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JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES

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Original scientific paper

ROLE OF ONLINE DISCUSSION FORUMS IN ENHANCING USERS' COGNITIVE SKILLS

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Abstract. *The study examines the role of online discussion forums (ODFs) in the learning process, using Garrison, Anderson and Archer's (2000) Community of Inquiry (CoI) model, particularly on the development of metacognitive skills, higher-order thinking skills and collaborative learning, all of which provide the impetus for workplace skills, such as analytical skills and teamwork. To achieve that, the study adopts the qualitative content analysis method to examine learners' text submissions in the ODF. An ODF was set up on www.easyclass.com (an online learning management system), and students were invited to post their submissions in the forum bi-weekly for three months. A series of prompts from the course instructor were given to the learners in the ODF bi-weekly after the f2f classroom interaction. The prompts were designed to elicit students' responses, which would provide evidence of students' learning, such as application of theory to practice, the abstraction of major ideas from a text, appropriate inferences and synthesis of ideas, etc. The analysis of the findings demonstrated evidence of metacognitive awareness, which was facilitated by the asynchronous nature of the discussion forum, as it gives learners sufficient time to engage in thorough research and careful thought before posting their submission. The findings also demonstrated that peer-to-peer knowledge dissemination is best stimulated using the ODF, as it gives learners opportunities to participate actively and to collaborate with their peers in the learning process.*

Key words: *online discussion forum, computer-mediated communication metacognitive skills, collaboration, higher education*

1. INTRODUCTION

Technology-enabled learning is fast becoming pervasive in higher education worldwide and is being adopted by more and more high schools and higher educational institutions. Available evidence shows that the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the educational process is spreading faster than any other form of curricula change and innovation in the world, and advances in technology have led to a significant shift in the instructional processes (Hu et al. 2018). Hawkins and Rudy (2008) report that by 2007, over 90% of US universities and colleges had established one or more LMS-type products for student and faculty use.

Many factors are responsible for the adoption of technology-mediated learning, one of the most prominent ones certainly being globalization. Such factors inform the pressure on higher educational institutions (HEIs) to integrate new technologies, particularly online learning. Technology is thought to redress HEI challenges especially faced in developing countries, such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of meaningful note taking skills during face-to-face classroom contact, and the culture of developing students' capacity to pass examination through memorisation as well as dwindling or obsolete equipment and limited human resources (Dooga, 2010). Technology-mediated learning cannot be more desirable than in this era of pandemic, as it integrates both safety and survival with a continuous learning experience.

Most institutions of higher learning in sub-Saharan Africa started making efforts to integrate technology in teaching, learning, research and administration within the first decade of the 21st century, with the massive installation of ICT infrastructure: servers, VSAT for internet connection, and the establishment of computer laboratories for students. However, blended learning is yet to take off in earnest compared to the conventional face-to-face (f2f) class interaction. Besides, large classes have made it increasingly challenging for students to participate in class discussions to synthesise and share ideas actively. The shy ones hide under the pretence of large classes so as not to fully participate in f2f class interaction. Students are easily distracted by their poor note-taking skills, as they attempt to write everything the lecturer says in class, thereby not benefiting fully from lectures. Such student expectations also limit what lecturers could achieve in a lesson. If they proceeded at the writing pace of the students, only a few topics would be treated, and if the lecturers moved at their pace, most students would be left behind and the learning objectives for the course would not be achieved.

The higher educational institutions are increasingly under pressure from government and industries to produce graduates that would be relevant to present industrial and public needs. Worried by the declining quality of instruction in higher institutions within sub-Saharan Africa, Professor Ibrahim Bello-Kano (in a roundtable program on reviving the culture of debate and critical thinking in the Nigerian university system organized by the Centre for Information Technology and Development CITAD, 2019) argued that Nigerian universities have degenerated into "Super Secondary Schools", as the current system does not encourage students to grow critical minds but is targeted at developing their capacity to pass examinations through memorization.

To address these teaching and learning challenges, it was reasoned that if contents were provided to students online before f2f class contact, it would help students note down key points and then concentrate on listening actively during face to face lectures and participating fully during the online discussion phase. It is believed that it would help learners to achieve critical thinking and effective application of knowledge, which can result in long-term academic success (Frazer, et al., 2017).

A primary objective of providing content to students online before the f2f class contact and creating an online discussion forum is to promote discourse through inclusive peer participation, leading to layers of text creation and collaboration. In the face to face (f2f) method of teaching, learner participation was achieved through students' collaboration in preparing term papers in groups and presentation of such papers, which formed the basis for class debates and discussions. Students still work in groups and collaborate on class projects. Nevertheless, escalating student enrolments, which have led to overcrowding, have made it increasingly difficult to create opportunities for students to

participate, debate meaningfully, and share findings of their research efforts with peers in the class setting and thus cross-fertilize ideas.

1.1. Online discussion forums

Nandi, Chang and Balbo (2009) describe an online discussion forum as "a ubiquitous communication tool within an online learning environment" and argue that it significantly shapes the types of communication that takes place. They state that online discussion forums have been successfully used as communication tools to scaffold interaction, exchange ideas and share knowledge among learners and instructors. The duo says that the asynchronous nature of online discussion forums enables all participants in the learning process to communicate with each other at any time and in any place without having to find the time for face-to-face (f2f) interaction. Posting in an online forum makes the discussion public and accessible to all at their own time and convenience (Nandi, Hamilton, Harland, & Warburton, 2011).

Marra, Moore, and Klimczak (2004: 23) identify the discussion forum as a significant component of online courses and claim that "instructors and students rely on these asynchronous forums to engage one another in ways that potentially promote critical thinking, meaningful problem solving, and knowledge construction". Discussing and reflecting on topics online, asynchronously, can be just as beneficial (if not more) as traditional, synchronous, in-class discussion. In the online environment, students can thoughtfully add to a discussion, cogitate on other student contributions and autonomously make meaningful contributions to the subject matter - something that may not be possible in the traditional classroom (Tan, 2016).

1.2. Research question

This research examines the value of the online discussion forums as a learning tool. The terms 'social', 'cognitive' and 'teaching' are widespread in the literature on developmental psychology and education that ensure 'collaborative-constructivist' learning experience. In this research, the study adopts Garrison, Anderson and Archer's (2000) social, cognitive and teaching elements to foreground the research questions and analysis. The specific questions the researcher wishes to address then are:

1. If using online discussion forums can mediate the acquisition of higher cognitive functions, in what particular ways does this happen?
2. How do instructors and learners collaborate in ODFs?
3. How do students' contributions to the ODFs demonstrate a deep reflection of what has been learned?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The study sets the educational context by referring to literature (Lucy & Wertsch, 1987; Hardman 2011; Kozulin, 2003; Vygotsky 1978) that provides the broad base of the theory of learning. Such literature establishes what constitutes learning from the socio-cultural perspective. According to Vygotsky (1978) "social interaction is the most important stimulus for all learning" (cited in Littlewood 2006). Vygotsky maintains that social interaction provides substantive means by which learning occurs and holds that social interaction plays a

fundamental role in the development of cognition, arguing that students learn from each other's knowledge, skills and experiences through discussion and interaction.

There is a large body of research that suggests that students' participation in online discussion forum has a positive correlation with their academic performance (Cheng, et al., 2011; Green et al., 2014; Romero, et al., 2013). This could be interaction with symbolic tools or the mediation provided by the expert instructor, or that of the learner's peers. Hardman (2011) defines mediation as "the utilization of cultural artefacts (tools, signs, symbolic and communicative activity) as a means of attaining higher mental functions". Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory privileges interaction between social persons as the primary basis for cognitive development. Following the above line of argument, it can be said that the more guided interaction is possible in a learning environment, the more likely will such learners participate, and the more they are able to participate, the more will they be able to share research findings, resources, ideas in a collaborating way, and the more these processes take place, the more will such learners experience cognitive development. Vygotsky associates two different conceptual processes to content learning (Kozulin 2003:32). The first is empirical concepts, which are generally spontaneous. The second is the development of systematic, focused, deliberate, goal-oriented scientific concepts. According to Vygotsky, the former does not add much to a learner's cognitive development because the concepts are based on the existing cognitive mechanisms. It only enhances learner's practical experience. It is the later, the development of scientific concepts that develops the learner's higher cognitive functioning (Kozulin 2003:32).

2.1. Methodologies used in similar studies

Allan (2004) reviewed the various methodologies used in studying online discussion forums. According to her, prevalent research approaches range from quantitative measurements of log-in frequencies to descriptive quantitative content analysis that measures frequency of contributions per learner, as well as making inferences from quantitative content analysis for assessing learning processes in online contexts (Kanuka and Anderson, 1998), or applying qualitative content analysis techniques for studying the quality of messages as artefacts of critical thinking and argumentation content (Jeong, 2003). In addition to assessing the quality of forum submissions or assessing the quality of forum messages, other studies have focused on issues around assessing forum submissions in terms of grading or awarding marks.

As more institutions adopt some form of technology-supported learning, online discussion forums have become increasingly utilised in the delivery of university-level courses (Harris and Sandor, 2007). As a result of such wide adoption, many scholars have sought to assess the efficacy of the tool for learning; others have researched the design, implementation, use, and evaluation of online discussion forums (Harris and Sandor, 2007).

Richards (2009) adopted the action research approach to investigate the impact of assessment on discussion forum participation and assessed group work in comparison with the individual involvement and evaluation. While acknowledging the pedagogical value of using online discussion forums, he observed that if online discussion forums are to be an effective tool for learning, something more must be done than just providing the technology.

Gunawardena and Zittle (1997) identify a framework of fundamental concepts or critical elements to identify, group and analyse the quality of online discussion forums.

They organize these vital elements according to five themes: social presence, interaction, cognitive strategies, collaborative learning, and learner-centered instruction. In doing so, they acknowledge that every online post need not contain all the components. Nevertheless, organizing online posts into such themes frames the analysis in a more systematic, focused and verifiable way. Richards (2009) points out that the role of assessment is to ensure participation, interaction, and where appropriate, collaboration and teamwork, especially in group work, stressing that the focal point of such assessment should be to evaluate cognitive engagement and achievement of course objectives. Some dimensions to consider in such assessment include content, research, writing, relevance, originality, timeliness and interaction. Like Gunawardena and Zittle (1997) cited earlier, these components are a guide to what is to be looked for when assessing learners' online posts.

2.2. Conceptual framework

Garrison, Anderson and Archer's (2000) Community of Inquiry (CoI) model is conceivably one of the most recent and tested models on pedagogically computer-mediated communication, as it projects a tripartite process of generating a meaningful online learning experience, namely, social, cognitive and teaching presence. A community of inquiry is seen as "a group of individuals who collaboratively engage in purposeful critical discourse and reflection to construct personal meaning and confirm mutual understanding" (Garrison, 2011, p.2). The above definition, therefore, engraves interaction and collaboration as the hallmarks of CoI model. The theory identifies and describes the components to look for when examining learning functions in the educational context. The essential features of the CoI model are summarized below.

Baron and Maier (2004, 2005) took a Community of Inquiry conceptual framework to evaluate cognitive, social and teaching presence at the higher education level. They focus on collaboration, cooperation and decision-making, analysing the asynchronous discussion

board activity and student debriefs of 86 Civil and Environmental Engineering students who undertook the e-Sim during 2004. Although this research is about roleplaying, one of the enabling tools was the online discussion board (a variant term for an online discussion forum). The authors report that communication within each group in the Community of Inquiry occurred via the group discussion board and email to research and prepare their inquiry submissions to the general discussion board. They conclude that an online learning environment has advantages for a community of inquiry process in that "the asynchronous communication medium of groups, discussion boards and email is both reflective and explicit, and learners have access to unlimited data sources. This allows students to take responsibility and control of their learning through negotiating meaning, diagnosing misconceptions, and challenging accepted beliefs, which are essential ingredients for deep and meaningful learning outcomes" (Garrison and Anderson 2003).

3. METHODOLOGY

An Online Discussion Forum was set up on www.easyclass.com (a free learning management system), and students were invited to post their submissions in the Forum. The study adopted Hara, Bonk, & Angeli (1998) framework for analysing cognitive skills and learning outcomes.

Table 1 Hara, Bonk, and Angeli's framework for analysing cognitive skills

Reasoning Skills	Definitions	Indicators
Elementary clarification	Observing or studying a problem identifying its elements, and observing their linkages in order to come to a basic understanding	Identifying relevant elements Reformulating the problem Asking a relevant question Identifying previously stated hypotheses Simply describing the subject matter
In-depth clarification	Analyzing and understanding a problem to come to an understanding which sheds light on the values, beliefs, and assumptions which underlie the statement of the problem	Defining the terms Identifying assumptions Establishing referential criteria Seeking out specialized information Summarizing
Inferencing	Induction and deduction, admitting or proposing an idea on the basis of its link with propositions already admitted as true	Drawing conclusions Making generalizations Formulating a proposition which proceeds from previous statements
Judgment	Making decisions, statements, appreciations, evaluations and criticisms Sizing up	Judging the relevance of solutions Making value judgments Judging inferences "I agree, disagree,,,,"
Application of strategies	Proposing co-ordinated actions for the application of a solution, or following through on a choice or a decision	Making decisions, statements, appreciations, evaluations and criticisms Sizing up

Adopted and modified from Henri, 1992

The advantage of the table is that it identifies what to be looked for in the text and the indicators for such categories. In doing a discourse analysis of the data, the research adopted the qualitative content analysis method for categorizing and delineating the data for analysis (Gunawardena & Zittle 1996 & Jeong, 2003). This methodology focuses on the quality of the content as a basis for analysis and is more meaningful than alternative methods such as the quantitative content analysis and the frequency count (Naranjo et al., 2011). Because this is an interpretive study, ODF posts will be retrieved and subjected to critical content analysis. The texts will be examined to uncover evidence of students' cognitive skills (Hara, Bonk, & Angeli, 1998).

Following the receipt of electronic lecture materials via www.easyclass.com and a f2f class discussion with students in the course Survey of Applied Linguistics, the students were asked to respond to the questions posted on the discussion forum. The prompts were designed to elicit students' responses which would provide evidence of students' learning, such as application of theory to practice, the abstraction of significant ideas from the text, appropriate inferences and synthesis of ideas, as well as evaluative and analytical ability. The exercise was 100% asynchronous in the sense that the students were not required to submit their posting at the same time; this was to allow them to engage in a deep reflection on the issue under focus. However, they had a timeline to submit their posting.

4. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Only the portions of the whole texts used for analysis are presented. The full names of respondents are not used, instead, their initials (in terms of name and sex) are used. Hara, Bonk, & Angeli's (1998) reasoning skills and their indicators are used for data analysis. The excerpts of the online discussion forum narratives are shown below. And due to space limitations, only portions of texts used for analysis are presented.

Elementary clarification and in-depth clarification strategy: This strategy is designed to help the students reflect in their online discussion forum submissions the skills to describe, to recall facts, to contrast and differentiate, to identify, to explain, and to argue.

Prompt 1 - **Differentiate between Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied**

Text 1: *I will attempt to identify the difference between Linguistics Applied and Applied Linguistics by drawing reference from Brumfit (1977) and Grabe (2000). Brumfit argues that Applied Linguistics is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue. Grabe (2000) opines that the focus of AL is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test makers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of clients. Therefore, it can be concluded from the above postulations that AL is the use of language to solve society problems that are language-related. In contrast, linguistics applied focuses on the theoretical aspect of linguistics... O.E. (Male)*
Text 2: *The distinction between AL and LA can be seen in terms of their scope and general aims. While the goal of a linguist is to observe, analyse, describe and build up linguistic theories, an applied linguist goes beyond mere description of language data. An applied linguist provides a solution to problems. That is to say that an applied linguist proffers judgment (solution) on some language-related problems in the society in terms of providing*

language curriculum, language test and language policy/plan. The domain of linguistics applied is nothing but language; however, applied linguistics can look at language in various contexts of human life. For example, in the context of education/language teaching, law/crime investigations, politics, ICT, medicine translation, etc. O. L. (Female).

4.1. Development of metacognitive awareness

Using Hara, Bonk, & Angeli's (1998) framework for analysing cognitive skills and learning outcomes, it can be noted from the comments that the students in texts 1 and 2 exhibited reasoning skills of elementary and in-depth clarification, as they demonstrated an understanding of the course material. The student in text 1 showed the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics by referring to Brumfit (1977) and Grabe's (2000) definition of applied linguistics. He then drew a conclusion on the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics based on the previous reference. Text 2 showed the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics by describing the scope and objectives of the two disciplines and then connected these two facts to illustrate the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics. The above submissions are a reflection of Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, and Archer's (2000) teaching presence component of CoI. For example, prior to the forum discussion, the students had received course materials in electronic format via the easyclass platform that tended to guide and support them during the course delivery. Besides, during the online discussion forum on the easyclass platform, the course instructor communicated to the students and ensured that they were aware of their responsibilities. During the online forum discussion, he answered questions from students regarding some tasks and activities they did not understand. He also communicated to the students individually when necessary, via private chat to provide needed guidance. Vygotsky describes the above comments from the students as evidence of metacognitive awareness, as the prompt and the asynchronous nature of the discussion forum gave the learners opportunity and time for deep reflection on the course work and thorough research before posting their submission.

Inference and judgment strategy: the strategy expects students to reflect the skills to assess, to evaluate, to appraise, and to summarise course contents and to deduce something from an implicitly stated evidence.

Prompt 2 - Do you support the proposition that language is acquired by imitation and that the environment contributes more to language acquisition/learning?

Text 3: *Well, I believe the two theories go a long way in improving the competence of speakers of any language, either the native speaker or a second language acquirer. However, teachers of languages either first or second language who want their learners to achieve full competence would intelligently apply both theories. This comes more alive when a teacher is teaching children between infant age, he or she would get to find out that the children tend to flow in understanding very well if the use of the behaviourist theory is applied, meanwhile the mentalist theory goes very well with a more matured mind like that of the adult, nevertheless, when the two theories are applied, full competence will be achieved. A journal by Omego Christie U. on second language acquisition argues that it is evident that humans are affected by heredity in the same way they are affected by the environment. Many psychologists are unanimous in their view that the environment in which one finds himself contributes to one's acquisition of language. A child's natural endowment is not enough to help in second language acquisition. Therefore, for full competence of a second language to be achieved, the*

child, as Agbedo (2003.p. 74) notes, requires sustained interaction with other language users in order to bring latent language faculty into operation within a given Language. This environment can be parents, the school teacher, or peer groups…. C. G. (Female).

Text 4: *Am not totally in support of the behaviorist theory. Though, language can be acquired through imitation and that the environment sometimes tends to influence how we speak and interact with people. For instance, if you are a native speaker of Igbo and you were born and brought up in Yoruba land, there is every possibility that you can speak and behave like Yoruba people. However, human beings have the innate or inborn capacity to learn a language that reflects Noam Chomsky's innateness hypothesis. I firmly believe this mentalist theory because it is the innate competence of a native speaker that will help him or her learn. Without the innate knowledge it will be difficult to learn a language one is exposed to and to adapt to a new environment one is exposed to. K. I. (Female).*

4.2. Development of higher-order and critical thinking skills

In contrast with rote learning, the students in texts 3 and 4 demonstrated Higher-Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) by i) acknowledging the relative importance of both theories, ii) making inferences and drawing conclusions from cited sources, and iii) fusing the two seemingly opposing theories by highlighting the various contexts where the two theories can be used. The process that leads to learning must be systemic, planned and deliberate, as it involves critical, logical, reflective, metacognitive and creative thinking (King, Goodson, & Rohani, 2011; Krathwohl, 2002). HOT requires students to manipulate and combine information and ideas to synthesize, generalize, explain, hypnotize, and arrive at some conclusion or interpretation (Ahmad et al., 2017).

Application strategy: this strategy is used to train students to apply theory to practice.

Prompt 3 – In what ways can the principle that underlies the mentalist and the input hypotheses be applied in a second/foreign language class?

Text 5*: The major tenet of the mentalist theory is that everybody learns a language, not because they are subject to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity that permits them to acquire a language. Therefore, teachers should not see learners as passive receivers of the teachings from them. Learners are thinking beings, active processors of information, not tabular razors. Therefore, imitation and repetition drills would not always be the best methods of language teaching especially for advanced learners. When learners come to class, they come not as clean slates that needed to be provided with information…. E. C. (Male).*

Text 6*: I totally agree with E. C. that imitation and repetition drills cannot guarantee second language acquisition. From my personal experience, I can say that my English language proficiency has improved since I gained admission. I did not improve my proficiency by mere imitation and repetition drills. I studied hard to improve my English proficiency. I make sure I attend all my classes, read all my assigned materials, do all my assignments and classwork, etc. Language teachers are expected to assess the knowledge that language learners bring to the classroom and devise activities that would help them improve their language potentials. Activities like discovery learning, project based learning, problem solving learning and task based learning…. O. K. (Male).*

Text 7: *According to the input hypothesis, second language learners require comprehensible input, represented by i+1, to move from the current level of acquisition, represented by i, to*

the next level of acquisition, represented by i+1. According to input hypothesis, a necessary condition to move from stage i to stage i + 1 is that the acquirer understands input that contains i + 1, where 'understand' means that the acquirer focuses on meaning as opposed to form through which the message is passed. According to Krashen (1985), teachers can teach unfamiliar terms or concepts by using familiar context and things that are within the immediate environment of learners, use of illustrations and examples. For example, teaching the unfamiliar word 'Hero' by using Nelson Mandela, etc..... O. J. (Male).

Text 8: *www.oxfordreference.com identifies caretaker speech as one of the pedagogical implications of the input hypothesis. It is a speech style often used by adults and older children when talking to infants or young children, characterized by shortened sentences, simplified grammar, restricted vocabulary, slow speech with many repetitions and reduplicative words. Language teachers can adopt this strategy to modify their language in order to improve communication with their learners. Language teachers are not expected to use high sounding grammar all the time with their learners. They need to use simplified words that will be easier for the learners to comprehend. Gradually they can adjust their speech to a level that is slightly above those of their learners. V. C. (Female).*

4.3. Development of collaborative learning and peer-to-peer knowledge sharing

Text 6 in addition to demonstrating the skill of application shows an awareness of what others have posted. This is demonstrated by the expression – 'I totally agree with E. C. that imitation and repetition drills cannot guarantee second language acquisition'. This shows that the submission in text 6 is influenced by prior texts submitted by others. Seedhouse (2004) argues that an expression made by a learner in a discourse is a reflection of the learner's examination of the prior utterances of other discussants. This is a classic example of peer-to-peer knowledge sharing and interaction that takes place in an online discussion forum. Peer-to-peer interaction helps to achieve quality learning through various activities done by the learners, such as challenging and confirming each other's knowledge in open and comfortable peer interaction (Siddiqui, Miah & Ahmad, 2019). This is perhaps challenging to achieve in a traditional classroom setting. This is also known as scaffolding, which can be achieved by peer-to-peer or teacher-to-peer interaction and knowledge sharing (Littlewood, 2006).

Students in texts 5-8 demonstrated a deep reflection of the course material by conducting in-depth research on the mentalist theory and input hypothesis, reflected on their submission before posting them on the online forum. This resonates with Anderson's et al. (2000) cognitive presence constituent of CoI model which focuses on developing critical thinking through a deep reflection and discussion of course content.

5. DISCUSSION

The study is set up to examine the value of the online discussion forum as a learning tool, using Anderson's et al., (2000) CoI model, and to underpin the online discussion forum as a tool for scaffolding and peer-to-peer interaction, which enhances the learning experience. To achieve the study objective of this research, the study looks at: 1) specific ways ODFs mediates the acquisition of higher cognitive functions, 2) how collaboration and peer-to-peer interaction are achieved in ODFs, and 3) how students' contributions to the ODF demonstrate a deep reflection of course materials. Reference to the data analysis is imperative to answer the above research questions and to set clear the objective of the research.

The results from the data analysis section reveal that ODF mediated learners' acquisition of higher cognitive functions by providing the students the opportunity to reflect on the course materials, to engage in some research activities as demonstrated by the cited sources they included in their submissions, and to deeply reflect on their submissions before posting them on the discussion forum. While the student in text 1 made reference to Brumfit (1977) and Grabe (2000), students in texts 3 and 7 made references to Agbedo (2003) and Krashen (1985), respectively, to underpin their arguments. Although reference to Krashen (1985) was made in the lecture hand-out sent to the students via the easyclass platform, references from other sources were sourced and cited by the students in their submissions. ODF discourages rote learning by pushing learners to think beyond the immediate course materials that were given to them during the f2f class discussion. Learners were able to construct meaningful submissions through sustained reflection and peer-to-peer discourse. Learners' submissions in the ODF indicate that using ODFs alongside f2f classes may lead to meta-cognitive awareness, facilitated by the asynchronous nature of the discussion forum. That is consistent with previous studies (Gunawardena and Zittle 1996; Richards (2009) that have shown pedagogical value of using online discussion forums using critical components like social presence, interaction, cognitive strategies and collaborative learning.

Reference to text 6 underscores the role of ODF in mediating collaboration and peer-to-peer interaction among learners. The expression "I totally agree with E. C. that imitation and repetition drills cannot guarantee second language acquisition…" shows that learners' submissions in the ODF are influenced by prior texts submitted by others. Quite a few other submissions in the ODF also show awareness of what others have posted. Texts 7 and 8 demonstrate that ODF also facilitates a constructive contribution through peer-to-peer interaction. Note that the students in texts 5, 7 and 8, showed their engagement with the course materials by applying the mentalist theory and the input hypothesis to pedagogical contexts. This finding resonates with Siddiqui, Miah and Ahmad's (2019) study, where peer-to-peer interaction helped master's level management students to engage with learning materials and practice workplace relevant skills. Peer-to-peer interaction encourages advanced and extensive reading as well as problem-solving skills among learners. Significantly, the finding of the study resonates with previous studies in which research findings indicate that peer-to-peer interaction provides workplace and transferable skills such as teamwork (Harris & Sandor, 2007; Siddiqui, Miah & Ahmad, 2019).

The findings of the study also demonstrate evidence of deep reflection of course contents. For example, the student in text 2 showed the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics by: i) researching the two fields of endeavor in terms of their scope, and ii) describing the functions of an applied linguist and a linguist. Students in texts 4 and 6 demonstrated their understanding of the course materials by drawing a reference from practical and personal experiences. Students in texts 1, 3 and 8, consulted sources not cited in the lecture materials sent via the easyclass platform. The social presence (i.e. the creation of the online discussion forum) and the teaching presence (i.e. access to course materials in electronic format prior to class discussion, f2f class discussion and instructor guidance on the ODF) provided the springboard for the cognitive presence (i.e. metacognitive awareness, higher-order and critical thinking skills, collaborative learning and peer-to-peer knowledge sharing). The result of the study resonates with those of Baron and Maier (2004). They argue that the asynchronous nature of the discussion board (a variant of ODF) and email provided the students opportunity to engage in the discussion in a more reflective manner, as they have access to unlimited data sources.

6. CONCLUSION

The findings of the study have demonstrated evidence of metacognitive skills and critical thinking skills, which are facilitated by the asynchronous nature of the discussion forum, as it gives learners sufficient time to engage in thorough research and careful thought before posting their submission. The findings also demonstrated that teacher-to-peer and peer-to-peer knowledge dissemination is best stimulated using the ODF, as it gives learners opportunities to participate actively and to collaborate with their peers in the learning process. ODF provides learners, especially the shy ones, the chance to participate in the learning process fully. It also brings out the best in learners as they have the opportunity to respond to questions and discussions more reflectively as opposed to the random and unsystematic approach that characterises the traditional f2f discussion.

Major contribution that the present study has made to the existing literature is its demonstration of the effect of ODF on learners' metacognitive awareness, higher-order thinking skills and collaborative learning. The study also reveals that ODF discourages rote learning and memorization-based learning and assessment, as questions and discussions are designed to draw learners out of their comfort zones. ODF is a tool for scaffolding and peer-to-peer interaction, which enhances the learning experience. It is undoubtedly a technological tool to impact text creation, critical thinking, and other cognitive skills. While it can be argued from the present study that ODF discourages rote or memorization-based learning, there is a need for more carefully designed studies to further investigate the effects of ODF on learners' cognitive skills and second or foreign language acquisition of use tense and article via online feedback.

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Review research paper

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE AND PREZI —
TOOLS FOR IMPROVING ACADEMIC SPEAKING SKILLS

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Abstract. *This paper aims at investigating the usefulness of the reflective practice supported by technology as a tool for improving academic speaking skills. The study employs two groups of undergraduate students in the Integrated Skills course for Academic Purpose, at the University of Szeged, that undergo the same instruction. The non-experimental group does not use technology to support their speaking practice, while the experimental group uses Prezi. The instruments used in the research are surveys and the instructor's journal. The results reveal that students perceive reflective practice as a useful tool that helps them think critically about their performance. What is more, the study shows that reflective activities, when combined with online resources boost motivation for speaking and better presentation performance.*

Key words: *self-assessment, reflective practice, English for Academic Purpose, technology, academic speaking skills, Prezi*

1. INTRODUCTION

Undergraduate students wishing to enroll in graduate and post-graduate programs need to master English for Academic Purpose (EAP) to be able to actively participate in Academia. All four language skills are equally important and should be devoted considerable time for practice. Nonetheless, delivering a presentation in front of experts is an important component of any graduate program. This also includes skills of discussing, forming clear, concise, convincing arguments, and delivering an effective presentation. How can this be mastered? Sadly, there is no one-size-fits-all model and instructors usually develop their own approach.

The author of this article creates and conducts a pilot study during her teaching practice in 2017 which served as a benchmark for a subsequent experimental study in 2018 as a part of her professional development as an EAP practitioner and a researcher. The experimental study was the instructor's PhD project and due to its complexity, it extends into several phases. This paper aims to present the research results from a particular segment of the PhD project, focusing only on the efficiency of the technology for practicing Academic Speaking.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Reflective practice

Self-reflection and meta-cognitive thinking are well-researched areas in applied linguistics (Desautel 2009, Haukås, Bjørke, and Dypedahl, 2018). Several studies reported on the benefits of self-reflecting for the improvement of language learning skills (Porto 2007, Mynard 2008, Osborn 2005). The most frequent way of reflecting is by using self-assessment practices (Rodriguez Ochoa 2017, Birjandi and Nasrin 2010), a learner's journal (Tuan 2010, Rokni and Asieh 2014), or a learner's portfolio (Lo 2010, Yang 2003, Young and Crow 1992, Gottlieb 1995, Paulson, Paulson and Meyer 1991, Nunes 2004). However, it is not only students who reflect on their performance, but also teachers (Hollingsworth and Clarke 2017, Conway 2001, Zeichner and Liu 2010, LaBoskey 1994, Orlova 2009, Akbari, Behzadpoor, Dadvand 2010). In recent years, language teachers tend to adopt action research to find out how to improve their instruction and provide learners with a better learning experience (Pardede 2019:138-140). In this way, a teacher is a researcher of one's own classroom practice and works on identifying a problem, designing a solution, acting upon the problem, and reflecting on the outcome (Burns 2009: 2). A common tool for investigating one's own teaching is keeping a teacher's diary/journal (Cohen-Sayag and Fischl 2012, Triff and Popescu, 2013).

2.2. Academic speaking skills and technology

Students list the fear of producing mistakes in front of their peers and audience, lack of confidence, lack of ideas, and difficult topics as some of the reasons behind their failure to improve their oral communication (Darginavičienė and Šliogerienė, 2020).

Nonetheless, the literature provides many examples of how to improve one's fluency and accuracy (Albino 2017, Derakhshan, Khalili and Beheshti 2016, Zou et al. 2020). The study by Hamad, Metwally, and Alfaruque (2019) shed some light on using YouTube and Audio Tracks Imitation (YATI) to improve EFL speaking skills. The students in the study reported that YATI has a positive impact on their engagement and speaking performance in class. According to Abdulrahman (2018), TED talks is not only used as valuable listening practice, but it can also improve student's communication. It helps not only with pronunciation but also stress and intonation of the words and phrases for academic purpose. In addition, Lancini (2019) reports on the use of Android and iOS voice tools for improving fluency and oral skills. The study shows that video recordings are a motivating tool to reflect on ones' work and instigate encouragement, responsibility, and independence.

