specific purposes*, 39-51. Castelló de la Plana, Spain: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I.
- Almagro, A. (2002). How useful are ESP textbooks? *Odisea*, 2, 39-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.25115/odisea.v0i2.31>
- Anthony, L. (2018). *Introducing English for Specific Purposes*. London: Routledge.
- Baleghizadeh, S. & Javidanmehr, Z. (2017). ELT textbook evaluation: The philosophy-based language teaching approach. In A. Maley & B. Tomlinson (eds.), *Authenticity*

- in materials development for language learning*, 119-139. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Baleghizadeh, S. & Hossein Rahimi, A. (2011). Evaluation of an ESP Textbook for the Students of Sociology. *Journal of Language*, 2(5), 1009-1014. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.5.1009-1014> .
- Benabdallah, A. (2014). Preliminary analysis of Business learners' needs. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(6), 519-524. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n6p519>.
- Benesch, S. (2001). *Critical English for academic purposes: Theory, politics and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Brindley, G. (1989). The role of needs analysis in adult ESL program design. In Johnson, R.K. (ed), *The second language curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 63-78
- Brown, J. D. (2016). *Introducing Needs Analysis and English for Specific Purposes*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Carrasco-Flores, J. A. (2019). Analysing English for Translation and Interpreting materials: skills, sub-competences and types of knowledge. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2019.1647920>.
- Chovancová, B. (2018). Mediation in Legal English Teaching. *Logic, Grammar and Rethoric*, 45(58), 21-35. <https://doi.org/10.1515/slgr-2016-0013> .
- Council of Europe (2018). *Common European Framework of Languages*. <https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-newdescriptors-2018/1680787989>
- Criado, R. (2008). *Patterns of activity sequencing in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language and their effects on learning: A quasi-experimental study*. University of Murcia. Available at: <https://redined.mecd.gob.es/xmlui/handle/11162/89141>
- Criado, R. (2016). Towards the validation of a scale for measuring the load of form focus and meaning focus of textbook activities in Foreign Language Teaching. *Revista Electrónica de Lingüística Aplicada (RAEL)*, 1(15), 129-149.
- Criado, R., Sánchez, A., & Cantos, P. (2010). An attempt to elaborate a construct to measure the degree of explicitness and implicitness in ELT materials. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10, 103-129.
- Danaye, M., & Haghighi, S. (2014). Evaluation of ESP textbooks: Evidence from ESP textbook of computer engineering major. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 3(2), 55-68. <https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsl.2013.469>.
- DeKeyser, R. (2007). Skill acquisition theory. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition. An introduction*, 97-113. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dendrinis, B. (2006). Mediation in communication, language teaching and testing. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 9-35.
- Destiani, M., Andayani, M., & Rohmadi, M. (2018). Vocabulary Load on Two Mainstream Indonesian Textbooks for Foreign Learners: A Comparative Study. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 5(2), 137-151.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom Organization and Management. In M. Wittrock (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, 392-431. New York: MacMillan.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. (1998). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes. A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dülger, O. (2016). Evaluation of EFL coursebooks taught in Turkey based on teachers' views. *Journal of Advances in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 1-11.

- Elizondo, J. F., Pilgrim, Y., & Sánchez, A. (2019). Assessing ESP vocabulary and grammar through Task-Based Language Teaching. *Revista de Lenguas Modernas*, 30, 73-95.
- Ellis, N. (2005). At the interface: Dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(2), 305-352. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310505014X>.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gollin-Kies, S., Hall, D., & Moore, S. (2015). *Language for Specific Purposes*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Harwood, N. (2014). Content, Consumption, and Production: Three Levels of Textbook Research. In N. Harwood (ed.), *English Language Teaching Textbooks: Content, Consumption, Production*, 1–44. London, UK: Palgrave.
- Hobbs, M., & Starr, J. (2010). *Commerce 1*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huhta, M., Vogt, K., Johnson, E., & Tulkki, H. (2013). *Needs analysis for language course design: A holistic approach to ESP*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes. A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K., & Wong, L. (2019). *Specialised English. New Directions in ESP and EAP research and practice*. London: Routledge.
- Işık, A. (2018). ELT materials evaluation: A system and criteria. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(7), 797-812. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0807.11>.
- Karimnia, A., & Jafari, F. M. (2017). Critical ESP textbook evaluation: The case of visual arts textbook. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, 11(1), 219-236. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/sm-2017-0020>.
- Khodadady, E., & Karami, M. (2017). An evaluation of textbooks designed for advanced English learners within a foreign context: A critical thinking perspective. *Porta Linguarum*, 28, 95-109.
- Lowie, W. (2012). The CEFR and the dynamics of second language learning: Trends and challenges. *CercleS*, 2(1), 17–34. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2012-0002>.
- Matsuoka, W. & Hirsh, D. (2012). Searching for the right words: creating word lists to inform EFL learning. Current perspectives in second language vocabulary research. In D. Hirsh (ed.), *Current Perspectives in Second Language Vocabulary Research*, 151–177. Bern: Peter Lang.
- McCarter, S. (2013). *Medicine 1*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McGrath, I. (2016). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh Textbooks in Applied Linguistics.
- McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and methods in ELT*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Mitra, M. (2014). The role of need analysis in teaching ESP for nursing. Paper presented at the 61st TEFLIN International Conference, Solo, Indonesia, 3-5 September.
- Mukundan, J., Hajimohammadi, R. & Nimehchisalem, V. (2011). Developing an English language textbook evaluation checklist. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 4(6), 21-27.
- Mukundan, J., & Nimehchisalem, V. (2012). Evaluative criteria of an English language textbook evaluation checklist. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 3(6), 1128-1134.
- Nordlund, M. (2016). EFL textbooks for young learners: a comparative analysis of vocabulary. *Education Inquiry*, 7(1), 47-68.

- Ou, C. (2019). A Corpus Tools-assisted Evaluation of Three ESP Textbooks in China. *English Language Teaching*, 12(6), 161-179. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n6p161>
- Pintado, L. (2018). Translation in language teaching, pedagogical translation, and code-switching: restructuring the boundaries. *The Language Learning Journal*. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2018.1534260>
- Purwanti, A. R. (2019). Evaluation on an ESP course book: Get along with English for the hotel industry. *Journal of English Educators Society*, 4(2), 107-116. <https://doi.org/10.21070/jees.v4i2.2432>
- Sakata, N. (2019). Profiling vocabulary for proficiency development: Effects of input and general frequencies on L2 learning. *System*, 87, 1-12.
- Sari, I., Ülgü, S. & Ünal, S. (2014). Materials evaluation and development: syllabus, setting and learner needs. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 2(2), 60-65.
- Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In Robert Schmidt (ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*, 1- 64. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.
- Shooshtari, Z., Bordbar, A., & Banari, R. (2017). Pragmatic knowledge and its reflection in ESP textbooks: The case of unauthentic textbooks. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(8), 701-707. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0708.14> .
- Swain, M. (2001). Integrating language and content teaching through collaborative tasks. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 58, 44–63.
- Syrbe, M. & Rose, H. (2016). An evaluation of the global orientation of English textbooks in Germany. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(2), 152-163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2015.1120736>
- Talebinezhad, M., & Matou, Z. (2012). EFL reading comprehension textbooks at university level: A critical thinking perspective. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(8), 1746-1754. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.8.1746-1754>
- Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing materials for language teaching*. London: Continuum.
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials Development for Language Teaching and Learning. *Language Teaching*, 45: 143–179. doi:10.1017/S0261444811000528
- Wales, M. (1993). Issues in the relationship of general and specific language in workplace ESL: Some Australian perspectives. Paper presented at the *Annual meeting of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization, Regional Language Center Seminar*, Singapore, 1-3 October.
- Williams, C. (2014). The future of ESP studies: Building on success, exploring new paths, avoiding pitfalls. *Intersections - L'anglais de Spécialité, Creuset Multidomaine*, 66, 137-150. <https://doi.org/10.4000/asp.4616>

APPENDIX

Table A Description and illustration of language skills and systems for materials analysis

Category	Component	Description	Sample activity
Language skills	Reading	Students read a text to understand its message.	<i>All of the statements below are true. Find information in the text to support each statement.</i>
	Listening	Students listen to a piece of information to understand its message.	<i>Listen to five people stating where they are having a problem. Which part of the body are they referring to?</i>
	Writing (production)	Students compose a stretch of language with a communicative purpose.	<i>Complete two clinical incident reporting forms from the notes below. In each case it was a 'near miss' incident.</i>
	Writing (interaction)	Students compose a stretch of language in response to another written text.	<i>A friend is looking for a job in your field. Complete the following email. explain to him/her about you job (you can choose one), the company you work for, and the essential qualities needed for the job.</i>
	Speaking (production)	Students transmit a message orally.	<i>How important are accurate patient records? Give reasons.</i>
	Speaking (interaction)	Students interact with a partner.	<i>Work in pairs. Discuss these questions.</i>
	Oral mediation	Students facilitate access to knowledge in an oral form.	<i>In groups, discuss what the body language in I would mean in your own culture.</i>
	Written mediation	Students facilitate access to knowledge in a written form.	<i>Same as oral mediation but the output is provided in the written form.</i>
Language systems	Grammar	Students focus explicitly on grammatical aspects.	<i>Work in pairs. Complete the sentences below with the correct form of the verb. If more than one tense is possible, explain the difference.</i>
	Vocabulary	Students focus explicitly on vocabulary.	<i>Complete each sentence below with an adjective from 1.</i>
	Pronunciation	Students focus explicitly on pronunciation aspects.	<i>Cover the stress patterns in 1. Take turns saying a word to your partner, who will then identify a stress pattern 1-4.</i>

A STUDY OF ARAB UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS STUDENTS RESPONSE TO TEXT ADAPTATION

Larysa Nikolayeva

Zayed University, UAE

E-mail: larysa.nikolayeva@gmail.com

Abstract. *Current research explores the response of Arab undergraduate Business students to text adaptation. The data was collected in Majan University College, Oman, during the academic year 2018 - 2019. Incorporated at the time of developing learning aids, students' response can serve as one of the tools for enhancing students' language skills required for their academic success. The analysis is based on the response of two mixed-gender groups of students (23 and 31 students respectively) obtained through a micro test and a text difficulty survey addressing their comprehension skills of authentic versus adapted texts. The effect of the text and sentence length, grammatical complexity, and academic vocabulary on students' comprehension were considered in the study. The research demonstrates the need for amending the text for Arab students, identifies the areas of concern and helps material designers working in the Arab world to choose the most linguistically and culturally appropriate approaches to text manipulation.*

Key words: *text adaptation, reader response, academic reading, language skills.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Equipping students with reading and comprehension skills enables their interaction with the world of knowledge required for further development and success. Reading plays one of the most important parts in the study of the English language. The aim of the tutor is to ensure that his/her students do not just mechanically process the text while reading but that they understand it, learn from it and use this knowledge to enrich their life experience. Reading is an infinite source of information that is available to the audience at any point of time. Our role as educators is to motivate and encourage our students to use it supporting the development of their reading skills. One of the ways to do so is to design teaching materials that would enhance students' willingness to read, improve their language competence and so impact their academic achievements positively.

2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Current research aims to compare three types of response, objective, behavioral and subjective, to authentic and adapted text difficulty. It is meant to explore (1) the effect of reading materials authenticity on students' comprehension & performance, and (2) identify

Submitted September 15th, 2020, accepted for publication October 27th, 2020

the relationship between behavioral and subjective types of response to text difficulty and (3) identify the most problematic aspect of the text.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the impact of objective response on behavioral response to text difficulty?
2. What is the relation (if any) between behavioral and subjective types of response to text difficulty?
3. What is the role of tutor opinion in text manipulation?
4. What is the most problematic aspect of text comprehension?

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

International teachers of reading usually face a dilemma of choice between authentic and adapted reading materials. The followers of authentic reading materials often insist on the advantage of cultural component presence in the text (Roberts 2014; Goodman & Freeman 2013; Case 2012; Kuimova & Kobzeva 2011), natural grammar and language use and the need to provide students with a text exceeding their reader ability. On the other hand, components belonging to a different culture might have a negative impact on students' comprehension (Murphy 2013;). Text appropriateness is a matter of concern when it comes to substantial background difference of eastern and western cultures and it is especially relevant in the context of the Arab world. Natural grammar structures used for conveying content related ideas is another argument supporting text authenticity, whereas simplified grammar of adapted texts can sometimes appear more difficult to the reader than its original version (Long & Ross, 1993; Roberts 2014) instead of making it more readable (Crossley & McNamara 2016). At the same time, it is claimed that students do not comprehend a text produced by a native speaker in the same way as native speakers do, so consequently, a text should not exceed students' capabilities to a great extent (Krashen 1988). Others, on the contrary, say that students are able to understand. Ability of the reader is also a matter to consider before choosing a particular type of the text. It is directly related to students' motivation as well. A text that is beyond student's comprehension ability would be a wrong choice as it can discourage the reader to complete the task (Case 2012).

There are numerous ongoing discussions of benefits and disadvantages of both with no particular outcome (Green & Hawkey 2011; Crossley & McNamara 2016). The decision is always to be taken by a particular tutor based on a particular course and of course student's language competence.

Readability is defined as "The sum total (including all the interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the success a group of readers have with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at an optimal speed, and find it interesting" (Dale and Chall 1949, p. 12). This section discusses three different approaches to measuring the level of comprehension of a text using a variety of tools: readability formulas: (1) Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease formula and Lextutor, (2) intuitive adaptation and (3) reader response).

Readability formulas are utilised to assess reading complexity to identify whether selected text is comprehensible for a specific group of readers. Nowadays there are around

200 readability formulas (DuBay 2004) that differ in their quality, measurement features, and success (Torki 2013).

Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease formula is one of the most popular measurement used by a variety of researchers and that is also one of Microsoft Words tools. It calculates readability of a text according to score from 0 to 100, where 0 means that the text is very difficult to read and 100 stands for its very high readability. In addition, the formula identifies the grade of the assessed reading which indicates the grade-school level the text is accessible for.

Table 1 Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease score

Score	School grade	Readability
90 - 100	5th	Very Easy
80 - 90	6th	Easy
70 - 80	7th	Fairly easy
60 - 70	8th – 9th	Standard
50 - 60	10th – 12th	Fairly Difficult
30 - 50	College	Difficult
0 - 30	College graduate	Very Difficult

The tool is limited though to a number of features such as text and sentence length, number of sentences and words comprising them, and passive structures. It does not assess the vocabulary of the text which is an essential part of any reading impacting comprehension.

Lextutor was used to fill in the gap in reading ease assessment of the text intended for eliciting reader response. It is an online tool that evaluates lexical complexity of the text. Vocabulary of selected reading is divided into four groups according to their frequency in the language: '(1) the most frequent 1000 words of English, (2) the second most frequent thousand words of English, i.e. 1001 to 2000, (3) the academic words of English (the AWL, 550 words that are frequent in academic texts across subjects), and (4) the remainder which are not found on the other lists' (<https://www.lexutor.ca/vp/research.html>, para 1).