However, not many studies combined technology with reflective practice. Kizilcik and Daloglu (2018) devised an interactive reflection model, which involves the teacher as a researcher and students to involve in the reflection to improve their performance. It is a continual cycle of reflecting with students on their reflections using rubrics for self-assessment. These rubrics targeted reflecting upon mini presentations in terms of content, organization, delivery, visual use, and language. Both students and the instructor had undergone continuous self-assessment and it is highly beneficial for both sides.

Since this was the only study of this kind that I could found, it inspired me to think of my own classroom practice and devise a similar practice to contribute to the field.

2.3. Prezi

Prezi is presentation software that gained momentum in recent years. Nonetheless, the company was founded over a decade ago. The difference between PowerPoint and Prezi lies in the layout and features. According to the official Prezi website, the company states that the presentations created in Prezi are more engaging, memorable, and persuasive (PREZI). The features and layout provide for the user's creativity to come to light while presenting in a storytelling way (The SCIENCE OF EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION). As a graduate student myself, I had encountered some colleagues using Prezi during conferences abroad. However, I did not notice that Prezi was being used in our department. I also could not find any studies that used Prezi to improve students speaking skills in the EAP context. Thus, it provided a perfect opportunity to use it in my classes, teach students to present according to the latest trend, and conduct a small experiment.

3. THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0.1. The purpose of this study

This study has two aims. Firstly, to test the usefulness of using reflective practice as a tool in improving student's Academic speaking skills. Secondly, to examine the efficiency of this practice when combined with technology. There is a non-experimental and an experimental group. With the help of the non-experimental group, the first research question is answered, while with the help of the experimental group, both the first and second research questions are addressed:
- Is the self-reflective survey a helpful tool in thinking critically of one's own performance?
- How does technology affect the self-reflective practice in class?

This paper aims to present a segment of the research project that the author carried out towards completing PhD thesis.

3.0.2. The settings and participants

The study was conducted at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, in Szeged, Hungary. The participants of this study were second and third-year BA students studying at the Institute of English and American studies. The study consisted of two phases. The first phase was in the autumn of 2017 and the second phase was exactly one year later. In both phases, the same instruments were employed. However, participants are different. In both phases, participants of the study were attending the course called Integrated English Language Skills based on the textbook that aimed at improving their English Academic Skills. Nonetheless, this study focuses on looking at a particular aspect of EAP — speaking skills.

3.1. The study design

3.1.1. The Instructor' role and approach
The instructor in her 2nd and 3rd year of PhD studies opted for the course Teaching Practice for two semesters to fulfill her obligatory requirements towards the completion of her PhD study program. The instructor was teaching English for specific purpose

before her studies both offline and online, but never at the university level and never an Integrated Language Skills course for EAP. This served as a great opportunity for the instructor to improve her teaching skills for her future teaching of EAP and conduct research. Thus, the role of the instructor is twofold —the instructor and the researcher.

3.1.2. Speaking activities and their goals

At the beginning of the course in 2017, students were asked to share their opinion in class on how good their speaking skills in the academic context are. All students agreed that practicing presenting, and presentation skills would be something they could highly benefit from and be able to apply in their near future. Based on this answer, the instructor came up with a plan and speaking activities that could help students become more confident and better prepared for delivering a speech or presentation in front of a large academic audience. The speaking activity was not graded, and it did not influence the final course grade. In this way, the instructor reduced the fear of failure and provided a stress-free learning atmosphere.

To practice speaking, students needed to deliver 15-minute group presentations followed by a 10-minute QA by the audience and short feedback from the instructor. There were 14 working weeks and each week there would be one pair presenting a certain grammar topic/rule relating to speaking for academic purpose. In this way, the instructor wanted to simulate the conference presentation atmosphere and prepare the students for their future presentations at conferences.

However, the instructor wanted students to receive enough chance for practice and think critically of their own performance. To achieve this, the instructor devised a tool that would provide guidelines for students to reflect on and assess their peers' presentations weekly until the time comes to perform a self-assessment. This tool is in the form of a small grid table with specific subcategories students should tick. It was created with 2 purposes for two different activities.

Activity 1 aimed at installing the habit of reflecting upon peer's presentation skills and performance weekly. The expectation is that it would raise students' awareness of what is required for an effective presentation performance. It would also help them think critically of others' performance and prepare mentally for their own performance. It would provide clear guidelines to follow and build self-confidence in the future. The evaluation grid is filled-in in class and passed on to the presenters to reflect on. The tool used is named reflective survey.

Activity 2 is a self-assessment of the given presentation in class. It is a self-reflective report on ones' performance that is filled-in online in CooSpace, soon after the lesson for homework. The report contained the same grid as in activity 1 plus questions 6 and 7 that elicit more information about the usefulness of the practice itself. The students were informed that the answers they enclose could be used for research purposes and that their stated opinion has no influence over their final mark in the course. It is voluntary and the students are the ones who benefit the most from it. The tool used is named the self-assessment survey.

3.2. The Instrument

The research questions are answered with the help of a self-assessment survey and the teacher's journal. The reflective Survey was a supporting tool that had another purpose.

3.2.1. The Reflective Survey

The reflective survey was a letter-sized survey grid with the title 'Delivering an effective presentation'. There are four main categories in the grid, each with up to 3 subcategories. The students need to rate their peers' performance on a 5-point Likert scale from 'Very Poor' to 'Excellent'. The four categories are Content/Material, Presentation Skill, Voice Quality, Discussion skills. The same grid was used in the Self-Assessment Survey for questions 2 to 5.

3.2.2. The Self-Assessment Survey

The self-assessment survey aims at self-evaluating one's presenting in class. At the very top of the survey, the purpose is explained. It informs students that the answers they provide could be used for research purpose. The survey was short and contained seven questions. Question 1 simply asked for the student's name or a pseudonym. Questions 2 to 5 are in the form of 4 categories with a couple of subcategories to which a rating scale is attached. Question 6 asked for the level of agreement with the statement about the helpfulness of self-reflecting from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree'. The last question asked for student's opinions or remarks regarding the activity itself. The same reflective survey was used in the course in 2017 and the one in 2018.

3.2.3 Instructor's Journal

Since the surveys cannot capture the whole classroom atmosphere it was necessary to keep a journal that can help the instructor carefully observe and note down the learning process in an objective way. The instructor would note down her observations after each class and when the course ended reflect holistically. Concerning the speaking practice, the instructor devised themes and questions to guide her in forming an objective opinion.

In the non-experimental group, the instructor created themes — students' confidence when presenting without technology, student's overall performance according to the grid from the reflective-practice, classroom, and learning atmosphere during the presentations.

In the experimental group, the instructor created themes — students' confidence when presenting with Prezi, student's overall performance according to the grid from the reflective-practice, classroom, and learning atmosphere during the presentations.

3.3. The non-experimental and the experimental group

The same instruments, the same presentation topics, sources, and the same reflective practice were used in both groups. The groups had different participants and the way of delivering a mini presentation was different. In the course of 2017, the students were instructed to deliver the presentation orally with a one-page paper with notes and exercises for the audience. In the course of 2018, the students were instructed to deliver their presentation with Prezi and have a one-page paper with notes and exercises for the audience too. In 2017, students had to rely on themselves when it comes to creativity and grabbing the audience's attention, while in 2018 the students would use Prezi and project their presentation on the wall. None of the students were acquainted with the notion of Prezi for making presentations or knowing how to use it. By changing the mode of delivery of presentations and using a completely unknown online resource to the students, we wanted to see whether the designed self-reflective activities for improving speaking skills would be at stake.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

A descriptive analysis of 'Self-assessment surveys' of 2017 and 2018 is presented in the following subsections.

4.1. Self-Assessment Survey in 2017

Question 1 elicited that fifteen out of twenty students had reflected upon their classroom mini-presentation performance. Question 2 was related to the content/material of students' presentations. Most students have evaluated the structure of their presentation and the amount of material as something that they have done well. However, more than half acknowledged a lack of visual aids. Question 3 was referring to the student's presentation skills. The question contained 3 subcategories. In terms of eye contact, almost half acknowledged not establishing good eye contact with the audience. The style of presentation was quite good by most students, and timekeeping was only in two cases described as poor. Question 4 had to do with voice quality. An insignificantly small number of students stated that their voice clarity, tone, and speed of speech were poor. Question 5 was relating to discussion skills. Just three students recognized their handling of the questions and responding appropriately as a problem. The majority answered positively.

Question 6 was about acknowledging the usefulness of 'Self-reflecting'. Ten students answered positively and acknowledged that the self-reflection report made them think critically and pointed out their weaknesses that need improvement. Four students were neutral and only one student disagrees. Question 7 asked for personal opinion/remark of the activity itself. There were only four comments/remarks which could be categorized in the following way:
- Thinking critically about your performance:
  "I think I need to improve to some extent in every possible way. This report helped me to think about our performance with Dávid critically. Personally, next time I should concentrate more on eye contact (which if I remember well I totally missed) and on the presentation skill itself."
- Not seeing the point:
  I personally believe that most of us didn't take this presentation too seriously, cause it had no real stake.
- The noticed drawback of the self-reflection report:
  "At the discussion part, I ticked "good" because I asked if anyone had questions and at the "responding appropriately" part I put "poor" only because there was no question to respond to."
  • Dislike of the activity:
  "I hate group presentations."

4.2. Self-Assessment Survey in 2018

Question 1 elicited that all students (25/25) had reflected upon their classroom mini-presentation performance. Question 2 shows us that only 1 student rated his amount of the presentation material as poor. Only four out of 25 rated their poor use of visuals. Question 3 indicated that there is a small number of students that struggle with maintaining eye contact with the audience, and their presentation style. Only one student had poor timekeeping. Question 4 shows that voice clarity, tone/volume, and speed of

talking was not a significant problem for the group. Question 5 demonstrated very good discussion skills and an insignificant number of students have mentioned this as an obstacle. Question 6 shows that only 1% rated self-reflection reports as a non-significant tool and only 8% were neutral. Question 7 was answered by only one student commenting that he/she 'needs to be more confident'.

4.3. Instructor's journal summary

Giving presentations supported with paper-based notes was simply not motivating enough for students to carry out a successful presentation. Even though they had been introduced to the aspects of successful presentation in the reflective practice, the old traditional way of presenting in front of the class was boring. For this reason, the learning aspect was also slow, and students were not active in the discussion part. Some students did not like this way of presenting at all.

Conversely, the group presentations supported by Prezi had the full attention of everyone in the class. The students were challenged because making presentations with Prezi required the mastery of its use and expressing creativity with the presentation layout. All students delivered authentic and inspiring presentations. The layouts they created helped them convey their presentation coherently and concisely. The audience was excited to hear and read the notes from these presentations and there was always a good discussion afterward. Both presenters and audience were more confident and performed well.

5. DISCUSSION

The self-assessment survey in 2017 points to the fact that the students need some more practice presenting in front of the audience on many levels. Most of the students stated that they had a good presentation structure and a good amount of material, while their use of visual aids was quite poor. Almost all students self-evaluated as having a good presentation style, but timekeeping and eye contact with the audience needs to be practiced more. However, voice quality and talking speed were to the advantage of this group. Also, discussion skills were recognized by more than half as 'Good'. And 66.7% acknowledged that a self-assessment survey is a tool that helps them think critically of their performance.

Conversely, the self-assessment survey of 2018, shows a higher tendency of answering positively with each response. When it comes to content and organization of the presentations, as well as voice and presentation skills, more than half answered with 'Good' or better. The discussion skills were also by the vast majority labeled as 'Good'. Recognizing the value of using a self-assessment survey was also recognized as something helpful by 22 out of 25 students (88%).

Contrasting the two results from question 6, it can be said that in both courses students find self-reflection practice a valuable tool for thinking critically of one's performance.

However, the answers to each question (2-5) in 2018's survey suggest that the use of technology for delivering the presentation could be a determining factor for the increase in all numbers. A clear example of this is in Figures 2 and 3. Figure 2 shows higher numbers or better performance in connection to the structure of the content when Prezi is used. Also, in Figure 3, an increase in numbers means that there was a better performance in relation to the style of presentation with Prezi.

Question 6 Contrasting answers in 2017 and 2018
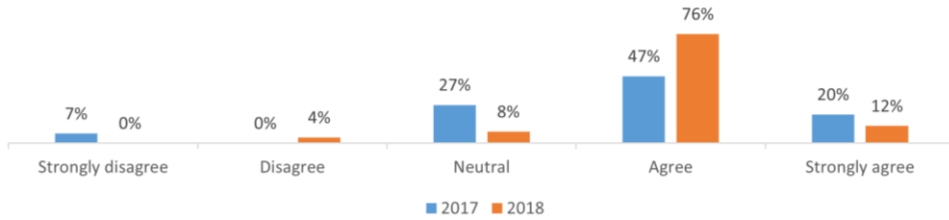
Fig. 1 Contrasting the answers from Question 6 in 2017 and 2018
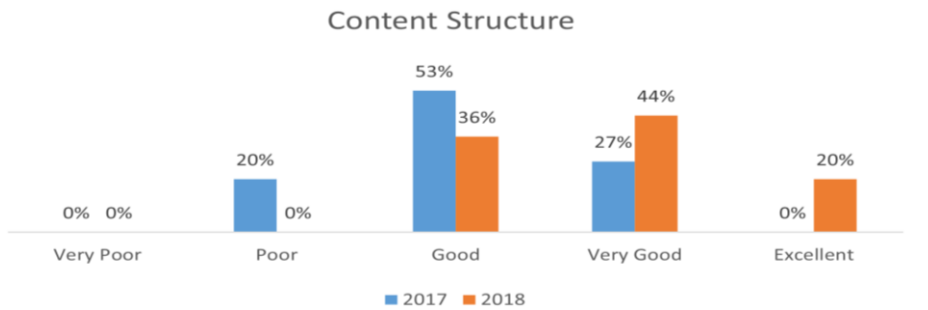
Content Structure

Fig. 2 Question 2 (Content structure)

Presentation Skills
Style of presentation
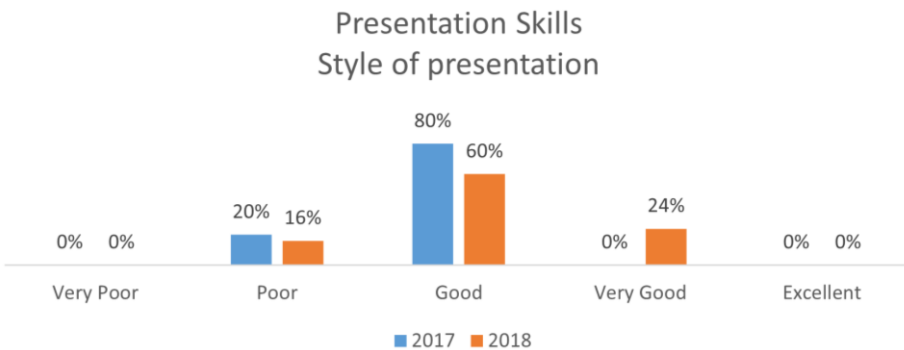
Fig. 3 Question 3 Presentation skills/Style of presentation

Nevertheless, what numbers could not reveal is the classroom atmosphere in the groups. Thus, based on the instructor's personal observation and her journal, the experimental group had more zeal to participate in the task for when Prezi is applied. There was a certain positive attitude and eagerness to deliver the presentation regardless of the lack of confidence and nervousness. Both groups displayed certain tension when speaking in front of the audience, but the group that used technology overcame the stage fright sooner than the group that had to rely just on themselves and only on the paper-based notes. The students in 2018, also demonstrated greater interest and certain excitement while waiting for the peers to present as it creates certain suspense- not knowing what and how the

presenters would present. Prezi allowed for the students' creativity to be demonstrated as each pair had a different vision of the layout and effects. Even if not being familiar with certain software, this shows that the NET generation finds technology as a more natural and easier way to express and convey ones' message.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Both study groups find that self-reflective practice per se is a quite useful tool for raising awareness of student's performance, thus improving their academic speaking skills. What is more, when a reflective practice is adequately supported by technology, it boosts students' motivation. The fact that almost all students in the self-assessment survey in 2018, self-rated their performance as quite satisfying can be attributed to the eagerness of using the online resources as a support in their learning. None of the students were familiar with using Prezi for delivering the presentation before. Nevertheless, it seems that the students found this way of presenting more natural to them, thus performed better. The instructor's journal reveals that students find the old traditional lecture-like way of delivering a presentation uninteresting. Whereas, when using Prezi, they simply engage faster and deeper. This study shows that using technology for practicing Academic speaking is indeed a particularly good way to motivate students towards their goals. Also, this study opens the door to further research. Since this study involves a small number of students, there is a need for the study to be repeated with a larger sample and possibly with an equal number of participants in both groups.

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CASE STUDY APPROACH TO TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR MEDICAL PURPOSES

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Abstract. *The expression case study implies a wide range of issues presented for analysis, based on actual or simulated events that could logically occur. Besides, it involves profound research of phenomena or events. In medical education and practice, a case study represents an essential diagnostic procedure and investigation method used to create a profound understanding of an intricate problem in its real context. The implementation of the case study approach is of great importance in teaching English for medical purposes because the medical topics presented to students are familiar to them and medical terminology is applied to language learning. The case study is so structured as to serve the communicative function and provides the necessary content. It comprises the most relevant aspects in the field of medicine such as presenting signs and symptoms, performing different types of examinations, treatment, and health care management. The standard problem that needs to be solved is the patient's problem, and establishing an adequate diagnosis is the goal. In this way, students develop critical thinking and reflective learning, improve organizational skills, as well as the ability to see the complexity of real-world events and understand the perspective of others. This method has proven to be highly practical preparing students for reality, not theory workplace. In this way integration of language and the professional setting is enabled.*

Key words: *case study, English for medical purposes, communicative function, professional setting*

1. INTRODUCTION

Bearing in mind that contemporary society is constantly changing and in line with this education is recognized as a continuing process, the application of contemporary principles and approaches to teaching English for specific purposes is of extreme importance. The main aim of education is the facilitation of learning and includes the ability to adopt changes according to the most prevalent demands of society. Long- term learning is the leading principle and is particularly relevant for the field of medicine that is rapidly growing. Therefore, all the courses designed for the medical field should rely on students' learning strategies and attempt to create students' autonomy. The expression *case study* implies a wide range of issues presented for analysis, based on actual or simulated events that could logically occur. Besides, it involves profound research of phenomena or events,

data collection, data analysis, and reporting of the obtained results. This methodological approach is applicable in many sciences and has a global, interprofessional role (Vaugeois, Nicole L., 2005:3). In medical education and practice, a case study represents an essential diagnostic procedure and investigation method used to create a profound understanding of an intricate problem in its realistic context. It is for this reason sometimes observed as a 'naturalistic' design; as opposed to an 'experimental' design in which the investigator has control over factors of interest (Crowe et al., 2011:100). A standardized case study has pedagogic utility, represents a general issue beyond the case itself, tells an engaging story, focuses on an interest-arousing, argumentative issue, presents a problem that has no apparent right answer, creates empathy with the central characters, demands the reader to process the information, encourages the reader to apply critical and analytical thinking, is concise, and is relevant to students (McFarlane, 2015).

2. ADVANTAGES OF USING THE CASE STUDY APPROACH IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR MEDICAL PURPOSES

The implementation of the case study approach is of great importance in teaching English for medical purposes, because of the medical terms that are applied to language learning, and topics familiar to students discussed and analyzed. The case study is so structured as to serve the communicative function and provides the necessary content. It comprises the most relevant aspects in the field of medicine such as presenting signs and symptoms, performing different types of examinations, treatment, and health care management. In this way, students develop critical thinking and reflective learning, improve organizational skills as well as the ability to see the complexity of real-world events and understand the perspective of others. Moreover, they enhance communicative skills, cooperative learning, and team-work. (Dudley – Evans.and St John, 1998). This method has proven to be highly practical in preparing students for reality, not theory workplace (Mavor and Tayner. 2001: 346). In this way integration of language and professional setting is enabled (MacDonald et al, 2000, 260). The standard problem that needs to be solved is the patient's problem, and establishing an adequate diagnosis is the goal. Therefore, various in-class activities may include: pair and teamwork, discussions, presentations, and conference language. The students are divided into several groups with specific tasks practising asking and answering open and closed- ended questions, note-taking, note-making, as well as specialized vocabulary. Besides all these advantages the communicative function of the case study is explained – reporting factual data on medical cases. To completely accomplish it the topics about the disease, establishing the diagnosis and treatment, discussions considering symptoms and signs, as well as medical history taking motivate students to actively participate in the dynamic process of acquiring new knowledge (Kennedy, 2001: 120).

3. IN-CLASS ACTIVITIES BASED ON THE CASE STUDY APPROACH

One of the important components of teaching Medical English is work in small groups in which each student gives his contribution. Some of the in-class activities include brainstorming, categorization, discussion, and concluding. The major advantages of teaching in small groups are encouraging students to express themselves and discuss

directly, participate actively, and upgrade communication skills.Such an approach enables increased identification of the students' needs and the improvement of linguistic ability and interpersonal skills. Moreover, their inner potential through the practice of the so - called *sub-skills* consisting of analytical thinking, problem- solving, deduction, and use of imagination is enhanced. Subsequently, educators are expected to use different attitudes and approaches of students in various activities in class (Kayaoğlu and Akbaş, 2016: 70). The standard in-class activity implies the presentation of the patient to students. The problem being investigated is the patient's illness. Students are divided into several groups. Each group needs to come up with a specific problem. This situation simulates a medical presentation of the case. The first group of students does not identify the disease itself. This is the task of students from other groups. In this phase, the detailed use of specialized vocabulary is practised, and a carefully planned, well-organized, concise, and precise oral presentation is delivered. Then, students listening to the presentation and writing notes, ask questions about additional information that would help them identify the disease. After that, each group should write a report in response to the presentation. In this report, students should identify the disease, provide evidence for their opinion based on the information they received from the presentation, and based on what they discovered themselves. Writing notes in this phase is considered very important because it is a way to get as much important information as possible to identify the disease. Students should select, organize, and then review their notes. This approach increases the number of both relevant questions and answers. The numerous and specific questions in some way regulate and correct the presentation by pointing out its weaknesses and shortcomings. The next stage is report writing by the group giving the presentation, and the other groups read the report, comment, and provide feedback. Students critically consider the work of their colleagues, which is extremely efficient, because in such a way the accuracy and rhetorical efficiency of writing are checked. Students directly criticize the second group in case of wrong information, ambiguities, insufficient information, etc. The group giving the presentation has time to explain the reasons for their choice.

At this point, they also refer to the sources used. In this way, reference citations are practised. The last phase is the phase in which the group that prepared the presentation gives a critical review of the presentation. This is probably the most important phase in the learning process because students become aware of both good and bad sides of the project. The ability to criticize the work done is important and naturally arises from this approach, because cooperative learning is enhanced.

3.1. Examples of a case study practised in class:

Example 1
A 39- year- old woman working in a confectionery presents with a 2- year history of asthma and allergic rhinitis symptoms, including episodic cough, wheeze, shortness of breath with itchy red eyes, and a stuffy, runny nose. These symptoms worsened within 1-2 hours of starting work each day, and worsen throughout the working week. She especially finds fine flour to worsen her symptoms almost immediately on exposure. She feels better within 1-2 hours after leaving her work. She has been working in the confectionery for 15 years, and for the last 11 years has been weighing components, where exposure to dust has been higher than in other areas. Therefore, she has been wearing a mask all the time.

As a child, she suffered from seasonal allergic rhinitis in the summer months. She is a non-smoker. Her mother and brother suffered from asthma. At present, she uses an inhaled steroid-long acting bronchodilator and an inhaled short-acting bronchodilator as needed. (* www.thoracic.com)

Based on the brief description of the patient and her symptoms, students create a model of the context of the situation through which they may predict possible problems and solutions to the case. Possible questions following the case study include: *What questions might a doctor ask to obtain the information in the case history? Make a dialogue between a doctor and a patient.*The basic communicative function of the case report is the presentation of factual data on past events and is achieved by using the past simple tense that plays a dominant role in the presentation of the case. The past perfect tense is used to express the sequence of past events and is most common in the part that describes the patient's medical history. The present perfect is used to explain the patient's past condition referring to the present moment, while the present tense is used to describe the patient's current condition. They are also used to make a final assessment of the treatment related to the present.

Example 2

In the case study below single out the verbs and determine the tenses and voice:
A 33 year-old man was referred to the ENT department after assessment at a district general hospital, with the symptom of sudden hearing loss in the left ear. The symptoms started within 12 h of receiving his second dose of rabies pretravel vaccination. The patient was feeling generally unwell and complained of worsening tinnitus accompanied by severe vertigo. He had no history of recent head injury, upper respiratory tract infection, or ototoxic medications, and was pain- free. He was known to have diet-controlled type 2 diabetes mellitus and atopy. He had no regular medications and no known drug allergies. He had been started on high-dose prednisolone, acyclovir, and betahistine by the referring district general hospital's ENT department. The otoscopic examination confirmed normal external auditory canals and tympanic membranes bilaterally. There was no focal neurology (Saleh et al, 2015).

Example 3

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:

A 33-year-old man ____   _____to the ENT department after assessment at a district general hospital, with the _____ of sudden hearing loss in the left ear. The symptoms _____within 12 h of receiving his second dose of rabies pretravel _____ . The patient was feeling generally _____, and _____   of worsening tinnitus _____ by severe vertigo. He had no _____ of recent head injury, upper respiratory tract infection, or ototoxic medications, and was pain -free. He was _____ to have diet-controlled type 2 diabetes mellitus and atopy. He had no regular _____ and no known drug allergies. He had been started on high-dose prednisolone, acyclovir and betahistine by the referring district general hospital's ENT department. The otoscopic _____ confirmed normal external auditory canals and tympanic membranes bilaterally. There was no focal neurology. (Saleh et al., 2015)

4. CONCLUSION

Case studies are considered to be an effective-based method for bridging the gap between theory and practice. They are used as part of an integrated approach for the development of applied knowledge based on analytical and critical thinking skills, and, therefore should be stimulating and motivating, thus creating an atmosphere for the enhancement of students' creativity. The content used during in-class activities is significant for academic setting and skills taught to students are the ones that are relevant for further professional improvement. The major advantage of using the case study approach is that activities used in class are student-centered and directed towards the implementation of theoretical concepts in the medical setting. Moreover, various possibilities of receiving adequate instructions for life-lasting education are provided, such as access to additional professional development opportunities and training abroad. Consequently, the involvement in the case method allows educators to develop a more profound understanding of their principles and instruction conceptions concerning the work setting. Having in mind that case studies offer a pedagogically reliable approach to promoting the acquisition of course content among future medical professionals and to fostering their professional development, educators should pay special attention to how the type and quality of the selected case study affect the teaching process

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Review research paper

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE SKILLS AND VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: THE CASE FOR SPORTS MANAGEMENT

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Abstract. *The assessed importance of each of the four basic language skills in a foreign language varies, and the relationship between a person's knowledge of vocabulary and the four macro language skills is highly elaborate in a foreign language of a particular profession, i.e. domain. In addition to the vocabulary in general language, a person must also master the knowledge of concepts that form the theoretical basis of the profession in question as well as the terms assigned to these concepts, first in one's native language and then in the foreign one. The first aim of the research in this paper was to determine how respondents assessed the import of each sub-skill within the four groups of basic language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking on the one hand, and on the other to determine the weight of knowledge of sports management-specific terminology in a foreign language for working in sports management in the Republic of Croatia. The second objective was to establish, also in the context of sports management, the correlation between the estimated importance of each of the four language skills and the estimated importance of the knowledge of sports management-specific vocabulary. The sample consisted of 70 students (men: n = 44; women: n = 26) of the fourth and fifth study years at the Faculty of Kinesiology, the University of Zagreb. The students filled out a questionnaire consisting of 58 items. They rated the relevance of all the sub-skills within the four basic language skills with the highest ratings. As for the order of skills given their criticality, the results indicated that the subjects considered reading skills as the most important, followed by listening, speaking and finally writing. The respondents also assessed the significance of the command of sports management-specific vocabulary with the highest rating. However, contrary to expectations, the analysis pointed to a low or only marginally moderate correlation between the assessed merit of each of the four language skills and the assessed weight of knowledge of the sports management-specific vocabulary.*

Key words*: foreign language, language skills, managers, sport, vocabulary*

1. INTRODUCTION

Numerous authors have depicted skills which successful managers should possess. For instance, Yukl (1998, 251-255) opines that to be efficient in their work,/ managers ought to master three sets of skills: conceptual, technical and communication ones. The last of these three skill groups is exceptionally portentous for a manager to be productive because

interpersonal communication is one of the key managerial functions at all three management levels – top-level management, middle (tactical) management and operational (technical) management. Bartoluci (2003, 140) claims that communication is one of the seven fundamental managerial functions (planning, organizing, controlling, decision-making, communication, innovation and motivation). Language skills (Thitthongkam and Walsh 2010) and the command of foreign languages belong to the batch of communication skills indispensable for a manager's job in general (Dorożyński, Świerkocki and Urbaniak 2016), thus also for managers in the domain of sport, i.e. sport managers (Çiftçi and Mirzeoğlu 2014, 743). The results of the research conducted by Jovanova-Simeva (2015, 13) displayed among other things that the command of foreign languages contributes to the progress of modern sports management. In the research by Škorić (2018), the command of a foreign language ranked 7th on the 12-level scale of competences essential for the work of sports managers.

Multiple studies addressing the prominence of language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking, have been carried out for various domains. In the research by Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2010, 19) done among petroleum engineering students the average grade – on the scale anchored at 1 and 5, the latter being the highest – of listening in English as a foreign language for specific purposes was 4.284, reading 4.185, writing 4.140 and speaking 4.041. Prachanant's research (2012) demonstrated that employees working in tourism in Thailand graded the merit of the four basic language skills in the English language – also on the scale anchored at 1 and 5 – in the following descending order: speaking (4.46), listening (4.38), reading (3.87) and writing (3.68). On the other hand, in the research by Rajprasit et al. (2014) the Thai engineer-beginners did not assign the highest grades to any of the four language skills – on the assessment scale anchored at 1 and 4 (the latter being the highest) all average values were below 3, and the sequence of skills in terms of their importance in the descending order was: reading (2.77), writing (2.69), speaking (2.56) and listening (2.53).

According to the research conducted in Taiwan by Wu and Chin (2010) with banking and financial sector employees the respondents regarded reading as the most important language skill in English as a foreign language, followed by listening, speaking and finally writing. In the research by Mohammadzadeh, Barati and Fatemi (2015, 1698) conducted with the employees in an Iranian bank 25% of the respondents regarded speaking and 20% regarded reading to be extremely necessary. Speaking and reading were assessed each by 50% of respondents to be *very necessary* for their work, followed by 25 % of those who rated listening as *very important* and 10% of those who assigned the same magnitude to writing. As much as 85% of respondents opined that writing was *necessary* for their work.

Further, many authors who have researched into the general language addressed in their analyses the interconnection between the knowledge of vocabulary and the four basic languages skills – reading (Hsueh-chao and Nation 2000; Kaivanpanah and Zandi 2009; Laufer 1989, 1992, 1996, 2013; Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski 2010; Nation 2006; Rashidi and Khosravi 2010; Schmitt, Jiang and Grabe 2011; Şen and Kuleli 2015), writing (Henriksen and Danelund 2015; Karakoç and Köse 2017; Matić and Bibić 2009; Yüksel 2015), then listening (Bonk 2000; Chang 2007; Nation 2006; Stæhr 2009; van Zeeland 2010; Teng, 2014) and finally speaking (Koizumi and In'nami 2013; Nation 2015). Stahl (2003, 241) claimed that vocabulary knowledge is the key predictor of text difficulty, i.e. the understanding of a text. Laufer (1989) testified to the fact that knowledge of 95% of vocabulary in a text was rudimentary for its understanding, and Hu and Nation (2000) asserted that knowledge of as much as 98% was required to understand a text. Schmitt, Jiang and Grabe (2011) reported that

knowledge of 98 – 99% of the vocabulary appearing in a text was mandatory for a person to be able to independently read the text with understanding.

Anyhow, the association between vocabulary knowledge on the one hand and reading and listening on the other is reflected in the reverse direction as well – reading is also one of the ways to learn vocabulary (Nation 2015), and so is listening (Stæhr 2009; Zhang and Graham 2020). Milton's (2013) survey of research pointed to the medium to high correlation between vocabulary knowledge on the one hand and each of the four basic skills in a foreign language on the other. Harkio and Pietilä (2015) found a strong positive correlation between vocabulary knowledge (breadth and depth) and reading comprehension both for intermediate and advanced proficiency level L2 learners. Nevertheless, they opined that vocabulary breadth and depth appeared to have a somewhat lower positive correlation with reading comprehension skills in advanced level learners. The significance of vocabulary knowledge construct for reading was also confirmed by Qian (2008) who posited that vocabulary knowledge assists in decoding a text, thus it ultimately facilitates reading. Kiliç (2019) found vocabulary knowledge to correlate significantly both with performance in writing and speaking. However, Henriksen and Danelund (2015) reported on a rather contradictory result for general English as a foreign language as regards the interrelatedness between vocabulary knowledge and writing. According to their research finding, secondary school students scored extremely poorly on the receptive vocabulary test and performed surprisingly well on a 460-word long free essay writing task. True, their lexical error production relative to the essay length decreased as their vocabulary efficiency increased, i.e. these two performance aspects proved to be inversely proportional (Henriksen and Danelund 2015). As for the relevance of interrelation between vocabulary knowledge and the listening skill, van Zeeland and Schmitt (2012) found on a sample of native and non-native speakers that for appropriate listening comprehension the knowledge of 90% of vocabulary appeared to be imperative, and Ataş (2018) found a significant moderate correlation between vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension. Uchihara and Clenton's (2020) research yielded rather perplexing results on the link between vocabulary knowledge with regard to its size and speaking. Namely, vocabulary size did not compulsorily occasion the production of lexically sophisticated words in L2 during the act of speech.

In foreign languages for specific purposes the association between vocabulary knowledge and the four macro language skills is particularly intricate. Apart from the knowledge of vocabulary in general language, learners must first master both the concepts comprising the theoretical basis of a domain and the terms assigned to these concepts in their mother tongue, and then the terms assigned to the corresponding concepts in the foreign language (cf. Hocenski-Dreiseidl 2006). In the author's informed opinion, research into the connection between vocabulary knowledge and certain basic language skills in the realm of language for specific purposes is rare. From this relatively scarce pool of analyses one was conducted by Xhaferi and Xhaferi (2011, 431) who found that regarding the language skills in English as a foreign language, specific terminology appeared to be an obstacle for successful communication, so that consequently vocabulary learning should be more conspicuous to be able to avoid this barrier. Dobreva and Popov's research (2013) evinced that speaking skills significantly affected vocabulary acquisition in the foreign (Bulgarian) language of medicine.

In the main, the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language use proved to be reciprocal – vocabulary knowledge facilitates the use of language, and the use of language expands one's vocabulary (Nation 2001).

To the best of the author's knowledge research data into how much the four macro language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking – and specific-vocabulary knowledge are pivotal for work in sport management is scarce.

2. METHODS

The first aim of the research was to ascertain how the students – 44 (62.9%) men and 26 (37.1%) women (totalling 70 and averaging 23.5 years of age) – of the fourth and fifth study year at the Faculty of Kinesiology, the University of Zagreb (Croatia) assessed both the moment of each sub-skill within the sets of four macro, i.e. basic language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking – and the substance of English vocabulary signature for work in sports management in Croatia. The second aim within sports management as a reference domain was to scrutinize the connection between the estimated importance of the four basic language skills and the estimated importance of specific-vocabulary knowledge. The research results were expected to reveal viable implications for the development of guidelines in teaching foreign language for specific purposes to future sport managers. All the respondents learned English as their first foreign language.

In literature, listening, reading, writing and speaking are frequently referred to as *language activities* or as *language skills* (Jelaska 2005, 134). The latter term was opted for in this article. The term *sub-skill* was used to designate various sub-types of the four basic language skills. The students assessed both the relevance of 57 language sub-skills and the relevance of sport management-specific vocabulary in English as a foreign language on a Likert-type scale anchored at 1 (= not important at all) and 5 (extremely important). The 57 language sub-skills were allocated to four groups. The first group was comprised of nine reading sub-skills, the second group consisted of 19 writing sub-skills, the third contained eight listening sub-skills and the fourth 21 speaking sub-skills. All the language sub-skills were assessed in the context of using a foreign language (English) in a business situation. The importance of sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge in a foreign language was considered as a separate item.

Cronbach's α correlation coefficient was used to identify the reliability of the whole assessment tool as well as the reliability of each set of sub-skills. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed a significant departure from the normal distribution for all 58 manifest variables, i.e. items, which called for the use of nonparametric statistics for data processing. Nonparametric descriptive statistics of the variables encompassed median, mode, frequency of mode, minimal and maximal values, as well as the skewness and kurtosis of distributions for all variables. Next, the total average grades of all the sub-skills groups were calculated, together with the average grades per respondent for each sub-skill within each of the basic language skill clusters. The Spearman correlation coefficient (ρ) was applied to identify at $p < 0.05$ significance level the interrelation between each basic language skill and the vocabulary knowledge variable. The data were processed by the statistical package *Statistica for Windows*, version 13.5.0.17. (TIBCO Software Inc. 2018).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Cronbach's α correlation coefficient for the whole assessment tool was 0.966. Such a high coefficient speaks in favour of the high reliability of the assessment tool applied. The Cronbach's α correlation coefficient for the set of items intended for the assessment of the importance of reading sub-skills was 0.879, for the set of writing sub-skills 0.927, for the set of listening sub-skills 0.831 and ultimately, for the set of speaking sub-skills 0.912.

3.1. Importance of reading, writing, listening and speaking for work in sport management in the Republic of Croatia

The medians for the nine reading sub-skills revealed the assessment categories to be very similarly distributed on all nine variables. The students assessed eight sub-skills – except *reading and understanding technical literature written in a foreign language* – most frequently to be *extremely important* (grade 5), and only slightly less frequently as *very important* (grade 4). They obviously opined that the sub-skill of reading and understanding technical literature written in a foreign language was not of the same critical moment for the work of a sports manager as the other reading sub-skills included in the assessment tool. This sub-skill was also the only one that received scores from across the whole assessment range, i.e. from the lowest (anchored at 1) to the highest (anchored at 5). As evident from Table 1, the distributions on all nine variables were negatively asymmetric, which suggests that all nine sub-skills were most frequently rated with high grades.

Table 1 Nonparametric descriptive statistics of nine reading sub-skills variables

Variable	Median	Mode	Freq. of mode	Min	Max	Skew.	Kurt.
Reading and understanding a financial report written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm	4.5	5	35	2	5	-1.087	0.432
Reading and understanding a business offer written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm	5	5	43	2	5	-1.376	1.572
Reading and understanding a development strategy (project, business activities, etc.) written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm	5	5	37	3	5	-0.760	-0.650
Reading and understanding new ideas written in a foreign language	4.5	5	35	2	5	-0.909	0.210
Reading and understanding instructions written in a foreign language	4	5	34	3	5	-0.611	-0.574
Reading and understanding an on-hand message written in a foreign language	5	5	36	3	5	-0.716	-0.689
Reading and understanding official letters/emails of general content written in a foreign language	5	5	41	3	5	-0.852	-0.235
Reading and understanding an offer written in a foreign language and sent by a business partner	5	5	41	2	5	-1.408	1.719
Reading and understanding an offer written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm	4	4	35	1	5	-0.996	1.967

Legend: Freq. – frequency, Min – minimal value, Max – maximal value, Skew. – skewness, Kurt. - kurtosis

In four of the nine reading sub-skills (*reading and understanding a development strategy – project, business activities, etc. – written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm*; *reading and understanding instructions written in a foreign language; reading and understanding an on-hand message written in a foreign language;* and *reading and understanding official letters/emails of general content written in a foreign language*) the lowest grade awarded was 3. This ultimately outlines the conjecture of students that reading in actual business situations appears to be somewhat more pertinent than reading technical literature in a foreign language, and that the latter might be regarded as a valuable yet supplementary asset. The greatest incidence of the highest grade (5 = extremely important) assigned to three reading sub-skills (*reading and understanding official letters/emails of general content written in a foreign language; reading and understanding an offer written in a foreign language and sent by a business partner; reading and understanding a business offer written in a foreign language by a co-worker in a firm*) points to the communication facet in which business deals are negotiated and potentially closed – in other words, the real supply and demand-related correspondence conveying key information for a business transaction in question. The average grade of the nine reading sub-skills totalled 4.379.

The medians and modes of 19 writing variables disclosed that most writing sub-skills received high grades (Table 2). Nevertheless, these grades although high were still noticeably lower than those received for the reading sub-skills, this being evidenced by no mode frequency exceeding 40, in contrast to the occurrence conspicuous of three reading sub-skills. Such a reaction of students might be elucidated as a two-facet response. On the one hand, writing is an indispensable and essential skill in a business environment. On the other hand, many people regard writing in a foreign language a skill very onerous to acquire (Gupta 1998), which could possibly have repercussions – although sometimes contradicting ones – on the multiplex writing anxiety construct (Cheng 2004). Hence, it might be hypothesized that writing anxiety and consequently potential avoidance of writing – as is the case, e.g., with the behavioural dimension of sport performance anxiety (cf. Smith and Smoll 1990) or test anxiety (Morris, Davis and Hutchings 1981) – could result in assigning the skill of writing a lower worth than reading in the context of sports management. As postulated by Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert (2008), the reading and writing constructs share the same common denominators – both draw on low self-confidence. Still, the true reasons for the aforesaid assessment sequel remain unclear in the current research, since opposing research results also exist – to exemplify, avoidance behaviour within the wider construct of writing apprehension was infrequent in the study conducted by Marzec-Stawiarska (2012) among adult advanced learners of English.

The total average assessment grade of all writing sub-skills was 4.183, i.e. it was slightly lower than the total average assessment grade of reading sub-skills. Yet, the writing sub-skills were awarded high grades, and the interpretation of such students' viewpoints might be sought in the awareness of the basic communication principle formulated by Harold H. Lasswell (1948: 37): *Who says what in which channel*[1] *to whom with what effect?* Namely, the curriculum of the sports management programme as a second major offered at the Faculty of Kinesiology, the University of Zagreb (Croatia) includes the course concerning communication in sports management within which the communication principles – Lasswell's included – are discussed and explored. True, since 1948 Lasswell's principle has been changed in that it has been complemented, elaborated, etc.

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[1] *Author's comment:* communication channel.

Notwithstanding, its essence has remained unaltered: both the context and the conditions in which communication develops between a sender and a receiver should be pondered to be able to infer the effects of a sent message.

Table 2 Nonparametric descriptive statistics of 19 writing sub-skills variables

Variable	Median	Mode	Freq. of mode	Min	Max	Skew.	Kurt.
Grammatical accuracy of writing in a foreign language	4	4	31	1	5	-1.108	1.940
Writing letters/emails in a foreign language	5	5	38	2	5	-1.332	1.839
Writing a financial report in a foreign language	4	5	30	1	5	-1.161	1.846
The skill of writing in a foreign language in financial management in sport	4	4	33	1	5	-1.695	5.011
The skill of writing in a foreign language in the management of organizing sports events	4	4	34	2	5	-0.833	0.702
The skill of writing in a foreign language in planning the development of a sports association/society	4	4	36	2	5	-0.358	-0.182
The skill of writing in a foreign language in planning the development of a sports club	4	4	39	2	5	-0.754	0.628
The skill of writing in a foreign language in the management of human resources	4	4	33	1	5	-0.850	0.932
The skill of writing in a foreign language in the management of the promotion of sports- and physical recreation-related offer in tourism	5	5	39	2	5	-1.316	1.212
The skill of writing in a foreign language in the management of a sports facility	4	4	31	1	5	-0.857	0.801
Written transfer of someone's message in a foreign language to a third party	4	5	31	1	5	-1.345	2.339
Written delivery of instructions in a foreign language	4	5	30	2	5	-0.647	-0.363
Presenting in a written form the comparative advantages (e.g., of a tourist destination, sports activity, sports organization, etc.) in a foreign language	4	4	31	2	5	-0.844	0.440
Motivating in a written form in a foreign language	4	4	31	2	5	-0.366	-0.543
The skills of written diplomatic communication in a foreign language	4	5	29	2	5	-0.587	-0.495
Written persuading in a foreign language	4	4	31	2	5	-0.891	0.490
Written accuracy in a foreign language	4	4	33	2	5	-0.561	-0.151
Drawing up a development strategy (a project, business transactions, etc.) in a foreign language	4	4	30	2	5	-0.674	-0.097
Writing/drawing up an offer in a foreign language	4	4	33	2	5	-0.793	0.471

Legend: Freq. – frequency, Min – minimal value, Max – maximal value, Skew. – skewness, Kurt. - kurtosis

As for the skill of writing, the word *says* may be substituted with the word *writes*. Since the domain under consideration here is sports management, further elucidation ought to be correlated with the roles of managers on each of the three possible management levels. To exemplify, one of the roles of top management is the preparation of strategic plans and company policy. This preparation most probably does not develop in a foreign language. Still, due to the society's globalization on the whole and due to the presence of participants from all over the world, for example, in multinational companies, it is possible that during the development of strategy plans a share of communication – either oral or written – develops in a foreign language. Owing to this varying structure of top management and the fluctuating language-related circumstances, the sub-skills of writing a developmental strategy in a foreign language received a lower grade than writing a letter/an email (Table 2). Considering that one of the roles of middle or tactical management is to send central reports and data to top management, and the term *sending* might be perceived in the realm of the research in this article as *sending written reports*, the international structure of some companies subsumes knowledge of a foreign language – usually English – and subsequently also writing important reports in a second language. In such a context, the fact that one of the tasks of the members of the so-called operational, i.e. technical management, is – among many – the preparation of periodic reports on the work of lower-level employees, this again implies the skill of writing. Thus, given their role, the members of middle and top management most often have an opportunity to communicate with their superiors by writing in a foreign language. Explicitly, one of the roles of top management members is to maintain contact with the outside world. This presupposes written communication in a foreign language, whereas members of middle management in a company that may have foreign employees must communicate in writing both with top and operational management.

Another skill that received high marks was the skill of writing in a foreign language in managing the promotion of a sport and physical recreation-related offer in tourism. Such a result was expected because today's Croatian, but also global, tourism is inconceivable without a command of foreign languages, writing skills included. The writing skills that some of the respondents rated the lowest were grammatical accuracy, writing a financial report, writing skills in a foreign language in financial management in sports and human resources management as well as in sports facility management or conveying someone's message to a third party. In other words, the results for grammatical precision proved that the respondents considered it to be less pertinent for the business context. Still, this does not mean that grammar should be considered as extraneous and inconsequential in specific business conditions. Namely, language for specific purposes has its own functional grammar (Nagy 2014, 269) which – in addition to vocabulary, learning skills, register, discourse and genre (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998, 5) – is one of its key features. The reasons for the estimated somewhat lesser germane of grammatical correctness can only be speculated. But, it is beyond doubt that many who learn any foreign language find grammar difficult to master, and this is because it is, as expounded by DeKeyser (2005, 3), a complex construct that encompasses forms, meaning and the connection between them. Additionally, teaching English by extensively focusing on grammar and not on, for example, inter-contextual application is considered to be an obsolete and outdated method (Basta 2017, 554).

The remaining four hitherto mentioned sub-skills – writing a financial report, writing skills in a foreign language in financial management in sports, human resources management, sports facility management and conveying someone's message to a third person – obviously in the opinion of some respondents do not always require the knowledge of (a) foreign language(s).

Eventually, some respondents considered them completely irrelevant for work in sports management. Nevertheless, this does not mean that the command of (a) foreign language(s) is peripheral for work, for example, in human resource management since there are companies that put the knowledge of business foreign language on the list of competency development programmes within human resource management (cf. Bartolić and Prelas Kovačević 2011, 87). True, this information does not disclose anything about the skill of writing in a foreign language, but it is illustrative for the area of management in the specified domain. As with reading skills, the distributions on all 19 variables were markedly negatively asymmetric, i.e. the respondents most often rated the criticality of all sub-skills with the highest marks.

Listening is the first skill to be developed when a child starts to acquire his/her mother tongue (Patekar 2013, 293), and it is also an outstandingly demanding skill in mastering another (foreign) language (Patekar 2013, 299). As to the listening sub-skills in the current study, Table 3 evinces median and mode values similar to those for writing sub-skills. Yet, while the minimum value of the modes was not less than 4 in any of the writing skills, this was the case with the two listening sub-skills in a business-related context – *understanding an oral message in a foreign language* on the one hand and *understanding orally delivered instructions in a foreign language* on the other. In other words, the first sub-skill mentioned referred to the discerning of orally communicated messages in general.

Table 3 Nonparametric descriptive statistics of eight listening sub-skills variables

Variable	Median	Mode	Freq. of mode	Min	Max	Skew.	Kurt.
Understanding new ideas orally expressed in a foreign language	4	4	32	2	5	-1.089	1.231
Understanding instructions orally expressed in a foreign language	4	5	32	3	5	-0.549	-0.719
Understanding a message orally expressed in a foreign language	4.5	5	35	3	5	-0.629	-0.523
Understanding comparative advantages (e.g., of a tourist destination, sports activity, sports organization, etc.) orally expressed in a foreign language	4	4	34	1	5	-1.388	4.091
Understanding criticism orally expressed in a foreign language	4	5	33	2	5	-0.836	0.159
Understanding a financial report orally presented in a foreign language	4.5	5	35	1	5	-1.544	3.383
Understanding a business offer orally expressed in a foreign language	4	4	38	1	5	-1.493	4.542
Understanding a development strategy (a project, business transactions, etc.) orally expressed in a foreign language	4	4	37	1	5	-1.490	3.587

Legend: Freq. – frequency, Min – minimal value, Max – maximal value, Skew. – skewness, Kurt. - kurtosis

Consequently, all other sub-skills in that segment of the assessment tool could be interpreted as its sub-types. Nonetheless, one of them stands out, and that is the understanding of instructions delivered orally in a foreign language – all respondents obviously regarded the comprehension of oral instructions as the most far-reaching sub-type of comprehending orally expressed messages. According to previous research, numerous

problems arise when trying to fathom a text orally delivered by a second party. These problems range from the need to recognize sounds and words and subsequently the need to create a mental image of a word, to the non-comprehension of the whole message (Goh 2000). Hence, the result in the current research on the weightiness of listening comprehension presumably results from the awareness of the need to overcome some of the impending problems listed.

The overall average rating of the substance of listening sub-skills was 4.295, thus justifying the ordained conclusion that on the whole the respondents considered the listening skill to be more critical than the writing skill in the context of sports management, but less seminal than the reading skill. However, the negative distribution asymmetry on all eight listening variables (sub-skills), as in the two previous cases, showed that the respondents rated all listening skills also most often with the highest marks.

Although the respondents rated all speaking sub-skills most frequently with high marks (Table 4) as well, the number of sub-skills that received, among other grades, the lowest grade as regards their merit from some respondents (45.4%) was very similar to the number of listening sub-skills (50%) rated by some respondents as the lowest with regard to their upside for work in sports management. The highest frequency of the apical importance grade was found for the speaking sub-skills variables *the skill of speaking in a foreign language in business negotiations* (n = 41) and *the skill of calm oral communication in a foreign language, even when a business situation is stressful* (n = 40). Such a result unequivocally reveals that business negotiations and calm communication – which in other words implies the ability to control the communication mode – were in the opinion of the respondents among the quintessential factors in oral communication.

The overall average rate of the prominence of all speaking sub-skills was 4.231 – in other words, only the skill of writing received a lower overall grade. The highest values both of medians and modes were obtained for only four speaking sub-skills – the variable that relates to the account of the speaking skill in a foreign language in the management of organizing a sports event, i.e. a competition, followed by the variable regarding the skill of speaking in the context of business negotiations, the variable assessing the significance of the speaking skill in managing the promotion of the sports- and physical recreation-related offer in tourism as well as the variable assessing the relevance of being calm during oral communication in a foreign language.

As for the first variable previously listed, the statistical results in terms of medians and modes are closely related with the success of Croatian athletes – both individual and sports teams – on the global sports scene on the one hand, and on the other, with the increasing number of international sports competitions hosted by Croatia. According to Milanović, Čustonja and Hrženjak (2016, 41), the notion of sport is in the Croatian society traditionally envisioned in the context of sports contests, and sport and sporting performance are simultaneously the expression of the society itself as well (Milanović, Čustonja and Hrženjak 2016, 42). In their article Milanović, Čustonja and Hrženjak (2016, 42) further opine that the achievements of Croatian athletes contribute to the promotion of Croatia on a global level. With reference to communication, Beech and Chadwick (2010, cited in Peručić and Joković 2018, 22) posit that sport must communicate with prospective consumers. Hence, sports competitions are one type of communication media (Peručić and Joković 2018, 22) encompassing communication in all its facets – be it through reading, writing, listening or speaking.

Table 4 Nonparametric descriptive statistics of 21 speaking sub-skills variables

Variable	Median	Mode	Freq. of mode	Min	Max	Skew.	Kurt.
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in financial management in sport	4	4	34	1	5	-1.294	3.004
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in sports event organization management	5	5	39	1	5	-1.411	2.374
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in planning the development of a sports association/society	4	4	30	1	5	-0.957	1.145
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in planning the development of a sports club	4	4	35	1	5	-0.877	1.623
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in business negotiations	5	5	41	1	5	-1.522	2.397
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in human resources management	4	4	30	2	5	-0.914	0.478
The skill of speaking in a foreign language in managing the promotion of sport- and physical recreation-related offer in tourism	5	5	39	1	5	-1.782	3.851
Grammatical accuracy when speaking in a foreign language	4	4	39	2	5	-0.845	1.361
Pronunciation when speaking in a foreign language	4	4	28	2	5	-0.150	-0.867
Answering questions in a foreign language	4	5	32	1	5	-1.463	3.331
Orally discussing various matters in a foreign language	4	4	33	2	5	-1.064	1.233
Oral presentation of a business project in a foreign language	4	5	33	2	5	-0.931	1.093
Delivering oral instructions in a foreign language	4	4	38	2	5	-0.533	0.324
Giving advice in a foreign language	4	4	36	2	5	-0.584	0.230
Orally expressing comparative advantages (e.g., of a tourist destination, sports activity, sports organization, etc.) in a foreign language	4	4	34	2	5	-0.851	1.051
Oral communication in a foreign language using various types of telephones	4	4	38	2	5	-0.896	1.128
Asking questions in a foreign language	4	4	33	1	5	-1.507	4.651
Humour in oral business communication in a foreign language	4	4	30	1	5	-1.048	1.165
The skill of diplomatic oral communication in a foreign language	4	5	33	1	5	-1.528	3.117
Intercultural communication skills in a foreign language	4	4	32	2	5	-0.404	-0.431
The skill of calm oral communication in a foreign language, even when a business situation is stressful	5	5	40	2	5	-1.311	2.737

Legend: Freq. – frequency, Min – minimal value, Max – maximal value, Skew. – skewness, Kurt. - kurtosis

A valid statistical comparison demands the application of the same methodology (population, sample, assessment tool, statistical methods) in juxtaposed analyses, which

was not the case with the past research and the research presented in this text. However, the results in the current research were contrasted with the research results obtained by other authors to exemplify – at least to some extent – the imminent tenors in this respect. Subsequently, undeterred by the lack of prerequisites for accurate comparison, Table 5 still provides an interesting overview which allows for several viable conclusions. First and foremost, the order of importance of skills in the current research manifests as being reading, listening, speaking and lastly writing (Table 5). Such a concatenation stems from the roles of managers and their activities at various management levels. Furthermore, the contemporary ways of communication, i.e. communication channels or paths effectuate written communication through miscellaneous ways of the contemporary digital era – emails being seemingly the most customary in corporate communication (cf. Szabó 2014). Therefore, reading might be highlighted to be of utmost salience in this respect. What lacks in this string, however, is the parallel precedence of writing in the reading-writing chain of events. The reasons for such an outcome are believably to be found in the collective value of the estimation of the total writing skill cluster, which clouds to a certain extent the standing of the item (cf. Table 2) appertaining to the skill of writing letters/emails in L2.

Table 5 Order of importance in terms of average values of the four basic language skills in previous and current research

Author(s)	Subjects	Scale	Four Basic Language Skills by their Assessed Importance			
			1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Current research	kinesiology students (Croatia)	1 – 5 importance scale for work in sport management	reading (4.379)	listening (4.295)	speaking (4.231)	writing (4.183)
Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2010)	petroleum engineering students (Yemen)	1 – 5 importance scale	listening (4.258)	reading (4.185)	writing (4.140)	speaking (4.041)
Prachanant (2012)	employees in tourism (Thailand)	1 – 5 the English language skills need of tourism employees	speaking (4.48)	listening (4.38)	reading (3.87)	writing (3.68)
Rajprasit et al. (2014)	engineer-beginners (Thailand)	1 – 4 English language skills needed for effective communication in engineering workplace	reading (2.77)	writing (2.69)	speaking (2.56)	listening (2.53)
Kuna (2007)	humanities and social sciences students (Croatia)	in % regarding necessity for future employment	speaking (58%)	reading (22%)	listening and writing (10% each)	

The key cause of the obtained differences between the estimated values of language skills presented in Table 5 lies in the type of a job, i.e. domain in which each research was conducted. The respondents obviously had divergent opinions about the order of language skills in terms of their importance for a particular occupation, and accordingly they prioritized those skills that they either anticipated (students as respondents – cf. Al-Tamimi and Shuib 2010, Kuna 2007, current research) or experientially recognized, e.g. employees in tourism (Prachanant 2012) and engineer-beginners (Rajprasit et al. 2014), as the most needed ones. Setting aside the fact that the relevance of the four basic language skills was found to vary in order in all studies displayed in Table 5, there are

still some common points that need to be scrutinized in more detail. First, both in the research conducted by Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2010) and in the current research the average grade for all four language skills was above 4, i.e. the second highest grade possible. Secondly, although the obtained order of importance of the four basic language skills was disparate in the two aforementioned studies, the discord in the sequence is the result of minimal differences among average values. Third, the dissimilarity in the average value of the listening skill in the current research and in the research by Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2010) was negligible. This consequently implies that both the students of kinesiology and the students of petroleum engineering seem to expect to be proficient both in reading and writing in a foreign language once they begin their expert careers. Still, the opinion of engineer-beginners (Rajprasit et al. 2014) was somewhat different – they deemed reading to be the most important skill as did the students of kinesiology in the current research, unlike the engineering students from the study conducted by Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2010). Additionally, the novice engineers ranked writing as the second most important skill, whereas the kinesiology students considered it to be the least relevant for work in sports management, and the petroleum engineering students saw it as the second to last considering its weightiness for future work in the domain of petroleum engineering. Interestingly, the current research demonstrated a high materiality of listening, which seems to be somewhat incompatible to the viewpoint expressed by Dabić (2014, 1828) that listening is frustrating for students due to the lack of rules to be applied for listening comprehension and to the viewpoint (Marinković and Pešić 2015, 398) that listening comprehension belongs to the set of those processes that are least understood by scientists, and ultimately the most challenging to acquire. Further, the first-year students of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek (Croatia) were of the opinion that the most momentous skill – in terms of foreign language – they might need in future work would be speaking, followed by reading, writing and finally listening (Kuna 2007, 33-34). Curiously, their opinion as prospective jobholders in the domains of humanities and social sciences concurred with that of the employees in tourism (cf. Prachanant 2012).While the former forecast the need to be proficient in speaking in a foreign language, the latter had already witnessed the necessity for the proficiency of the skill in speaking in a domain – which nowadays (excluding 2020 due to the COVID 19 pandemic) represents the world's third largest export category (1.7 trillion dollars in revenues as of 2018) behind fuels and chemicals (UNWTO 2019) – in which communication, predominantly in English in international communication, is of the utmost pertinence in transmitting information (cf. Wilson 2018).Several other studies that could not be compared in any way with those in Table 5 owing to a completely different research design, still allowed for at least some level of comparison, so that in the matter of the language skills rated the highest – namely, reading – the results obtained in the current research compare to Wu and Chin's (2010) and Rajprasit et al.'s (2014) research.

3.2. Importance of knowledge of specific vocabulary in a foreign language for work in sports management in the Republic of Croatia and its correlation with four basic language skills

Table 6 shows that the median and mode values of the assessed crucial knowledge of specific terminology in a foreign language for work of sports managers were the highest possible.

Table 6 Nonparametric descriptive statistics of the variable *knowledge of sports management-specific vocabulary in a foreign language*

Variable	Median	Mode	Freq. of mode	Min	Max	Skew.	Kurt.
Knowledge of sports management-specific vocabulary in a foreign language	5	5	38	2	5	-1.081	0.379

Legend: Freq. – frequency, Min – minimal value, Max – maximal value, Skew. – skewness, Kurt. - kurtosis

As already said, the knowledge of vocabulary is mandatory for the development of each of the four basic language skills. Therefore, the next step in the analysis was to look into the relationship among the assessed importance of the knowledge of sports management-specific vocabulary and the four basic language skills. To identify the size of this correlation[2], the average grade of the assessment of each sub-skill within each basic skill cluster was calculated per each respondent. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test revealed that the distribution of average values did not deviate significantly from the normal distribution. Since this test indicated that the results on the variable concerning the relevance of knowledge of sports management-specific vocabulary did deviate from the normal distribution curve, Spearman R correlation coefficient (ρ) which is less/not sensitive to the distribution type was used to detect the size of the correlation among the average values for sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge and the four language skills at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. The results evidenced all the correlation coefficients to be significant at the set significance level. However, the correlation between the variable designating the moment of sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge and the amalgamated reading skill variable appeared to be very low – $\rho = 0.340$ (Table 7), i.e. the statistical significance of this correlation confirmed it to be fair (for the ranges of the correlation size compare Colton 1974, 211)[2].

Table 7 Spearman rank order correlations – four basic language skills x sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge

Variable	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Vocabulary knowledge
Reading	1.000	0.737	0.647	0.677	0.340
Writing	0.737	1.000	0.698	0.773	0.505
Listening	0.647	0.698	1.000	0.687	0.462
Speaking	0.677	0.773	0.687	1.000	0.480
Vocabulary knowledge	0.340	0.505	0.462	0.480	1.000

The results yielded for the relatedness between vocabulary knowledge on the one hand, and reading and writing skills on the other in the current analysis were only partly in accord with the results reported by some researchers (cf. Karakoç and Köse 2017) for general English as a foreign language regarding the impact of vocabulary knowledge on reading and writing. Whereas in the current research the correlation between the merit of vocabulary knowledge and the reading skill was significant but fair and on the lower border of moderate for the writing skill, in the analysis conducted by Karakoç and Köse

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[2] Colton's (1974, 211) size of correlations is interpreted in the following way: r = 0 to ± 0.25: no or negligible correlation; r = ± 0,25 to ± 0,50: fair correlation; r = ± 0,50 to ± 0,75: moderate-to-good correlation; r = ± 0,75 to ± 1: very good-to-excellent correlation.