Research on text difficulty measures vary in terms of classifications and taxonomies. However, there are similar features that are identified by majority of researchers. Tamor (1981) mentions three measures that are vocabulary, syntax and content. There are some considerations here as not all the types of response (objective, behavioural and subjective) can measure each of the mentioned featured equally fairly. For example, if vocabulary and syntax are possible to assess through any of the three types of response, content can definitely not be evaluated objectively (i.e. automatically with a help of any available tools online). Difficulty or appropriateness of content is to be assessed by the tutor or reading material designer. Hence, here intuitive approach is to be considered. Teaching international students involves many different aspects that we need to pay attention to at the time of text selection and amendment. For instance, Islamic culture is particularly sensitive to some content, which might be appropriate in the West.

Response wise the same author (Tamor, 1981) identifies objective, behavioural and subjective difficulty stating that objective text difficulty remains the same whereas behavioural and subjective difficulties will always vary. Murphy (2013) combines all the above-mentioned points establishing a taxonomy that includes three considerations of

text difficulty assessment. She groups the measurements around the reader and the task, surface and deeper text complexity shifting the focus of hierarchy from objective to subjective difficulty. So, author insists on ‘**readability**’ rather than ‘readability’ in assessing complexity of the text. Moreover, Murphy introduces another, deeper insight into the text difficulty that requires attention to content (ideas and concepts) as well as Tamor does and goes even further suggesting representational modes as one of the measurements. In comparison, Hervey (2013) provides a classification of three complexity features (based on The Common Core State Standards (CCSS)) to be addressed: qualitative (addressing a mixture of aspects such as layout, language, text structure, etc.), quantitative (addressing vocabulary) and reader-based. Among the three mentioned researchers Sh. Hervey (2013) is the only one who pays attention to the value of tutor’s knowledge of his/her students in evaluating text difficulty.

As there is a variety of tools available to the tutor to evaluate text complexity and help amend difficult reading to match multiple requirements of the course and the reader, a logical question to ask would be “Why do we need to seek students’ response to provided materials? Do not we know better being equipped with plentiful tools, approaches, strategies and professional experiences of doing so?” The utmost answer to consider would be a list of interrelated advantages provided by reader-based approach. Identifying students’ needs through both behavioural and subjective response elicitation would give a tutor the key to the task of improving their (students’) reading skills (Berardo 2006; Richards 2018). Considering and comparing the results of performance-based response to the subjective feedback on a variety of text aspects enable the tutor to address identified gaps and help students become confident readers. The result of assessing comprehension as part of the behavioural response equips the tutor with understanding of the students’ proficiency as well as lacking knowledge that might be related to a particular text aspect and so, enables him/her to choose a specific strategy of text adaptation that would improve comprehension (Spiegel, 1998; Roberts, 2014; Richards, 2018). Another benefit of reader response consideration is identifying gaps in the knowledge of vocabulary. Obtaining this data via both behavioural and subjective response enables the tutor to address difficulties experienced by the students as well as improve their current vocabulary retention (Hulstijn 1992; Yoshii 2002; Carter & McCarthy 2014). Moreover, by providing a subjective response to a variety of text related difficulties students apply critical thinking evaluating their own strength and weaknesses (Spiegel 1998; Demeni 2012). Hence, tutors should listen to students’ voices attentively to fulfil the task of an educator in a particular environment and to reach the required learning outcomes.

These approaches logically add to one another providing the tutor with valuable points to consider before bringing a text to the classroom. Although priorities of the material designers differ based on the circumstances and personal preferences, they all serve the main purpose of language teaching which is equipping students with necessary skills keeping them motivated and engaged.

5. METHODOLOGY

5.1. Reading material selection & manipulation

The source of the reading material used for the investigation was a one paragraph text ‘Investment strategies’ extracted from the 2nd edition of *Academic Writing for International Students of Business* by Stephen Bailey published in 2015. The choice of the text was

determined by the sample specialization which is Business and by the needs of a particular course, Academic Reading and Writing, in the framework of which the study was conducted.

Two versions of the text were used for the current study: authentic and adapted.

The text was manipulated based on two grounds: (1) reading ease statistics (Flesch-Kincaid text evaluation and Lextutor vocabulary assessment) that provide objective response on the difficulty of particular elements of the text and (2) opinion of the tutor/researcher who amends the text bearing his/her students' attributes in mind (e.g. their linguistic competence, educational, cultural and religious background).

Text amendments can be classified according to the Green & Hawkey (2011) taxonomy that includes seven types of text adaptation: deletion, consolidation, expansion, permutation, move, substitution, and insertion. The changes involved were syntactical, grammatical, and lexical (Nikolayeva, 2019) done for the purpose of reading simplification.

E.g.

***Diversification must also be considered** as an investment strategy. →
Another strategy is to think about **variety**.*

The above sentence involves four types of amendments: permutation, move, substitution and deletion. First of all, it is *permutation* that allows a reading material designer to rephrase a challenging part of the text. In this particular case a compound verbal modal predicate '***must be considered***' was rephrased using a compound nominal predicate '***is to think***'. Due to this change *move* of the position of the elements (subject – object) within the sentence was involved. In addition, there were two academic vocabulary items *substituted* by their K1 equivalents: *diversification* → *variety* and *consider* → *think*. Finally, the word *investment* was *deleted* due to the sentence structure manipulation.

The overall number of amendments of all the seven types of text adaption used to simplify selected reading was forty-eight on the level of both sentence and word/phrase manipulation in the selected one paragraph text.

5.2. Types of response

There are *three* different *types of response* considered in this paper related to both authentic and adapted text: *objective (OR)*, *behavioural (BR)*, and *subjective (SR)* (Tamor 1981).

Objective response to text difficulty is obtained with the help of text evaluation tools available online as per the reading materials designer's preferences. The current study uses statistics of Flesch-Kincaid text assessment that focuses on the surface features (Murphy 2013) of text complexity, such as word, sentence and text length as well as passive structures. Flesch-Kincaid statistic does not provide any vocabulary evaluation. Hence, another automated tool, Lextutor, is involved in the study to obtain objective response on the text vocabulary complexity. It provides vocabulary statistics in the form of frequency-based word lists (Cobb 2018). According to this tool the lexis of the text is divided into K1, K2, academic and off-list words. Based on the objective response the tutor can decide about the suitability of a text to a specific group of students.

The second type of response is *behavioural*. It is a performance-based text difficulty evaluation that was obtained with the help of a test. The first task of the test administered to the students included ten multiple choice items with four response options each that aimed at testing the knowledge of vocabulary used in the provided reading. The words

were drawn from the text and varied in difficulty. Majority belonged to K1 group: *apply, buy, difficulty, business, consider, problem*; two words were K2 lexical items (*manager, risk*), and two represented academic word list (*income, financial*). The choice was made based on *Lextutor* vocabulary evaluation tool.

The second task of the test aimed at assessing students' reading comprehension. It consisted of five multiple choice questions on the text content that involved recognition of the info expressed through variety of grammatical structures.

The students worked on the text in the mode of sustained, silent, self-paced reading (Spiegel 1998). There were no time limitations set due to several reasons. First of all, every student has a different speed of reading. Secondly, comprehension needs time. Finally, absence of time constrains reduces test anxiety and provides comfortable environment.

The last type of response was students' *subjective* feedback on the text complexity elicited with the help of a survey that focused on general evaluation of text difficulty and assessment of complexity of a specific aspect of the text (i.e. vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar). In terms of general text reading ease the students were asked to use Likert scale to evaluate the reading choosing an option from the range of five between 'very difficult' to 'very easy'. The same approach was used for identifying the groups' opinion on three specific text aspects. This kind of response would enable the tutor to estimate the success of adaptation and consider any further improvements that might be required in the future.

5.3. Research sample

The subjects of the research were Arab students, i.e. an international group as compared to native speakers.

Data collected from two groups of students. Group 1 consisted of 23 and Group 2 of 31 students. All of the participants were students of Business department who study the course of Academic Reading and Writing. For consistency full time students only were chosen for the study to avoid any deviations in response. The reason is that part timers have richer background as well as personal and professional experience that would be different from full timers who are recent school graduates.

Table 2 Students profile

Info		Group 1		Group 2	
Gender	Male	9	39.1%	9	29%
	Female	14	60.9%	22	71%
Age	18 – 20	8	34.8 %	13	41.9%
	21 – 23	12	52.2 %	18	58.1%
	24 – 26	2	8.7 %	0	0%
	27+	1	4.3 %	0	0%
Type of students	Normal	21	91.3%	23	74.2%
	Retake	2	8.7%	8	25.8%
Pre-requisite course mean		60.3		54.26	
Programme specific courses taken/in progress		Introduction to financial/business accounting; Principles of management; Principles of economics; Principles of Marketing; IT applications for business; Business mathematics and statistics			

As per their demographic profile majority of students in both of the groups were females. Half of them in Group 1 as well as in Group 2 (52.2% and 58.1% respectively) were between 21 – 23 years of age. It means that the sample have similar educational background restricted to their schooling and a number of courses they took or are currently taking. The courses taken or in progress are Basics of Economics, Management, Marketing and Accounting as well as Mathematics and Statistics. All of them are taught in English solely. This course profile leads to an assumption that the sample are equipped with basic business vocabulary required to successfully proceed with their studies in current courses. It is also worth mentioning that the percentage of retake students in Group 2 (25.8%) was considerably higher than in Group 1 (8.7%). This might be a ground to hypothesise that the results mean of the second group would be low. The difference in mean (60.3 for Group 1 students vs 54.26 for Group 2 students) in Integrated language skills course, treated as pre-requisite to Academic reading and writing module, determined the choice of the text difficulty level in each of the cases. Group 1 was tested on the authentic reading material whereas Group 2 worked with the adapted text.

6. RESULTS

Collected data includes three types of response to text difficulty: objective, behavioural and subjective response (see *Types of response*). There were two versions of the text ‘Investment strategies’ (Bailey 2015) involved into the study. The first one is authentic reading and the second one is its adapted version. Two groups of Arab students participated in the study (see *Research sample*). Group 1 provided their behavioral and subjective response to authentic reading and Group 2 worked on the manipulated version of the text.

The below analysis presents a comparison of authentic and adapted reading based on each of the types of response.

6.1. Objective response

Objective response to text difficulty was the first type of the response considered in the present study. Both of the texts (authentic and adapted) were evaluated with the help of two tools: Flesch-Kincaid reading ease statistics was utilised to identify the readability of selected reading material and Lextutor helped examining the complexity of the text vocabulary (see Table 3).

Table 3 Comparison of Flesch-Kincaid statistics of authentic and adapted texts

Flesch-Kincaid statistics	Authentic text	Adapted texts
Words	208	213
Sentences	13	18
Words per sentence	16	11.8
Passive sentences	7%	0%
Flesch reading ease	35.2	61.3
Flesch-Kincaid grade level	12.3	7.6

According to Flesch-Kincaid calculation reading ease of the authentic text was identified as 35.2 out of 100. This falls within the range of 50 – 30 meaning that the text is very difficult to read. Grade level of the text in question is 12.3, which is higher than top grade school level for a native speaker.

The text was manipulated based on the provided statistics, vocabulary analysis and the opinion of the tutor. The reading ease of the text increased from the authentic 35.2 to 61.3, which is within the range of 70-60 out of 100. It means that the adapted text can be easily understood by 13- to 15-year-old students, who are 8th – 9th grade native speakers.

Total number of words increased slightly (208 to 213) as a result of sentence structure amendment applied during the adaptation process. As for the count of sentences in the text, their number increased from thirteen to eighteen. Consequently, as some of the sentences in the text were modified from compound or complex ones into simple ones to ensure better comprehension, the number of words per sentence decreased from sixteen to almost twelve.

Passive sentences comprised 7% of the authentic text and were all modified and substituted by the Active Voice structures.

As Flesch-Kincaid statistics is limited to particular features of the text, Lextutor (see *Types of response*) was used for assessing vocabulary difficulty of the text. According to this tool lexical items used in the reading are divided into four different groups based on their usage frequency. They are K1 words, which are the first 1000 most used lexical items, K2 the second 1000 most frequent words, academic word list (AWL) and off-list words are the least frequently used vocabulary items and considered to be difficult for understanding.

Table 4 presents comparative statistics on the vocabulary complexity between the authentic and adapted reading.

Table 4 Comparison of vocabulary complexity of authentic and adapted texts

Type of vocabulary	Authentic text	Adapted text
K1	75%	88.37%
K2	6.13%	6.51%
Academic vocabulary	15.09%	4.65%
Off-list vocabulary	3.77%	0.47%

The number of K1 words increased considerably to enable better reading comprehension. Authentic text contained 75% of the most frequently used lexical items whereas in its manipulated version the percentage increased to 88.37%. The amount of K2 words remained close to its percentage in the original and changed from 6.13% to 6.51%. The number of Academic word list identified by Lextutor in the authentic reading was 15.09%. After the adaptation it decreased to 4.65%. The changes were considered carefully by the tutor based on the familiarity with the language competence and educational background of the students participating in the research. Off-list vocabulary was mostly substituted by K1 words and its percentage reduced considerably from 3.77% to 0.47%.

6.2. Behavioural response

Behavioural response to text difficulty was elicited with the help of test. It consisted of two sections where the first section assessed student knowledge of vocabulary found in the selected reading and the second one focused on comprehension. The Table below presents comparative statistics of the performance by the sample where one group was tested on the authentic reading and the other - on its manipulated version. The Table demonstrates the percentage of correct and incorrect answers to each of the test sections followed by their mean.

Table 5 Behavioural response to text difficulty

Task	Authentic text		Adapted text	
	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect
1	46.08%	53.92%	73.54%	26.46%
2	48.69%	51.31%	60.64%	39.36%
<i>Mean</i>	<i>47.39%</i>	<i>52.61%</i>	<i>67.09%</i>	<i>32.91%</i>

As the Table above shows, the first group who worked on authentic reading demonstrated lower results as compared to the second group, who were tested on the adapted text. Around than half of Group 1 students answered the test tasks correctly (46.08% in case with Task 1 and 48.69% in case with Task 2). The other half of the sample working tested on the authentic reading provided incorrect answers (53.92% in case with Task 1 and 51.31% in case with Task 2). Group 2 showed better performance in the test. 73.54% of the students provided correct answers to the vocabulary task and 60.64% answered comprehension questions correctly. The first task related to the vocabulary used in the text appeared to be less challenging for the students than comprehension questions as only 26.46% provided incorrect answers to Task 1 compared to 39.36% of wrong answers in Task 2.

The above results demonstrate direct relation between objective and behavioural responses to text difficulty, i.e. the students showed a behavioural response of higher quality to adapted text and a considerably lower performance on the authentic reading. However, it is worth noting that Group 2, who worked on the adapted reading did not show a 100% result on any of the tasks which means that the text contained challenging elements that affect the sample response.

6.3. Subjective response

Subjective response to text difficulty was obtained with the help of a survey administered after the test. Both groups were asked to evaluate provided reading complexity based on five-point Likert scale. Table 6 demonstrates opinion of the sample on each of the versions of the text (authentic and adapted) in comparison.