(2017) the interrelation between lexical proficiency and both reading and writing was fair, the latter being not close to the lower level of being moderate. Although vocabulary knowledge in the present analysis was not tested in terms of its breadth and length, the yielded relatively low (fair) correlation as assessed by the respondents between the significance of vocabulary knowledge and the reading skill can be substantiated by the find obtained by Li (2015) who found a positive but moderate association between the constructs of vocabulary breadth and depth and reading comprehension.

On the other hand, such an assessment result is not in compliance with the past research conducted for general language on the value of vocabulary knowledge. For instance, Milton's (2013) review of research showed a moderate to high correlation between vocabulary knowledge and the proficiency in each of the four basic language skills. However, the analysis in the current research showed the assessed merit of vocabulary knowledge – with reference to Colton's correlation size scale – to be only fairly to moderately correlated with them. To specify, the correlation between the assessed relevance of vocabulary knowledge and the import of the writing skill was on the border between fair and moderate – $\rho = 0.505$, whereas the correlations with the magnitude of speaking ($\rho = 0.480$) and listening ($\rho = 0.462$), although close to the cut-off point of being moderate, were only fair, as was the correlation with the reading skill ($\rho = 0.340$). To continue, the results yielded in the current research as regards the weightiness both of vocabulary knowledge and language skills as assessed by future kinesiologists were also not in compliance with the results of past research into the perceived interconnection of vocabulary knowledge and the skill of speaking. In contrast with Koizumi and In'nami (2013), Schmitt (2010) and many others who testified to the interdependence between the constructs of vocabulary knowledge and speaking, the results of the current analysis revealed a positive but only fair relation between them as obtained on the basis of the respondents' assessment.

The reasons for the obtained correlations between the construct of vocabulary knowledge on the one hand and the four primary language skills on the other – on the basis of students' assessments regarding the bearing of these constructs for work in sports management – might be sought in several aspects. The first and most probably the key one was methodology regarding vocabulary knowledge deliberation. Namely, it is plausible that some of the discrepancies between the listed results in the current research and the analyses in general language occurred due to the fact that here the investigation looked into the relevance of sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge, where the notion of *sports management-specific vocabulary* was not broken down into further sub-items (e.g., vocabulary depth and breadth, receptive and productive vocabulary). Varieties in the interpretation of this item were therefore plausible, possible and probable. Be as it may and regardless of the depletion of elaborateness of the vocabulary knowledge construct-related battery of ostensive items in the assessment tool applied, transmitting somebody's message in writing to a third party, giving instructions in a business context, i.e. in a business situation, the skill of tactful (diplomatic) written communication and the like cannot in any way operate without vocabulary knowledge. This notion of vocabulary knowledge characteristic for sports management and used by sports managers implies vocabulary which neither in terms of business language nor in terms of kinesiological terminology in a foreign language relates to considerable vocabulary depth, but remains relatively on the surface level of vocabulary knowledge in language for specific purposes. In other words, this means that sports managers do not discuss with their business partners such details as the amount of blood lactate in blood during physical exercises at various intensities, which would require accurate knowledge of

the terminology of biomechanics[3], economics[4], physiology of exercise and sport-related[5] and sports-medical terminology together with terminology particular to the theory of training. When it comes to sport, a sports manager might deliberate about various types of sports, multifarious sport-related programmes, the financial aspects of sport- or physical recreation-related offer, etc. The level of vocabulary knowledge although rather demanding still does not solicit exhaustive lexical cognizance of the domain that encompasses sport, physical exercise, management, business transactions, etc. Ultimately, in a foreign language a sports manager might need such terms that are not highly technical, i.e. terminology necessary in the domain of sport management would in all probability be of a somewhat lower technical level. Such terms in the context of business communication could be names of sports and sports events like *football*[6] or *basketball*[7], as well as the terms like *offer*[8], *demand* [9]or *development strategy*[10] that are characteristic for the domain of economics. It would be probably credible to conclude that names of sports – although undoubtedly of a somewhat lower level of technical specificity in the language register of kinesiology, the science of human movement, than, for example, the term *excess post-exercise oxygen consumption* (or EPOC) – are words that can be learned in a general language. Such a conclusion could be drawn on the grounds of sport being a global social phenomenon, at least as far as the names of sports are concerned, known to a wide(r) public. Be that as it may, such a supposition could immediately stumble into the pitfall of misconception. One example will suffice to justify the previous contention. This example has been taken from the domain of Croatian tourism promotion and it deals with two terms – i.e. the names of two sports – that are (too) frequently incorrectly used either in the Croatian language or by native speakers of Croatian who use English as a foreign language. The two terms in question are *surfing*[11] and *windsurfing*[12]. Their correct translation equivalents in Croatian are *jahanje na valovima* and *jedrenje na dasci*, respectively. In a brochure published in the Croatian language by the Croatian National Tourist Board (2018) the terms that appear in the text are *windsurfing, daskanje* and *daskanje na vjetru*. The first of the three is a foreign (English) word in Croatian and the other two belong to jargon. Ultimately, it is not clear which sport(s) these three terms actually refer to, since when used like that, they appear to refer to three different sports. Nonetheless, they in fact refer to two sports: *windsurfing* as *daskanje na na vjetru* refers to *windsurfing*, and the second term – *daskanje* – to *surfing*. To explain to non-Croatian speakers, *daska* in Croatian means *a board*. Hence, the *ad litteram* (and simultaneously incorrect) translation of the word *daskanje* into English would be

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[3] Some terms used in biomechanics are: English *displacement*, Croatian *pomak*, German *Verschiebung*; English *torque*, Croatian *moment sile*, German *Drehmoment*, etc.

[4] For example, English *bear market*, Croatian *tržište na kojemu cijene određenih skupina vrijednosnih papira padaju ili se njihov pad očekuje*, German *Baisse*; English *six sigma*, Croatian *metoda poboljšanja kvalitete temeljena na statistici*, German *Six Sigma*; English *bait advertising*, Croatian *prikriveno oglašavanje*, German *Lockangebote*, etc.

[5] For example, English *cardiac output*, Croatian *minutni volument srca*, German *Herzminutenvolumen*;English *excess postexercise oxygen consumption*, Croatian *prekomjerni primitak kisika u oporavku*, German *Sauerstoffmehraufnahme nach Arbeitsende*, etc.

[6] Croatian *nogomet*, German *Fußball*

[7] Croatian *košarka*, German *Basketball*

[8] Croatian *ponuda*, German Germ *Angebot*

[9] Croatian *potražnja*, German *Nachfrage*

[10] Croatian *strategija razvoja*, German *Entwicklungsstrategie*

[11] German *Surfing* and *Surfen*

[12] German *Windsurfing* and *Windsurfen*

boarding[13], i.e. the meaning implied would be similar to the meaning of the second constituent in the term *snow**boarding** – using a board*. However, a *board* is used both in surfing and in windsurfing, so that using a term which designates *a long, narrow board on which a surfer or a windsurfer stands* to refer to one of the two or either sport is inaccurate. It could be argued that this is the case of *pars pro toto* (*synecdoche*) usage, i.e. an example of a metonymic usage of the name of an implement to refer to the whole concept of (a) sport(s) in question. Such usage would not be regarded as incorrect were it not for the fact that two correct terms for the designation of the two sports do exist in Croatian. Eventually, using jargon in an official publication otherwise written in a formal style is only the result of insufficient fastidiousness pertaining to sport-specific terminology.

Correctly used terms both in the English and in the German versions of the previously mentioned brochure speak in favour of the incorrect usage of the two listed terms in the Croatian version of this publication (Table 8). In other words, this one example from the communication level which might be described as being even closer to general language than to language for specific purposes demonstrates the lack of conscientiousness of the supreme importance of the interrelatedness between the reading skill and the knowledge of vocabulary distinctive of a particular domain.

Table 8 Comparison of terms used in the English, German and Croatian version
of the brochure published by the Croatian National Tourist Board

Croatian National Tourist Board (2018). *Croatia – Full of Life: Discover Your Story.*	Kroatische Zentrale für Tourismus (2018). *Kroatien – voller Leben: entdecke deine Geschichte*	Hrvatska turistička zajednica (2018). *Hrvatska – Puna života: otkrijte svoju priču.*
windsurfing (p. 43)	Windsurfing (p. 43)	windsurfing (p. 43)
surfing (p. 51)	Surfen (p. 51)	daskanje (p. 51)
windsurfing (p. 66)	Windsurfen (p. 66)	daskanje na vjetru (p. 66)

Finally, the survey of the results obtained for the set of speaking sub-skills reveals that the variables like *humour in oral business communication in a foreign language* and *the skill of diplomatic oral communication in a foreign language* provide information on the communication style. Therefore, it is conceivable that communication style appeared to be regarded as less required than the sub-skills referred to by some other variables, which consequently resulted in only a fair correlation of the whole speaking skill and the cogency of knowledge of vocabulary. Additionally, the likelihood of interconnectedness of the variable designating pronunciation in a foreign language with the assessed importance of vocabulary knowledge could also prove to be the cause of a poorer correlation between them.

7. CONCLUSION

The results of this research indicate the following possible inferences. First, the respondents rated with the highest grades the importance of all sub-skills within the four basic language skills in a foreign language. In the matter of the sequence of skills in

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[13] The word *boarding* in the English language does not mean *to use a board in order to slide or sail across waves or surf*.

terms of their assessed relevance, the results point to the reading skill being regarded as the priority skill a sports manager should possess, followed by the skills of listening, speaking and finally writing. In future it would be interesting to conduct some research with people already working as sports managers – in the Republic of Croatia and elsewhere – and to compare the results of such research with the results presented in this article. Second, the respondents rated vocabulary knowledge with the highest grades as well. The third conclusion relates to the fair correlation between the cogency of sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge and the relevance of the four basic language skills. Such a finding is not always in compliance with the research results on their relationship in a general foreign language. Unfortunately, the methodology and the results of the research in the current analysis do not determine a clear explanation of the causes of such a finding as feasible, so that they could only be surmised. Some of these causes might be sought in the type of variables included in this research or the roles of sports managers at various levels of management as well as in the actual situations and roles that sports managers have in them. Nevertheless, an accurate and statistically corroborated interpretation of those causes could be obtained only in the forthcoming research. Subsequently, whether deviations in the domain of language for specific purposes herein under consideration pertaining to the interrelation of vocabulary knowledge and the four macro language skills from the results yielded for general language is just an occasional find or whether it appears to be a pattern would be an intriguing subject matter in future research both in the context of sports management and in the context of other domains.

As for the implications that the results of the current analysis might have in the future on devising the guidelines for teaching sports managers a foreign language for specific purposes, one inference is indisputably demanded. Although both all four macro language skills and sports management specific-vocabulary knowledge were rated highest by the respondents, the result which would point to their high interrelatedness was not obtained. Ultimately, this in other words means that in the future both the foreign language teachers and the learners should be encouraged to pay more attention to the interdependence of reading, writing, listening, speaking and the acquisition of vocabulary in the process of teaching/learning a foreign language for specific purposes. Further, more attention should additionally be paid to the fact that the command of general language does not suffice for successful communication in a domain-unique context.

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Review research paper

TEACHING WRITING AND ERROR CORRECTION IN AN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES CLASSROOM IN 2014-2020 IN UKRAINE

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Abstract. *Before 2014 teaching writing in the English for Specific Purposes course at Ukrainian universities was pretty similar to the General English course at secondary schools with strong emphasis on grammar. But the British Council "English for Universities" project started in 2014 in Ukraine triggered dramatic changes in teaching writing and error correction in an ESP class. Namely, catering the course for meeting the learners' needs, identifying the genres to focus on, using three approaches to teaching writing: product, process and social-constructionist approaches, peer-learning and proofreading, emphasis on developing writing sub-skills rather than polishing grammar, introducing brand-new approach to assessment and evaluation of a piece of writing (peer evaluation and assessment, introducing the system of clear and concise criteria for assessment). The article describes not only the changes that were introduced, but also the impact of these changes on the readiness of graduates and students to function successfully in a professional environment relying on their feedback. The results of a quantitative research conducted in 4 focus groups: 30 (20+10) Master's degree students and 30 (20+10) 1st-year Bachelor's degree students from two universities of Ukraine are depicted.*

Key words: *approaches to teaching writing, English for Specific Purposes, error correction, feedback, peer evaluation, writing skills, writing sub-skills*

1. INTRODUCTION

The dates chosen for the study are tightly connected with the "English for Universities" project that was initiated by the British Council in Ukraine in 2014 and lasted till 2019. Initially, 15 national public universities were involved; the number grew to 32 finally.

The "English for Universities" project was aimed to help Ukrainian institutions develop sustainable English language teaching capacity, introduce standards at universities and improve language teaching and learning so that there were more opportunities for effective international collaboration (English for Universities). It was the driving force of substantial transformations in approaches to teaching English for Specific Purposes and English as a Medium of Instruction at Ukrainian higher educational institutions. The findings of the baseline study were published in 2017 (Bolitho, West 2017), whereas the impact study was

carried out in 2018 and presented in 2019 (Borg 2019). In this research, the impact of the project on teaching writing in an ESP course at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv and National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" was analyzed with the primary focus on the feedback from the students.

2. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Writing in English is attributed an enormous importance for students in higher education and on professional training courses, and gaining fluency in the conventions of writing in English is a must for the learners "to better understand their disciplines, to establish their careers or to successfully navigate their learning" (Hyland 2013, 95).

Teaching writing in ESP courses at Ukrainian universities has been the subject of a few researches. Thus, the development of English writing skills of students mastering Psychology in the course of Internet-assisted project work has been studied (Tarnopolsky 2013). The writing skills required by the students of IT specialisms (Dychka et. al., 2016), as well as the abilities and competences needed by them for technical writing (Lubianova 2016) have been investigated. The implications of the needs analysis of social pedagogy students for developing academic writing skills have been outlined (Palka 2016, 125).

In 2005 there appeared a significant document, ESP National Curriculum for universities (ESP National Curriculum 2005). But it was barely implemented until 2014 when more and more universities in Ukraine started to use it within the "English for Universities" project. The guidelines from this document were applied to syllabus design at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" (Zaporizhzhia National Technical University at that time) in 2017-2018 as this institution joined the project in 2016.

It should be noted that Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv did not accept the ESP National Curriculum as a guidance, despite being in the project from the very beginning, and even though the ESP teachers of this university were trained in the framework of the mentioned project and introduced changes to their approaches to teaching ESP.

According to the ESP National Curriculum, the objectives for the Bachelor's degree students, who are expected to demonstrate B2 level of language proficiency, in terms of writing are as follows:

"By the end of the ESP course students will be able to:
- write clear, detailed texts for variety of purposes related to personal and professional areas;
- write detailed study- and specialism-related assignments and reports in standard format;
- draft and produce business and professional correspondence;
- take messages from telephone and word of mouth accurately;
- write summaries, minutes, etc. with high degree of accuracy;
- fill in forms for academic or professional purposes with high degree of accuracy;
- use basic cohesive devices to link their utterances into clear, coherent discourse;
- perform and respond to a wide range of language functions, using exponents flexibly" (Bakaieva 2005, 37).

Bearing in mind that the curriculum was released in 2005, an ESP course was to be adjusted to the needs of the students with the growing interest in the academic mobility programmes and work abroad, which require international exam certificates. We analysed writing sections of 10 currently valid international exams to see what subskills are given priority in testing and, therefore, should be polished in an ESP classroom.

The following exams were under consideration within this study: TOEFL ITP (Test of English as a Foreign Language: Institutional Testing Program), TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), IELTS Academic (International English Language Testing System: Academic), PTE Academic (Pearson Test of English Academic), Aptis (General, Advanced), Linguaskill Business, B1 Business Preliminary, B2 Business Vantage, C1 Business Higher, GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test). For a complete overview of the international exams in terms of writing sub-skills follow the link to the Google document (Didenko, Zhukova 2020).

The writing sub-skills tested in the international ESP and EAP exams fall into 2 categories: those related to accuracy and to communicating ideas (for the list of the writing sub-skills see (Spratt 2015, 37)).

The aforementioned exams focus on such writing sub-skills related to accuracy as spelling, forming letters, joining letters together, writing legibly, punctuating, using correct layouts, choosing the right vocabulary, using grammar correctly, joining sentences, using paragraphs correctly. The following writing sub-skills related to communicating ideas are examined: using appropriate style and register, organising ideas in a helpful way, using features typical of a text type one is writing, joining words and sentences clearly, using appropriate functions to express meaning, e.g. narrating, complaining, requesting, thanking, summarising, concluding.

It was revealed that all of the exams, but for the exams using computers (e.g. Linguaskill Business, Aptis, PTE Academic), test all of the writing sub-skills to a lesser or greater extent. The exams in the e-format do not check the ability of writing legibly, forming and joining letters correctly. It should be noted that TOEFL ITP examines only the ability to choose the right vocabulary and use appropriate style and register.

The ESP syllabus at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" now comprises four modules, namely "Socializing in Academic and Professional Environments", "Searching for and Processing Information", "Presenting Information" and "Application Procedure". Writing skills are mainly focused on in "Searching for and Processing Information", "Presenting Information", and "Application Procedure" modules.

At Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, teaching writing skills is not allotted for a separate module and is carried out during the whole course.

While identifying the subskills to develop in an ESP course, the teacher cannot ignore the requirements of the contemporary world, so teaching writing skills is integral with developing soft skills. Fostering collaboration, interaction and peer feedback, alongside autonomous learning and critical thinking was emphasized in the study of academic skills for a PhD program (Balula et al. 2019, 303), with writing being one of the main skills, together with collaboration and presentation. The multidisciplinary nature of the process was noted by the researchers and can be extrapolated onto the ESP domain.

We rely on the definition of academic skills as "transferable skills which underpin the learning of HE (higher education - *authors' remark*) students, enabling them to be confident, independent critical thinkers and reflective learners". We also adhere to the viewpoint that these skills comprise "finding and evaluating information; academic writing; reading and note-taking; preparing for exams; working in groups; presentation skills; referencing and avoiding plagiarism; time management; and critical thinking" (Howard 2012, 76). In this study, we regarded how the changes in teaching writing influenced students' mastering soft skills.

3. METHODS OF RESEARCH

The research was undertaken in the 2019-2020 academic year at two Ukrainian universities, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv and National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic". The total number of respondents was 60 people: 30 first-year Bachelor degree students (20 students from Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv and 10 ones from National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic") and 30 Master's degree students (20 students from Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv and 10 ones from National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic"). Such a choice was reasoned by the aim of the research: to study the changes in teaching writing skills in the framework of an English for Specific Purposes course that is taught during the first year of study in Bachelor's programme. Master's degree students had this course in the 2014-2015 academic year (when the British Council "English for Universities" project had just been launched), and first-year Bachelor's degree students had this course in the 2019-2020 academic year (after the completion of the abovementioned project).

The survey was conducted via email and Moodle LMS. The research was quantitative and contained questions adapted from the baseline study by R. Bolitho and R. West (Bolitho, West 2017, 31-64) and the impact study by S. Borg (Borg 2019, 10-13). The types of questions were multiple-choice, close- and open-ended questions.

The survey questions were formulated as follows:

1. In your opinion, how relevant to your future profession are the text types you were taught to write in the ESP course?

Extremely relevant / fairly relevant / not relevant

2. What genres of texts were you taught to write in the ESP course?

3. Did you have in-class or home writing activities?

Mostly in-class writing / both / mostly home writing / only home writing

4. Who evaluated (gave feedback on) your writing tasks?

Teacher only / teacher and peers / teacher, peers and me

5. All the writing tasks were assessed by the teacher.

Agree / disagree

6. What was the method of error correction?

All the errors were marked and corrected / The errors were underlined without correction / The feedback was written with recommendations what to focus on

7. What approach was used for teaching writing:

Sample model / stages of analysis and writing / focus on emotional impact of the text on the reader / all mentioned approaches

It should be mentioned that some of the theoretical questions were adapted for students understanding, for instance, in question #7 names of the approaches were changed respectively: "a product approach" - for "a sample model approach", "a process approach" - for "stages of analysis and writing" approach, and "a social-constructionist approach" - for "a focus on emotional impact of the text on the reader" approach.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

The research has demonstrated a significant paradigm shift in approaches to teaching writing in ESP, in content of this course, in assessment and error correction. In both universities the level of students' satisfaction increased dramatically.

4.1. Writing text types taught in the ESP course

Students of both universities were asked what types of texts they were taught to write in an ESP course. The text types listed by the students of both universities are represented in Table 1.

Table 1 Text types studied in the ESP course

	1st-year Bachelor's Degree students (had an ESP course in 2019-2020 academic year)	Master's Degree students (had an ESP course in 2014-2015 academic year)
Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv	Email Statement of purpose Summary CV Cover letter	Essay Abstract of an article CV
National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic"	Email CV Cover letter Motivational letter for an academic mobility program Abstract of an article Conference proceedings	CV Abstract of an article

As it is seen from the table the types of the writing texts in the ESP curricula moved from more academic and research spheres to more practical and applied fields. If before the writing tasks were targeted more at teaching the learners how to write different types of essay and abstracts of research papers or articles related to their specialisms, now at both universities writing tasks that students get will help them in future to get a job (CV, cover letter), to apply for an academic mobility programme (statement of purpose or motivational letter), or successfully cope with everyday business communication (email).

At National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" students are encouraged to participate in the "Week of Science" events held annually, therefore, they also have to master writing conference proceedings.

The students who participated in this research also noted the increased relevance of writing text types they are taught today to their professional needs. This can be seen in the following diagrams (Figures 1 and 2).

The findings of the research demonstrated that at both universities the Master's degree students, who had their ESP course in the 2014-2015 academic year, considered the writing text types they were taught between fairly relevant and not relevant, however, the first-year students, who learned this course in 2019-2020 academic year, distributed their votes between extremely relevant and fairly relevant. Thus, writing tasks have become more job-related and better meet students' needs now than before the project.
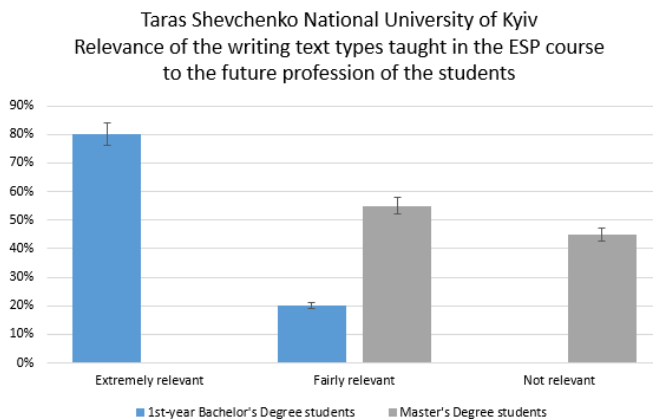
Fig. 1 Relevance of the writing tasks taught in the ESP course to the future profession of the students of Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 and 2020
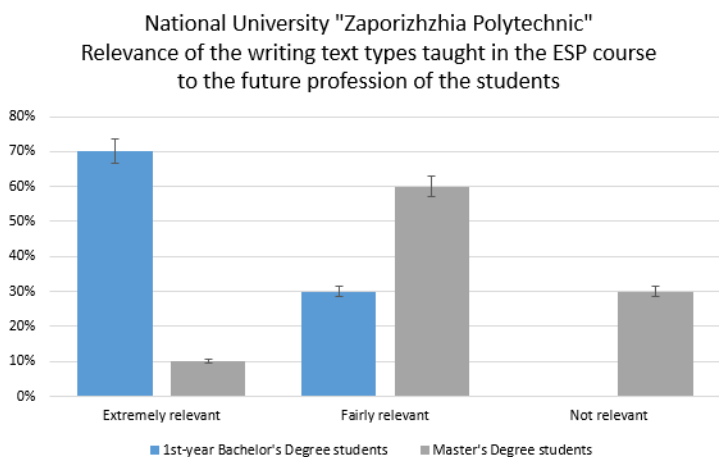
Fig. 2 Relevance of the writing tasks taught in the ESP course to the future profession of the students of National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" in 2014 and 2020

4.2. Correlation of in-class and home writing activities in the ESP course

The research has demonstrated that if in the 2014-2015 academic year students got writing tasks mostly as their home task, the feedback of the current first-year students has shown that today in an ESP course the advantages of an in-class writing (drafting, proof-reading, self-reflection and peer feedback) are widely used. The following figures (3 and 4) prove that at both universities Writing is becoming more and more taught both in-class and at home.
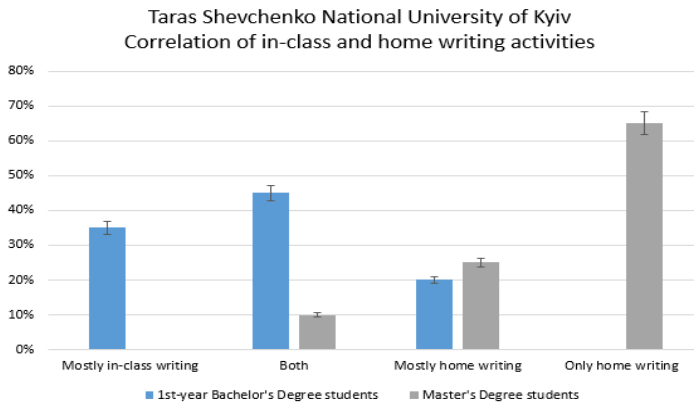
Fig. 3 Correlation of in-class and home writing activities
at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 and 2020.
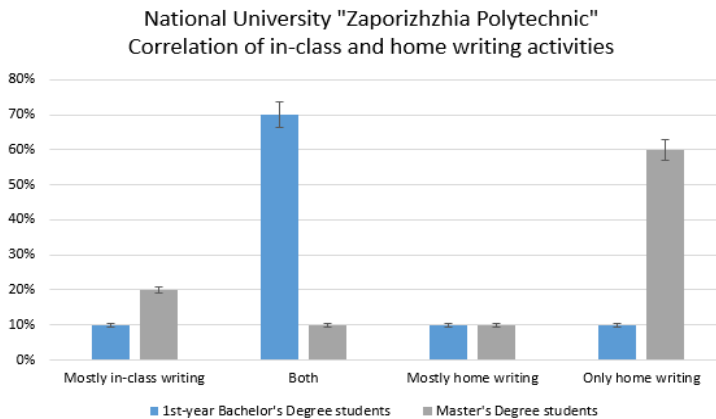
Fig. 4 Correlation of in-class and home writing activities
at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" in 2014 and 2020.

4.3. Assessment and evaluation of writing activities

Master's degree students pointed out that in the 2014-2015 academic year, when they had an ESP course, they were working alone on writing tasks, even more, one of the compulsory requirements was their individual work on a writing task. However, 1st year students noticed the increasing involvement of peers in the process of developing a writing text as well as engaging their feedback on the finished piece of writing. Moreover, self-evaluation and self-reflection are the tools widely used as tools for teaching and learning writing. The results of the survey can be seen in the following figures.
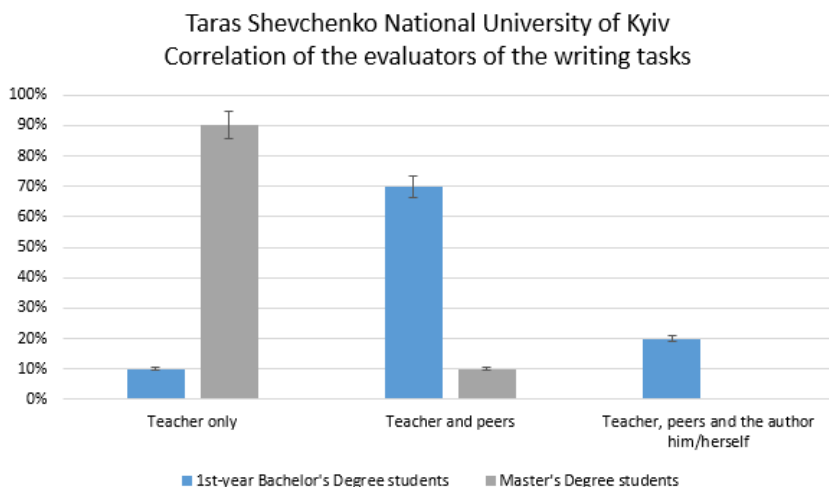
Fig. 5 Correlation of the evaluators of the writing tasks
at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 and 2020.
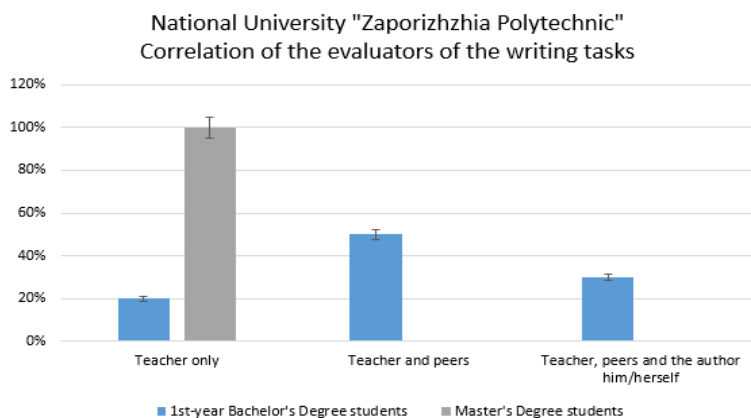
Fig. 6 Correlation of the evaluators of the writing tasks
at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic"in 2014 and 2020.

According to the results of the survey, participants of the ESP course now benefit more from the involvement of peers and usage of self-evaluation tools. The same trend is seen in terms of the approach to assessment. Five years ago the teachers used to assess every single piece of writing of their students. Now ESP teachers more often introduce formative assessment in order to help their students improve their writing skills. The following figures (7 and 8) illustrate the difference.

Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv
All the writing tasks were assessed by the teacher
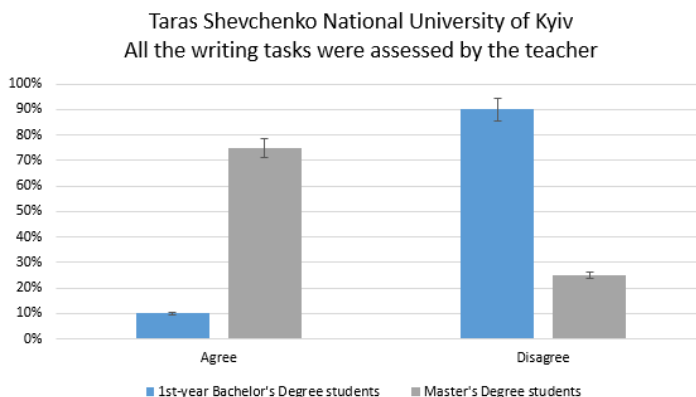
Fig. 7 The volume of the writing tasks assessed by the teacher
at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 and 2020.

National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic"
All the writing tasks were assessed by the teacher
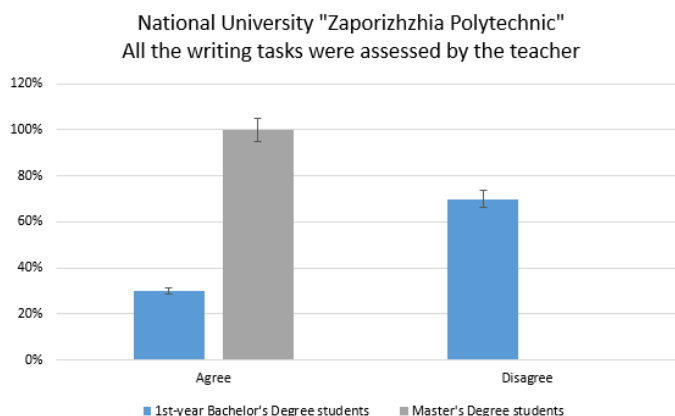
Fig. 8 The volume of the writing tasks assessed by the teacher
at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" in 2014 and 2020

Thus, the research has demonstrated that today in an ESP course not every single writing task is assessed by the teacher. Assessment is not used as a 'stick and carrot' approach any longer. Learning itself is more in focus, rather than grades.

4.4. Error correction techniques and tools

During the time span of 2014-2020, the approach to error correction has also changed. If before in most cases the teacher marked and corrected all the errors him/herself, now error correction has become more aimed at developing students' critical thinking through peer feedback and reflection skills. And the primary purpose of feedback is to stimulate learners to analyse their mistakes. The results of the survey can be seen in the following figures.

Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv
Methods of error correction
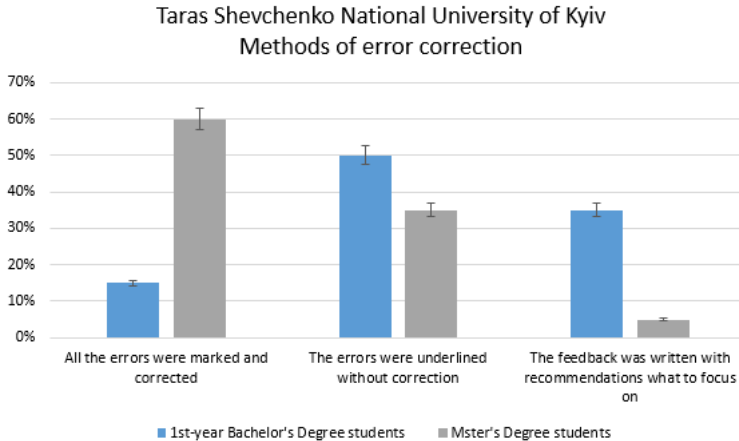
Fig. 9 Correlation of error correction methods for writing tasks
at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 - 2020

National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic"
Methods of error correction
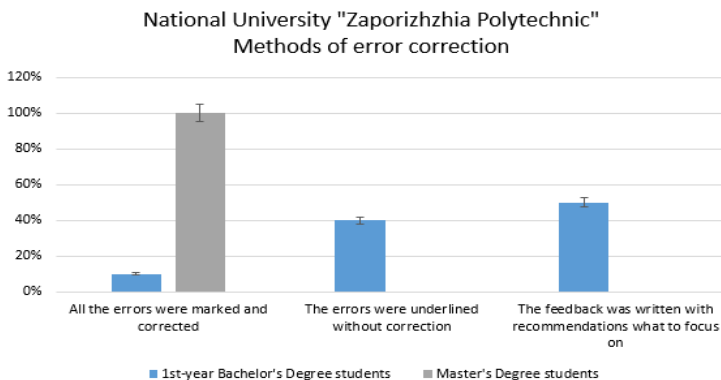
Fig. 10 Correlation of error correction methods for writing tasks
at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" in 2014 - 2020

As it is seen from the diagrams, in addition to conventional methods of error correction, when the teacher marks the mistakes and corrects them all, in both universities more advanced methods (coding and highlighting) were introduced. To facilitate students' analysis, coding techniques were introduced when the teacher underlines an error and codes it according to its type, where *G* stands for a grammatical mistake, *Sp* for a spelling mistake, *WO* for wrong word order, *St* for a stylistic mistake. Highlighting technique goes even further, when the teacher just underlines the error, and students themselves, using critical thinking, need to understand what is wrong there.

All of these instruments for error correction are accessible in digital form. A convenient platform for error correction is provided by Google documents where comments are left and addressed for further editing. With the growing involvement of AI and popularization of digital error correction tools, Grammarly and GradeProof applications are applied. In the comments to the survey, current Bachelor's degree students mentioned that they are aware of these tools and widely use them.

4.5. Approaches to teaching writing

According to the results of the research, it appeared that in 2014 usually one of the approaches to teaching writing was used, but in 2020 the prevailing approach to teaching writing is a combination of the product, process and social-constructionist approaches (for the information on the approaches see Day et al. 2013, 14-19). The research findings can be found in the following figures:
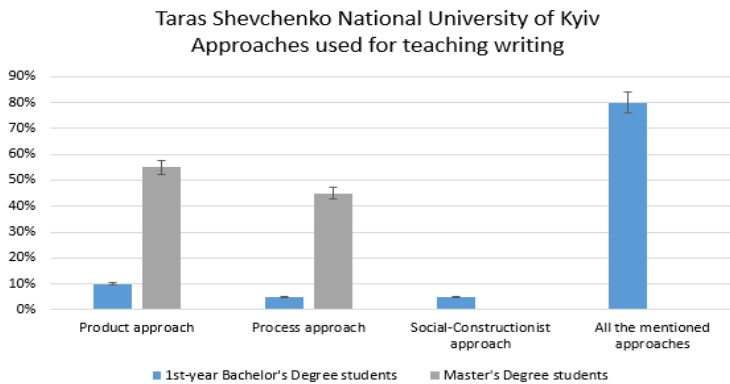
Fig. 11 Approaches to teaching writing skills used
at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in 2014 and 2020.
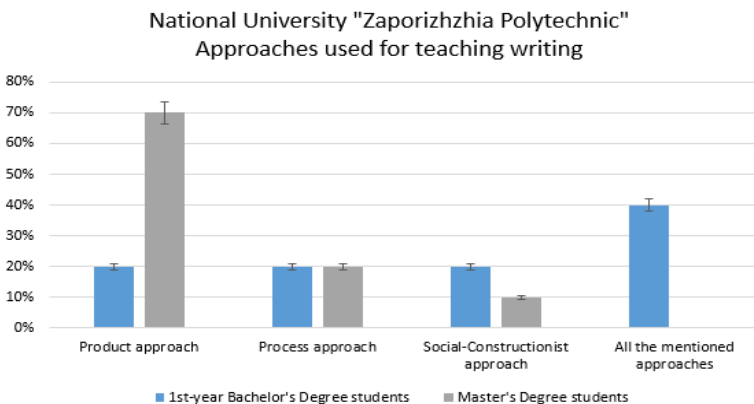
Fig. 12 Approaches to teaching writing skills used
at National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic" in 2014 and 2020.

As it can be judged from the results of the survey, at both universities in 2014 the biggest focus was on either a Product approach or a Process approach, while a Social-Constructionist approach was almost ignored. The situation was changed after the "English for Universities" project: a combination of these three approaches is introduced in order to have students benefit from the advantages of each of the mentioned approaches.

5. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The research findings were based on a small-scale study with a limited number of respondents. However, the general tendency was outlined and the scope of the investigation can be further expanded.

6. CONCLUSION

The main aim of this research was to study the context and content of teaching writing in two big universities of Ukraine, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv and National University "Zaporizhzhia Polytechnic", before the British Council "English for Universities" project and after this project in order to evaluate its impact on teaching writing in the ESP course. The feedback gathered from the first-year Bachelor's degree students, who had this course in the 2019-2020 academic year and from the Master's degree students, who had this course in the 2014-2015 academic year enabled us to draw the following conclusions:

- increased relevance of today's writing text types, which now have become more job-related and better meet students' needs than before the project;
- now in an ESP course the advantages of in-class writing (drafting, proofreading, self-reflection and peer feedback) are widely used;
- after the project such tools as peer-feedback and self-reflection were introduced as the evaluation tools;
- formative assessment is more widely used for the learning purposes in teaching writing;
- error correction has become more aimed at developing students' critical thinking through peer feedback and reflection skills: coding and highlighting techniques are introduced for these purposes;
- a combination of three approaches (Product, Process and Social-Constructionist) is introduced now in order to let students benefit from the advantages of each of the mentioned approaches.

The research has demonstrated the great impact of the British Council "English for Universities" project on context and content of teaching Writing in an ESP course, that students now find this part of the course to be more relevant to their professional needs.

The prospects for further research lie in the domain of teaching writing online bearing in mind the 'new normal' (lockdown and distance learning), the benefits and limitations which this format has for an ESP course. For instance, the issues of transparency of assessment procedures and fostering students' academic integrity in general and under quarantine restrictions in particular. Even though few Bachelor's degree students produce research papers during their first year of study, they should realize the necessity of referencing and be made familiar with citation rules. This knowledge will also help them to design high-quality presentations or reports.

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FROM 'LIBERAL TRANSLATORS' TO 'COMPETENT TRANSLATERS' – TRANSLATION AS AN OVERARCHING DIAGNOSTIC ACTIVITY IN AN ESP/ESAP COURSE

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Abstract. *The paper points to some possible advantages of translation as a language activity in the ESP/ESAP classroom as well as to its role in bringing to the fore some aspects of language use that may not be always explicitly addressed by the commonly used tasks in communicative language teaching. Attention is thus drawn to the role of translation in diagnosing students' language competences with the aim of improving them and eventually developing their overall reading comprehension. Most conclusions have been reached on the basis of the authors' extensive experience in teaching students of different disciplines and with varied L2 proficiency levels at the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Belgrade, and, more specifically, on the basis of the results obtained through the analysis of a large corpus of students' translations in the fields of pedagogy, anthropology and history, tentatively representing the social sciences–humanities spectrum. As well as being an indication of the aspects of L2 that need to be additionally focused on, the common errors serve to substantiate the rationale behind the use of translation in an ESP/ESAP course.*

Key words: *translation, ESP/ESAP, humanities/social sciences, error analysis, language competences*

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to offer some arguments for reconsidering the status of translation as a language activity in an ES(A)P course, or more precisely to point to some of its possible advantages over other types of activities in terms of its effectiveness in gauging reading comprehension as well as in developing students' communicative language competences, and consolidating and expanding their knowledge while raising awareness of L2 as the goals of such an activity.

The elaboration of the role of translation covered by this paper draws extensively on the experience and practice of its authors in teaching students of history, anthropology and pedagogy at the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Belgrade. These three disciplines tentatively span the social sciences–humanities spectrum with anthropology bridging the two ends as "the most scientific of the humanities and the most humanistic of the sciences" (Heyman 2005, 173). They can thus be considered as more or less

representative of other fields studied at this academic institution. It should be noted that ESP courses for students of the humanities and social sciences have still not found their place within the existing ELT/ESP typologies, thus making it more challenging for its practitioners to deal with the different teaching/learning aspects of this kind of courses. For the purpose of this paper, we have decided to place our courses in the ESAP category, with subject specific language implying not only lexical specificities of the disciplines, but their discursive ones as well (de Chazal 2014, 18), hence ESAP in the title of this paper.

The stated aims of the ESP/ESAP courses for students of the humanities and social sciences at the Faculty of Philosophy have served as a starting point for this paper, these aims being to develop communicative competence and the academic skills needed for using English for Specific Purposes, specifically in the fields of the humanities and social sciences, as well as to master written and oral language reception and production in a specific field. As for the stated outcomes of these courses, the following one, for the second-year B2-C1 level course, is closely linked to the purpose of this paper: Students are able to use literature on academic and professional subjects, with the help of a dictionary, as well as to master different reading comprehension techniques, so that they can apply them in accordance with the aims of the course. Using literature most often implies accurate and detailed comprehension at word, sentence, and text level, for the development of which L2 to L1 translation could be an effective tool.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Translation has a very long history in the practice of language teaching, yet with the advent of the Direct Method at the turn of the 20th century, it fell out of favour in the language teaching community due to its association with the Grammar Translation method, and later with Communicative Language Teaching it was more or less suppressed in the EFL classroom together with the use of L1 (Cook 2010). In recent decades, however, and especially since the beginning of the century, an increasing number of voices have advocated the reassessment of the value and benefits of the use of translation in EFL teaching. Notably, Widdowson has argued for a shift in perception of the role of translation in second language learning/teaching, whereby language "learning and translating become essentially the same thing" (2014, 237), translation being understood in both meanings of the word as a process and as a result – "the process of translation is the means and the product in the form of a second text is the end" (ibid., 235). Learners are thus not translators but rather 'translaters' who are engaged in the process of 'languaging', that is, using available linguistic resources to create meaning that is appropriate to context and purpose or, in other words, "using linguistic resources to pragmatic effect" (ibid., 237). While 'languaging' or translating, Widdowson believes learners should rely on what for them is the most natural means for carrying out the task, and that is their L1. L1 and L2 cannot be viewed as separate entities in the minds of the learner, according to Widdowson, because "learners can only make sense of the data of a second or foreign language to the extent that they can interpret it as evidence of language in general, as alternative realisation of what they are already familiar with in their own" (ibid., 230).

Very much in line with Widdowson's thoughts on the role of L1 in language learning and teaching is Juliane House's argumentation for the inclusion of translation in these processes. She maintains that translation contributes to a more efficient and economical

explanation of L2 items, helps learners build confidence in dealing with the "intimidating strangeness" of L2, while utilizing their knowledge of L1 and thus enabling "continuity of their lingua-cultural identity" (2016, 123). At the same time, according to House, by engaging in a comparative analysis between the two languages, learners develop their awareness of the functioning of language in general, as well as of the specific systems at various linguistic (and non-linguistic) levels. She foregrounds the pragmatic usefulness of translation "as a technique in establishing pragmatic equivalences by relating linguistic forms to the communicative functions of utterances", thus fulfilling the objective of gaining communicative competence (ibid, 124).

In his influential book *Translation in Language Teaching: An Argument for Reassessment*, Cook provides a comprehensive overview of the origins of the attitudes to translation in language teaching, which have often been impacted by political or commercial factors, rather than academic ones (Cook 2010, 18). He elaborates the meaning and nature of translation, insisting that in no way should its two roles, as means and end, be viewed separately. He also provides extensive evidence and argumentation in favour of Translation in Language Teaching (TILT) and discusses its pedagogical and educational implications. He concludes that translation plays an important role in language learning, "that it develops both language awareness and use, that it is pedagogically effective and educationally desirable, and that it answers student needs in the contemporary globalized and multicultural world" (ibid, 155).

Duff stresses the real-life need for communication both from L1 into L2 and from L2 into L1, and observes that Foreign Language (FL) textbooks typically provide little guidance on the latter, although many professionals need this skill in their daily work (1989, 6). He suggests that translation as a language-learning activity stimulates speculation and discussion, lends itself well to group work, and develops "three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity, and flexibility" (1989, 7). The point that translation can be a communicative activity that encourages discussion is also made by a number of other authors, e.g. Mahmoud (2006, 30) and Popovic (2001). Mažeikienė, summarizing the most important arguments in favour of translation in ESP teaching, also observes that translation in the ESP context can be seen as a communicative activity, which, if properly balanced, well-planned and tailored to the specific needs and profiles of learners becomes an efficient teaching/learning method. It promotes cultural understanding, "develops ESP learners' analytic skills, engages them in cross-linguistic comparisons", while focusing on accuracy as an important aspect of ESP (2018: 522).

In the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), the guiding document used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe as well as to inform curriculum reform and pedagogy, translation was referenced only briefly within the context of language activities: "The language learner/user's communicative language competence is activated in the performance of the various language activities, involving reception, production, interaction or mediation (in particular interpreting or translating) [...] Translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary or record, provides for a third party a (re)formulation of a source text to which this third party does not have direct access" (CEFR 2001, 14). This passing mention of translation as a mediating activity was certainly insufficient to encourage EFL practitioners to treat translation on equal terms with other activities. This was particularly true of ESP practitioners, who, having no guidelines designed for their teaching needs, have to a great extent relied on this document which provides an overarching framework for language learning. However,

with the publication of the CEFR *Companion Volume* in 2018, the place of translation in language learning/use has finally been 'legitimised'. Namely, in this document an entire chapter is devoted to Mediation as one of the four modes of communication – reception, production, interaction and mediation. Mediating activities, one of which is translation of a written text in writing (2018, 114) are viewed from a wider angle and presented in three groups, reflecting the way in which mediation usually takes place – mediating text, mediating concepts and mediating communication. Another novelty in this document is the introduction of A and B languages instead of L1 and L2; it states that "mediation may be within one language or across languages, varieties or registers (or any combination of these) and that users may wish to state the specific languages concerned", that is assign the role of a source or target language (A-B, or B-A), as it suits them (ibid., 52).

3. METHODOLOGY

A content analysis of student translations has been carried out with the aim of ascertaining the extent to which translations from L2 to L1 can be a legitimate, communicative reading comprehension activity/tool and to point to some of its possible advantages over other types of reading comprehension activities. In addition, it aimed to establish the language areas which students have difficulties with. This, in turn, could be a potent indicator of the language areas that need to be additionally focused on. Therefore, the analysis had a clear pedagogical, teaching/learning purpose. The sample consisted of 530 translations by three successive generations of second-year history, anthropology and pedagogy students (approximately 40%, 30% and 30% respectively) of the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Belgrade, produced from 2016 to 2019.

The students were given a 250-word text in English to translate into their mother tongue (L2 to L1), with the use of dictionaries, but no other resources or devices at their disposal, as part of their pre-exam tasks. The texts that students were asked to translate were all excerpts from authentic texts in their respective fields of study. It should be noted that, due to a great discrepancy in students' language proficiency levels, ranging from A2 to C2, the analysis has not included translations by students at the lowest and highest levels of the proficiency scale, but rather the vast majority (more than 80%) of those in between. In the analysis, only those linguistic items that posed a problem for at least 20% of students in the sample were taken into consideration.

We have predominantly focused on linguistic errors (lexical, grammatical, textual) while extralinguistic errors have been only marginally addressed due to their low frequency of occurrence.

4. ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' TRANSLATIONS

Although most of the existing literature on translation refers to professional rather than pedagogical translation, it may be consulted in order to find classifications of translation problems/errors. The PACTE Group, for instance, divides translation problems into linguistic (lexical and morphosyntactic), textual, extralinguistic and problems of intentionality (2011, 327), of which the first three have been singled out as relevant to our analysis. Therefore, the following broadly conceived, tentative categories of errors have been used for the purposes of the analysis: linguistic (lexical, grammatical and textual), and

extra-linguistic (general knowledge, professional background knowledge), although, as will be seen, it is often difficult to make a clear distinction between different types of errors since their types often overlap. The results of our error analysis have been used as indicators of the importance of translation in diagnosing those areas of language knowledge and skills that require remedial work.

A number of these recurrent errors occurring in the different areas of language knowledge and competences will be presented, starting with lexical, via grammatical and textual to extralinguistic ones, with the overlaps between different categories situated in-between. Interestingly, this order actually reflects the frequency of their occurrence in descending order, with lexical errors being the most frequent. First, the source text context will be provided, with the item in question underlined, while all errors will be back-translated into L2 i.e. English (due to space constraints, we will provide only a few examples of each type of error).

I Lexical errors

a. Among lexical errors, the most frequent ones result from students' inability to recognize polysemy, i.e. to distinguish between the different meanings of the same word. The following selection can illustrate this type of error in translations across the three disciplines:

- *Henry VIII started to employ it. '*To employ' translated as 'give a job' (zaposliti) rather than 'use, utilize'.
- *The conduct of research.* 'Conduct' translated as 'behaviour' (terensko ponašanje, ponašanje istraživača)
- *Such marital fortune proved too good to last.* 'Fortune' translated as 'wealth' (bogatstvo, blago); 'destiny' (sudbina)

b. Another common source of miscomprehension arises from the morphological and phonological similarity between words encountered in the text and words that are already part of students' vocabulary. Here are some examples:

- *Henry VIII's accession and marriage.* 'Accession' translated as 'access' (pristup), 'assent' (odobravanje), 'accessibility' (pristupačnost), 'succession' (nasleđivanje), 'assassination' (ubistvo)
- *life expectancy* translated as 'life expectations' (životna očekivanja/iščekivanja)
- *...a necessary tension between ... the experiential and the scientific*. 'Experiential' translated as 'experimental' (eksperimentalno)
- *Such marital fortune proved too good to last*. 'Marital (fortune)' translated as 'material' (materijalno), 'martial' (ratni), 'combat luck' (ratna sreća), 'the fortune of warriors' (ratnička sreća)

c. Some errors are the result of the failure to recognize the function of the plural suffix -*s*, such as translating *in the 1960s* as 'in 1960', the noun *objectives* as the adjective 'objective', or *survivals* as 'survival'.

d. General academic vocabulary can often present problems for students, as in the following examples:

- *In place of wide-ranging comparisons, he advocated…* 'In place of' translated as 'at the place of' (na mestu)
- *in addition* translated as 'as an addition' (kao dodatak), 'in the appendix' (u dodatku), 'in support of' (u prilog tome)
- *The comparative method, Boas argued,* ... 'To argue' translated as 'his conviction was' (njegovo uverenje je bilo da...), 'he examined' (razmatrao je), 'he offered/provided

argumentation' (po/nudio je argumentaciju), 'agrees' (slaže se), 'says' (kaže), 'discussed' (diskutovao)

e. Subject-specific vocabulary

▪ _Indigenous frameworks of understanding._ 'Indigenous' translated as 'domestic' (domaći), 'natural' (prirodni), 'dependent' (zavisan), 'inborn' (urođeni)

▪ _Participant observation_ translated as 'observation of participants' (opservacija učesnika), 'participant of the observation' (učesnik posmatranja/opservacije), 'participatory observation' (učesnička opservacija) – one of the most important methods in anthropology, which second-year students are expected to be familiar with. This mistranslation suggests a failure to make a connection between the familiar term in L1 and the corresponding term in L2.

II Lexical/grammatical errors. The overlaps that occur between lexical and grammatical errors can be illustrated with the following examples:

▪ _found/founding_ (of a dynasty) translated as 'find/finding' (pro/nalaženje) – students fail to recognize that _to found_ is a verb in its own right and not the past simple or past participle form of the verb 'to find' in spite of fact that the infinitive + ing gerund formation pattern should provide a clue.

▪ A _piece of research_ translated as 'part of the research' (deo istraživanja) indicates unfamiliarity with the partitive phrase 'a piece of' used with uncountable nouns such as research.

▪ An interesting overlap of the lexical and the grammatical also occurs in the following paraphrase of a saying: _To have married in haste might have been to repent at leisure._ Almost a third of students whose translations of this particular text have been analyzed misconstrued its meaning and offered, among others, the following renderings of the original meaning:

  − To have married in haste, might have been because of repenting at leisure.
  − The fact that he got married in haste should have been attributed to his idleness.
  − To marry in haste, he can regret it.
  − By marrying in haste, to get divorced later.
  − Marriage in haste would have been repentance for being lazy.
  − To have married in haste meant repenting his freedom.
  − Marriage in haste it seemed was organized so that Henry could find justification for his laziness.
  − Marrying in haste had to be presented with no hurry.
  − The wedding was organized in haste as an act of repentance per se.

The mistranslations seem to be the result of unfamiliarity with the meaning of the phrase 'at leisure' and the contextual meaning of the verb 'to be' ('to mean'), as well as the modal verb + perfect infinitive structure itself, the latter being somewhat unexpected for most students clearly understood the meaning of the initial perfect infinitive form.

III Grammatical errors. Misunderstanding of the text is often the result of the failure to recognize a particular grammatical structure or form. As far as purely grammatical errors are concerned, relative pronouns and relative clauses have been identified as one of the main areas of difficulty, particularly when the relative pronoun is preceded by a preposition. Here are some examples:

- *There are several reasons for what might appear as …* 'What' interpreted as an interrogative pronoun (šta).
- Similarly, the misinterpretation of the preposition + relative pronoun 'of which' occurring in the sentence: … *each culture constituted an indigenous world of meaning, the interpretation of which became an essential task of any ethnography*, results from the failure to relate 'which' to its antecedent.
- Failure to recognize a reduced relative clause can be illustrated with the following example: *a teacher accepting this position would specify educational objectives in behavioural terms* translated as 'teachers, by accepting this position, would specify...'.
- A considerable number of examples clearly indicate some students' inability to grasp the meaning of certain language structures due most probably to a lack of previous exposure to them, e.g. *it was not until…*, *it was then that...*, where they fail to recognize the anticipatory function of the pronoun *it* in cleft sentences.

IV Textual errors

- Without going into a detailed analysis of the role of discourse features in facilitating understanding, we shall provide an example of students failing to understand the cohesive function of the pronoun 'one'. The sentence *The same process of elimination which had helped to turn Henry Tudor into a king was to serve the great aim of keeping him one,* resulted in a number of inaccurate translation equivalents (e.g. 'as such', 'the only one', 'one like that', 'only him', 'one' (1), 'unique', 'the first', 'as the same one', 'as the champion').
- A recurrent textual type of error, which, however, does not significantly affect comprehension is, for example, the failure to identify and translate hedges such as the verb *to tend*, the modal verbs *can* and *could*, and adverbs such as *often*, *usually*, and *commonly*.

V Linguistic/extralinguistic errors. Another instance of overlap, in this case of the linguistic and extralinguistic, is encountered in cases when:

- students fail to identify a concept due to the lack of both extralingustic and linguistic (grammatical) knowledge, as encountered in the following example: *As soon as Bosworth was fought…*, translated as e.g. 'After a conflict with Bosworth'; 'Just as he had fought with Bosworth'; 'While Bosworth was waging a war'; 'When Bosworth was beaten'; 'When he had defeated the Bosworths'.
- *The task of ethnography… involves a necessary tension between the intimate and the detached.* 'Intimate and detached' translated as 'close and distant' (blisko i udaljeno), 'intimated and severed' (intimizirano i odsečeno), 'intimate and indifferent' (intimno i indiferentno), 'connected and disconnected' (povezano i nepovezano), intimacy and separateness' (intimnost i odvojenost). Students fail to provide an adequate equivalent due to the lack of both linguistic (lexical) and extralinguistic (contextual) knowledge.

As can be seen from the above presentation of recurrent errors in student translations, it is often difficult to draw a clear line between the different types of errors, either between lexical, grammatical or textual, or between linguistic and extra-linguistic ones. What might be identified as the common denominator of all the types of errors discussed so far is that all of them, to a lesser or greater extent, impact comprehension, thus signaling to the teacher what kind of remedial work is needed.

5. THE RATIONALE BEHIND THE USE OF TRANSLATION ACTIVITIES

We shall now outline some possible benefits of using translation in ESP teaching/learning and suggest a few others, in addition to those we have already cited by various authors who have written on this topic.

First, if we compare translation to other common types of comprehension activities, such as multiple choice questions, and in particular true/false statements, it can be seen that these latter can never cover the range of possible mis/interpretations of certain textual elements, as illustrated by the following example, taken from one of the translation samples.

- ▪ *The need for stability went far beyond Henry VII's accession and marriage. The victor of Bosworth Field could found a new dynasty; it remained to be seen if he could create a new monarchy.*
  - − The need for stability overpowered his coming to power.
  - − The need for stability was far above the access.
  - − The need for stability stretched much further beyond accession.
  - − The need for stability went beyond Henry's assent.
  - − The need for stability surpassed Henry's permissions and marriages.
  - − The need for stability went too far away.
  - − The need for stability went beyond accessibility.
  - − The need for stability went beyond the illness.
  - − The need for stability was badly needed since Henry VII's wedding and murder.
  - − The need for stability went far beyond the heirs.
  - − The need for stability was provided when Henry VII took power.
  - − Through the need for stability Henry VII got married.
  - − The need for stability surpassed Henry's abilities and marriage.
  - − The need for stability came long before Henry acceded to the throne.
  - − The need for stability came long after his coming to power.
  - − The need for stability for Henry VII was reflected in accessibility and marriage.

This clearly indicates the advantage of translation over the above mentioned activities in terms of providing a clearer insight into students' mis/comprehension of a given text, while pointing to the linguistic elements impeding comprehension, thus making it a more efficient diagnostic tool to highlight specific areas needing remedial work.

Second, if properly selected, a text used for a translation activity can meet the needs of students of different language proficiency levels. This does not necessarily imply the selection of different material to cater for different abilities, but rather the choice of texts of graded complexity, thus allowing the lower ability students to present themselves as liberal 'translaters', to use Widdowson's term, whereby attempted 'languaging' takes place, as mentioned at the beginning of this paper.

Third, the utilization of students' existing general and subject-specific knowledge facilitates the process of translation and thus builds up students' self-confidence, especially when they become aware that they can derive meaning, which, in turn, yields a 'finished product'. In addition, mobilizing the L1 resources further enhances their confidence, and allows them to use what Widdowson believes is the most natural resource at their disposal. To mention, only briefly, as a by-product of this activity, the stimulation of their mother-tongue reservoir, which, in our experience, is becoming increasingly limited with the passing

generations. In this sense, translation contributes to building awareness of the functioning of language in general, to be utilized not only when faced with the task of translating a text from one language into another, but also when learning and using new languages. This is exemplified by the fact that some students, regardless of their L2 level, do not at first understand why a literal translation is inappropriate. The use of L1 also helps in connecting L2 with their existing subject-related knowledge and contributes to its consolidation.

Finally, to mention yet another comparative advantage of translation as an ESP classroom activity, namely, that although translation had for a long time been regarded as a static, uncommunicative activity incompatible with communicative language teaching, if properly conducted, it can actually become a dynamic, communicative activity, with the capacity to stimulate lively discussions on the use of both L1 and L2, conducted in L2, whereby the development of metalanguage is stimulated.

6. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Translation can be a valuable complement to other communicative competence building language activities, and presupposes the use of pre- and post-translation activities, whose importance is pointed out by various authors (see, for example, Popović 2001; Dagilienė 2012, 126; Kic-Drgas 2014, 259-260; Chirobocea 2018, 72-74; a range of translation activities with emphasis on pair and group work is provided in Duff 1989). Pre-translation activities can take various forms: a discussion of the topic, which can involve identifying topic-related lexical items or lexical fields; attempting to guess the content of the text by the title of the text and also discussing its possible translations, particularly challenging when translating newspaper headlines; guessing the meaning of certain words and phrases that the teacher presumes students are unfamiliar with and then checking them in a dictionary; scanning or skim-reading the text, etc. Post-translation activities can involve the consolidation of newly acquired vocabulary (individual words, synonyms, word forms, collocations, phrases, etc.) through different types of exercises; discussing and practicing more challenging structures in the text; paraphrasing; summary writing; back-translating certain portions of the text; even assigning a presentation on the same or a related topic. The insight gained through translation activities informs the teacher of the language areas and particular items that students may have difficulties with, thus allowing for preparation of specifically targeted activities for use during subsequent classes or with subsequent generations of students.

Second, before embarking on translation activities, the teacher should provide students with basic 'dictionary training', since enabling students to become proficient dictionary users is an important step in helping them become autonomous learners (Wright 1998, 6). The teacher should first encourage students to familiarize themselves with the different types of dictionaries such as learner's dictionaries, dictionaries of collocations, thesauri, and specialised dictionaries. The teacher should then help them discover what types of information can be gleaned from each particular type of dictionary, both through individual and collaborative activities. The use of monolingual advanced learner's dictionaries should be encouraged, as they are specifically tailored to the needs of non-native speakers with a certain level of L2 proficiency, and, unlike bilingual dictionaries, provide a wealth of linguistic information to facilitate not only comprehension but also language production.

Monolingual English dictionaries have become an easily accessible online resource, while at present good quality bilingual (English-Serbian) dictionaries cannot be accessed online.

The importance of developing students' dictionary skills is all the more evident in light of the fact that the great majority of lexical errors identified in our analysis are the result either of students' failure to recognize the need to consult a dictionary, instead tending to over-rely on their often limited vocabulary, or of their failure to select the appropriate equivalent from a bilingual dictionary. Therefore, attention should also be devoted to raising awareness of polysemy and one-to-many lexical correspondences between the two languages, and to the selection of the appropriate contextual equivalent of the item in question.

7. CONCLUSION

It should first be noted that no major discrepancies between the three different disciplines occurred in terms of the types of errors and their frequency, in spite of certain discursive specificities of these different fields of study. Overlaps between different types of errors have occurred in all the analysed subsamples, testifying to the fact that comprehension of a text, an ESP text in particular, is rarely impeded by single elements (of lexis or grammar, etc.), which can be predicted by a limited number of distractors (as is the case with multiple questions exercises). It is precisely the overarching potential of translation as a language activity, enabling ESP practitioners to diagnose a whole range of potential issues, which should make it a legitimate and 'full-fledged' member of the select set of communicative language teaching/learning tools. The variety of skills and knowledge that its utilization encompasses places it on a par with other written/oral production activities such as summary writing or giving presentations, all of which equally presuppose the use of a whole range of competences and knowledge and are realized through certain processes which cannot be viewed separately from the product itself. To return to the title of this paper: part of this highly engaging process is turning our students from liberal translators into competent 'translaters', with all the challenges and rewards encountered on the way.