Table 6 Subjective response to text difficulty

Aspect	Text type	Scale					Total %
		Very difficult %	Difficult %	Neither easy nor difficult %	Easy %	Very easy %	
Overall text difficulty	AUT	39.13	30.43	21.76	4.34	4.34	100%
	ADT	12.9	19.35	32.26	19.35	16.14	100%
Vocabulary	AUT	52.2	26.1	8.7	8.7	4.3	100%
	ADT	9.6	12.9	42	22.6	12.9	100%
Sentence structure	AUT	13.1	27.7	43.5	11.4	4.3	100%
	ADT	12.9	25.8	25.8	19.3	16.2	100%
Grammar	AUT	26.09	21.73	34.78	8.7	8.7	100%
	ADT	22.6	29	19.3	12.9	16.2	100%

The Table above shows the data on subjective response to four aspects of text difficulty by two groups involved in the research: overall text difficulty, vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar difficulty. Group 1 worked with an authentic text and Group 2 worked with an adapted text. The students were surveyed on the reading ease of the provided text according to the Likert scale where they choose among five levels of difficulty: very difficult, difficult, neither difficult nor easy, easy and very easy. They had to use their own judgement when completing the survey.

Overall text difficulty

Authentic text was considered very difficult (39.13%) and difficult (30.43%) by majority of the students which makes it 69.56% in total, whereas only 8.68% considered it easy/very easy. This difference reflects on the results of Flesch-Kincaid statistics which defined the text as difficult to read. The rest of the group (21.76%) considered the text neither difficult nor easy.

Adapted text difficulty, on the other hand, was evaluated by a similar number of students as very difficult /difficult (32.25%) and easy/very easy (35.49%). Current results could be a reflection of the lower strength of Group 2 that has 25.8% students who were retaking this course due to their unsuccessful performance in the previous semester. Hence, it can be assumed that their language skills are lower than of other students of the same group, which resulted in the current estimation of the text ease.

Vocabulary difficulty

Vocabulary of the authentic text was considered very difficult (52.2%) and difficult (26.1%) by most of the participants, i.e. total of 78.3% identified lexical items used in the reading as challenging.

Adapted text vocabulary, on the contrary, was perceived by a big group of students (42%) as neither difficult nor easy. 35.5% felt that it was easy/very easy and only 22.5% said it was difficult/very difficult.

Sentence structure difficulty

According to the Group 1, sentence structure did not cause any comprehension difficulties. 43.5% evaluated the authentic text syntax as neither difficult nor easy. 40.8% of the students of Group 1 considered it difficult/very difficult. Only 15.7% said it was easy/very easy.

As for Group 2 who worked on the manipulated version of the reading, 38.7% of the respondents considered it difficult/very difficult while 35.5% said it was easy/very easy. The remaining 25.8% were neutral.

Current results demonstrate approximately equal division of each of the surveyed groups into students who are familiar and not familiar with syntactical structures used in the text.

Grammar difficulty

Grammatically, both of the texts appeared almost equally challenging for the students. 47.82% of Group 1 said that the authentic reading was difficult/very difficult which is close to the opinion of Group 2 where 51.6% were of the same opinion. This demonstrates the need for specific attention to grammatical structures at the point of adaptation. Opinions of the other half of the respondents split between neutral response to grammar complexity of the text and its easy/very easy option with its inclination to the first among Group 1 students and the second among Group 2 participants.

The results confirm an idea that text manipulation towards simplification can sometimes cause an opposite effect and make comprehension more difficult (Crossley et.al, 2014).

6.4. Comparison of behavioural vs subjective responses

Table 7 presents comparison of two types of response to text difficulty: behavioural and subjective. The results were divided into positive and negative kinds of response. Positive behavioural response (BR(+)) is the mean percentage of correct answers to test tasks whereas negative response (BR(-)) is the mean of incorrect answers. As for the subjective response, positive response (SR(+)) includes the mean percentage of students who said the text was neither easy nor difficult, easy or very easy. Negative subjective response (SR(-)) includes students' evaluation of the text as difficult and very difficult.

Table 7 Behavioural vs subjective response to text difficulty: comparison

Response type	Authentic text		Adapted text	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Behavioural response	45.21%	54.79%	62.28%	37.42%
Subjective response	30.44%	69.56%	67.75%	32.25%

Presented statistics allows us to compare students' subjective opinion on the reading ease to their actual performance. In case with the authentic text used with Group 1 it can be seen that the students underestimated their strengths as the percentage of their SR(+) is lower than BR(+): 30.44% vs 45.21%. So, the rate of their underestimation is around 14.8%. It means that they considered given text more difficult than it actually was according to the results of their performance in the test. On the other hand, Group 2, who worked with adapted reading, slightly overestimated their skills where their performance proved otherwise. Group 2 SR(+) was around 5% higher than their BR(+). The results of negative response, both BR(-) and SR(-) were proportional to the positive response of the students. Therefore, it can be noted that linguistically stronger students tend to doubt their abilities more than weaker ones.

7. CONCLUSION

The paper presented a discussion of students' response to text adaptation. Two groups of Arab business students were investigated. All of the students had similar background, were placed within the same age, and represented both genders.

The objective, behavioural and subjective response to authentic and manipulated text difficulty was compared. The tools chosen for the study were a test and a survey. Both of the tools aimed at assessing students' text comprehension and their knowledge of different types of vocabulary.

The research reveals direct relation between OR, BR and SR to the text complexity. As the study demonstrated the authentic reading was defined as challenging by OR which was confirmed by the results of the of both the BR of the sample and their SR of Group1 who were tested on the basis of the above-mentioned text. Although Group 1 obtained good results in the pre-requisite course, their performance in the test demonstrated a

number of difficulties they faced completing it, such as vocabulary meaning recognition and comprehension where unfamiliar grammatical structures were involved.

The analysis of OR, BR and SR on manipulated text showed similar relationship. It means that the students performed considerably better on the simplified version of the text. Hence, text adaptation is required for Arab undergraduate students based on their, specialization, level of intervention, and performance in the pre-requisite course.

Students' specialization is another variable that needs attention of the tutor as it can be a ground for adaptation/non-adaptation of specific aspects of the original text. For instance, current research focused on business students. Therefore, business specific vocabulary was retained in the text at the time of adaptation, although, it was identified by the vocabulary assessment tool as academic and could be substituted in cases where a different course is targeted.

Students' achievement in prerequisite course/s serves well as another source of information for a tutor working on reading materials design. One should consider the strengths and weaknesses of the group working on the course design as it can directly impact further progress of the students. If students' prerequisite course results are remarkably low or high the tutor might choose the way he/she adapts the text accordingly.

Level of intervention completed by the time of using an amended text needs careful consideration. Inclusion/exclusion of particular lexical items, syntactic or stylistic structures directly depends on whether they were taught in class or not as well as how elaborate the intervention was. The tutor should ensure that the text difficulty matches students' current linguistic and professional background.

There is a clear relationship between BR and SR depending on the text ease. The results of text adaptation are reflected in both better performance and subjective difficulty evaluation. Comparison of behavioral and subjective responses demonstrated that students tend to underestimate their knowledge and/or exaggerate text difficulty. Their performance appears to be better than understanding of their own strengths and abilities. This factor can be used as the ground for particular choices to be made by the tutor in the process of reading manipulation towards moderate simplification.

The quality of the text ease assessment in general as well as specific aspects of it are directly related to reader response results. Positive response to adaptation depends on careful identification of problematic text areas & choice of manipulation approaches. A blend of objective and subjective reading ease assessment is of great importance here as the tutor needs to consider a number of personal and professional variables in process of text amendment. This approach would ensure a positive impact on learner's performance.

Vocabulary was identified as the most challenging aspect of the text. It intervened with students understanding of the content. Hence, vocabulary development is an essential part of language acquisition that should be addressed as a vital part of any language course.

A combination of both OR and tutor's opinion to adaptation can benefit the quality of manipulated reading materials as automated tools of text difficulty assessment do not consider a set of personal and professional characteristic of a particular group of students. No doubt, the results of objective text evaluation are important and of great help for a tutor, however, one has to apply his/her own judgement to ensure multifaceted appropriateness of reading for their students.

REFERENCES

- Berardo, S. A. 2006. "The use of authentic materials in the teaching of reading." *The reading matrix*, 6, 2, 60-69.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. 2014. *Vocabulary and language teaching*. Routledge. London: Longman.
- Case, A. 2012. *Advantages and disadvantages of using authentic texts in class*. [Online] Available from <https://www.usingenglish.com/articles/advantages-disadvantages-using-authentic-texts-in-class.html> [Accessed 15 January 2018].
- Cobb, T. 2018. "Why and how to use frequency lists to learn words." *Lexutor.ca*. [Online] Available from <https://www.lexutor.ca/research/> [Accessed on 31 December 2018]
- Crossley, S.A. and McNamara, D.S. 2016. "Text-based recall and extra-textual generations resulting from simplified and authentic texts." *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 28, 1, 1-19.
- Crossley, S.A., Yang, H. S., & McNamara, D.S. 2014. "What's so simple about simplified texts?" *Reading in a Foreign Language, April*, 26.1, 92-113.
- Dale, E., & Chall, J. S. 1949. "The Concept of Readability." *Elementary English* 26, 1, 19-26.
- Demeni, P. 2012. "Developing written text production competence using the reader-response method". *Acta didactica napocensia*, 5, 3, 53-60.
- DuBay, W.H. 2004. *The Principles of Readability*. CA: Costa Mesa. [Online] Available from: <http://www.impact-information.com/impactinfo/readability02.pdf> [Accessed on 21 November 2019].
- Goodman, K., & Freeman, D. 1993. "What's simple in simplified language." In M.L. Tikko (Ed.), *Simplification: theory and application*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 69-81.
- Green, A., & Hawkey, R. 2011. "Re-fitting for a different purpose: A case study of item writer practices in adapting source texts for a test of academic reading." *Language Testing*, 29.1, 109-129.
- Hervey, S. 2013. "A beginner's guide to text complexity." *Generation ready*. [Online] Available from <http://www.generationready.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Beginners-Guide-to-Text-Complexity.pdf> [Accessed on 31.12.2018]
- Hulstijn, J. H. 1992. "Retention of inferred and given word meanings: Experiments in incidental vocabulary learning." In *Vocabulary and applied linguistics*. UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 113-125.
- Krashen, S. 1988. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. US: Prentice-Hall International.
- Kuimova M. V., Kobzeva N. A. 2011. "Advantages and Disadvantages of Authentic Materials Use in EFL Classrooms." *Молодой ученый* 3.2, 125-127. [Online]. Available from <https://moluch.ru/archive/26/2844/> [Accessed 11 January 2018].
- Long, M., & Ross, S. 1993. "Modifications that preserve language and content." In M. L. Tickoo (Ed.), *Simplification: Theory and application*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center, 29-52.
- Murphy, S. 2013. "Assessing text difficulty for students." *What works? Research into Practice*, Research monograph #44, January. [Online]. Available from http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/ww_atds.pdf [Accessed on 31.12.2018]

- Nikolayeva, L. 2019. "Adapting a text for testing purposes: approach to academic reading and writing assessment design in the Middle East." *Theory and practice in language studies*, 9, 2, 204 - 216.
- Richards, J. C. 2018. *Advantages and disadvantages of using instructional materials in teaching ESL*. [Online] Available from: <https://www.professorjackrichards.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-using-instructional-materials-in-teaching-esl/> [Accessed 15 January 2018]
- Roberts, R. 2014. *Authentic or graded?* [Online] Available from: <https://elt-resourceful.com/2014/02/27/authentic-or-graded-is-there-a-middle-way/> [Accessed 15 January 2018]
- Spiegel, D. L. 1998. "Reader response approaches and the growth of readers." *Language arts*, 76, 1, 41-48.
- Tamor, L. 1981. "Subjective text difficulty: an alternative approach to defining the difficulty level of written text." *Journal of reading behavior*, 8, 2, 165 – 172.
- Torki, S. 2013. "Algerian University English Language Teaching Materials: How readable are they?" *AWEJ*, 4, 4, 4-16.
- Yoshii, M., & Flaitz, J. 2002. "Second language incidental vocabulary retention: The effect of text and picture annotation types." *CALICO journal*, 20, 1, 33-58.

LITERATURE AS A TOOL OF AWARENESS: TRAITS OF AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDERS FOR STUDENTS IN ESP CLASS

Diana Židová

Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Faculty of Pedagogy, Department of Language Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication, Dražovská cesta 4, 949 74 Nitra, Slovakia
E-mail: dzidova@ukf.sk

Abstract. *The prevalence of Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs) in children is increasing from year to year worldwide. People suffering from this disease experience the feelings of otherness and isolation, even social exclusion. To raise awareness to this problem, every year a World Autism Awareness Day is celebrated on April 2. This paper will focus on the personality pervasiveness of ASD as depicted in the widely acclaimed novel “The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time” (2003) by Mark Haddon. The book, a detective story, which centers around the adventures of a teenage boy who suffers from many behavioral traits typical of ASD, can serve as a tool for teaching ASD behavior to the future experts in pedagogy and special needs assistants, who provide professional advice. It also provides a comprehensive lesson plan in ESP class with several tasks which build upon the means of critical thinking on the topic.*

Key words: *Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), personality pervasiveness of ASD, literature in ESP, language teaching*

1. INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) is an umbrella term for disorders which are defined by diverse behavioral, social and communication problems. They include: Autistic Disorder, Rett’s Disorder, Childhood Disintegrative Disorder, Asperger’s Disorder, and Pervasive Developmental Disorder, Not Otherwise Specified (PDDNOS). Grounded on a genetic error causes in 30% and multifactorial causes in 70% cases (Passos-Bueno, as cited in Pinheiro, 2020), they occur in all racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups. The newly diagnosed cases are most prevalent between ages 3-17 and they are more common in boys. According to data gathered from all statistical sites, about 1 in 54 children has been diagnosed with ASD in the USA. Its prevalence from 2000 to 2016 show a significant number of diagnosed children, namely from 1 in 150 to 1 in 54 in the USA (2020; <https://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/autism/data.html>).

In the European Union, a program Autism Spectrum Disorders in Europe (ASDEU) in 2015-2018 funded by the European Parliament was aimed at clinical and policy ASD research ever done in Europe. It was conducted by a network of 22 organizations from 14 European countries and it was designed to map a current situation on the topic and

Submitted October 3rd, 2020, accepted for publication October 26th, 2020

propose solutions for families and experts in coping with this disorder. The research results showed that ASD prevalence in the EU is 1 in 89 children aged 7-9 years, although the numbers in different countries varied significantly (2018, p. 3).

The Slovak Republic did not participate in this survey, nor has it any official national statistics about ASD. Nevertheless, the National health information center prepares irregular statistical surveys and in its last annual report on Outpatient psychiatric care in 2017, which reported that there were 1 137 newly diagnosed persons whose disease was categorized under F80 - F89 - Disorders of psychological development, where ASD belongs (2018, p. 32).

The personality pervasiveness of ASD is an essential part of the curriculum for the future experts in pedagogy and special needs assistants at the university level of education. Our students attend the course English for Academic Purposes which is a requirement for study programs in pedagogy and tutoring and special pedagogy. It is aimed at learning vocabulary in the fields of pedagogy, education, and the teaching profession in English language level B2. Although the primary sources for teaching disciplines should be of theoretical and academic origin, literature written about ASD characters is a useful source to raise awareness about people with autism spectrum disorders including autism and Asperger syndrome. Some of the popular fiction books are *The Rosie Project* by Graeme Simsion or *The Question of the Missing Head* with a subtitle *An Asperger's Mystery* by E.J. Copperman and Jeff Cohen, but the book which had the greatest impact on the promotion of ASP worldwide is Mark Haddon's *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time*.