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Review research paper

A PROPOSAL FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHERS IN SERBIA – OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH[*]

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Abstract. *This paper gives an overview of the empirical research conducted in the doctoral thesis entitled "A New Model of Professional Development of Business English Teachers in Serbia: Theoretical, Methodological and Practical Aspects". Having noticed that professional needs of Business English teachers in Serbia were not sufficiently recognized, the research aimed to analyse the current situation regarding Business English teaching and professional development of teachers so as to gain data necessary for creating a proposal of a model of development that would fully respond to teachers' pedagogical demands. The sample included 85 teachers and 349 students of Business English. Data collected through questionnaires and interview were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results were largely consistent with contemporary research in the fields of LSP (Languages for Specific Purposes) and professional development of teachers. A few points which reflected a traditional approach to education concerned students' perception of teachers' roles and field competencies, and teachers' expectations with regard to obtaining ready-made pedagogical solutions. The proposed model advocates a bottom-up and reflective approach to professional development, encourages both self-directed learning and collaboration, and offers content that suits teachers' diverse experience and working contexts.*

Key words: *Business English, Business English teacher, competence, professional development*

1. INTRODUCTION

The field of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) and, within it, Business English, has gained prominence in the 21st century as students and working people increasingly require foreign language knowledge and skills to enhance their employment prospects and cross-border mobility. Internationalisation of education, business and workforce in Serbia, too have created a growing demand for general and specialised Business English courses. Business English was introduced as an obligatory/elective course in secondary schools of economics in the school year 2012/2013. This area of LSP has gained a more significant place in tertiary education as well, with the rising number of institutions offering study

programmes in business and economics[2]. Finally, private schools of foreign languages have swiftly responded to newly created professional needs of business people in terms of foreign language competencies and started running Business English courses both at their premises and in-company. All of this has put an increased pressure on teachers to adequately meet diverse educational and professional requirements of their students.

Having in mind that devising and implementing Business English courses requires a broader scope of knowledge and skills compared to teaching General English (e.g. subject specific knowledge, competencies to administer needs analysis, adapt or create teaching resources within the students' professional disciplines, etc.), Business English teachers need to be given opportunities to build and strengthen both general and subject-specific knowledge and skills which enable them to deliver effective and high-quality courses.

Analysis of professional development programmes in Serbia relevant for Business English teachers, which covered the period from 2010 onwards, showed that pedagogical needs of these teachers have not been recognized sufficiently. For example, the examination of content in *The Catalogue of Programmes for Continuous Professional Development of Teachers, Preschool Teachers and Professional Associates,* which is particularly relevant for teachers in secondary education, revealed that programmes directly targeting Business English teachers have almost been non-existent.

The only professional development activities that maintain continuity are the LSP conference organized by Foreign Language and Literature Association of Serbia (FLLAS) with its Language for Specific Purposes Special Interest Group (LSP SIG) and the University of Belgrade, which takes place every third year, and the biennial ESP conference held at the University of Niš.

Other resources that teachers can use to keep up with pedagogical research and practice are professional journals such as this one - *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, published by the University od Niš, and *ESP Today*, published by the Faculty of Economics in Belgrade.

Teachers can also attend international conferences, webinars, etc. organized by international associations such as IATEFL BESIG[3] or publishing houses such as Macmillan or Cambridge. However, these events are not fully recognized in the professional development system of teachers in Serbia and are not always financially accessible.

Therefore, to improve the situation with regard to enhancing professional competencies of Business English teachers in Serbia, the author conducted empirical research. More precisely, the aim was to analyse the areas of Business English teaching and professional development so as to obtain guidelines which would help to create a proposal for professional development that would adequately respond to teachers' pedagogical needs. Since it is not possible to give a detailed account of such extensive study in one article, this paper will focus only on a few main theoretical points, and give a brief overview of the empirical research and the proposal of a model of professional development.

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[2] Economics comprises fields such as marketing, management, business informatics, commerce, accounting, etc.
[3] IATEFL BESIG stands for International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language – Business English Special Interest Group

2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COMPETENCIES OF BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHERS

There is a significant body of research that addresses professional development and competencies, and highlights the key role that these two concepts play in teachers' profession (Beara and Okanović 2010; Darling-Hammond 2006; Džinović 2010; Foord 2009; Glušac 2016; Pešikan et al. 2010; Polovina and Pavlović 2010; Richards and Farell 2005; Rangelov Jusović, Vizek Vidović, and Grahovac 2013). In addition to describing contemporary principles that underpin professional development, these studies help teachers to identify their pedagogical needs and create their own professional development path.

As far as the main features of contemporary professional development are concerned, there is a concensus in literature (Beara and Okanović 2010; Darling-Hammond 2006; Džinović 2010; Foord 2009; Glušac 2016; Pešikan et al. 2010; Polovina and Pavlović 2010; Richards and Farell 2005; Richardson and Diaz Maggioli 2018) that it is a continuous, life-long process which leads to "deep and lasting changes in teacher cognition and performance" (Richardson and Diaz Maggioli 2018, 7). Teachers are viewed as reflective practitioners who actively engage in critical inquiry of their practice, values, and attitudes. They are expected to adopt the self-directed approach to learning. However, ensuring institutional support also plays a significant part in this process. Furthermore, taking into account the complexity and dynamic nature of teaching knowledge and skills, individual learning should be accompanied by collaboration with peers and other relevant participants in education through sharing of knowledge and experiences by means of face-to-face and virtual communication.

Teacher competencies constitute the core of professional development and are perceived as standards that contribute to professionalization of teachers' profession (Stanković 2010). Many frameworks of teacher competencies have been designed, and they largely resemble each other in terms of content. This comes as no surprise having in mind that they draw on contemporary research of professional development and construction of knowledge. The framework that served as a basis for the research presented in this paper was created by Selvi (2011). It is aimed at English language teachers and takes into account their various professional roles both inside and outside the classroom. The framework is suitable for Business English teachers as well, as it encompasses features which are specific to their working environment.

According to this framework, there are nine main categories of competencies:
1. field competencies, which refer to the "academic studies about the content" that the teacher teaches (Selvi 2011, 169);
2. research competencies, which comprise the knowledge of methods and techniques necessary to conduct research;
3. curriculum competencies, which refer to knowledge and skills that help teachers to develop and implement the curriculum;
4. lifelong learning competencies, which imply that teachers are accountable for their own professional learning throughout the career, as well as for developing their students' skills to pursue lifelong learning;
5. emotional competencies, which "are composed of teachers' and students' values, morals, beliefs, attitudes, anxieties, motivation, empathy" (Selvi 2011, 171);
6. social-cultural competencies, which refer to the knowledge about teachers' and students' local, national and global social and cultural environment as well as the issues such as human rights, democracy, etc.;

7. communication competencies, which include both intrapersonal and interpersonal communication, and activities such as information processing, analysing, observing, evaluating and the like;
8. information and communication technologies competencies (ICT competencies), which comprise knowledge about ICT tools and the skills to use them to "produce, manipulate, store, communicate, and/or disseminate information" (Selvi 2011, 172);
9. environmental competencies, which refer to "knowledge, attitudes and skills about ecological system and environment" (Selvi 2011, 172).

Finally, it needs to be highlighted that professional development should be based on both global contemporary research and practices, and local educational and cultural contexts so as to suitably fulfil the actual professional needs of teachers.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aim of the research in the thesis was twofold:
▪ to analyse the legal framework and documents with regard to teaching Business English and professional development of teachers in Serbia, so as to become acquainted with formal features and requirements related to these two components;
▪ to conduct empirical research, i.e. to analyse the attitudes, needs, and expectations of business English teachers with regard to professional development, and the attitudes, needs, and expectations of Business English students as to teacher roles, competencies, and courses.

Thorough examination of the above mentioned points within the contemporary theoretical framework produced data which enabled the author to create a proposal of professional development that meets the specific pedagogical needs of Business English teachers in Serbia.

The sample comprised 85 Business English teachers working in secondary and tertiary education as well as in private schools of foreign languages, and 349 students attending Business English courses in the aforementioned types of institutions. There was approximately the same share of respondents per type of institution. The gender structure of the sample is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 The structure of the sample based on gender

Respondents	Female	Male
Business English teachers	81	4
Business English students	221	129

Business English teachers' age ranged from 23 to 58. Most of respondents belonged to the 30-39 age category (54.1%). The same percentage of surveyed participants held a Bachelor (Hons.) and a Masters' degree (40% per category), whereas the remaining teachers had the academic title of magister (15.3%) or doctor (4.7%). At the time of the research, the respondents' working experience was between 4 months and 30 years. Almost half of the teachers (43%) taught Business English only 2-5 years, which suggests that this area of English for Specific Purposes is still relatively new in Serbia.

Business English students' age ranged from 15 to 63. The majority were between 16 and 21 years old (58.7%), which was expected since around two thirds of respondents attended secondary schools or higher education institutions. At the time of the study, students were learning Business English from 2 months to 10 years. The structure of the sample according to the length of learning Business English is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Structure of the sample (students) according to the length
of learning business English

Length of learning Business English	F	%
Up to 1 year	119	34.1
2 years	71	20.3
3 years	88	25.2
More than 3 years	69	19.9
Missing	2	0.6

The research instrument comprised two anonymous questionnaires (one for teachers, another for students), and a semi-structured interview, which involved 8 teachers. The questionnaires were administered in the period between October 2014 and February 2015, whereas the interview took place during May and June 2015. Data processing included a quantitative analysis (descriptive and inferential statistics) which employed the SPSS 20 package, and a qualitative analysis which was executed through content analysis. Identifying correlations between the variables was performed by the means of chi-square test, whereas Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to establish statistically significant differences between the variables. The inclusion of different types of research participants and instruments ensured greater reliability of data and helped to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the subject of the research.

4. BRIEF SUMMARY OF KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS

This section gives a brief summary of key findings of the research conducted with Business English teachers (4.1.) and Business English students (4.2.).

4.1. Research findings: Business English teachers

The analysis of results obtained through the survey and the interview with Business English teachers confirmed that they are aware of the importance of professional development for improving their pedagogical competencies and performance, but that their professional needs are not sufficiently recognized.

The great majority of respondents (88%) chooses programmes based on the relevance and importance for their professional growth, which suggests that teachers are able to critically approach their pedagogical practice and identify its strengths and weaknesses. On the negative side, however, only 17% of respondents said that the current offer of professional development activities was adequate, whereas slightly over half of surveyed participants (51%) claimed that they did not have sufficient opportunities for strengthening relevant competencies. Failure to respond to teachers' professional needs might be part of the cause of lower frequency of participation in professional development programmes. Namely, the

research showed that 52% of teachers take part in professional development activities only once or twice a year, which cannot contribute to deeper and lasting changes in pedagogical practice, values, and attitudes. Six teachers even said that they did not attend professional development programmes. Both surveyed and interviewed respondents working in secondary education felt that the teaching profession was undervalued and insufficiently recognized, which inevitably impacted their motivation to participate in professional development activities. Such situation calls for action, particularly because almost two thirds of the surveyed participants (67%) reported that they had not undergone adequate professional training before they started pursuing career in Business English teaching.

As for the types of professional development activities that teachers undertake, the largest portion attends seminars (82.4), reads professional journals (70.6%), and participates in conferences (67.1). The structure of respondents according to the type of professional development activity that they engage in can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3 Structure of respondents (teachers)
according to the type professional development that they undertake

Type of professional development activity	F	%
Seminars	70	82.4
Reading professional journals	60	70.6
Conferences	57	67.1
Workshops	39	45.9
Observations and peer coaching	34	40
Webinars	31	36.5
Professional learning networks (PLN)	25	36.5
Courses and trainings	24	28.2
Online conferences	24	28.2
Action research	13	15.3
Keeping professional development portfolio	10	11.8
Winter and summer schools	9	10.6

The types of activities that teachers consider most effective for their pedagogical practice are observations, peer coaching and participation in professional learning networks. This confirms that collaboration plays a vital role in enhancing teaching practice. The problem, however, lies in the fact that this result does not correspond with the one relating to participation in different types of activities (Table 3), i.e. the aforementioned forms of professional development are undertaken by a smaller share of respondents (40% and 36.9% respectively).

The majority of surveyed participants (80%) want to be offered more of virtual professional development opportunities as they are less costly and allow for a more flexible approach to learning and improving competencies.

Teachers expressed a high level of need for strengthening the following professional areas:

- ICT competencies in business English context (85%)[4];
- field competencies, i.e. competencies related to students' professional discipline (78.8%);
- knowledge and skills related to relevant scientific research concerning learning and teaching processes, and languages for specific purposes, i.e. business English (70.6%);
- communication competencies (70.6%);
- curriculum development competencies (69.4%);
- curriculum implementation competencies (68.2%).

The result suggests that business English teachers' needs are not met adequately in the system of professional development in Serbia.

In addition to the aforementioned competencies, respondents also highlighted the need to enhance knowledge and skills related to developing student autonomy and motivation. They also pointed to the importance of recognizing different types of professional demands that teachers have at different stages of their career, which rules out "one size fits all" professional development model.

The issue that was also raised in the research concerned the implementation of newly acquired knowledge and skills in the teaching practice, as well as the need to introduce mechanisms to monitor this process as a way of supporting teachers throughout their professional journey.

Finally, teachers said that the following factors contribute to the effectiveness of professional development programmes: responding to professional needs, active participation, interactivity, inventiveness, cooperation, continuity, and educators who are thoroughly acquainted with pedagogical theory, practice, and teachers' working environment.

All the research findings mentioned in this section so far are in line with contemporary perception of professional development. However, one point was identified in the analysis which reflected the traditional approach to learning. Namely, a significant portion of teachers expect ready-made pedagogical solutions from professional development programmes. This is in contrast with the constructivist approach to learning, where learners, i.e. teachers in this case, are encouraged to build knowledge based on their experience and the tools that they are provided in these activities. Teachers' dissatisfaction with the extent to which professional development events fulfil their needs might actually be partly linked to such traditional perception.

4.2. Research findings: Business English students

Students' answers to the questions in the survey gave insight into their motivation for learning Business English, and opinions and expectations with regard to teachers' roles, competencies, and the importance of various course aspects for their learning experience and outcomes.

The study showed that slightly over half of surveyed participants learn Business English for several reasons, the main ones being that the course is the integral part of the syllabus, that it helps to improve knowledge and skills in students' professional context, and that it increases their employment and career opportunities. A correlation was

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[4] Teachers were asked to express their level of need for improving different groups of competencies on a scale from 0 (no need) to 4 (a very high level of need). The given percentage represents the share of teachers who selected options 3 (a high level of need) and 4 (a very high level of need).

identified between the type of the institution that students attend and the reason for learning Business English. Namely, students in secondary schools, and to a lesser degree in tertiary education, are less aware of the need to acquire Business English competencies for their future professional orientation compared to their employed counterparts. This comes as no surprise since the needs of pre-experience students, i.e. the students who do not have any working experience are mostly delayed compared to job-experienced students' needs, which are generally immediate.

Students said that Business English courses need to be in line with their professional interests and experience, though general global topics, such as human rights, environmental issues and the like are welcome as well, particularly as part of general Business English courses. In their opinion, factors that make classes engaging and enjoyable are innovative content, interaction and collaboration with peers, active participation in classroom activities and devising the course content (the latter is significant for job-experienced students). Teachers' personality and competencies also play a very significant role, especially their ability to communicate and build respectful and supportive relationship with students.

The above mentioned observations correspond with the research in the field of LSP (Donna 2000; Ellis and Johnson 1994; Frendo 2005; Ignjačević 2012). However, the analysis also revealed that students' understanding of teachers' field competencies and their role in the classroom reflects the traditional approach to education. Namely, 83.1% of respondents were of the opinion that in addition to possessing linguistic competencies, teachers need to be able to demonstrate the expert level of content knowledge related to students' professional discipline. Today, there is a consensus in literature (Day and Krzanowski 2011; Donna 2000; Ellis and Johnson 1994; Ignjačević 2012) that LSP and Business English teachers are primarily teachers of a foreign language. They should, however, show willingness to continuously improve knowledge and skills related to their students' professional discipline so as to be able to maintain meaningful interaction in classes.

As for teachers' roles, a significant portion of respondents (67.3%) expressed a traditional view of teachers as suppliers of knowledge rather than facilitators who encourage students' active engagement in the construction of knowlegde. Such result calls for action in terms of developing student autonomy.

Finally, speaking of integration of information and communication technologies (ICT) in Business English courses, students' opinions were divided – 45.6% consider ICT a significant component of Business English classes, whereas 54.5% gave neither positive nor negative response,[5] or were of the opinion that it does not play a significant role in the teaching and learning processes. Taking into account the growing importance of ICT in education, this result might be linked to the fact that classrooms in Serbia are not properly equipped and that there are teachers who lack competencies to successfully add an ICT dimension to their courses.

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[5] These students selected "neither agree, nor disagree" option.

5. PROPOSAL OF A MODEL OF BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHERS'
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The results obtained from the research and their interpretation within the relevant theoretical framework offered a sound foundation for devising a proposal of professional development of Business English teachers in Serbia. The model was described in terms of its general features and content, and is presented below.

As for the main features, the model of professional development should:

- be based on a bottom-up approach, where teachers are encouraged to reflect on their practice and equipped to find pedagogical solutions which meet their professional needs;

- encourage both collaboration and individual learning, where collaboration includes not only teachers, but all relevant participants in education. Collaboration provides teachers and other parties with multiple perspectives and thus contributes to higher-quality professional engagement. Additionally, it strengthens the relationship between the peers;

- motivate teachers to implement newly acquired knowledge and skills in their teaching. To this end, devising mechanisms to monitor integration of new ideas, methodologies, etc., would be of great importance as a way to support teachers throughout the process of development and teaching. Such mechanisms would also help teacher trainers to obtain relevant information regarding the effectiveness of professional development activities;

- include a greater number of virtual or hybrid forms[6] of professional development. As has already been said in the paper, virtual activities are more accessible to teachers, less costly and usually allow more flexibility in terms of time of participation and pace of learning.

At the level of content, professional development offer should contain the following categories of programmes:

- programmes which help teachers to acquire and/or enhance professional competencies while taking into account their working experience and specific features of their teaching contexts (e.g. teaching Business English in high schools differs considerably from working with adult, job-experienced students). The main competencies that should be addressed are: field competencies, curriculum competencies, communication and ICT competencies, and competencies to enhance student autonomy and motivation;

- programmes which allow teachers with longer working experience to develop competencies in more narrowly defined areas of business English/LSP teaching theory and practice (e.g. business communication, international negotiation, etc.);

- programmes which equip teachers to give pedagogical support to their peers with regard to teaching Business English and planning their professional development (e.g. supervision, mentoring, coaching, etc.).

Catering for diverse professional needs of Business English teachers strengthens their motivation for professional growth and prevents burnout.

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[6] Hybrid forms of professional development combine face-to-face activities with virtual ones.

Finally, it needs to be mentioned that a professional development model for Business English teachers can be implemented successfully if all relevant interested parties (teachers, supervisors, policy makers, etc.) share the same understanding of the following main concepts:
- the concept of contemporary and high-quality Business English teaching;
- the concept of a competent Business English teacher;
- the concept of contemporary professional development.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper has given an overview of key findings and conclusions from the empirical research conducted in the PhD thesis entitled "A New Model of Professional Development of Business English Teachers in Serbia: Theoretical, Methodological and Practical Aspects". The research aimed to analyse the current situation with regard to teaching Business English and professional development of teachers in Serbia so as to obtain data necessary to devise a model of professional development which would fulfil teachers' pedagogical needs and correspond with contemporary theoretical and practical principles in the given areas.

The study involved both Business English teachers and students. The data, which were collected through the questionnaires and the interview, were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that although Business English courses are in expansion, Business English teachers' professional needs are not adequately met.

The attitudes and opinions that teachers expressed in the survey were mainly in line with recent research, showing that they are familiar with the ever increasing requirements of their profession, and, consequently, aware of the importance of continuously strengthening professional knowledge and skills. However, the opportunities for their professional development in Serbia are scarce. This is reflected in the low participation in professional development activities and the high level of need which teachers expressed for enhancing competencies to successfully devise and deliver Business English courses.

As for learners, the research revealed that their motivation for learning Business English corresponds with their characteristics, i.e. job-experienced students better understand the significance of learning Business English for their employment and career opportunities compared to pre-experience students. In students' opinion, teachers' communication competencies and support can positively impact their learning experience. However, students' perception of teachers as knowledge providers reflects the traditional approach to education. This is not unexpected having in mind that the traditional educational setting is still present in Serbia to a certain extent.

The theoretical framework and the obtained results provided a foundation for the creation of a proposal for professional development of Business English teachers in Serbia. It was concluded that the model should employ a bottom-up approach, encourage both individual learning and collaboration, enable continuous pedagogical support to teachers, and in addition to face-to-face activities offer virtual professional development opportunities as well. The content should be tailored so as to suit teachers' diverse professional needs.

This thesis has certain limitations. For example, the use of additional research instruments (e.g. observations) and involvement of other relevant parties (e.g. policy makers responsible for creation of professional development programmes) would help to achieve greater level of objectivity and shed more light on the research problem.

However, despite the limitations of the study, its contribution to the fields of teaching business English and professional development of teachers in Serbia is still valuable. The research provides teachers and other interested parties with a comprehensive picture of the current situation in the area of professional development and has important pedagogical implications in terms of application of the model of professional development in practice.

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Original scientific paper

QUESTIONING EAP: A CRITIQUE OF THE ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES COURSES AT UNIVERSITY

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Abstract. *Pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses are meant to prepare international students for their undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in an English-speaking academic environment. Prospective university candidates for whom English is not the first language are required to complete a pre-sessional EAP course if their IELTS score is lower than the admissions requirements. Even though, in terms of the language requirement, the lack of language proficiency is the only reason preventing international students from entering their degree programmes directly, the course they are required to take is an EAP course rather than a General English one, hence, not directly addressing their lack of general language proficiency. In this essay I question the need to impose such a course on international students: is EAP in its current shape necessary for their success at university or is it merely a product of neoliberalism in higher education?*

Key words: *English for Academic Purposes, neoliberalism, academic study skills, Critical EAP*

1. INTRODUCTION

The number of international students obtaining degrees at universities in English-speaking countries has been steadily increasing over the last several years before the Covid-19 pandemic. For example, in the UK alone in the 2018/19 academic year that number was 485,645, according to HESA (2020). Since international (non-EU) students have to pay twice the amount for their degree in the UK, they bring substantial revenue to the universities and the economy at large. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia are also competing for this market. This, as a result of the commercialization and commodification of universities due to neoliberalism, has created a lucrative market for pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, which aim to bridge the perceived gap between the linguistic and cultural knowledge and academic skills international students are thought to possess (or, rather, lack) prior to their study and the requirements on their academic departments. EAP courses are mandatory for those students falling short of the IELTS requirement on their target departments – most frequently ranging between 6.0 and 7.0. Whereas the emergence of EAP has led to some positive developments such as more abundant, albeit precarious and often seasonal, work

for English teachers, the aforementioned profits for universities and the economy, and the development of research in the EAP field, there is still uncertainty as to the real short-term and long-term benefit of EAP courses. This article intends to pose more questions than provide answers, hence being the point of departure for further research and reflection among current and prospective EAP practitioners around the world.

2. QUESTIONING THE IELTS SCORE

The point of departure for this discussion is questioning the basis upon which the IELTS requirement has been set and what it correlates to, especially since a student's IELTS score tends to determine the length of the required EAP instruction.

Firstly, there is no consistency as to which IELTS scores are deemed as the minimum requirement in different universities. Universities are allowed to set their own requirements but whether it is based on any evidence from the research is a big question. For example, Hyatt (2013) points out that there is a lack of knowledge among various participants in the higher education ('stakeholders' as they are called in the neoliberal world) with regards to what each IELTS score represents and correlates to. Hence, he contends, there is a strong case for raising awareness of the connection between various scores and linguistic and communicative competence. Since there are gaps in this awareness, on what basis do universities decide on the cut-off IELTS scores for prospective students? If it is based on the competencies described in detail in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), why do some universities tend to set their requirements higher than the others in the same subjects? Could it be that prestigious universities set their requirements higher for the reasons other than purely research-based? This is not only the case in the English-speaking countries: there is no consistency in the IELTS requirements in the universities in the EU either, where an increasing number of degrees are taught in English: e.g. within the country of Belgium there are varying requirements for the English programmes offered - whereas KU Leuven requires a minimum of 7.0 (KU Leuven n.d.), Ghent University requires a 6.0 (Ghent University n.d.).

Secondly, it seems logical that the language level required to access knowledge of and succeed in studying various disciplines should differ, considering disciplinary differences currently widely studied and emphasised in the EAP literature. Hence, we take it for granted that those disciplines perceived as containing more complex language and requiring more substantial written and spoken output would have a higher language requirement. But the question is: has the amount and complexity of language required for a particular discipline ever been scientifically measured and then mapped onto a particular IELTS score?

Finally, going back to the relationship between IELTS scores and the pre-sessional EAP courses, it has been established that a particular IELTS score determines the number of hours of a pre-sessional study a learner needs to undertake in order to qualify for their degree programme. In practice, this means a student with a 4.5 is likely to need to undertake a full year of an EAP study to reach the requirement of a 6.5 overall. More specifically, 0.5 increase in the IELTS score has been attributed to taking a 10-week pre-sessional EAP course, even though the British Association of Lecturers for Academic Purposes (BALEAP), which is involved in the provision of EAP courses in the UK, states that there is no evidence in research to suggest a particular length of a pre-sessional course is equivalent to gaining a particular IELTS score (BALEAP 2012), especially,

since many universities do not require students to retake IELTS upon the completion of pre-sessional courses. Even then, there is no consistency in what universities advertise: according to Pearson's study (2020a) conducted in the UK, universities advertise bridging the gap of IELTS 0.5 with anything ranging between two and twenty weeks, whereas for a gap of 1.0 the average duration was 12 weeks with one institution offering as little as five weeks. The matter becomes even more complicated if we take into account the fact that any evidence of the correlation between the IELTS scores and the predicted academic performance is inconclusive (Hyatt 2013; Pearson 2020a). All this raises a legitimate question as to the science behind the decision-making process resulting in such correlations and projections.

3. QUESTIONING THE CONTENT OF EAP COURSES

There exist variations in the content of EAP courses, whether in-house materials or coursebooks are used, but the key mission of any EAP course is to prepare a prospective international student for the academic study at a university. The ways to achieve this and the actual goal of achieving this, however, can be questioned.

One of the essential elements of an EAP course is developing learners' academic study skills. These often include such skills as note-taking, using the feedback, effective reading strategies, independent learning, critical thinking, time management, using the library, editing, proofreading, presentation skills and others. Naturally, these skills seem indispensable at a university but the question is why an EAP course should contain these. The premise seems to be that international students are perceived to somehow lack these skills or have developed ineffective strategies prior to their study in an English-speaking environment. Much of this perception comes from the notion of difference between Western education and learners' educational background. Whilst it seems logical that there are differences in educational systems around the world, there is a risk of overgeneralisation: with international students coming from different countries, is it fair to put them all in the same 'box'? Do Chinese and Arabic students equally need instruction on critical thinking? Is it even fair, for example, to assume all Chinese students lack critical thinking skills as claimed by many researchers (e.g. Tian and Low 2011)? With regards to critical thinking and Chinese students, a fair amount of primary and secondary research has been made, with some researchers arguing that critical thinking is not an alien concept to these students (Paton 2005; Foster and Mu 2011). To what extent this side of the argument has informed the design of EAP teaching materials is not clear. What is also not clear is why the research on critical thinking among students from countries other than China has not been so extensive and what the implications of this are for those students.

Another example of difference in the study skills frequently attributed to culture and included in EAP curricula is plagiarism. Again, Asian students, Chinese in particular, are widely cited to struggle with this notion, reportedly due to Confucianism promoting open access to knowledge and neglecting the importance of textual ownership (Sowden 2005; Amsberry 2009). This informs the content of EAP courses in a way that may be a self-fulfilling prophecy: based on the said premise, Chinese students are perceived to need extensive instruction on avoiding plagiarism and when, after instruction, some students are still found to commit such an act of academic malpractice, it may be seen as a sign of the persistence of the Chinese culture. However, it is controversial as to the degree to which this is due to the cultural factor: for instance, Liu (2005) insists that plagiarism is

not and has never been a norm in the Chinese education, giving examples from the Chinese literature of where such acts have been condemned. The real reasons are then concluded to stem from Chinese students' difficulties with language and writing skills rather than the cultural stereotypes based on anecdotal evidence. Again, has such research informed the content of EAP courses or does it continue to portray Chinese students as deficient in the matters of academic integrity?

Also, speaking of academic study skills, they are also not homogenous: whereas there may be a cultural debate surrounding the skills of critical thinking and plagiarism, such skills as using the library, editing, proofreading, referencing, and note-taking may vary among individuals and thus may benefit students of any nationality and educational background. Indeed, the development of such study skills is offered even for local students with English as their L1, for instance, by such institutions as the University of Bristol (University of Bristol n.d.) which offers the Study Skills service open for all and Cardiff University (Cardiff University n.d.) offering the same kind of study support for all students, home and international. Even UCAS (Universities and Colleges Admissions Service) (UCAS n.d.), which is a centralised service through which prospective undergraduate students in the UK apply for universities, offers the Study Skills Guides on its website, designed for everyone to use. By looking through the topics covered in the three examples given here, such study skills as academic essay writing, editing and proofreading, time management, presenting an argument, academic reading, group work, critical thinking, amongst others, are beneficial even for students whose educational background is from an English-speaking country, raising a question why international students have to study these separately on EAP courses.

Whereas study skills tend to be paid some attention on EAP courses, some other key areas could be developed more systematically. There is a growing body of research dedicated to disciplinary differences in terms of genre, vocabulary, the expression of authorial stance and others. The extent to which this research informs the content of many EAP courses is questionable. Firstly, English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses, designed to help learners succeed in their respective subjects rather than the academic study in general, tend to mostly be run in the summer term where student numbers are high enough to enable splitting the student cohort into separate groups according to their disciplines. Is it possible to sufficiently raise each student's awareness of the characteristics of their target discourse community in just ten weeks (with the actual input often lasting less than this due to introduction in the first week and assessment in the last two weeks)? Secondly, non-specialist teachers' awareness of disciplinary differences prior to their work on such courses needs further research: as a rule, summer courses are intensive and do not allow time allocation for seasonal teachers' research and professional development.

Finally, one side of the argument is the quality of the content of EAP courses; another is the actual reasoning behind preparing international students for the study at a Western university. This may be a good intention but no education is apolitical. Is imposing 'Western' rules on international students and the need for them to adapt, without questioning, to the conventions of a university and the particular discourse community not a form of cultural imperialism? Is university a place where norms are acquired and transmitted or a place for critical inquiry? Is the role of EAP courses indoctrination into those rules? Does Western academia have the right to claim critical thinking as its core, pointing to its lack among international students, when EAP courses (possibly, unintentionally) tend to perpetuate the divide between home and international students, whilst trying to mould the latter into shape,

stripping them of their linguistic and cultural identity? All these may seem to be questions too detached from a daily routine of an EAP practitioner but they echo the concept of Critical EAP coined by Benesch (2001), designed to encompass the critical inquiry into power relations within the academia.

4. QUESTIONING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EAP COURSES

Even though there have been studies attempting to measure the effectiveness of EAP courses in terms of learners' progress in their academic and language skills, as well as the skills transfer onto their subsequent degree studies and thus the long-term impact of EAP, none of these studies have been entirely conclusive. Pearson (2020b) has recently investigated the evidence from all the currently available UK-based studies and the result of this discussion raises more questions.