2. LITERATURE IN ELT AND ESP

Literature has a unique place in teaching foreign languages because it habitually functions as a background text for linguistic disciplines. On the other hand, instruction focused on appreciation of its aesthetic values is also stimulating for students. A literary text requires reading between the lines because the meanings are less obvious, pointing out symbolical and philosophical connotations or moral and ethical values. When reading, understanding the secondary meaning of the text is equally important to understanding the literal language. Overall, the role of literature is not only to use its specific language to comprehend information but first and foremost to strengthen critical thinking and communicative competence and finally, a self-reflection and creativity.

Geoff Hall (2015) raises awareness to literature in ELT and states some of the most important advantages of teaching literature. It brings:

- affective arguments (pleasurable, motivating, personalizing);
- cultural arguments (cultural knowledge, intercultural experience);
- psycholinguistic arguments (focus on form, discourse processing skills- inferencing, processing of non-literal language, tolerance of ambiguity and others).

Moreover, it:

- expands vocabulary,
- aids language acquisition in unspecified but general ways,
- 'gives a feel for' the language,
- develops more fluent reading skills,
- promotes interpretative and inferential skills,
- contributes to cultural and intercultural understanding,
- is linguistically memorable (mostly poems),
- is claimed to be pleasurable (p. 112).

While it is generally accepted that literature has a complex influence on one's personality, it must be also remarked that its integration, and the practical implication in coursebooks are lacking a wider usage. Jones and Carter (2012, p. 69) point out that understanding contemporary literary prose (B2) and long and complex factual and literary texts (C1) is a core requirement in CEFR (2010, p. 27). However, the results of their research show the unpleasant reality of integration of literature into the teaching process. To find out the actual willingness to use literary texts for teaching language awareness, they conducted a study with 12 teachers at the university in England and found out that "75% of these teachers feel that it is a useful classroom resource and 66.6% felt it can help to develop language and cultural awareness." On the other hand, the questionnaires also showed that half of the teachers are not sure whether using literary texts is what their students need and would enjoy and benefit from (Jones and Carter, 2012, p. 73).

The study shows that 50% of teachers do not see advantages of literature in ELT. The question is whether this result does not in fact reveal inner fear of teachers to work with authentic materials and their lack of ability to interpret literary texts. Literature is about life; it reflects, mirrors and manifests life and teachers should not be afraid to show their pupils and students its potential to change lives of people who are on the margin of the society. "Changing lives through literature" is a sentencing program based on the idea that reading literature and discussing it among a group of prisoners has a healing effect and creates feelings of resurrection. It began in 1991 as a cooperation of Robert Waxler, Robert Kane, and Wayne St. Pierre, a New Bedford District Court probation officer (PO). A professor at the University of Massachusetts Dartmouth and a District Court Judge in New Bedford initiated a successful mission of therapeutic practice of literature. It brings "an exploration into the complexity and challenges of human character and conscience, a way to connect with the human community, a way to engage deeply in language and conversation, and a way to make us all more self-reflective" (Waxler, 2003, <http://ctl.umassd.edu/home.html.cfm>). As a result, this experiment reveals that reading, discussing, interpreting, analyzing and enjoying literature is very important because it moves "people into their imaginations and then to take them on an enjoyable – and, in the best case, enriching – psychological journey in that imaginary space created through language" (Pennington, Waxler, 2018, p. 127).

Because the English language which is to be taught to and learned by students in ESP class is very specialized and varied in many aspects, "there is no ready-made teaching/ learning material available, as learners' needs are specific to the point of being idiosyncratic" (Stojković, 2019, p. 406). ESP materials should fulfil the four main principles: authenticity, groundedness, interdisciplinarity, and relevance (Hyland and Shaw 2016, p. 3). Therefore, it ought to be generally accepted that novels, short stories, and poems are comparable in richness and informativeness to articles about scientific or economic topics which are very common in ESP classes.

Chris Lima claims that literature is an inspiration for myriads of lesson plans and teachers should not be afraid to work with literary texts in the ESP course and just follow these rules:

1. the text is a primary focus of your interpretation and analysis;
2. select the text which is the most suitable for your students and which meets their cultural and linguistic competence;
3. make your students connect with characters and situations in the text;
4. thinking about words and images increases the understanding of the text;
5. pre-reading activities motivate students to get into the context of the text;

6. students should be given options for the type of homework or assignment;
7. connect the text to other means of artistic performance: film, song, painting, theatre, graphic design, etc.
8. sharing ideas, essays, videos, podcasts about the text makes reading interactive;
9. creative text enhances creative writing: poems, scripts, letters;
10. by reading literature, students learn a lot about the language and world around them (2016, <https://www.onestopenglish.com/esp/eap/teaching-eap-literature/teaching-eap-literature-top-ten-tips-for-using-literature-in-elt/555130.article>).

Thaler (2008) considers teaching literature a high priority in language acquisition concerning pupil's and student's ability to understand the complexities of issues in the books. He argues that the selection of an appropriate book is of utmost importance and criticizes the literary canon many teachers follow pointing out its old-fashioned and DWEM (Dead White English Males) tendency. While teachers of literature are aware of a generally accepted literary canon in the English language, there is an urging need to reconsider the list of accepted books and read and interpret works which reflect contemporary issues in our society, such as the position of minorities, women and interculturalism, the ecological concern of our planet, death, illness and mental health in the young generation, mixed families, but also social inclusion of disabled people and children and acceptance of otherness. In his alternative top ten chart, Mark Haddon's novel about Christopher ranks position number 7.

The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time (2003) is a crime story for young adults and adults which received immense success not only as a book but mostly as an adaptation in a theatre play in the UK and the USA; altogether several dozens of literary awards, five Tony Awards and seven Olivier Awards. Haddon reasserts his readers that Christopher's character was based on his experiences with children and adults with mental and physical disabilities, but he did not study the topic in detail and his novel should not be considered as a complex presentation of ASD and its symptoms: "I wanted Christopher to work as a human being and not as a clinical case study" (Haddon, <https://www.penguinrandomhouse.com/books/73405/the-curious-incident-of-the-dog-in-the-night-time-by-mark-haddon/>). Even though ASD has many outer manifestations in behavior, abilities and intelligence, the book is an inspirational account on a journey of Christopher's achievements: A level math test in which he got an A grade and the murder mystery novel about investigation of the death of Wellington he is writing in the book clearly demonstrates that even a boy who has huge problems with social interactions and metaphorical meanings has dreams and goals he attempts to achieve, and he can become successful. By stepping into this first-person narrative, students learn a different perspective on human condition and that it can affect or even change their lives. In fact, reading fiction is an imaginative psychological journey in *The Curious Incident of a Dog in the Night-Time* (2003). The following lesson plan is for the students of EAP who will be qualified as experts in pedagogy and special needs assistants, and who provide professional advice on pupils' accommodation. It aims to raise awareness of ASD throughout a literary text about a boy whose behavior bear symptoms typical for Asperger Syndrome.

3.1. Lesson Plan

Topic: The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time

Age: Young adults

Level: B2

Time: 2 x 90 minutes

Materials: a computer, speakers, projector, internet access

Aims: To learn vocabulary related to ASD, to learn how children with ASD behave and feel, to learn how to communicate with a child with ASD

3.1.1. Warm-up questions (10 min.)

What did you know about people with ASD before you read the book? Did you have prejudices? Did this book change your view on ASD? Did you find the story authentic?

3.1.2. Scrambled photographs (15 min.)

Use photos depicting a Slovak theatrical adaptation performed at Andrej Bagar Theatre in Nitra and place them randomly in your presentation to create a collage. Ask students to comment on what is happening in the photos and then reorder them so they are in a chronological order. *Tip:* You can use a snipping tool in MS Windows to save selected images from this website: <https://www.dab.sk/inscenace/86-podivny-pripad-sopsom> or browse the internet for some English and American performances.

3.1.3. A mind map of the characters (15 min.)

Ask students to create a mind map of the characters from the book and write down up to 3 characteristics per each.

List of characters:

Christopher

Siobhan – Christopher’s teacher

Ed – Christopher’s father

Judy – Christopher’s mother

Mrs. Shears - the neighbor and the owner of Wellington

Mr. Shear - her husband

Mrs. Alexander - the neighbor

Wellington - the killed dog

Mr. Jeavons - the school psychologist

3.1.4. What happened? (15 min.)

Ask students to work in pairs. One student is a policeman who investigates the case and interviews a person about what happened during the night Wellington was killed. The second student is one of the characters listed above and he/she answers the questions about events from his/her perspective according to the book.

3.1.5. *Who is Christopher? (20 min.)*

Ask students to watch the video and take notes about Christopher's personality. While watching, focus also on Christopher's non-verbal communication. Analyze your observations in groups. Who is Christopher? (5:27) <https://youtu.be/BX77tNvMj4Q>

3.1.6. *Christopher's likes and dislikes (15 min.)*

Ask students to work in pairs and make a list of Christopher's likes/dislikes. Then discuss whether they also have some unusual likings and concerns.

The answers from the book (Haddon, 2003):

Table 1 Christopher's likes and dislikes

<i>LIKES</i>	<i>DISLIKES</i>
Dogs - hugging dogs	Lying
Murder-mystery novel – writing a novel	Proper novels
Things in a nice order – logical	Being in fronts – camping
Biscuits, Orange squash	Yellow color
Looking after Toby	Talking to strangers
Being on his own	Eating in the places he does not know
Thinking he is the only one in the world	People who scream and laugh at him
Reading books	Jokes – he does not understand them
Mathematics, Physics, prime numbers	To be with someone else in the room
Mrs. Shears - she makes things tidy	Hugging and touching, listening to people
Outer space	Crowds of people
Red color	Using public toilets

3.1.7. *Matching (10 min.)*

The numbered phrases describe the social skills problems of people with ASD. Read each phrase and explain the meaning of unknown words (Patrick, 2008, p. 19).

1. Awkward use of language, despite strong vocabulary and grammar
2. Poor understanding and social use of language
3. Difficulty interpreting and using nonverbal communication
4. Difficulty understanding the perspectives of others
5. Difficulty interpreting figurative language
6. A perceived lack of empathy for others
7. A preference for predictability and sameness
8. A tendency to have attention and organizational difficulties, despite average to above-average intellect
9. A tendency towards specific and intense interests
10. Difficulty integrating sensory information
11. Motor clumsiness or awkwardness
12. Problems regulating anxiety and mood

3.1.8. Christopher's behavioral difficulties (20 min.)

Ask students to connect characteristics of ASD above with Christopher's behavioral difficulties.

- Not talking to people for a long time
- Not eating or drinking anything for a long time
- Not liking being touched
- Screaming when I am angry or confused
- Not liking being in really small places with other people
- Smashing things when I am angry or confused
- Groaning
- Not liking yellow things or brown things and refusing to touch yellow things or brown things
- Refusing to use my toothbrush if anyone else has touched it
- Not eating food if different sorts of food are touching each other
- Not noticing that people are angry with me
- Not smiling
- Saying things that other people think are rude
- Doing stupid things
- Hitting other people
- Hating France
- Driving mother's car
- Getting cross when someone has moved the furniture (Haddon, 2003)

3.1.9. Show your emotions (15 min.)

Ask the students: "What emotions do these emoticons represent? Which are easy for Christopher to understand? Make a list of words, which represent feelings of each emoticon. Think of a situation in which Christopher feels this way."



Answers:

1. happy, delighted, cheerful, glad, blissful, joyful, lucky, etc.;
2. sad, unhappy, sorrowful, downhearted, melancholy, etc.;
3. winking, blinking, fluttering, flashing, sparkling, twinkling – (ironic), etc.;
4. mad, evil, angry, bad-tempered, etc.;
5. confused, baffled, mixed up, chaotic, etc.;
6. surprised, shocked, amazed, astonished, startled, etc.;
7. ashamed, abashed, embarrassed, etc.;

"These emoticons were popular in the early 2000s. Which new ones do you use in your everyday communication the most and what do they mean?" Ask your students to draw them on the board and vote for the most favorite one.

3.1.10. Metaphors (10 min.)

“People often talk using metaphors,” says Christopher in the book. Do you know what the following metaphors mean? How do we call phrases with a figurative meaning?

1. I laughed my socks off.
2. He was the apple of her eye.
3. They had a skeleton in the cupboard.
4. We had a real pig of a day.
5. The dog was stone dead.

3.1.11. Poster (25 min.)

Ask students to create a poster about a murder mystery novel Christopher is writing and to focus on the following clues:

- | | |
|------------|-----------------|
| ▪ Crime | ▪ Evidence |
| ▪ Suspects | ▪ Foreshadowing |
| ▪ Motives | ▪ Weapon(s) |
| ▪ Alibis | ▪ Settings |

3.1.12. Drama (35 min.)

Ask students to prepare a dramatic dialogue based on the events in the book.

4. CONCLUSION

Every year people celebrate a World Autism Awareness Day on April 2nd. The increase of children diagnosed with ASDs, including autism and Asperger Syndrome, is a significant signal for our society to pay attention to this disease marked with many behavioral symptoms. Our students, the upcoming experts in many working fields, are the future generation who will cope with such obstacles, as co-workers or teachers. The aim of the article was to show that literature is a tool of awareness and that it changes our perception of the world, likewise, it changes our personality and attitudes. *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time* (2003) also changed our perception of the problem. With its massive audience, the readers, and spectators, we came to realize that we experience otherness as something natural and close to our hearts and minds. Ignorance does not create discussion, on the contrary, it shuts the topic into a metaphorical box, although the elephant is still in the room. The lesson plan is made especially for experts in pedagogy and special needs assistants, but it might also be a valuable source for other professionals in health care – doctors and nurses. There are many other literary works written in English suitable for B2 learners which help us to better understand the people who are different. ELT teachers should not forget that such authentic materials can help to stop social exclusion and raise awareness about many other topics.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT: The research for this paper was financially supported by Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia, The University Grant Agency, grant no. V/18/2020.

REFERENCES

- Autism Spectrum Disorders in The European Union (ASDEU). 2018. Executive Summary 12/09/2018. Retrieved from <http://asdeu.eu/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/ASDEUExecSummary27September2018.pdf>
- BBC Learning: Who is Christopher? 2015. Retrieved from <https://youtu.be/BX77tNvMj4Q>
- Data and Statistics on Autism Spectrum Disorder. 2020, March 25. Retrieved from <https://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/autism/data.html>.
- Haddon, M. 2003. *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time*. London: Jonathan Cape.
- Haddon, M. Interview: AUTHOR Q&A. Retrieved from <https://www.penguinrandomhouse.com/books/73405/the-curious-incident-of-the-dog-in-the-night-time-by-mark-haddon/>
- Hall, G. 2015. *Literature in Language Education. Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics*. 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Jones, C., & Carter, R. 2012. "Literature and Language Awareness: Using Literature to Achieve CEFR Outcomes," *Journal of Second Language Teaching and Research*, 1(1), 69-82.
- Lima, C. 2016. Teaching EAP: Literature: Top ten tips for using literature in ELT. Retrieved from <https://www.onestopenglish.com/esp/eap/teaching-eap-literature/teaching-eap-literature-top-ten-tips-for-using-literature-in-elt/555130.article>
- Patrick, N. J. 2008. *Social Skills for Teenagers and Adults with Asperger Syndrome*. London and Philadelphia: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Pinheiro, Ch. 2020. "Study identifies group of genes with altered expression in autism" May 13, 2020; <https://agencia.fapesp.br/study-identifies-group-of-genes-with-altered-expression-in-autism/33136/>
- Pennington, M., Waxler, R. 2018. *Why Reading Books Still Matters. The Power of Literature in Digital Times*. New York: Routledge.
- Podivný prípad so psom. 2016. Retrieved from <https://www.dab.sk/inscenace/86-podivny-pripad-so-psom>
- Psychiatric Care in the Slovak Republic 2017. Volume 2018. Bratislava: Národné centrum zdravotníckych informácií [The National Health Information Center]. http://data.nczisk.sk/statisticke_vystupy/Psychiatria_starostlivost/Psychiatria_starostlivost_v_SR_2017.pdf
- Stojković, N. 2019. "Possible Reasons Why ESP Is Under Recognized in Academia," *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 7(3), 405-409.
- Thaler, E. 2008. *Teaching English literature*. 2nd ed. Paderborn: Ferdinand Schöningh.
- The Routledge Handbook of English for Academic Purposes*. 2016. Hyland, K., Shaw, P. (eds.) Abingdon and New York: Routledge.
- Waxler, R. 2003. *The New Bedford Men's Program*. Retrieved from <http://ctl.umassd.edu/programsfollow1a.cfm>

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND CHALLENGES IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Neda Radosavlevikj

South East European University, North Macedonia
n.radosavleviq@seeu.edu.mk

Abstract. *Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the fundamental teaching methods that focus on developing learners' communicative competence. The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions and challenges in Communicative language teaching as well as students' communicative competences. The participants were 10 the teachers from the Language Centre and the Faculty of Languages and Communication teaching English as a foreign language and 27 students enrolled at their first year studying different levels of English (Basic English skills Levels 2,3 and 4 as well as 5 students studying English as their major at South East European University. Majority of the students were between 18-20 years old, coming from different ethnical groups: mostly Albanian, Turks and Macedonian, enrolled at International Communication studies, Business administration, Business and economics and Computer Sciences studies. The questionnaire was held between both students and teachers and it covers (role of students/teachers, pair and group activities, the use of native language and error and correction). The results obtained throughout this study held positive beliefs towards CLT, especially taking in consideration the roles of teachers and students, pair and group work used by teachers as main strategies to help students develop communicative competencies.*

Key Words: *CLT (Communicative Language Teaching), communicative competences, communicative activities, perceptions, challenges*

1. INTRODUCTION

English language has been recognized all over the world and it has impacted the English language teaching worldwide. English language has gone through rapid change of transition from grammar translation method to direct and then to an audiolingualism and to other variations (Leung, 2005). Furthermore, the transition has taken place and there are many different beliefs about teaching and learning that are known by different names for instance, communicative methodology, communicative language teaching, and communicative approach (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the communicative approach, is an approach to language teaching that emphasizes on the use of language interaction (student-teacher, student-student) both in class and outside of class. According to CLT, in contrast to previous views in which top priority was given to grammatical competence, the focus on language education is to focus on communication in the target language.

The linguistic theory behind Communicative Approach is Dell Hymes' communicative competence (1972), that deals with both knowledge (usage) and use. Dell Hymes in 1966

Submitted September 21st, 2020, accepted for publication October 14th, 2020

in reaction to Noam Chomsky's (1965) notion of "linguistic competence" believed that Chomsky's 'linguistic competence' was too limited. Linguistic competence doesn't justify social and functional rules of the language.

Hymes, 1972 theory is the base of CLT and it means the use of language (communicative competence) to know how and when to use the language (appropriateness) and not only knowing a set of rules. The communicative competence is developed by L2 learners when they communicate actively by doing the tasks in a meaningful way. Communicative competence is the intuitive functional knowledge and controls the principles of language usage. Hymes observes: "...a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others" (Hymes 1972, p.277).

Littlewood (1981) sees the combination of structural and functional language important because it shows that the structure of the language can serve as catalyst for the functional activities. Richards (2006, p. 2) redefined CLT as a set of principles which include "the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom".

In diverse settings the implementation of CLT and teachers' and students' beliefs are considered very important. Moreover, there is a lack of research into whether teachers and students hold the same beliefs toward the use of CLT in the ELT classroom. It is very useful to know whether teachers' and learners' share the same views regarding the activities of the learning process being used in the classroom. Tasks or activities used in the classroom have significant impacts on learners' interest in learning in Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) research. The study answers the following questions:

1. What are teachers' and students' beliefs about communicative language teaching method? What is the role of teachers, students, grammar, pair/group activities, use of native language and error and correction?
2. What is the difference between teachers' and students' beliefs about CLT?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The role of the teachers and students in communicative activities

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been accepted as the best practice in English language teaching (ELT) because it enables students to develop and improve their communicative competences (Power, 2003). According to Nunan (1999) "Communicative language teaching has brought the most significant change into the practice of English language teaching". It is a fact that many Language institutions have adopted this approach into their English language teaching practices. In CLT the teacher is a facilitator and guide who coordinates and leads the group activities Littlewood (1981). According to Richards and Rogers (1986) the role of the teacher is an autonomous member when teaching a foreign language. However, there are some negative perceptions in teacher's communication with the students. The first one is that students come from different background settings and some students feel confident to engage and communicate in a foreign language while others may need more attention and guidance from the teacher, especially taking in consideration a class with mix-abilities. Teachers may help students in communication, encourage students and facilitate interaction but should not expect students to construct meaning

automatically. The second negative perception is that students should be instructed and the lessons should be designed to make the atmosphere in the classroom positive and cheerful. However, it is important teacher to guide the students and help them construct meaning through interaction such as group or pair activities. In addition, students that come from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds should be instructed and stimulated to become independent, autonomous and construct their own meaning through communication with others.

In a communicative language teaching classroom teachers and students play the most important roles in constructing knowledge. Richards (2006) defines the teacher as co-learner in the learning process and sometimes students are given freedom to choose the content of the lesson which gives them control over their language learning. According to the studies Ngos and Iwashita (2012) in Vietnam reported that teachers are seen as co-communicator, facilitator of the learning process, a friend, motivator and a knowledge provider. Teachers are expected to provide knowledge and at the same time establish interaction that will help students communicate with each other and take control of the learning process. On the other side, Coskun's (2011) study in Turkey showed that there are opposite views of what teachers did in the classroom. The studies confirmed that both in theory and practice the roles of teachers and students are not consistent with each other. The teachers spent more time lecturing not providing opportunities for student's interactions. That's why it is very important for the teacher to develop appropriate activities which build trust and help group learn how to communicate and collaborate.

3. THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATIVE MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES

Teachers need to create a meaningful communication among the students and provide authentic materials that can be used in the classroom. In this way, interaction plays important role in delivering an effective communication between the students. Richards (2001) points out that materials are of vital importance and should be carefully selected by the teacher, whether they are textbooks, materials from the institution or materials made from the teacher itself. On the other side, Schiffrin (1996) states that traditional books lack sufficient content and fail to give students appropriate communicative feedback. In order to create a climate for effective communication according to Swaffar and Vlatten (1997) students' need to be exposed to variety of authentic materials such as video, so they can practice listening to variety of authentic voices and dialects, and learn structures in a clear, direct way. According to Yukselir and Komur (2017) students' communication and interaction is stimulated when using online videos because it helps students develop communication competence and easily transmit the messages. In addition, the use of authentic materials motivates students to learn a foreign language.

In communicative language teaching according to Richards and Rodgers (2014) it is very important to discuss the three elements of communicative learning theory. The first element is *communicative principle* that refers to activities that are used for real life situations, the second is the *task principle* focus is given on the language and the tasks that are meaningful, and the third one is the *meaningfulness principle* in which the language should be meaningful for the student. Richards (2006) proposed two methodologies in CLT: CBI (content based instruction) favours the acquisition of language through the use of content and helps develop language skills and TBI (task-based instruction) where students are exposed to real life activities and communication and are involved in meaningful activities.

All these activities are designed to facilitate students learning process and help them develop communicative language competence. In CBI the activities are interactive but not necessarily connected with real-world situations, while in TBI the activities are designed to help students in active interaction and use authentic materials such as problem-solving tasks, listening tasks, comparing, sharing personal experiences. Communicative language teaching approach is also supported by the use of games, role-plays, simulations and task-based activities which the best resources for effective communication (Richards and Rogers, 2014). According to Abe (2013) group and pair interaction, discussions in class, presentations are very useful when applying Communicative language approach. The use of the target language improves students' language skills but the teacher must be prepared to find a solution if by any reason the students do not understand the instruction or they lack the necessary skills to interact.

3.1. The use of pair and group activities

In CLT approach pair and group activities are very important because they help in the interaction as well as stimulate students to activate the language and negotiate the meaning (Richards 2006). Learning a language should not be in isolation and students should be avoided to memorize grammatical patterns and vocabulary but use the language through engagement involving in social and cognitive processes (Nunan 2004).

There are different views about the use of CLT and the role of pair/group activities applied in the foreign language classroom. According to (Rahimi and Naderi, 2014) teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs (Durrani, 2016, Khatib and Tootkaboni, 2017) found positive aspects towards using pair/group work. Chen (2015) conducted a study that showed students are satisfied with CLT in class and the use of mother tongue reduced anxiety and made them more self-confident. Students were stimulated by the use of L1, visual aids like pictures, short videos, role-plays and the results showed student's positive attitudes towards CLT. The results of the study that was conducted by Bruner, Sinwongsuwat and Radic-Bojanic (2015) showed that CLT help students improve oral English proficiency and foster communicative competences by using meaningful communicative collaborative activities that encourage students to use English in authentic real life situations. Moreover, feedback was given in order to help improve communication competences and errors if not interfered with the meaning were tolerated. Another study Muslem, Mustafa, Usman and Rahman (2017) showed that video clips helped improve speaking skills in group work more than on the students that were working on the activities individually.

Nunan (1987) used communicative activities that included jigsaw listening task, a map reading exercise, discussion based on recordings of casual conversations, interviews with students, and a comprehension class based on magazines and radio adverts. This classroom lacked communicative interaction (Toro, Minuche, Pinza-Tapia, Parades, 2019, p.113). In addition, Rao's study (2002) in China showed that students preferred non-communicative activities more than communicative as well as Leo (2014) students might not be able to do well on the exam if CLT is used because it lacks explanation of grammatical patterns and reading skills and focuses only on listening and speaking activities. All these studies that lead to negative view of CLT demonstrated a misconception of the role of group and pair work in the language classroom.

3.2. The use of grammar in CLT

The role of grammar is very important and as Littlewood (1981) suggests teaching grammatical structures is a basic concept for communicative activities proposing a methodology of pre-communicative activities where students will learn the linguistic structures which will help them practice their communicative abilities. Students should activate their language skills and communicate in a meaningful way.

According to Krashen (1982) the role of grammar plays a very important part in acquiring the language and students could not learn the language subconsciously just by providing some input. Students should be stimulated to speak and use the language subconsciously; making mistakes and at the same time conscious learning should motivate students to concentrate and apply the linguistic competences and their communicative competences and interact in a meaningful purposeful way. Chung and Huang (2009) found out that explanation of grammatical structures, memorization and translation help students in examinations. Some studies also lead to the misconception that grammar is not introduced in CLT and this lead to favour of grammar translation method. The study of Ahmad and Rao (2013) showed that teachers did not want to use CLT because grammar was not used. Coskun's (2011) study in Turkey also showed that despite the fact that teachers teach grammar through the use of communicative activities they always focus on teaching grammatical structures in the classroom. In a conclusion, there are still many misconceptions about the balanced use of CLT taking in consideration the role of the grammar and the communicative activities.

3.3. The use of the native language

The use of the native language in the classroom has gone through many debates and according to Atkinson (1987) it is beneficial to use students' native language for eliciting ideas, giving instructions in activities or tests, checking comprehension questions or facilitating the process of learning a foreign language. According to (Sert, 2005) the code switching in ESL classroom can help the teacher in giving explanation and in clarifying meaning.

Khatib and Tootkaboni (2017) made a research on the Iranian students and their perceptions toward CLT were that thoughtful use of native language is very useful and effective, especially when teacher needs to give instruction about activities or assignments. On the contrary, some teachers believed that translation will negatively contribute and will decrease students' enthusiasm for learning. According to Richards (2006) CLT should stimulate students to use their linguistic competences in the best way, interacting through pair and group work and this does not mean that students' native language should be avoided in the classroom.

3.4. The use of errors and corrections

Errors and Correction are very important in communicative language practice and in achieving adequate communicative competences. Some studies have shown that accuracy is more important than fluency. Moreover, in DoddiNejad et al. (2011) study, the linguistic features (structures, reading, vocabulary) were taught and evaluated separately. Hamer (2007) shows that non-communicative activities like worksheets (grammar, vocabulary, reading activities) are created to evaluate students' progress accurately by giving points. Communication activities such as discussions, presentations, role plays should be carefully

evaluated because these activities help students practice fluency and not accuracy. That's why errors in accuracy should be tolerated. Some studies have shown that students have negative views about errors and correction. In Ngoc and Iwashita (2012) students have negative views and teachers' positive views toward error correction. In addition, teachers believed that errors should be tolerated and evaluation should not be that strict in correcting errors while students did not share the same opinion. Coskun (2011) in his study found out that teachers corrected students immediately after their communicative output. Furthermore, Khatib and Tootkaboni (2017) found that students asked to be corrected regularly.

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this research is to examine the perceptions and challenges in Communicative language teaching and students' communicative competences in English as a second language. This study was conducted at the Language Center as well as the Faculty of Languages and Communication at the South East European University in Skopje with 32 students, age between 18-20, enrolled at their first year of study coming from culturally different ethnical groups mostly Albanian, Turks and Macedonian. The reason why the study was conducted at this particular center and the Faculty of Language and Communication is because they represent a central part of every SEEU student's academic career, where students can select both required subjects and optional elective courses. The University's mission is to promote a multilingual approach to learning, stressing both the importance of local and international languages. For this purpose, The Language Center offers classes in English starting from the basic skills up (Levels 1-4) to English for specific purposes in fields such as law, computer sciences, public administration and business administration.

This particular research was carried out during fall 2019 semester with students of mixed classes such as at International Communication studies, Business administration, Business and economics and Computer Sciences studies. In order to measure the quantitative results a Likert scale quantitative questionnaire was prepared on Google forms and distributed electronically to students and teachers during class as well as outside the class. A total number of 32 students have responded to the questionnaire and their answers certainly reflect the very positive attitudes towards Communicative language teaching. In addition 10 teachers from the Language Centre and the Faculty of Languages and Communications completed the questionnaire. In the questionnaire, both students and teachers had to answer questions related to communicative language practice in class, as well as the use and effect of communicative language teaching.

Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the communicative approach, is an approach to language teaching that emphasizes on the use of language interaction (student-teacher, student-student) both in class and outside of class. In CLT the teacher is a facilitator and guide who coordinates and leads the group activities Littlewood (1981) and help students engage and communicate especially those students that come from different background settings. In addition, English teachers at the Language Center were also asked to fill in the questionnaire regarding the use and the benefit of Communicative language teaching in their classes.