The evidence discussed by Pearson (2020b) includes such positive outcomes as the improvement in academic skills, although such improvement is said to be unremarkable. This has been found particularly evident in learners who graduated from their pre-sessional EAP courses with borderline marks – they tended to retain the same level of proficiency throughout their graduate study, resulting in the need to seek extension or resubmission and taking longer to complete their studies. Overall, students whose IELTS scores originally met the requirements of their degree programmes, thus allowing them direct entry onto their courses bypassing any pre-sessionals, were more likely to achieve academic success than those who fell short of the requirements and had to undertake the EAP courses. Thus, it appears that taking an EAP course may not be a gateway to academic success, which should be communicated clearly to prospective students (Pearson 2020b).

In terms of language development, there was a particular concern voiced by the students themselves – there was an initial expectation of more targeted language development on the course which was not met (Pearson 2020b). This may not be simply due to an ambiguous naming of a particular EAP course, as suggested by Pearson (2020b), or the fact that learners might not have experienced such a type of course before. It seems rather natural to expect the targeted and systematic improvement of one's general language skills, given that the reason for the denial of a direct entry onto their programmes is falling short of the language requirement. It is no wonder, then, why international students may perceive the lack of progress in their language level. This raises a question whether learner needs are met on EAP courses. It is noteworthy that, unlike on General English courses, learner needs on EAP courses are pre-determined and completely laid-out in the curricula. On certain EAP programmes tutors are required to follow the course materials without making any significant changes and only allowing for the discussion of individual learner needs during short one-to-one consultations. It seems questionable whether it is a completely fair approach: essentially, EAP learners have no choice as to what they study and would probably be too apprehensive about negotiating course content, being held hostage by the outcome of their pre-sessional course.

One example of EAP courses possibly falling short of learners' expectations is the inclusion of the grammar instruction into the curricula. Whereas vocabulary is widely addressed in EAP classes as well as research, for example, in the form of a genre analysis and the study of common core and subject-specific corpora, grammar is addressed far less and is often left on the periphery. For example, Tribble (2009) found in his survey of the

EAP writing coursebooks that none of them addressed the issue of grammatical accuracy in academic writing. This is, perhaps, due to the dominance of the Content-Based Instruction in EAP provision which is concerned with teaching language through the context of a particular subject (Landry 2019). Brinton and Holten (2001), however, criticise this approach and argue in favour of incorporating a more systematic treatment of grammar into an EAP classroom, shifting the focus from content onto language. Learners themselves consider grammar important for academic study, particularly for academic writing (Leki and Carson 1994; Gardiner 2012) and have shown to be in favour of more substantial coverage of grammar on pre-sessional courses. Despite this, there is a notable absence of the explicit reference to 'grammar' in the BALEAP 'Can Do' Framework for learners (BALEAP n.d., p.7); however, there are competencies such as writing 'clearly without meaning being obscured', demonstrating 'language knowledge and control/accuracy' which includes 'syntax' (that is, sentence structure and word order), and understanding 'subtleties/nuances of language'. With the exception of syntax, it is, however, open to interpretation to what extent grammar plays a role in developing these competencies and which grammatical items may be essential to focus on in EAP classes. What is clear though is that the lack of research in this matter and insufficient inclusion of grammar in EAP courses may present a missed opportunity to meet learners' language learning needs.

5. CONCLUSION

The questions raised in this article present obvious directions for further research. Without claiming to possess any definitive answers to the questions raised, I could propose certain measures to act as a point of departure for positive change.

- it could be worth re-assessing the real differences between the level of development of academic study skills among international students prior to undertaking the EAP courses and home students, to whom study skills support is optional. It could perhaps lead to realising more commonalities in the needs and challenges among home and international students. With such an eventuality, an opportunity to re-imagine EAP courses could present itself: perhaps, both home and international students could develop these skills together, addressing another widely cited concern among international students – lack of mingling and making friends with home students.
- in the spirit of Critical EAP, all 'stakeholders' should question the 'Western' standards they perpetuate and consider the issues of equality, diversity of student voices, inclusivity, and linguistic and cultural identity in academia. This could lead to rethinking the content of EAP courses and redefining the role of EAP.

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CORONAVIRUS DISCOURSE OF UNCERTAINTY IN THE GUISE OF REASSURANCE: WE STAND TOGETHER ONLY WHEN WE DO NOT STAND APART

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Abstract. *The novel coronavirus communicative modalities are ever-emergent and infinitely adaptable systems of the new normal state of mind and play. By focusing on specificities found in the corpus extracted from three leading Bosnian and Herzegovinian (B&H) newspapers, the paper attempts to merge the predominant theoretical insight into a mixture of conceptual and critical theories of language. The focus of the paper is two-fold. The first one is targeted at testing the extracted theoretical posits on the linguistic corpora. The second aims at challenging the notions of togetherness and separateness in the B&H society by mirroring them through the prism of Covid-19 newspaper reports. The results of the corpus analysis suggest that it is still possible to draw a line between the notions in accordance with the specific geographical regions from which the data are drawn.*

Key words: *coronavirus, discourse, uncertainty, threat, togetherness, apartness*

1. INTRODUCTION: THE BOSNIAN AND HERZEGOVINIAN BACKGROUND

The specificity of the Bosnian and Herzegovinian (B&H) society mirrors itself in almost all levels of life, for it is particular, and somewhat incomprehensible, the system always has to be looked at from three sides being: Bosnian/Bosniak, Croat and Serbian. The application to this so-called "three-headed monster" (a term which is usually used for describing a collective state presidency) type of approaching the issues is to be tested in terms of its applicability to the newspapers discourse in general. It is, therefore, necessary to give a short insight into some of the issues related to the researched points.

Bosnia and Herzegovina claims the legacy from the Social Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (known as ex-Yugoslavia) in which it was one of the six constituent republics. The newly-formed state consists of two entities, the Republic of Srpska (RS) and the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (FBiH), and a joint condominium, the Brčko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina (BD), which has its own government. The RS is an entity with a majority of Serbian population, with one central, entity government. The FBiH has a specific organisation, for it consists of ten cantons, in which there is either a predominant Bosnian or Croat population, with a central federal government which has a limited authority over its respective cantons. Such a motley administration is spread on

other social, political, and educational levels, to name but a few. It is important to emphasise this fact, for it presents a basis for the establishment of a possible connection and traces it within the researched corpora. Namely, the separation is overt on multiple levels, even the name of the official language can be considered a stumbling stone. The official name of the language used in B&H before 1992 was Serbo-Croatian or Croato-Serbian (srpskohrvatski ili hrvatskosrpski jezik). Nowadays, the official term one uses depends on their personal prevalence, thus, ending up with having Bosnian/Bosniak/Croatian/ Serbian, claiming that there exists only one polycentric/pluricentric language with different nominations or two/three different languages with their respective characteristics and specificities. The basis which lies beneath all these issues, the most important one, is that the language(s) used are understandable to all native speakers and that the previously mentioned issues in no way present any problem as far as comprehensibility is concerned, for their origin is not linguistically based. This, somewhat unique, three-fold position relates to almost all issues, including newspaper reports. Even though the underlined position of the media is overtly independent, the public opinion, as well as research, is that it is highly influenced by the part of the country it is published in and their owners as well.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DISCUSSION

In the pursuit to test the presence of the behaviour pattern related to in Theroux (2020) as a way of replicating the already set line of events, those being "the hoarding, the panicking, the fear, the blaming, the superstition, the selfishness, the surprising heroism, the fixation with the numbers of the reported dead, the boredom during quarantine", it seemed reasonable to test it on the newspaper corpora. Moreover, the overview of the plague literature research results asks for a possible comparison with the present-day situation with the Covid-19 pandemic and its representation in journalistic discourse. It is vital to emphasise the fact of the necessity of narrowing the scope of the researched issues, so the focus has been put on the terms related to Covid-19 in order to see whether there is any discrepancy in the results of the corpus analysis. The pandemic, (un)deservedly named infodemic[1] by Cinelli et al. (2020), has offered itself as a resource to the researches almost instantaneously (Irwin 2020, Lewis 2020, Olsen, Pickard & Westlund 2020).

For the purpose of this paper, the three daily newspapers published in Bosnia and Herzegovina have been chosen, namely *Nezavisne novine (NN)* (Serbian), *Oslobođenje (O)* (Bosnian) and *Večernji list (VL)* (Croatian). All three fulfilled the following criteria:

- they are daily newspapers published in the regional capitals (Banja Luka, Sarajevo, Mostar, respectively);
- they are considered representative of the governmental policies;
- they are all published in e-form which is searchable and downloadable in the Latin alphabet.

The corpus contains downloaded files from the date of the first recorded case of Covid-19 in B&H (Banja Luka, RS) 5th March, 2020 until 22nd May, 2020, which is the date of the cease of lockdown measures in the RS. The dates are chosen for they cover the first phase of the Covid-19 pandemic in B&H in both entities, having in mind the fact that the

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[1] The term is a blend coined by the journalist David Rothkopf and used in an article in *The Washington Post* on 11 May, 2003. For more information see https://www.merriam-webster.com/words-at-play/words-were-watching-infodemic-meaning.

lockdown in the Republic of Srpska started earlier and ended later than in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The choice of the examples presented in the discussion shows the parallel nature of the research conducted. First seven examples present the presumed recurring notions hypothesised as possible signs of connection between the corpora. They also present the foundations for cognitive linguistic considerations. The other presented items were chosen as illustrations, for the format of the research allowed for mere establishment of existence or non-existence of the issues researched.

The analysis of the files has been done by the use of *AntConc 3.5.8 (Macintosh OS X) 2019* tool, and the research apparatus used Content Analysis (Mayring 2014). The foundations for the research method were found in Clarke and Brown's (2013) six-step thematic analysis procedure, and the method used is mixed (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow 2012, Yanow & Schwartz-Shea 2006).

Starting from posit that the underlying methodological basis is to "conceptualize the process of assigning categories to text passages as a qualitative-interpretive act, following content-analytical rules" (Mayring 2014:10), content analysis offers itself as a "mixed-method approach", in which quantitative and qualitative steps interchange paths. When discussing the issues concerning mixed-methods research as far as compatibility is concerned, Riazi (2016: 40-41) identifies for "the possibility of mixing the two research methodologies (quantitative and qualitative) in favour of more robust explanations of the phenomena". Hashemi (2012: 207) calls it "a useful tool for exploring complex systems investigating both the process and the outcomes". For the purpose of this paper, the term mixed-method has been understood in its broader sense, as stated in Schwartz-Shea & Yanow (2012: 131), where the term encompasses "combinations of 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' methods in the same research project, at whatever phase". In the case of the research presented, it applies to the data collection process, the corpus analysis and the interpretation of results.

In order to systemise the newspaper data, the research used the Clarke and Brown's (2013) thematic analysis which, according to the author's presents a "distinctive method with a clearly outlined set of procedures in social sciences" (Brown & Clarke 2013: 178), and it is usable on practically all kind of qualitative data. The articles were collected manually from the newspapers' websites, downloaded, and their titles inserted into a *Numbers 10.2* file manually. The process of categorisations followed the six steps proposed by Clarke and Brown (2013): familiarisation with the data, coding, generating initial themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and writing up. This categorisation enabled later systematisation of data also. Namely, the discrepancy in the number of articles has its explanation in the pursuit of establishment of an evenness in the amount of words used in searches in total, i.e. the monthly items in the corpus used for comparison contain approximately similar number of lexical items, i.e. the word count for each month is approximately the same. Such a balance was be achieved by choosing the items belonging to a specific thematic group, after the data filtration and removal of overlapping articles. The researched articles contain between 50 and 500 words, and the approximate number of words per newspaper per months is the following: March 13,500 words, April 14,000 words and May 11,500 words. After the selection, the files were converted into machine readable plain text format (.txt), uploaded into the software and analysed.

However, it must be emphasised that these results ought to be understood as preliminary data, and the findings presented here only as illustrations of a much larger collection of corpora. It is important to mention that the hits were counted according to the occurrences in all cases in singular and plural in Serbian not only in the nominative, which is given as a matrix in the tables.

The extracted examples have also been analysed through the prism of cognitive linguistic understanding of the terms *separateness* and *togetherness*, with the intention of seeing whether it is possible to obtain some data which will corroborate with the set hypothesis that it is possible to see clearly the difference in the newspapers reports in accordance with the part of B&H they come from, even if the topic (in this case, Covid-19) is not locally politically challenging (Lakoff 1996, Musolff & Zinken 2009, O'Halloran 2004, Oakley & Hougaard 2008, van Dijk 2008).

2.1. A Cross-Section of News Reports in B&H

The numbers of analysed newspaper articles connected with Covid-19, presenting all the articles[2] within the newspapers connected with the topic, are as follows:

Table 1 The number of articles analysed in the corpus

	Nezavisne novine	*Oslobođenje*	*Večernji list*
March	124	64	65
April	138	111	97
May	111	92	66
Total	373	267	228

The situation in March is predominately reflected by a very concise presentation of the pandemic.

Table 2 Selected items from March 2020

	Nezavisne novine	*Oslobođenje*	*Večernji list*
zajedništvo [togetherness]	1	0	66
odvojenost [apartness]	1	0	0
nesigurnost [uncertainty]	1	0	0
prijetnja [threat]	6	9	32
porodica/obitelj [family]	37/0	178/0	0/65
nacija [nation]	1	3	1
jedinstvo [unity}	0	1	0
pandemija virusa [virus pandemic]	2	2	3
zaraza [infection, contagion]	7	28	5
slučaj bolesti [cases of disease]	7	3	0
uvezeni slučajevi [imported cases]	1	1	0
zabrana kretanja [prohibition of movement/curfew]	3	142	27
policijski čas/sat [curfew]	81/1	12/277	0/29
korona [corona]	6312	959	236
kovid-19/covid-19 [Covid-19]	2	4	56
klaster [cluster]	67	4	3
pozitivan na virus [positive cases for the virus]	43	136	5

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[2] All translations are made by authors.

The first thing that draws the attention is the discrepancy in the number of occurrences of the lexical items *infection/contagion* and *positive cases for the virus*. There seems to be a negative correlation in the actual number of occurrences of the lexical items used and the actual geographical region where the virus has been registered, thus, Sarajevo seems as if it is warning that there actually exists a virus, while Banja Luka and Mostar, especially Banja Luka, just record the fact of the existence and give the plain numerical account. The first month of the pandemic also records the use of the lexeme *corona* rather than *Covid-19*, with an interesting relation seen in the newspaper published in Croatian. A new word, *cluster*, is introduced into the vocabulary, which is definitely a specificity of this pandemic, for it somehow differentiates itself from the translational items, thus, relating only to Covid-19, and, in this case, the separate groups of isolated cases specific only to one particular town in B&H, namely Banja Luka. The pinpointing of a cluster group, a cluster town/village, a cluster canton/entity from the beginning of the pandemic is a clear signal of the existence of a threat, which is somehow coming from the other side (whatever 'the other' refers to in each case). The overall feeling of the reports is quite positive, and the tendency recorded is that of giving numbers and pinpointing clusters. Even the beginning of segmental lockdown does not show any particular concern, just the need for alertness and care for others, especially the elderly and sick people. Another interesting point is the occurrence of the phrase *(ključne) dvije sedmice/(ključna) dva tjedna* [key two weeks] and the name of the RS Health Minister, Alen Šeranić. There is no record of the use of the word *key* as a premodifier in the corpus in March, and registered occurrences of *two weeks*, 12 in *NN*, 2 in *O* and 6 in *VN*, just add some more flare to the feeling of positive expectations, hope and the feeling of near closure. The period is marked by a newly-introduced role model for behaviour, a person whose voice is listened to, a person who epitomises a positive outcome, a person whom all sides believe - the RS Health Minister. In March, there are 180 hits in *NN*, 178 in *O* and 8 in *VN* connected with his name. He is seen as the focal point around which people are gathered in their pursuit of finding a competent and trustworthy source. There is a scarce number of examples which point at the possibility of danger the virus carries. Moreover, the occurrences of the word *opasnost* [danger] in relation with Covid-19, *NN* 3, *O* 3, and *VN* 2, show that the researched articles show a unanimous agreement in a favourable outcome. Still, with careful searching, one is able to find instances of the forthcoming times of insecurity. Namely, the search of the phrase *radna mjesta* [jobs] shows an interesting result. The *NN* corpus displays 25 hits on the phrase modified with the verb *poharati* [to ravage], while *O* has 1 accompanied by *uticaj* [influence] and *VN* is accompanied by *očuvati* [to preserve].

The month of April breaks down into the chosen lexis is as follows:

Table 3 Selected items from April 2020

	Nezavisne novine	Oslobođenje	Večernji list
zajedništvo [togetherness]	161	25	45
odvojenost [apartness]	3	2	1
nesigurnost [uncertainty]	1	0	3
prijetnja [threat]	72	22	2
porodica/obitelj [family]	96/0	496/0	0/122
nacija [nation]	3	13	3
jedinstvo [unity}	1	1	1
korona [corona]	9027	7018	1158
kovid-19/covid-19 [Covid-19]	48/84	0/826	0/425
klaster [cluster]	13	280	66
pozitivan na virus [positive cases for the virus]	1021	3	177
Republika Srpska [RS]	698	829	94
Federacija BiH [FBiH]	666	519	97
Brčko Distrikt [BD]	300	240	5
karantin/karantena [quarantine]	225/2	569/130	3/97
žarište [focal point]	21	129	23
radna mjesta [jobs]	70	11	6

Some of the researched lexemes have been changed because it was supposed that they would be in focus. The second month of the pandemic brought the total lockdown in B&H, so it was viable to suppose it would be possible to find traces of doubt and insecurity. Strangely enough, the positive side offers itself in so much that the hope is represented through the catchphrase of the pandemic spread worldwide, *the next two weeks/fourteen days*, which are found in *O* and *VN*. What is visible is the trend that will offer itself as a particular feature of this pandemic, and that is the avoidance of the use of the word *positive*. In the RS, it is visible that the reports are still done in the same way, but in the FBiH, hedging starts to be the dominant way of reporting, so, e.g., instead of saying one tested *positive for the virus* there are instances of the use of phrases such as *reported cases*, *recorded cases*, *contagious people*, *people with infection*. The discrepancy in reporting about the pandemic does not exist in April, for even though the majority of cases are still recorded in the RS, especially in one city, Banja Luka, the existence of clusters within some of the FBiH cantons hovers its imminent cloak among all. So, even though the reports are spread between the RS and the FBiH, what is evident is the necessity to come clean and acknowledge that the discrepancies within the numbers are due to the numbers of tested people and not the actual number of the recorded cases. Nevertheless, one finds these entries only in readers' comments, for the articles are still written in the form of barren statistical reports. Lastly, by following occurrences of the phrase *radna mjesta* [jobs] we see that the threat is definitely seen, for in *NN* it collocates with the verbs *očuvati* [preserve] and *sačuvati* [keep], *O* widens the collocates with the lexemes *gašenje* [putting out, closing] and *ugrožen* [jeopardised], while *VN* also uses *sačuvati* [keep] and *očuvanje* [perseverance].

The month of May, understood as the month of hope and a possible end of the pandemic, brought an important event, namely the official opening of the country borders and lessening of restrictions within the country. Its importance as the transitory month between two big holidays is not seen in the newspaper reports, for they only emphasise the dropping numbers of cases which arose after the Catholic and Orthodox Easters, and give no marks to the possibility of any threat that the forthcoming Eid may bring.

Table 4 Selected items from May 2020

	Nezavisne novine	Oslobođenje	Večernji list
zajedništvo [togetherness]	1	78	10
odvojenost [apartness]	243	2	0
nesigurnost [uncertainty]	4	0	1
prijetnja [threat]	140	141	1
porodica/obitelj [family]	96/0	193/0	0/234
nacija [nation]	2	26	0
jedinstvo [unity}	6	3	0
korona [corona]	7028	7408	1126
kovid-19/covid-19 [Covid-19]	19/34	0/623	0/62
klaster [cluster]	7	18	2
novozaraženi [newly infected]	97	385	43
respirator [respirator]	198	92	11
kućna izolacija [home isolation]	69	5	1
neodgovornost [irresponsibility]	32	0	0
nenošenje (maske) [non-wearing (of a mask)]	11	3	0
oporavljeno [recovered]	40	169	8
radna mjesta [jobs]	38	13	12

What is evident is the emergence of the new dominant lexical item, *respirator*, as well as the increase in the use of a parallel term, *Covid-19*, in one paper. May is also the month in which the discrepancy in reporting is at its height. While *O* sends positive vibrations in drawing the attention on the numbers of *newly infected* and *recovered people*, *NN* is more preoccupied with the newly-coined negations (*irresponsibility*, *non-wearing*[3]) and the possible new sources of contagions (*house isolation*). The attention of the possible threat is now visibly pinpointed at people and they are solely seen as those who should bear all the responsibility (they should stay at home, wear face masks, be responsible). The moving of the attention from the society/community to an individual also means moving away from the collective responsibility and pointing fingers at the possibly "guilty" people. Very subtly, one enters the zone of uneasiness and uncertainty, which is being triggered by nocuous behaviour, which cannot be prevented by the authorities. Nor will they claim responsibility for the results of such a conduct of irresponsible individuals. The phrase *jobs*, surprisingly, still shows some inconsistencies. So, in *NN*, it is accompanied mostly by the predeterminer *izgubljeno* [lost], and only three other modifiers, viz. *ugasila* [extinguish], *spasavanja* [rescue], *strah da se ne izgubi* [fear of losing]; *O* has instances of *gubitak* [loss], *zatvaranje* [closing], *napusti* [leave], *spasimo* [let's save]; *VN* mentions *očuvanje*

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[3] It should be noted that the newspapers try to establish the existence of equal treatment of all of the citizens, so we have a report on "61 persons being fined for not wearing masks" [NN, 12. 5. 2020.] and "a policeman being under investigation for not wearing the mask in public properly" [NN, 13. 5. 2020.].

[perseverance], *zadržavanje* [keeping], *gubitak* [loss], *pogođenih* [affected]. There is a surprising fact seen here. Namely, it seems that the pronounced end of the strict lockdown means the beginning of the times of uncertainty, which is felt more strongly. And it is that very uncertainty that brings the two/three sides together. The realisation that the future brings more insecurity and troubles than the actual pandemic, opens a door to the realisation that one has to turn to one's neighbour in times of need. A jeopardised individual means a jeopardised society as a whole, and the imminent threat of impossibility to predict the near future is just adding more need for closeness and bridging this artificial gap.

Let us finish this short overview by returning to one of only two joint holidays celebrated in the country, being Labour Day. It seems that only one side finds the connection with the present Covid-19 situation. Namely, *NN* offers 39 picks on *Praznik rada* [Labour Day] and 11 on *Prvi maj* [May Day], which are found as part of the Covid-19 related articles. Only one offers a collocation with an optimistic content, *neko bolje sutra* [some better tomorrow], while the other talks about a pandemic which *stole* [ukrala] the holiday away from them, and about people who now can only remember *the beautiful days of Labour Day during Tito's age* [pamte lijepe dane Praznika rada u Titovo doba]. The other two newspapers do not make any connection between the national holiday and the virus, apart from a short announcement in *O* about the presence of the traditional reveilles by the brass bands. It seems that the pandemic failed in stealing holidays from the general public, for there seemed to be a lack of usual warnings and precautionary measures which filled newspaper columns when other holidays were observed.

Lastly, it is also noteworthy to add that the overwhelmingly rich selection of examples, the limited space for presentation and the very focus of establishment of the possible presence of the issues researched are the reasons for choosing the presented, selected data.

2.1. Cognitive Linguistics Considerations

The linguistic aspect used in this part of the paper is mainly conceptually framed using the salient building blocks from the ever-evolving construction site of cognitive linguistics. The analysis of discourse constructs in the media space of B&H in terms of coronavirus narratives is structured from the perspective of conceptual metaphor theory and cognitive models. It is equally grounded in one of the core values of cognitive linguistics making its way to the heart of the matter at hand. Namely, the idea of conceptualisation by means of which meaning is constructed and critically deconstructed so as to expose ideological systems originating in the idea-related mindset of a specific cognitive community and extract the needed meaning building blocks providing an example of the new coronavirus discourse. The tentative link between linguistics and medicine is not only a marriage of convenience. It is, to all intents and purposes, an uneasy and yet necessary relationship. It took some level of boldness to put together these interdisciplinary fields of scientific research.

The key ingredient in the attractive realm of the conceptually based system of analysis was advocated by George Lakoff[4] who, unafraid of the difficulty of the task, took linguistics by storm and rewrote the disappearing image of the field and enriched it with revitalising incentive that opened up new horizons in the perception of the selected subject matter. In the case of the new coronavirus discourse as seen from a simultaneous standpoint, the conceptual analytical selection of approaches[5] proves particularly useful and clearly revealing.

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[4] https://georgelakoff.com/press/academic-biography/
[5] See Turner & Fauconnier (2002).

Through of the means of conceptual scenario deconstruction specifically designed with the intention to uncover singular characteristics of discourse construction of the B&H coronavirus narratives, advantage is given to the idealized cognitive model of unity through family modelled on Conceptual Metaphor Theory as elaborated by Lakoff in his well-known *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things* published in 1987 and *Metaphors We Live By* that had been published seven years earlier. The previously mentioned volumes of his revolutionary writing furthered explained what transformed into standard procedure for decoding ideologically-coloured political tokens of discourse. The underlying principle states that the human capacity for generating and decoding meaning stems from the human-specific innate ability to perceive the surrounding material world and as a result store infinite information quantities into long-term memory bases in the neural system. The sequence explained in this way creates a routine pathway towards relatively stable and infinitely reusable supra-structures that enable access to general abstract semantic frames that in consequence make a two-pronged meaning possible with (de)coding mechanisms readily available.

The basic conceptual reference structure is called idealized cognitive model[6] because it uses the encyclopaedic knowledge accumulated in an individual's lifetime and quickly put to use if, or more precisely, when needed. Idealized cognitive models centre round the most noticeable and ever-present attributes of the category in question. Jungian concept of the collective unconscious[7] neatly falls in with the entirety of cognitivist systems of linguistic mechanisms of analysis. To resort to Lakoff's example, a bird normally has a pair of two wings, the capacity for sustaining flight, and certain other bird-specific traits. Exemplars of a given category most adequately link with the defining coordinates if they have the highlighted markers. Should that be the case, they are classified as prototypes. In the above example, according to Lakoff, a sparrow is to be understood as a prototypical example of the bird class. All exemplars of a category do not deserve the status of prototypicality.

To explain potential deviations, the system of radiality was conceived. Radial categories state that exemplars or members are granted grades-based status ranks i.e. some exemplars are more central and therefore more prototypical, others deviate from the metaphorical centre more substantially and therefore they are perceived as less prototypical. The farther from the centre an exemplar lies, the less of a member it is. The cognitive machinery here presented demonstrates that human beings reason by means of analogy and conceptual comparison making human reasoning essentially experiential and the encyclopaedic knowledge hypothesis viable.

From the viewpoint of medical and the new coronavirus discourse, this is undeniably relevant keeping in mind what has previously been discussed. Lakoff claims that human thought first and foremost comes from conceptual comparisons similar to family-based communities. Nation or a conglomerate of nearby and connected units as a family generate conceptual scenarios if further supported with moral reasoning which does not rely on metaphoricity in itself, but rather experientiality which then conceptually connect the metaphorical construct of nation as a closely-knit family-like cognitive community and morality as one of the primary legitimising cornerstones of intertextuality. Intertexts strengthen the moral values forming the basis of the nation as a family scenario. In the new corona virus discourse, intertextuality links the primary text sources such as the literary treasure trove previously illustrated with modern-day discourse manoeuvres.

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[6] http://scodis.com/for-students/glossary/idealized-cognitive-models/
[7] https://www.verywellmind.com/what-is-the-collective-unconscious-2671571

Nation as a family is the of the utmost importance as conceptual lever of discourse production in this once-in-a-lifetime unprecedented discourse of crisis, medicine and linguistic mechanisms of reality-shaping.

To support the Nation as a Family or nation divided conceptual scenario, use was made of the articles, reports, opinion editorials and updates taken from the print media outlets for the purposes of shortness and clarity underpinning the conceptual highlights to be remarked upon in the conclusion.

Several underlying conceptual strategies in the generation of meaning in the new coronavirus discourse and the B&H cognitive community and its public arena are particularly important.

1. The easily detected usage of the unifying pronoun we as a hallmark of the inseparable nature of unified struggle.
2. The repetition of the sequences in our entity, the other entity and the authorities as another discursive mechanism (dis)unity.
3. The possessive determiner our is recurrent and equally indicative of the nation as a family conceptual scenario as well as a strategy of asserting the value system.
4. The combination of nations is seen as a family whose values revolve around the concept of being righteous and fair-handed. It is derived from the notion of nurturing parent.
5. In consequence, being a member of the conceptual family is both a privilege and a duty.

The Nation as a family conceptual scenario is a notion dependent on our perception of family as a phenomenon in need of care and nurturance so that is prospers into a fully-fledged form of existence. It is understood by means of human embodied experience transforming into the encyclopaedic knowledge repository. Child-rearing and nation-building are similar processes from a conceptual and analogically perception perspective. This conceptual parallel is an effective method of meaning detection, discourse analysis and ideological deconstruction asserting the value of conceptually-suffused cognitive linguistics in discourse studies and relevant at present, the novel coronavirus discourse.

Another point lends itself particularly useful for analysis and illustration. The conceptual metaphor of the Family of absence and Family of intermittent unity. This is especially noteworthy and in line with the previous qualitative cross-section extracting the lexical repository farmed in the infinite semantic ocean and put to frequent use.

The lexemes: pandemic, contagion, (newly detected) cases of disease, curfew, corona, Covid-19, cluster, positive cases, the Republic of Srpska, the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Brčko District, quarantine, focal points, jobs, home and self-isolation, lack of responsibility, home-quarantine (stay/shelter in place order), use and the lack thereof of face masks/coverings and various other face shields. The aforementioned exemplars go to show how news-framers exploit a well-known stratagem of eliciting an emotional response: threat, fear, the unknown, the so-called invisible enemy, the extent of the new and cryptic threat, a new and mandatory modus vivendi (the new normal, the newness of everydayness), a community under siege and in need of protection. These mechanisms of conceptualisation by means of news framing are designed to mould and shape the susceptibly pliant mind of the reader into obedience for their own good. This is assertion is not partial to speculating the motivation driving this approach to news framing nor does it lay claim to a nefarious intent. The simple and patently observable paradigms are identified and illustratively set forth. It is also worth mentioning that this is merely a bitter taste of the novel corona discourse and by no means extensive and all-encompassing. This paper is the inception of a more detailed and ongoing effort to delineate the discursive strategies in the public sphere and will be the subject of further research endeavours.

3. CONCLUSION

Unity and *togetherness* as the foundations of the B&H society, at least those tested in the analysed corpora, seem still to be far-fetched. Namely, even though the upcoming twenty-fifth anniversary of the end of the conflict and the creation of the joint state would somehow presume the existence of one joint route, it is still visible that the invisible line of separation does not cease to exist, even in times of force majeure. This is quite interesting, for the great floods of 2014 united the country, so the same was expected here. Nevertheless, it seems that the fact that Covid-19 affected (and still is affecting) the whole population, and not just a part of it (which was the case during the 2014 flood crisis), contributed to the fact that the newspaper reports clearly differentiated in accordance with the part of the country they were published in. It is still unclear how long notions of *separateness* and *togetherness* are going to be visible in B&H society, but it is quite certain that they will present a challenge and an open call for researchers in the foreseeable future, or, at least, until one raises awareness of the fact that uniqueness or oneness should be considered just as an indivisible part of the whole.