Based on the survey results, 50% of the teachers and 53.7% of the students agreed that students play main part in the process of learning and communication, 30% of the teachers are neutral and only 17% of the students, while 10% of the teachers strongly disagree. Students should use their personal experiences when practicing the target language, 70% of the teachers and 53.7% of the students agreed, while 20% of the teachers and 17% of

the students are neutral. Students are expected to interact with each other, through pair and group work or in writing, 50% of the teachers and 53.7% of the students strongly agree, 7.4% of the students are neutral and only 2.4% of the teachers disagree. Students should be able to suggest what the content of the lesson should be and what activities are useful for him/her, 20% of the teachers and 36.6% of the students agree, 60% of the teachers and 19.5% of the students are neutral while only 10% of the teachers disagree and only 7.3% of the students strongly disagree. When evaluating learners' progress in communication, vocabulary and structural knowledge should be assessed, 50% of the teachers and 26.8% of the students agreed, 20% of the teachers and 41.5% of the students are neutral while only 10% of the teachers and 4.9% of the students disagree.

Students' performance should be evaluated through communicative based activities such as role-plays, 40% of the teachers and 39% of the students agreed, 40% of the teachers and 24.4% of the students are neutral, 9.8% of the students disagree. Errors are seen as a natural outcome of the development of the communication skill and are therefore tolerated, 60% of the teachers and 19.5% of the students agreed, 36.6% of the students are neutral and 10% of the teachers, 7.3% of the students disagree. Students should be allowed to correct each other, 60% of the teachers, 29.3% of the students agreed, 19.5% of the students are neutral, 20% of the teachers and 7.3% of the students disagree. The teacher should correct students when there is a communication breakdown, 70% of the teachers and 43.9% of the students agreed, 10% of the teachers and 4.9% of the students are neutral. Language forms should be practiced within a communicative context and not in isolation, 50% of the teachers and 39% of the students agreed and 19.5% of the students are neutral while 2.4% of the students disagree.

Students focus best in grammar when they use it for communicative purposes and experiences, 50% of the teachers and 29.3% of the students agreed, 20% of the teachers and 26.8% of the students are neutral while 20% of the teachers and 7.3% of the students disagree. The main role of the teacher in the classroom is to facilitate communication and motivate students to speak, 60% of the teachers, 39% of the students agreed, 10% of the teachers and 2.4% of the students disagree. The teacher should set an environment that is interactive and more emphasis should be given to active and effective modes of learning such as pair or group work, 70% of the teachers and 39% of the students agreed, 10% of the students and 9.8% of the teachers are neutral. Group and pair work activities can lead to more effective communication, 40% of the teachers and 22% of the students agreed, 40% of the teachers and 5% of the students are neutral while 5% of the students disagree.

Formal instruction can never be replaced by group/pair work, 20% of the teachers and 29.3% of the students agreed, 50% of the teachers and 41.5% of the students are neutral while 30% of the teachers and 12.2% of the students disagree. Teachers should help students and if necessary use students' native language when giving instructions, providing directions for homework or test directions, 50% of the teachers and 31.7% of the students agreed, 30% of the teachers and 24.4% of the students are neutral and 10% of the teachers and 2.4% of the students disagree. Students' native language should be used for communication in language classrooms, 10% of the teachers and 34% of the students agree, 60% of the teachers and 31.7% of the students are neutral, 30% of the teachers and 22% of the students disagree.

5. CONCLUSION

In a conclusion, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been accepted as the best practice because it enables students to develop and improve their communicative competences (Power, 2003). It is a fact that many Language institutions have adopted this approach into their English language teaching practices. In CLT the teacher is a facilitator and guide who coordinates and leads the group activities Littlewood (1981).

The role of the teacher in communicative language teaching is an autonomous member that helps students communicate and facilitate interaction especially in a class of mix abilities and students that come from diverse cultural and educational background. Moreover, according to the results from the questionnaire, 50% of the teachers and 53.7% of the students agreed that students play main part in the process of learning and communication. 70% of the teachers and 53.7% of the students agreed that students should use their personal experiences when practicing the target language.

In a communicative language teaching classroom teachers and students play the most important roles in constructing knowledge. Richards (2006) defines the teacher as co-learner in the learning process and students are given freedom to choose the content of the lesson which gives them control over their language learning. According to the results, 60% of the teachers, 39% of the students agreed that the main role of the teacher in the classroom is to facilitate communication and motivate students to speak, 70% of the teachers and 39% of the students agreed that the teacher should set an environment that is interactive and use more effective modes of learning such as pair or group work. 40% of the teachers and 22% of the students agreed that the group and pair work activities can lead to more effective communication.

In addition, 50% of the teachers and 31.7% of the students agreed that the teachers should help students and if necessary use students' native language when giving instructions, providing directions for homework or test directions. Communicative language teaching is definitely a method that can stimulate students and motivate them to interact and the teacher is seen as co-communicator, facilitator of the process and a motivator.

Overall, in communicative language teaching teachers are expected to provide knowledge and at the same time establish interaction that will help students communicate with each other and take control of the learning process.

REFERENCES

- Beale, J. 2002. Is communicative language teaching a thing of the past? *TESOL*, 37 (1), 12-16.
- Brown, H.D. 2000. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Brown, H.D. 2001. *Teaching by Principles: An interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (2nd Ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Brown, R.S., & Nation, P. 1997. *Teaching Speaking: Suggestions for the Classroom*. Retrieved June 10, 2013 from <http://jaltpublications.org/tlt/files/97/jan/speaking.html>
- Brumfit, C. 1984. *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. 2000. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. (2nd ed.). UK: Oxford University Press.

- Leung, C. 2005. "Convivial communication: recontextualizing communicative competence". *International Journal of Applied Linguistic*, 15 (2), 119-143.
- Liao, X. 1996. *Tradition and Innovation: A New Way to Explore a TESOL Method*. U.S: Office of Education Research and Improvement.
- Littlewood, W. 1981. *Communicative Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 1999. *Second Language Teaching & Learning*. Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Power, T. 2003. *The Appeal and Poverty of CLT*. Retrieved June 11, 2013, from <http://www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/esl0404.html>
- Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T.S. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Sato, K., & Kleinsasser, R.C. 1999. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Practical Understandings. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83 (4), 494-515.
- Thomson, G. 1996. "Some misconceptions about communicative language teaching". *ELT Journal*, 50 (1), 9-15.

APPENDIX

Notes: T - teachers, S - students All figures are in percentages %	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Students play the main role in the process of learning and communication.	19%	29.3%	50%	53.7%	30%	17%	10%	0%	10%	0%
2. Students should use their personal experiences when practicing the target language.	10%	26.8%	70%	53.7%	20%	17%	2.4%	0%	2.4%	0%
3. Students are expected to interact with each other, through pair and group work or in writing.	50%	53.7%	50%	36.6%	0%	7.3%	0%	0%	2.4%	0%
4. Students should be able to suggest what the content of the lesson should be and what activities are useful for him/her.	10%	36.6%	20%	36.6%	60%	19.5%	10%	0%	0%	7.3%
5. For evaluating learners' progress in communication, vocabulary and structural knowledge should be assessed.	20%	26.8%	50%	26.8%	20%	41.5%	10%	4.9%	0%	0%
6. Students performance should be evaluated through communicative based activities such as role-plays.	20%	24.4%	40%	39%	40%	24.4%	0%	9.8%	0%	2.4%
7. Errors are seen as a natural outcome of the development of the communication skill and are therefore tolerated.	30%	36.6%	60%	19.5%	0%	36.6%	10%	7.3%	0%	0%
8. Students should be allowed to correct each other.	20%	39%	60%	29.3%	0%	19.5%	20%	7.3%	0%	4.9%
9. The teacher should correct students when there is a communication breakdown.	20%	51.2%	70%	43.9%	10%	4.9%	0%	0%	0%	0%
10. Language forms should be practiced within a communicative context and not in isolation.	50%	39%	50%	39%	0%	19.5%	0%	0%	0%	2.4%

Notes: T - teachers, S - students All figures are in percentages %	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
11. Students focus best in grammar when they use it for communicative purposes and experiences	10%	34%	50%	29.3%	20%	26.8%	20%	7.3%	0%	2.4%
12. The main role of the teacher in the classroom is to facilitate communication and motivate students to speak.	30%	56%	60%	39%	0%	2.4%	10%	2.4%	0%	0%
13. The teacher should set an environment that is interactive and more emphasis should be given to active and effective modes of learning such as pair or group work.	20%	51.2%	70%	39%	10%	9.8%	0%	0%	0%	0%
14. Group and pair work activities can lead to more effective communication	20%	63.3%	40%	22%	40%	5%	0%	0%	0%	5%
15. Formal instruction can never be replaced by group/pair work.	0%	17%	20%	29.3%	50%	41.5%	30%	12.2%	0%	0%
16. Teachers should help students and if necessary use students native language when giving instructions, providing directions for homework or test directions	10%	41.5%	50%	31.7%	30%	24.4%	0%	0%	10%	2.4%
17. Students' native language should be used for communication in language classrooms	0%	9.8%	10%	34%	60%	31.7%	30%	22%	0%	2.4%

ESP/LSP/GE FUSION AS AN IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATION CONTINUITY IDEAS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FOSTERING VITAL SKILLS OF GENERATION Z IN THE SHADOW OF THE NEW REALITY: CASE STUDY

Svetlana Rubtsova, Tatiana Dobrova

Faculty of Modern Languages, St Petersburg State University, Russia

E-mail: t.dobrova@spbu.ru

Abstract. *Foreign language communication is an essential part of the future professional activities of generation Z students. A professional-oriented approach to teaching a foreign language is therefore becoming particularly relevant. It is common knowledge that the English language varies depending on the content of the professional sphere, with ESP in some spheres sounding as a foreign language to native speakers. Therefore, there is a need to combine ESP, EAP, and GE. The language abilities of generation Z students are changing due to the increase in foreign language content of everyday life. This influences the education environment, which brings modern young people closer to the need of understanding Internet content. It explains the young generation's interest in foreign languages (in 99% of cases it is the English language). The authors focus on fostering the vital skills of generation Z and provide some recommendations based on the experience gained during the coronavirus pandemic by the Faculty of Modern Languages at St Petersburg University.*

Key words: *generation Z, ESP, EAP, university students, distant education*

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays in our globalised world a professional-oriented approach to teaching foreign languages is becoming increasingly relevant. It is undeniable that the English language varies depending on the content of the professional sphere, with ESP in some spheres sounding as a foreign language to native speakers. Therefore, there is a need to combine ESP, EAP, and GE. On top of that, possessing this knowledge does not guarantee success in a world where you need to learn quickly and adapt at 'warp speed', to be flexible, improvise and work a lot in teams (because high-tech products require the coordinated work of different specialists). Information and communication services on the Internet do allow us to organise independent work of students and improve the availability and the quality of education effectively. Blended learning helps to provide the perpetuity of education. The labour market is becoming more and more mobile. In the modern world, one should not expect to be trained for a particular position or workplace. Any type of activity is likely to be automated/digitised, and particular specialists will be made unnecessary.

It is no wonder that transferable skills that make specialists more adaptable to the changing reality have been attracting the attention of both educational institutions and

Submitted October 18th, 2020, accepted for publication October 26th, 2020

employers. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (Agenda 2015), adopted by all United Nations Member States five years ago, provides 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Goal number 4 stands for ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all. It specifies the necessity “to build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all”. The ability to communicate in the professional sphere using foreign languages and IT skills are considered the main transferrable skills (Macmillan 2020).

The compendium of new professions developed by Moscow School of Management SKOLKOVO provides a list of skills that need to be developed for specialists to successfully find their place in the changing picture of the future (Atlas 2014). They are called transferable skills or soft skills.

The main skills are the following:

- Digital literacy;
- Multilingualism and multiculturalism (fluency in English and knowledge of a second foreign language, understanding of the national and cultural context of partner countries, understanding the ins and outs);
- Ability to work with teams, groups, and individuals;
- Working in the atmosphere of high uncertainty and rapid change of task conditions (ability to make decisions quickly, respond to changes in working conditions, ability to allocate resources and manage one’s time).

Kjell Nordstrom a Professor at the Swedish school of Economics, speaking at the Synergy Global Forum paid attention to transferable skills as well. He is one of the most famous economists, the author of the book *Funky Business - Talent Makes Capital Dance* together with his colleague Jonas Ridderstråle (Nordström & Ridderstråle 2000). The book has become an international best-seller, and has been translated into 33 languages. It is a “manifesto of what our time requires from business firms and their leaders”.

Kjell Nordstrom points out that we are only at the very beginning of digitalization. In the future, everything that can be digitized will be digitized. The speed of these changes is incredible. Apple Pay came to Russia just a couple of years ago, but now none of the sales persons at the checkout are surprised that you pay with your phone. The availability of information in the modern world changes the value of higher education. Knowledge in the university world is no longer unique; the monopoly on knowledge no longer exists. You do not need Harvard to gain knowledge from Harvard. If about five years ago being a graduate gave you the green light to any corporation, now all this knowledge is available to anyone. The question now is when will the university diploma die as it is. Kjell Nordstrom believes that this is a matter of several years. Professional knowledge is necessary, but it does not guarantee you success.

When applying for a job, the employers will look not at the professional skills of the applicant, but at the way one lives in the new world: the applicant’s usual way of receiving information, the way of communicating in the world network, and what foreign languages and how many of them one speaks. Employers will look for a person with whom they are most comfortable to work, and then provide these candidates with fast and effective professional training. Anyone can become a professional. Not everyone is capable of being efficient. It is the fostering of these transferable skills that the higher school should focus on to adapt to an increasingly changing labour market. In addition, almost any specialist can be trained for a particular job quickly and effectively with the help of specialised courses and training, providing they have some basic competencies.

To survive in the new conditions, universities should stop being conservative, not try to stop the evolution, but aspire to get the graduates ready to enter the constantly changing labour market. In Russia, we are also aware of the need to provide a greater flexibility in higher education to better match the changing labour market. In January 2020, the President of the Russian Federation V. Putin called for adapting the higher education system to the changing environment. Students should be given the opportunity to choose the direction of training starting from the third year of study, and not from the first one as it is now. The idea is that students are going to be admitted to the university in general, rather than to the law programme or physics programme. Specialisation is to be introduced only after two years of education with only basic disciplines in the curricula. General basic English will be taught as the first foreign language for students of all professional directions for the first two years at the university.

This study is the result of implementing the idea of education continuity in terms of developing foreign language communicative competence in higher education, using the example of the Faculty of Modern Languages at St Petersburg State University in the 'new reality'.

2. ESP/LSP/GE FUSION IN ST PETERSBURG UNIVERSITY

English is the first foreign language for all undergraduate programmes at St Petersburg University. Today the discipline «English Language» is a part of the block of basic subjects during the first two years of education. Foreign language competence of students continues to be formed during the 3rd and 4th years. This is at the expense of specialised ESP courses in English, seminars and round tables on the specialty, which are provided mostly by professors of the relevant ESP sphere. The master's programme provides teaching ESP/EAP for two semesters. Then, the foreign language competence of students also continues to be fostered with the help of specialised ESP/EAP courses in English provided by specialists in the relevant sphere of knowledge.

Foreign language communication is now becoming an essential part of the future professional activity of a university graduate. This means that a profession-oriented approach to teaching a foreign language is becoming particularly relevant. The situation is a continuation of the idea that the English language varies depending on the content of the discipline. Therefore, when learning English, it is necessary to connect three models of using English: GE (General English); EAP (English for academic purposes); ESP (English for special purposes). Understanding what the ESP/EAP/GE ratio should be at different stages of English language acquisition has been changing over time. As a rule, we find an approach in which teaching ESP requires a certain level of students' language proficiency. The lowest level, cited in didactic studies, at which ESP training took place is lower beginner (Yogman & Kaylani 1996).

Taking into account the growing attention to the study of English in secondary school and the forthcoming introduction of mandatory unified state examination in a foreign language in the RF, it is not surprising that most first-year students at the University, who previously studied English, are students with B1 level of English. However, students of international relations, philology, management, global economy and so on demonstrate as a rule level B2, C1, and C2. We insist on introducing ESP from the very beginning of training for students of all specialisations. The professors of the Faculty of Modern

Languages have created ESP tests and exercises for 22 specialisations of the University, which provide students with teaching materials different from their school textbooks.

First year students take a placement test at the beginning of September and are distributed into four education paths or 'trajectories'. The percentages of GE/EAP/ESP depending on the education paths we recommend are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 GE/EAP/ESP depending on education paths

Education path	GE/EAP/ESP %
A1 – A2	65/10/25
A2 – B1	50/15/35
B1 – B2	25/20/55
B2 – B2+	5/25/70

This approach implements the idea of the individualisation of education.

3. GENERATION Z

How do we make teaching English at university more effective? For this purpose, we should consider the main characteristics of the generation of students we have to deal with. Generation Z received its designation in accordance with the theory of generations developed by the American historian and writer William Strauss and the American scientist Neil Howe (Howe & Strauss 1999). The theory is based on repeating with a certain cyclicality patterns of human behaviour on the scale of history.

Based on the fact that the average life expectancy is 80 years and consists of four periods of approximately 20 years (childhood, youth, middle age, and old age), the authors of the theory define a generation as a set of people who are born every 20 years. For the convenience of description and research, a classification of generations is proposed. The classification is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 The theory of generations

Generation	Born between
Baby Boomers	1940-1960
Generation X	1961-1980
Generation Y	1981-1995
Generation Z	1996-2017

The borders between generations are conditional and may differ for different countries, taking into account internal circumstances. For example, in the United States, the Baby Boomer generation is considered to be born after 1939, i.e. after the end of the great depression; in Russia it is 1946, i.e. after the end of World War Two. Nevertheless, general trends within about one generation coincide in different countries, which determined the viability of the generational theory.

Those born in 1996-1998 have already graduated from universities and colleges and joined the labour market. Those born in 1999-2002 are studying, and many of them work part-time during their 1st or 2nd year at university. Young people born in 2003-2004 are already on the threshold of choosing a life path. Our current students are representatives of Generation Z.

If we talk about fundamental differences, Generation Z is the first in world history that does not know what a world without computers and the Internet is. What was once the technology of the future for their parents from Generations X and Y, for Generation Z has long been the present and the real world in which they live. Computer technology as the real world in which generation Z lives is not an exaggeration. According to one of the world's largest commercial banks, Goldman Sachs, young people can spend up to 10 hours a day online.

This is the first truly digital generation. Representatives of Generation Z actively use tablets, VR-and 3D-reality. Often, the term 'Generation Z' is considered a synonym for the term 'digital person'. Generation Z is interested in science and technology. They:

- are inextricably linked to gadgets and social networks,
- are involved in digital technologies,
- do not establish strong connections, if they do not like something, they just choose another option – the global network gives a lot of opportunities,
- need to get results quickly,
- prefer more practice while educated.

The boundaries between online and offline for generation Z are rather arbitrary. Almost everything that happens to them in real life immediately becomes public through social networks and messengers, which young people actively use. It is quite logical that they expect the same from everyone else – openness and willingness to share events. It is desirable that the events are interesting and exciting. This applies not only to friends and the immediate environment – for external communications, young people choose people who also live in networks and give quick feedback. Given that Generation Z is connected up to 10 hours a day, it is always possible to solve any work issue with them remotely.

The analysis of the main characteristics of generation Z lets us make the conclusion that there is a need to implement digital technologies. This ensures the efficiency of transferable skills fostered during the process of learning English. The traditional model of education aimed only at obtaining knowledge is hopelessly outdated. It is necessary to transform the educational paradigm itself and review existing approaches and learning models fostering transferable skills. These include digital literacy skills, and social and emotional skills for success in the new digital world.

4. DIGITALIZATION

The systematic approach to the learning process has changed. Today many subjects are taught with the help of Internet and mobile learning technologies. IT integration into teaching ESP, in particular Internet tools, is one of the most burning nowadays' problem (Beatty 2010, Kakoulli 2018). Independent work of students is performed today, as a rule, through their participation in specially developed activities using electronic resources and Internet communications.

Teachers of our Faculty have created a database of more than 36,000 tasks in 22 areas of training. These tasks are for four semesters of training and they are uploaded to the Black Board electronic educational system. Each student has the opportunity to master certain grammatical and lexical skills on their own at a convenient time on their mobile phone, according to the recommendation of the teacher. Thus, due to the student-oriented independent tasks, the teacher has the opportunity to choose an individual learning path for each student.

Speaking about the digital approach to education we cannot but mention MOOCs. When teaching ESP/EAP, we encourage our students to use MOOCs. Teachers of the Faculty have created a number of online courses. These include “Preparation for the PhD English exam” and “English of Law”. In addition, we have created six online courses in all lecture subjects of the additional educational programme “Translating in the field of professional communication” which were offered to our students at the beginning of the autumn semester in September 2019. They are: “Theoretical Grammar of the English Language”, “Intercultural Communication and Interpreting”, “Stylistics of the Russian Language”, “Introduction to Translation Theory”, “US Studies” and “UK Studies”.

5. METHODS AND AIMS

Today most of our students and postgraduate students are representatives of generation Z. To meet the needs of the labour market, universities have to provide future specialists with the ability to communicate in their professional spheres using English as lingua franca. The analysis of the main characteristics of representatives of this generation has shown that to make foreign language competence fostering effective it is worth using digital technologies at all stages of teaching English. Elements of ESP and EAP are an integral part of English classes from the very beginning.

The aim of this research is to find out the role of IT in teaching English. To reach the goal the authors conducted the survey with the help of the Google Forms service. We initially planned to find out our students’ preferences concerning some vital issues through launching: new online courses at the beginning of the new academic year in September 2019; and an online service for independent students’ activities. They included an effectiveness of student-oriented independent tasks uploaded in the Black Board system, and MOOCs while teaching English for postgraduate students and students of the programme “Translating in the field of professional communication”. When the pandemic of COVID started we decided to take advantage of the situation and to focus as well on the IT role in teaching English in general taking into account generation Z peculiarities.

6. DISCUSSION

In February 2019, we started a pilot project aimed at including tasks uploaded in the Black Board system into the University curricula. The tasks for independent students’ activities were divided into blocks, with the number of blocks equal to the number of weeks in the term (15 weeks). Students of 22 areas of professional training had to do the tasks regularly, with continuous assessment at the end of each week. In May 2019 the survey on the effectiveness of student-oriented independent tasks uploaded in the Black

Board system was conducted. 1568 first- and second-year students took part in the survey. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Blackboard tasks

Question	yes %	rather yes than no %	no %
Did you use your smart phone to complete the tasks?	92	7.5	0.5
Was it easy to do the tasks?	57	32	11
Did you do all the tasks?	86	14	0
Did you always do the tasks just before the deadline?	63	9	28
Do you find the tasks useful?	89	9	2
Do you prefer independent tasks in the BB system to classroom activities?	83	15	2

As the results show, the experiment with the online tasks has proved successful. The vast majority of students believe that independent work in the BB system is useful and saves time. Noteworthy that only 28% of the respondents did the tasks beforehand, although just 14% did not do all the tasks. The fact that 92% of students used their smart phones to do the tasks correlates fully with the result of the analysis of the main features of generation Z representatives. We would think that it was the fact that the students managed to do online tasks at any convenient time and in any convenient place that made them prefer tasks in the BB system rather than classroom activities.

The second survey was dedicated to the MOOCs created by the faculty professors for postgraduate programmes in the sphere of law and economics, and for the programme “Translating in the field of professional communication”. The students of this programme were offered eight MOOCs, i.e. all theoretical disciplines of the programme. We launched the MOOCs in September 2019. At the end of the semester in January 2020, a survey was conducted. 176 students of the programme “Translating in the field of professional communication” and 47 postgraduate students of economics and law took part in it. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4 MOOCs or not?

Question	176 graduates			47 postgraduates		
	yes %	no %	do not know %	yes %	no %	do not know %
Did you find MOOCs useful?	87	11	2	96	3	1
Should all theoretical disciplines be in the form of MOOCs?	29	53	18	68	26	6
Did you get high scores for the MOOCs tests?	71	29	0	96	4	0

The survey showed that in general, students rated the experience of using online courses on the programme positively, as 87% of students and 96% of postgraduate students responded. While only 29% of students were willing to completely replace lectures by online courses. They need direct communication with the teachers and with their classmates. This communication makes the classes more effective. The fact that

most of the postgraduate students (68%) preferred to do MOOCs may be because most of them worked part time, and it was much more convenient for them. They focus on their careers rather than on interaction with their classmates. We came to the conclusion that blended learning will ensure the most effective learning of subjects.

Due to the threat of Covid-19 proliferation, St Petersburg University had to switch to distance learning. This enabled students to get to know a large number of Internet services, which foreign language teachers began to actively use in every class, not only as their homework, but also as an online class practice.

An online survey was conducted to determine the level of students' awareness of various Internet services that can be used for teaching ESP. These included those aimed at forming a lexical component of the language competence. About 2000 students of St Petersburg University took part in the survey. Students were asked which type of class they preferred regardless of the Covid-19 restrictions (online, offline or blended). The majority of the respondents selected offline (41.3%) and blended learning (35.3%) as the most appropriate forms of education, specifying that despite convenience of online learning "nothing could be better than real communication". However, an assumption should be made that quite low results for online learning might reflect an overall feeling of fatigue and tiredness caused by the lockdown and students' constant sitting in front of computers and laptops. The results of the survey are presented in Figure 1.

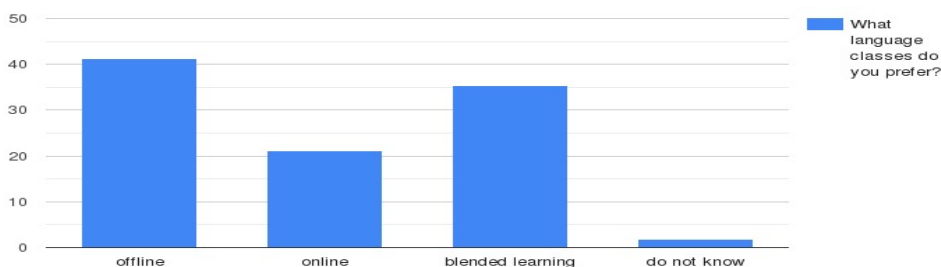


Fig. 1 What language classes do you prefer?

Noteworthy that students and teacher use many online platforms for online classes, with 40% of students using more than one tool. The results of the survey are presented in Figure 2.



Fig. 2 Online educational tools used for language classes

The most popular online platform was considered Zoom (91%), followed by Discord (61.3%) and Blackboard (53.1%). The others are not so popular: Quizlet (31%), MS Teams (20%), Kahoot (16%) and Skype (6%). It is worth mentioning that at the end of 2019 only a few people used Zoom, while Skype was quite popular. Today the situation is absolutely different. We believe that the main reasons are the larger number of participants in Zoom conferences, and more stable operation of the platform when using a smart phone. Finally, two thirds of the students have mentioned that IT-tools would be best used for home tasks. These results are consistent with the answers received on the question what language classes students prefer regardless of the Covid-19 restrictions (online, offline or blended).

Having analysed the results of the survey, we can state that the students believe modern ESP teaching cannot be effective without using online services, both for classroom work and for homework. Although students prefer to use IT tools for homework as they appreciate real communication both with their mates and with teachers. Thus, blended learning seems the best solution.

In June, the Faculty of Modern Languages together with the University School of Translation and Interpreting held an online Summer Translation School. The School was held for three days, more than ten famous interpreters and translators gave presentations and master-classes and over 400 participants listened to them.

It was another opportunity to find out the attitude of our audience to online meetings. The Google form survey was conducted to estimate the results of the event. The comment that seems to be the most typical was:

“I liked the format – as I understand it. Many speakers took part in the Summer School because the online format meant that they did not have to come to St Petersburg. If we had attended in person then probably we would not have been able to hear so many remarkable speakers. Besides recording provided the opportunity to do it at a convenient time.”

Answering the question “What is your preferred format for participation in the activities? (regardless of the epidemiological situation)” an equal number of respondents preferred blended participation and online participation, while offline participation was chosen by only 15% of the respondents (Fig.3).

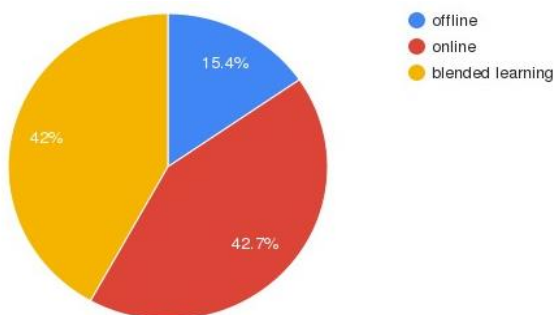


Fig. 3 What is your preferred format for participation in the activities?

Question “How many lectures of the Summer School did you watch online? (there were 12 of them in total)” 25% preferred to watch later most of the recorded lectures, but still about 70% watched them online (Fig.4).

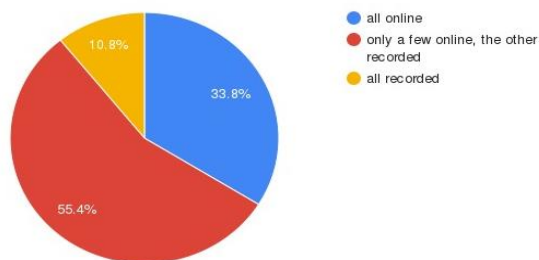


Fig. 4 How many lectures of the Summer School did you watch online?

We asked our participants to estimate the organisers' work. "Please rate the organisational component of the event on a 5-point scale: communication with participants, moderation of discussions, distribution of materials, feedback." And it was highly rated (Fig. 5). We use professional version of Zoom, however there were still some minor technical problems.

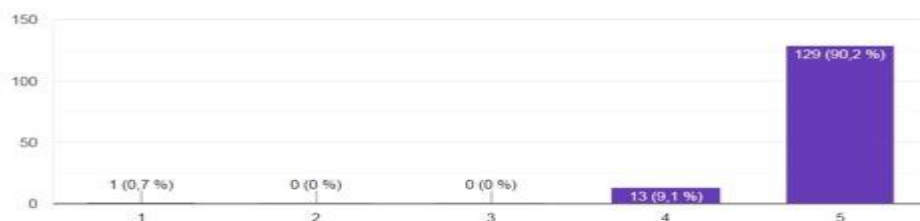


Fig. 5 Please rate the organisational component of the event on a 5-point scale

7. CONCLUSION

To sum up we can state that generation Z representatives are "digital natives", they use modern digital technologies easily and constantly in their everyday lives, they appreciate taking online courses or drilling some grammar or lexical difficulties on their smart phones. However, the majority of students are not ready to go completely online in their education. Communication with their mates and teachers is an integral part of the process of education for them, the special psychological atmosphere or "chemistry" during offline classes being hard to overestimate. So, they choose blended learning. While most of postgraduate students prefer MOOCs as they are more independent and concentrated on their carriers rather than communication with their classmates.

The COVID pandemic has forced both teachers and students to use a number of online tools in language education, with Zoom being the most popular. The experience gained during the Summer Translation School in June 2020 let us conclude that online conferences can become quite popular in the world academic community. However, the majority of the participants preferred to watch lectures online rather than recorded, appreciating the opportunity to take part in the discussion even in chats.

REFERENCES

- Agenda for Sustainable Development 2015 <<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld/publication>> (20 May 2020).
- Atlas of new professions (2014). <<http://atlas100.ru/about/>> (22 May 2020).
- Bates T. Teaching in a Digital Age <<https://opentextbc.ca/teachinginadigitalage/chapter/11-1-what-do-we-mean-by-quality-when-teaching-in-a-digital-age/>> (20 May 2020).
- Beatty K. Teaching and Researching: Computer- Assisted Language Learning. Longman, 2010.
- ESP program design for mixed level students. JudyYogman, Cora T.Kaylani English for Specific Purposes Volume 15, Issue 4, 1996, Pages 311-324.
- Howe, N.; Strauss, W. (1991). Generations: The History of America's Future, 1584 to 2069. https://archive.org/details/generationshisto00stra_0 (25 May 2020).
- Kakoulli Constantinou, E. 2018. — Teaching in Clouds: Using the G Suite for Education for the Delivery of Two English for Academic Purposes Courses. | The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes 6 (2): 305–17. <https://doi.org/10.22190/jtesap1802305c>. (28 May 2020).
- Macmillan. (2020). Little Book of Business Skills. Retrieved from <<http://www.businessenglishonline.net/business-2/files/2014/11/Little-Book-of-Business-Skills.pdf>> (25 May 2020).
- Nordström, Kjell A.; Ridderstråle, Jonas (2000). Funky business: Talent makes capital dance. <https://books.google.ru/books?id=I8wWzmiz2EsC&printsec=frontcover&dq=Kjell+A.+Nordström&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Kjell%20A.%20Nordström&f=false> (28 May 2020).

Book review
**ENGLISH PROFICIENCY IN CYBERNETICS TEXTBOOK
AS A REFLECTION OF ESP PERSPECTIVES IN UKRAINIAN
HIGH EDUCATION**

Maryna Rebenko

Foreign Languages for Mathematical Faculties Department, Institute of Philology, Taras Shevchenko National
University of Kyiv, Ukraine

Phone: +380676892277, E-mail: m.rebenko@knu.ua

1. GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The *English Proficiency in Cybernetics* textbook (Rebenko, 2017), published by Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine (<http://www.univ.kiev.ua/en/>), has been designed for the B2-C1 students completing their 4th year of undergraduate study in Applied Mathematics, Computer Sciences, System Analysis, IT and Software Engineering. As a part of its author's – Associate Professor, Ph.D. in Philology Maryna Yu. Rebenko – in-depth research, this course applies to the Cybernetics students who have a specific area of academic and/or professional interest in ESP. Technology-integrated English for Specific Purposes content of the textbook allows the students to develop their English competences, particularly reading, writing and speaking, successfully. Based on recent trends in ESP/EAP methodology, the textbook under review meets national and international academic standards, professional requirements, and students' personal needs. Primarily compiled for the Cybernetics undergraduates, the topics of the book might be implemented effectively in other subject-related ESP classrooms. Both the clear language and the accessible style aim to equip students with high-level employability literacy skills. The student-centred teaching strategies are embedded in each unit to nurture student disciplinary literacy as a whole, and critical thinking and reflective practices development in particular. The textbook is appropriate for both in- and out-of-the-classroom ESP environments, as well as examination preparation. It could be also applied in online learning to facilitate senior students' professional competence.

2. BOOK DESIGN OVERVIEW

The textbook reveals a wide range of Computer Science and Information Technology related topics, such as Cybernetics Origin (pp. 6-16), Subdivisions of Cybernetics (pp. 17-25), Robotics (pp. 26-36), Cybernetics in Biology (pp. 37-47), Modern Technologies (pp. 48-57), Network World Society (pp. 58-67), Cyber Security (pp. 68-76), Online Communication Ethics (pp. 77-84), Future Development of Science (pp. 85-96), and Ecological Challenges (pp. 97-108). It opens with the Preface (p. 5) which sets the scene. At the end of the textbook four appendices are comprised – Common Computer Science and IT Acronyms (pp. 109-

Submitted September 17th, 2020, accepted for publication December 12th, 2020

111), Supplementary Reading (pp. 112-148), Useful Phrases and Clichés for Summary Writing (pp. 149), and Developing Student Writing Proficiency section (pp. 150-157). There is a list of references with the entries to each unit at the end of the textbook. Each unit is organized in two thematic parts – Part I and Part II. The structure of a textbook unit is as follows:

Unit Title

Part I. Subtitle 1.

- A. “Discussion Starters” Session
- B. “Before You Read” Session
- C. Article 1 reading
- D. “Comprehension Check” Session
- E-F. Post-article vocabulary building assignments
- G. Student “Pair Work” Session.

Part II. Subtitle 2.

- A. “Before You Read” Session
- B. Article 2 reading
- C. “Comprehension Check” Session
- D-E. Post-article vocabulary and grammar assignments
- F. Student “Web Research Activity” Session
- G. Speaking Tests 1-2
- H. Checklist
- I. Home Writing/Reading Task.

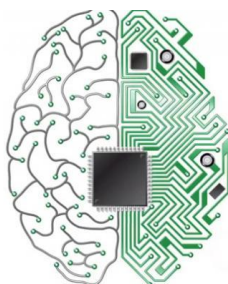
Part I of each unit warms up learners at a “Discussion Starters” session. A set of images, presented here, illustrate a case problem to consider first that will be discussed throughout the unit. This is followed by Before You Read Session, a self-reflective question related to the unit case problem. The book keeps introducing to a new topic with an article to read. For a deeper understanding of the author’s ideas, a post-reading comprehension test is implied (Session D). Students refer back to the text either answering the text-dependent questions or making up their questions to shed light on the author's key ideas. Next, in Sessions E-F, learners build up their topic-related vocabulary by doing the matching, synonym-antonym, sentence ending suggestion, true-false, agree-disagree, and other activities. Session G employs pair or group work subject-matter discussion to foster student opinion exchange, consolidate the acquired knowledge, and develop their speaking skills.

Part II logically sequences the textbook contents and learners’ objectives. Aimed to refine reading, speaking and writing skills, the sessions are structurally similar to Part I layout but more varied here. For example, Session B, a reading completion assignment, is designed similarly to the academic exam layout (see the ESP National Curriculum for Universities (Bakaeva et al, 2005)) when a learner first reads an article and then complete a reading gap-filling summary, match headings, etc. Next, to provide evidence from the reading, Comprehension Check Session may ask learners to work out the questions based on the corresponding answers or make up their own sentences with the given word combinations from the article. Sessions D-E target to practice and expand students' vocabulary through word-formation gap filling, sentence logical ending, grammatically irrelevant word correction, and use of language completion tasks. Then, Web Research Activity Session challenges students' self-learning skills to explore topic-relevant online

information, organize it in a self-designed project, and present its key ideas in class. An ESP practitioner can optionally run the web research activity assignment not as a self-worked out project, but as a teamwork task, applying EduScrum project-making principles of Agile learning expertise. It boosts the speaking skills through the acquired knowledge compilation and project-making learning. Session G (Speaking Tests 1-2) represents topic-related pictures or quotes from famous scientists and/or IT luminaries to ponder upon. Students are encouraged to argue upon their work-through examples. Also, students may be asked to role-play according to the topic-related authentic context. Taking on different personalities learns role-players to cooperate and arouses student job-focused consciousness. Next is a self-review checklist with a series of questions to answer. Multiple-choice answer options are not provided. All narrowly focused and concrete objective questions point to the mainstream purpose to foster learners to review the unit material and enhance both their hard and soft skills in professional English. Each unit ends up with a special expanded reading or essay writing exercising Session I. Students may either read a content-oriented paper and summarize its key ideas by making a report in class or write an essay on a suggested topic. An essay type is always prescribed in the task.

2.1. Unit samples

For instance, in Discussion Starters Session A of Unit 4 *Cybernetics in Biology*, Part I, students can see the following image:



(Rebenko, 2017, p. 37. Retrieved from <https://www.singularityweblog.com/practopoiesis/>)

As B2-C1 learners come to a topic with some domain knowledge background, they are supposed first to describe the given image, then to comment on the possibility to implement engineering decisions into studying of human intelligence.

In Before You Read Session B of Unit 2 *Subdivisions of Cybernetics* learners are asked to reflect on what is implied in the idea of focusing on technology, not people, as the title of the text for reading is *Artificial Intelligence Ideas: focus on tech, not people*.

In the post-reading Session E of Unit 5 *Modern Technologies*, students are supposed to suggest their own endings of the given incomplete sentences from the essay *So Much Information, So Little Time*. Learners fill in the table with the details from the animals mentioned in the text *Ready for the Robot Revolution?* to complete another post-reading Session F of Unit 3 *Robotics*.

As described above, student pair/group work activities (Session G) make a logical ending of Part I of each unit. Here is an example from Session G of Unit 8 *Online Communication Ethics* where students role-play according to the following situation:

Student A You are eager to boost one of the latest versions of the temporary social networking application. You should convince your audience that your product is going to alter human relationships to online visibility, data privacy, and content ownership.

Student B You are an opponent of such innovations. You do believe that temporary social media gives nothing but posting inappropriate pictures, hacking into profiles, spreading rumours, etc. Substantiate your ideas with examples and prove that natural ways to communicate are the only suitable ones for human beings (Rebenko, 2017, p. 80).

For instance, in Part II of Unit 7 *Cyber Security*, Reading Session B, students are engaged in reading the article *The Snowden Era Challenges* and assigned to fill in the gaps with a suitable word form.

Post-article vocabulary and grammar Sessions D-E of Unit 9 *Future Development of Science and Technology* are organized as follows:

D Read the following paragraphs depicting the areas that will be revolutionized by quantum computing in the future. Guess the areas mentioned. For each gap think of the most appropriate word to complete the text.

Text

E Each sentence, from 1 to 10, of the essay *Future Car Technologies*, may contain an unnecessary word – a word which is either grammatically incorrect or one that doesn't fit in with the meaning of the text. Indicate the unnecessary word and tick the correct sentences (✓).

Text

(Rebenko, 2017, p. 93-94).

In Web Research Activity Session F of Unit 10 *Ecological Challenges*, students are assigned to project the topic *Future Challenges for Mankind* and focus on the following issues: peak oil and water dilemma; climate change; food shortage; resource and food depletion; viral pandemics; population ageing, and religious tensions.

In Speaking Test 2 of Session G (Unit 8 *Online Communication Ethics*) students are engaged to reflect and discuss the following controversial issues:

- Give your considerations why such giants as *Apple* may come to the tech world's "bad boys list" of the US government? Substantiate your ideas with examples.
- Comment whether *Apple* was right in its refusal to unlock a phone that belonged to the terrorist, San Bernadino shooter Syed Farook? (Rebenko, 2017, p. 84).

Session I of Unit 2 *Subdivisions of Cybernetics* may exemplify the home writing assignment format. Here students are supposed to write an argumentative essay on one of the given statements:

1. Technological progress will be accelerated by the arrival of advanced artificial intelligence.
2. Superintelligence will lead to more advanced superintelligence.
3. Superintelligence may be the last invention humans ever need to make (Rebenko, 2017, p. 25).

2.2. Appendices description

Appendix 1 provides learners with the most common Computer Science and IT acronyms, particularly the shortened forms of the frequently used terms, email abbreviations, and emoticons. Appendix 2 supplements each unit with two thematically related texts making it possible to expand the students' subject-matter knowledge. The table in Appendix 3 reveals a set of useful phrases and clichés for summary writing. Finally, Appendix 4 covers the examples of two essay types – argumentative and expository. The samples of ‘for and against’, ‘positive or negative development’, ‘advantage/disadvantage’, and discursive essays as models of argumentative writing attempt to review how to convince the reader to accept the writer's point of view. Learners can practice how to provide information, explanations, and points of view straightforwardly to the readers through opinion, discussion, ‘suggestion solutions to the problem’ essay samples as expository writing models. The appendices content aims to push further development of student reading and writing proficiency skills with an emphasis on the full self-learning strategy.

3. EVALUATION

This over-150-page textbook in professional English is well pedagogically designed and consistently written. Formally approved by the faculty and university Academic, and Scientific and Methodological Councils, the textbook is published by Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv Publishing House.

The sufficient built-in practical material of the units is featured by well-designed instructional aids, i.e. learners' engagement in all activities is crucial. There is a strong focus on the students' acquired knowledge transfer into real-life tasks and applications at a would-be workplace. The *English Proficiency in Cybernetics* approach enables students to become aware of what they learn, why they need this knowledge, and how to apply it effectively beyond the ESP classroom. The combination of pre-, while- and post-reading tasks make reading more communicative and learners more engaged, and also, it integrates other skills development. Encouraged to ask and answer questions, make up their own text-related questions, perform subject-matter situations in teams and work out projects, learners boost their professional vocabulary. The reflective learning mode of speaking tests enables students to express themselves freely and, as a result, develop their critical thinking and nurture reflective practice skills. Students are expected to work hard on their reading or writing homework. Pre-built problem cases and content-based assignments make their overall work fruitful.

The *English Proficiency in Cybernetics* application is partly limited. It could be hardly used in large classrooms with more than 25 students each when an ESP teacher does not monitor individual and/or small student group work efficiently. In contrast, it could be run within the following ESP setups – from small student classrooms (up to 20

students in a class) to blended learning settings when the in-class teacher's monitored activities are combined with distance and self-learning environments. So, the aforementioned educational endeavours might contribute to students' professional English competence enhancement within the university ESP traditional classroom and beyond it.

REFERENCES

- Bakaeva, G., Borysenko, O., Ivanischeva, V., Khodtseva, A., Klymenko, L., Kostrytska, S., ... Zuyenok, I. (2005). *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) National Curriculum for Universities*. Kyiv, Ukraine: LENVIT.
- Rebenko, M. Yu. (2017). *English Proficiency in Cybernetics: Textbook (1st Edition)*. Kyiv, Publishing and Polygraph Centre "The University of Kyiv". http://csc.knu.ua/media/filer_public/61/6b/616bb9af-34e1-4116-84a6-a95a86e42def/cnt-0020626-01.pdf.



Funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union