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GENERAL ENGLISH AND MORE OR LESS TECHNICAL ESP ON THE EXAMPLE OF WORD LISTS

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Abstract. *The renewed interest in vocabulary research, especially due to its meaning-carrying significance in technical Englishes, has cleared the way to the development of corpus linguistics methods based on real-life texts. As the learning/teaching of general English leads towards the learning/teaching of English for a Specific Purpose (in line with the learner's needs), so the creation of general English word lists imposes the creation of technical word lists, aiming to achieve a desired level of the target corpus comprehension. In this paper, we discuss the common grounds and specifics of various levels of general and technical English in terms of their lexical coverage of texts, specifically addressing the example of marine engineering technical manuals.*

Key words: *vocabulary, word list, corpus, English for Specific Purposes*

1. INTRODUCTION

For many reasons, primarily those of the economic nature, English is considered to be the *lingua franca* of the modern world, the learning of which imposes a growing challenge to both its learners and teachers. Learning and teaching English for a special purpose is thought to be even more challenging, since it relies upon the knowledge of general English, which needs to be upgraded and adjusted to meet the requirements of a specific professional area.

With the development of various scientific and technological fields, there are more and more areas of English for special purposes, branching out into various levels and sublevels. The Hutchinson-Waters's tree (Hutchinson and Waters: 1987) has significantly grown in the meantime, with dozens of the additional ESP branches and sub-branches. Fortunately, the development of the information and computing technologies has also brought us new tools and methodologies, such as corpus linguistics methods and software, which enable easier access to large quantities of real-life material and its multiple-level analysis. This type of analysis is primarily based on vocabulary, i.e. words as the meaning-carrying elements of a language and, at the same time, distinguishing components of its (professional) areas and subareas.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Following the main ideas and pioneering efforts of earlier times, not sooner than in the 60s of the previous century did corpus linguistics become especially recognized and productive with the appearance of huge computer-processible corpora (real-life texts). Those corpora may be comprised of one or more genres. In our case, we have chosen a very technical and (vocabulary-wise) demanding genre of marine engineering – their instruction books and technical manuals.

Furthermore, the technological development has also introduced some of the most modern methodologies to linguistics research, such as lexical profiling, which has flourished for several past decades. The software solutions developed for this very purpose enabled a detailed analysis of texts based on vocabulary frequency ranges, which in turn provided for the creation of specific word lists. The purpose of such specifically extracted vocabulary is to facilitate adequate reading comprehension of (professional) texts. The lists can be used either directly by learners or in the teaching process.

Naturally, the first word lists created were those of general English, aiming to provide the learners with the common vocabulary that occurs frequently across different texts (Brezina and Gablasova: 2013, Nation 2001). As the learning of professional language is based on learning the general one, the general English word lists are also essential for the development of the specialized ones.

2.1. General English word lists

Although there are numerous word lists of general English vocabulary, the most influential one to start with is West's General Service List (GSL), comprised of 2,000 word families (headwords with all their inflected and derived forms). The list was obtained from a 5-million word corpus as early as in 1953 and, for now, it still remains the most used word list in this kind of research.

A special contribution to the creation of general English word lists was given by Paul Nation, who derived as many as 25 word lists (available at http://www.victoria.ac.ny/lals/about/staff/paul-nation) from the British National Corpus (BNC, available at http://www.comp.lancs.ac.uk/ucrel/bncfreq/flists.html) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA, available at http://corpus.byu.edu/coca). This combined corpus comprises 450 million words, obtained from 90% written and 10% spoken texts. Each of the derived word lists contains 1,000 word families and they together provide a good base of common vocabulary, but are also useful for the creation of specific vocabularies. Nation also made four additional lists, which respectively include: the most frequent proper nouns, abbreviations, marginal words and transparent compounds (those written without a hyphen).

Although general service lists are expected to cover a great deal of a written text (78%-98% (Nation and Waring: 1997, Coxhead: 2000, Nation: 2013)), they are not sufficient for an adequate understanding of an academic text or a text related to some narrow professional field. In order to understand a written text, one would have to know 95% (Laufer: 1992) to 98% (Nation: 2000) of its words, or 95% of the words found in the target speech (Coxhead: 2018; Van Zeeland and Schmitt: 2013). For this reason, there are more and more lists of specialized vocabulary, developed in order to make this goal reachable with a most reasonable and efficient learning effort.

2.2. Academic word list

Once a learner masters the first 2,000-3,000 general (most frequent) English words, the learning should be oriented towards more specific areas, depending on the learner's needs and goals (Nation: 2000). The next recommended step would be the learning of a specialized vocabulary common to several professional areas, such as academic vocabulary, especially for non-native speakers intending to undergo studies and do research in English. Academic vocabulary would this way serve as a link between general and professional English.

The most influential and widely used academic word list is that of Averil Coxhead, which was created in 2000 and comprises 570 word families. It covers around 10% of academic texts of various scientific disciplines outisde the first 2,000 general English words (Coxhead: 2000).

The Academic Word List (AWL) has been validated in a series of studies on text coverage (Hirsh and Nation: 1992; Hwang: 1989; Coxhead: 1998; Nation: 2000), which showed that the list of the most frequent 2,000 words and the AWL cover approximately 86.1% of academic texts, compared to 76.1% without the AWL, while with adding another 1,000 of the most frequent general words instead of the AWL raised this percentage 'only' 4.3% higher (Coxhead, 2000: 222).

Despite the fact that newer academic word lists have been developed since, the Coxhead's AWL is still the most frequently used one in the comparative research of the lexical profiling kind, employed most frequently together with West's GSL, which it was derived upon. For this reason, we use them together in this study as well.

2.3. ESP word lists

Specialized word lists can cover a wider scientific area or several professional fields (e.g. Kwary and Artha: 2017) or a very narrow professional subfields or crafts (e.g. Chung and Nation: 2003; Yang: 2015; Coxhead: 2018). Their coverage depends on how they were built – some of them were built 'from scratch', i.e. without pre-excluding any general words, whereas others have been derived by first eliminating the words belonging to the most general vocabulary and sometimes the academic vocabulary as well. The choice of the method of deriving them depends on learner's needs, i.e. on how well they know general (and academic) vocabulary.

In this paper, we test the coverage of two general English word lists (the GSL and Nation's lists), the AWL as a semi specialized word list, as well as two highly specialized, i.e. technical word lists – the engineering word lists derived by Hsu (2014) and Ward (2009), on the example of a corpus belonging to a very specialized area of engineering – marine engineering.

3. METHODOLOGY AND CORPUS

The method used for this type of linguistic analysis and research is called Lexical Frequency Profiling (Laufer and Nation: 1995), which provides the measurement of vocabulary levels in a certain type of text. The most updated and recommended software used for this purpose is AntWordProfiler 1.4.0w developed by Laurence Anthony (2014), as an upgraded version of the previously used RANGE programme (Nation and Heatley: 1994).

An additional programme – Familizer+Lemmatizer (Cobb: 2018) is used to expand the word lists available in the form of just the headwords into an all-member format, so that they can be used by the software for the lexical profiling of the text.

For our corpus, we used the texts of instruction books and manuals from a container ship, as one of the most frequent types of vessels in maritime transport of today. The texts were collected and selected with the assistance of the professionals from the area, so that they would include the most representative and contemporary manuals and instruction books for various onboard machinery (main engines, generators, separators, boilers, pumps and various other plants and devices) of significance for some of the most frequently employed ocean-going vessels for carrying containers. As such, they are essential for familiarizing marine engineers with the ship's engine room and machinery, its maintenance and repair. Therefore, their proper reading comprehension is of utmost importance to every competent and responsible engineer onboard. On the other hand, as a highly-technical genre of English for marine engineering purposes, it makes a perfect example for presenting the various types of vocabulary: general, academic, but also various levels of (more or less) technical vocabulary.

To prepare the corpus and convert it into plain text format, we used AntFileConverter (Anthony: 2017), after which we additionally 'cleaned' the text from tables, lists, references and conversion errors, in order to make it as 'clean', i.e. as accurate as possible. These efforts can often be very demanding and time-consuming, but are still very important for the precision of the results obtained (Nation: 2016). The resulting corpus used in this study counts 467,440 running words (tokens) from 22 technical electronic (mostly scanned) files.

4. RESULTS

The first step in lexically profiling our marine engineering corpus was examining the amount of general English vocabulary and academic vocabulary in it, by calculating the coverages of West's GSL and Coxhead's AWL. These two word lists have been used (together) in many studies conducted to date, so we tested our corpus against them for comparative reasons.

Table 1 Coverage of GSL and AWL in container ship's instruction books and manuals

Word lists	Tokens	Coverage (%)
GSL	332,718	71.18
AWL	36,319	7.77
-	98,403	21.05
Total	467,440	100.00

As can be seen from Table 1 and as it could have been expected bearing in mind the extremely technical nature of the corpus, the general vocabulary (as per the GSL) amounts to 71.18% of the words used in the corpus, which is below the usual coverages of 78%-98% reported for various types of written texts (e.g. Nation and Waring, 1997). However, the coverage obtained here fits within the commonly reported range of 70%-71.9% reported for various academic texts (Coxhead: 2000). These results are understandable as the texts examined are meant to be used by educated and trained professionals such as marine engineering officers.

The AWL's coverage, however, is lower (7.77%) than the average of around 10% for for most academic texts (Coxhead, 2000).

The results obtained also show that 21.05% of the words remain outside the first 2,000 English words and the list of academic words, i.e. every fifth word of our corpus would be unknown to a reader knowing just the frequent general and academic words, which would make the reading/understanding of the texts very difficult for them.

We also tested the corpus against Nation's word lists, as another (and more contemporary) source of general English vocabulary.

Table 2 Coverage of BNC/COCA lists in the corpus

BNC/COCA word lists	Coverage (%)
2,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	77.26
3,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	85.52
4,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	88.28
5,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	90.47
6,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	91.29
7,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	92.04
8,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	92.65
9,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	93.03
10,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	93.40
11,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	93.57
12,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	93.89
25,000 + proper n., abbrev., marginal words and t. compounds	94.65

This step in the analysis confirms the lexical demand of highly technical ESP texts such as those belonging to our corpus. We can see that the coverage of 95% is not reached even with all the available 25,000 English words (25+4 BNC/COCA lists), not to mention the ideal threshold of 98%, reaching which would be a hardly attainable goal even for a native speaker.

These results clearly call for and justify the creation of specific, technical (ESP) word lists, which would reduce the percentage of unknown words to an acceptable minimum (not more than 5%). This has been additionally proved by analyzing the corpus against the available and applicable engineering word lists. Starting with basic English words, through academic vocabulary, such lists could be the next link towards more specialized lexical areas.

From all the available engineering word lists (Mudraya: 2006; Ward: 2009; Hsu: 2014; Yin et al.: 2013), the two most applicable to our present study were: Ward's word list of basic engineering English (BEEWL) and Hsu's engineering English word list (EEWL).

Taking into account that Ward's target group were students with a rather low proficiency in English, he did not exclude the first 2,000 words from his analysis. Thus, we followed his example for the purpose of comparing our findings with his.

Table 3 Coverage of BEEWL in the corpus of container ship's instruction books and manuals

Word list	Tokens	Coverage (%)
BEEWL (Ward)	64,786	13.86

The coverage of this list in our corpus is somewhat lower than that in Ward's corpus comprising 271,000 words from 25 university textbooks (16.4%). Still, it reaches a significant percentage (13.86%), which could recommend it for improving the vocabulary knowledge in marine engineering students, but only as an aid or a basis which needs to be upgraded with specific technical vocabulary for this special field, i.e. a more specific word list.

The other relevant word list for engineering would be the Hsu's list (2014), here used with the first 2,000 English words since it was derived that way (meaning that there are no overlaps between the two).

Table 4. Coverage of EEWL in the corpus of container ship's instruction books and manuals

Word list	Tokens	Coverage (%)
BNC/COCA 2,000	340,968	72.92
EEWL (Hsu)	41,108	10.08
Total	398,076	83.00

As we can see from Table 4, the coverage of Hsu's list in our corpus is 10.08%, which is significantly below its coverage in Hsu's corpus of textbooks from 20 engineering fields (14.3%), including marine engineering. This, again, does not come as a surprise, bearing in mind that textbooks are more narrative in nature than technical manuals and instruction books, and that the latter are used not by students (at least not on a regular basis) but by active professionals. In favour of this speaks one of Hsu's findings (2014) which points to the fact that marine engineering and biochemistry are, vocabulary-wise, the most demanding engineering areas.

5. CONCLUSION

Our intention in this paper was to show the relationship between general English and ESP on the example of word lists, by employing one of the most contemporary methods of lexical research – that of lexical profiling. Thanks to the modern software solutions used today in linguistic research, we were able to provide a detailed and accurate lexical profile of our target corpus – a carefully selected, highly technical material of great relevance in English for marine engineering purposes, specifically related to container ships as one of the most frequently vessels employed by the modern shipping industry.

This kind of material enabled us to calculate the presence of various levels of vocabulary, from general, through academic, to various areas and levels of engineering vocabulary, using the resources available for this kind of research based on the corpus linguistics methodology. The results point to the need for knowing the basic English vocabulary (e.g. first 2,000 (most frequent) English words), the advantage of learning the basic academic vocabulary (AWL), and how useful the existing general engineering word lists (Ward's BEEWL and Hsu's EEWL) are when applied to a specific engineering field (marine engineering for container ships). Furthermore, the results clearly call for the creation of a specific marine engineering word list, which one of the authors of this paper is already working on.

In addition to showing the practical usefulness and the need for specialized word lists for each ESP or any of its subfields, by the way they are created and the process of gradual learning/teaching itself, the results presented here point to a tight intertwining

and interdependence of all vocabulary levels of English, from the most basic to the most technical ones. Moreover, they also reflect the importance and advantage of sharing the results and findings among the researchers, to the benefit of all.

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POST BREXIT DYNAMICS IN EU: A POLITICAL BODY NURTURED AND RETAINED ALIVE BY THE ESP CAPILLARIES IN EDUCATION

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Abstract. *Post Brexit European scenario has triggered speculative thoughts to linguists concerned with language policy in the European Union. Contrary to the belief that no Brits, no further ascendancy of English in the EU territory, there is indisputable and abundant evidence demonstrating that English will retain its status as the dominant formal and informal language among EU (and prospective) members. In our study, we argue that the sustainable and irreplaceable supremacy of English is precisely linked to its effective usage for specific purposes. We examine mainly the case of the English Medium Instruction (EMI) in higher education in EU countries shedding light on the crucial role of the ESP within EMI to further internationalization and standardization of university teaching and research within the EU zone, and its future acceding members. We also analyze indispensable role of the ESP in conducting Erasmus+ Staff and Student Mobility Exchange programs of specific majors of study as a catalyst to equal promotion and dissemination of technological and scientific innovation. We believe that the ESP is being the tool to guaranteeing economic and scientific synergy and socio-educational coherence among all EU countries.*

Key words: *Post Brexit English, English Medium Instruction, ESP, EU*

1. INTRODUCTION

This study examines the status of English language in the post Brexit EU where English was left as a language without an influential official 'owner'. Unlike what some sceptics were anticipating of a decline of the English language formal and informal status in the EU, this research will argue against such sceptic attitudes through a persuasive rationale. We show that English will continue to reign. Moreover, we argue that beyond the ongoing predominance of the General English stands exactly the usage of English for Specific Purposes in the political, economic, socio-educational living processes of the EU, and as such, guarantees the multi-dimensional coherence to this political unit. We put two explicit questions to guide our analysis:

- Is there a negative impact on the status of English after UK withdrawal?
- How is English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) making a great contribution to strong establishment of ESP in the multilingual Europe?

The first seems much of a cliché question, yet it conveys significance for our original argument. By deciphering the constant supremacy of General English (GE), we prove that it stands exactly for the ESP due to the specific flexibility and agility that ESP gives to adaptations for specific needs in the EU rather than the conservative GE mainstream. Particularly, in the multilingual zone of an artificial political sovereignty pulled to Brussels bureaucracy at *quasi* federal state level, the ESP communicative potential to fulfil specific needs, services and tasks is functioning as the tangible instrumental channel to connect and liaison coherently the multilingual EU. Specifically, the ESP programs are built in compatibility with the general terms of social competence as defined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages "social skills refer to intercultural awareness, existential competence, sociolinguistic competences, politeness conventions, register difference and functional competence" (A. Stefanowicz-Kocol & M. Pociask, 2017).

2. METHOD

We utilize textual analysis as a research method aiming to describe the content, the structure, and functions of the message contained in texts. Literature shows that there are four approaches to textual analysis: rhetorical criticism, content analysis, interaction analysis, and performance studies (L. Frey, C. Botan & G. Kresps, 1999). Specifically, we apply qualitative content analysis of texts such as the EU literature on language policy and other institutional documents; European higher education reports. This is a qualitative research in nature which, as Mason points out "qualitative research has an unrivalled capacity to constitute compelling arguments about how things work in particular contexts…is capable of producing well-founded cross- contextual generalities" (Mason, 2002). Some of the literature to be referred to in this analysis is comprised of the EU literature on language policy reports, the digital documents of universities in the European Union zone and our observations and experiences as well. Finally, we bring a comparative analysis referring to recent data findings on status of English in post Brexit EU.

2.1. Outline

First, we depict a chronicle of the current situation of the English language in the EU as a follow up of scholarly and political debates about the effect of Brexit onto the language policy in the EU. Then, we locate the EMI in the EU by ***making a point that EMI stands literally for ESP***. Next, we make our analytical case that EMI implies exactly English for Specific Purposes by reaccentuating theoretical interpretations to practical illustrations. Finally, we discuss the detailed findings to highlight the prevalent dominance of the ESP in the post Brexit EU.

3. POST–BREXIT LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE IN THE EU

Most recently, English enjoys its status as an official language in the EU due to a decision taken by the Republic of Ireland guaranteeing that English would not cease to be an official language even after the British withdrawal, given that the Republic of Ireland

was a member of the Council of Ministers of EU to vote in its favor (European Commission, 2016). However, the *Guardian* cites that excluding the British native speaking population, there is an increasingly growing 38% of the EU population who speaks English as a second language hence, turning it the most widely-spoken language in Europe: German takes at around 27%, and French at nearly 24% (Guardian, 2015). Moreover, the well-founded colonial status in Asia, and the usage of English as *a lingua franca* or even considered the World Englishes family, provide good motives for Europeans to communicate only in English for cross-continental communication, rather than in German or in French. Moreover, the proponents of world Englishes theory, believe that English is presented in various acceptable standards rather than a fixed British normative version. For instance, linguists acknowledge the Malaysian English, Indian English, and a multitude of other varieties being developed with their own grammars and norms. These varieties do not result because of speakers learning British English incompletely—their learning of English is aimed at an entirely different target, and English is often one of their native languages (Guardian, 2015).

Experts of translation office in the EU argue on the dramatic impact of English not to be used as a main relay language of translation for enormous documentation of the EU, if it were to be replaced by German or French. It is precisely such necessity for interpreters and translators to have English as the working language that has triggered the consolidation of a coined term for Euro-English and as accrediting the status of lingua franca to Euro-English in the near perspective (Clement, 2019).

British Council researches have concluded with very positive forecasts for the future of English in the post Brexit EU landscape conducting a needs assessment survey in seven EU countries: France, Greece, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Spain (Komorowska, 2018). Among other results, this source ascertains that English will continue to be *the lingua franca* in the European Union. Most importantly, employers will continue to need employees who have high level English skills, including for specific tasks, such as negotiations, solving logistical problems, or presenting a new strategy. According to interviews and data collected from feedback of top management and academic elites in these countries, it was found that adults will need 'top-up' tuition throughout their working life, as they move between different industries and roles. For instance, Barbara Baranska, head of the Polish Bank Association confirmed that "English is the number one language in the business sector" (Baranska, 2018). Similarly, Prof. Komorowska holding the position of the head of Department of Applied Linguistic at the University of the Social Sciences and Humanities in Warsaw, specified that "English is an essential skill for finding a job… There's an expectation to speak English – practically in every institution, be it a chain of restaurants, or the national airport, banks" (Komorowska, 2018).

Moreover, this European survey investigated the European employers' perspectives showing the increasing demand for foreign language communication skills in the EU labor market, peaking with 69% of employers approving of English to be very significant for their organization not only at general English proficiency level but to English for industry/sector specific communication for presentations, negotiations, participation in international conference networking at events (British Council, 2018).

English has not only preserved its official language status, but it enjoys a privileged position among the three working languages of the EU and as such replacing its function in the EU could add up tremendous costs to document translation. Moreover, it has been the most used working language of diplomatic and economic negotiation language for the enlarging block members where it was used as a well-established second language of

communication (Morgan, 2016). Philipson (2018), as a proponent of multilingual EU citizens is critical to the English hegemony. However, despite his historical-political argumentation to have constructed ongoing English hegemony, it is important for our study that he admits the supremacy of English at global and European level. He admits that there is an increasing trend in Europe to emphasize English learning to the detriment of other foreign languages, and even worse to the loss of minority language (Philipson, 2018). To sum up, it is indisputable and incontestable truth even by the opponent of the English linguistic dominance, that the position of English language is extremely well-accommodated in the post- Brexit landscape of Europe and beyond.

4. ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION (EMI) IN THE EU

Ever since the signing of Bologna Process, English language took a special status as the language of instruction of the EU and among other signatories of the Bologna Charter. English language instruction has been turned into a higher education trend for academic recognition and labor skill qualification to match the standards of European market (Munteanu, 2014). This dominance is set to grow dramatically, with 94% of secondary students in Europe learning English as a foreign language (Guardian 2015).

English language is being used as a tool for further acceleration of the internationalization process of higher education institutions precisely in the multilingual European Union landscape. Moreover, regional agencies such as the *Visegrad+* have prioritized projects on improvement of English language teaching competence per tailored scientific disciplines. To illustrate, CLIL-HET project funded by Visegrad Funds, aims at grouping ESP and CLIL experts/specialists to prepare the platform for networking within V4 and Western Balkan (WB) countries to support disciplinary teachers at Higher education institutions (HEIs) to set up English education environment (EEE) (CLIL-HET, 2020). The objectives of the project were set up after a thorough needs analysis that revealed the pressure of Higher Education Institutions to provide courses taught in English to enhance students and teachers/experts mobility within EU or/and in non-EU world to share knowledge, to network and to participate in solving challenges of the current global world. Most HEIs in V4 countries provide study programs for their students in their mother tongues and what is more, in some cases ESP courses for students have been cut or completely cancelled. This might be one of the factors which lead to lower level of mobility than EU expected. To support incoming and outgoing mobility of HEIs in V4 and in WB countries (CLIL-HET, 2020).

Graddol properly anticipates the flourishing future of English language at all societal dimensions, globally and locally, such as the EU higher education usage. He argues that English is the key ingredient of the globalization and internationalization of higher education (Graddol, 2006). At global scale, he perceives English as the main driver to revolving universities from traditionally national to globally ranked for international academic recognition. In the European context, Bologna process agreed among 45 signatories, as early as in 2004 it encouraged and facilitated 1500 Master's programs offered in English even in member countries where it was not a first language (Graddol, 2006).

The current literature exhibits very motivating findings with a distinctive increase of fifty-fold times of the number of undergraduate programs taught in English in Europe. As of September 2017, there were marked more than 14.500 study programs in English instruction. France offers 322 programs at 25 universities in English language. Switzerland offers 324 programs at 15 universities (ICEF Monitor, 2017).
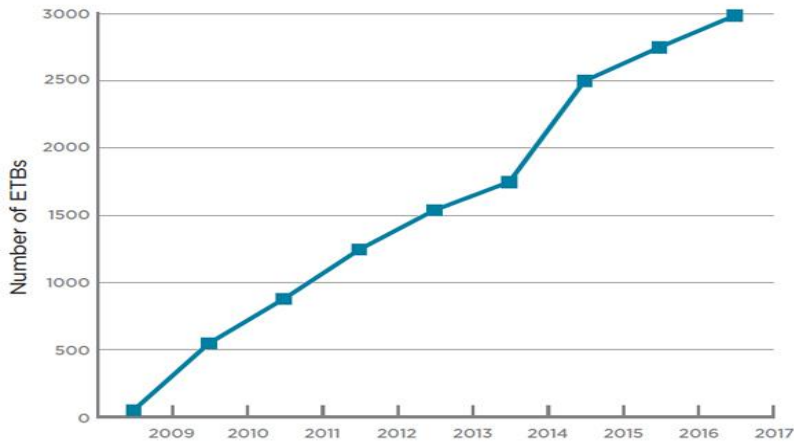
The above graphic shows the growing tendency of English taught degrees in non-English speaking countries enhanced from 500 in 2009 to 3000 undergraduate study programs. This is a significant indicator that English programs keep becoming very popular even at bachelor's level apart from the traditionally international English taught graduate programs for international students' enrollment. Most recent statistics dating year 2020 demonstrate the ongoing upsurge in undergraduate English taught programs in most reputable European universities. For instance, The Netherlands **-** Leiden University, University of Amsterdam, University of Groningen. Germany **-** Universität Leipzig, Universität Heidelberg**,** Freie Universität Berlin; Sweden **-** Stockholm University, Lund University, Royal Institute of Technology; Denmark **-** The University of Southern Denmark, Aalborg University, Aarhus University; Spain **-** Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Universitat de València, Universitat Pompeu Fabra (Study Portal MASTER, 2020).

Philipson explains the upsurge of English in Europe with the ratification of the Bologna declaration. He brings in the case of Nordic countries privileging English to the same degree as their local language. The Bologna process furthers European integration but critically to him, this also intensifies the hegemony of English. Especially, the Nordic universities are moving into bilingual education, combining English with a national language. The 2006 Declaration on a Nordic Language Policy aims at ensuring that Nordic languages and English develop in parallel, that all residents can maintain their languages, and that language policy issues should be widely understood (Philipson, 2018).

4.1. Erasmus Programs English Requirement

Although promotion of language learning and linguistic diversity is the specific objective of the *Erasmus+ Program*, one of the most rewarding reasons why students invest a lot in English language mastery is to boost opportunities of intercultural and educational exchange through participation in foreign exchange program within the domain of higher education (Coleman, 2010). Joint master degrees such the International Master in Security, Intelligence and Strategic Studies is a 24 month Erasmus Mundus

Joint Master Degree bestowed by a consortium of European Universities: University of Glasgow (UK); Dublin City University (Ireland); Charles University in Prague and the University of Trento (Italy); the University of Cadiz (Spain) and the OTH Regensburg in Germany (IMSISS, 2020). With regards to English language requirements, this consortium reconfirms the necessity to demonstrate English language competence to carry out such master studies by extending the validity period of the two renowned international English tests, TOEFL and IELTS. In addition, the vital prerequisite of consolidating high level of English proficiency is emphasized by pre-sessional English and degree level programs with standard English language requirements with the following scores:

115 – direct entry to degree programme
105 – direct entry to degree programme with compulsory in-sessional English support
100 – entry to the 5 week online Pre-Sessional English course
 95 – entry to the 10 week online Pre-Sessional English course

Also, the same source, approves of English entry requirements to be equivalized by any other English degree or postgraduate studies conducted in English at the home country of the applicant (IMSISS, 2020). This current illustration of a prestigious Erasmus programs is one among thousands of Erasmus programs to prioritize the English language proficiency capabilities as the most irreplaceable requirement for entry recognition in such prestigious academic programs.

5. ARGUMENTATIVE DISCUSSION: EMI STANDS FOR ESP

In this part, we argue that English Medium Instruction (EMI) at the three cycles of tertiary education, all the other working tasks of the EU political institutions, and the daily communication among EU citizens, are conducted through ESP communication. One of the most renowned proponents of further English language supremacy is Marko Modiano with his remarkable scientific contribution arguing that the absence of Brits in the Union "will clear the sociolinguistic space for the emergence of an authentic European English, used by the members of the EU as a second language … serving the needs of the European Union as the common link between language for administration and cooperation between member states" (Modiano, 2017). Modiano's argument has been early clarified and strongly advocated by Kachru in his paradigm of Inner Circles (native speaker monomodel) *vis a vis* the Outer Circles varieties of English (nonnative speaker polymodel) (Kachru, 1986).

Our analysis is also founded on the pillars of Kachru's paradigm and Modiano's most recent contextualization of the theory in EU's linguistic dynamics. Kachru's main argument is to reduce the stereotyping of superior white English, thus not feeling the third world English speakers inferior. Modiano's argument is that of denationalized British English being used with the status of a second language in Europe rather than a foreign language in the European context (Modiano, 2017). In his view, the original neutrality of English is likely to help it survive Brexit – and that without the UK's clout in Europe, European English will be free to do what language does best: change (Komorowska, 2018).

We defend the adjustment and survival of English through its usage as a second language rather than a foreign language for the citizens of European continent. Graddol points out the differences between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) highlighting that in the ESP program what gains importance is the role of English in the society that is taught (Graddol, 2006, p. 84). Most interestingly, an early estimation in 2006

embraced the argumentative thesis of Graddol that both EFL and ESL had already paved the path to a new and significant curriculum trend in Europe that of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Contemporary research puts in the spotlight the acquisition and presentation of content in Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) classes aiming to shed light on the importance of learning content in the ICLHE settings (Francesca Costa & Cristina Marioti, 2017). English language training is perceived essential to persistent professional development of international classroom lecturers. Academic staff are expected to deliver insights on the institutional policies and strategies for internationalization of the institution's programs of the study environment. It has been ascertained that given the expanded definition of internationalization of universities in Europe, lecturers, curriculum designers and mentors need to collaborate on a long-term systematic approach instead of the *ad hoc* activities (Lauridsen, 2017).

In other words, English nowadays is being taught and used for functional purposes unlike the classic goal to prepare would-be-linguists or would-be-teachers of English. EU dynamics is going through the same needs and evolvements of the world in the 1960. The latter was a moment where ESP came into existence imposed by the identified linguistic needs for tailored English communication for occupational and specific activities (Strevens, 1988). Needs analysis also referred to as needs assessment has been defined by Basturkmen as "the identification of difficulties and standard situations by observation of participants functioning in a target situation in conjunction with interviews and questionnaires" (Basturkmen, 2008). It is precisely the needs analysis the main distinctive pillar of the ESP courses as compared to standard ELT (John, Tonny Duddley-Evans & M. St., 1998)

Similarly, we argue that the contemporary reasons why adult European citizens use and need English for real professional and educational targets, provides enough data on the curriculum shift from GE to ESP after such a needs assessment by the EU citizens itself. The Institute of Research Studies about the Anglophone World (Laboratoire d'Etudes et de Recherche sur le Monde Anglophone), reports that there is a growing demand for training in English for non-English leaners triggered by the globalization processes. It argues that the generalization of English language teaching in all professional and academic domains has been increasing the demand for skilled ESP practitioners having very few on offer (Yeught, 2016). This significant finding certifies connivingly the constant need for ESP courses and training and, therefore, it rejects any skepticism about further official and functional usage of English in the EU policy.

5. CONCLUSION

This article examined the linguistic landscape of the post-Brexit EU arguing the ongoing supremacy of the use of English language within it. It was not limited to solely casual roots location of further English language reign among the other EU official languages. Instead, it also argued that English will continue its dominance due to its adjustment and reformation from general English mainstream into English for Specific Purposes mainly in the framework of an extremely expanding English Medium Instruction in the multilingual Europe. The literature from EU institutions provided vast statistical evidence on the augmenting number of English taught programs in the EU zone. Moreover, it proved the growing need for functional tailored communication to perform disciplinary programs in English, as well as the need to perform informal and formal political, economic, and cultural

activities though English language coined as EURO English having gained a very original linguistic identity of its own. We demonstrated that it is precisely such new globalization and integration needs for efficient and relevant communication that explain not only the immunity of English language from the Brits speakers,   but it made the point of the safe and consolidated status of English language as a link to unite the multilingual union rather than drif it apart. We believe that further research in the ESP needs analysis and practical cases of accomplishments within EU will reinforce this finding of the general English communication being replaced by the need for ESP communication as the sole linguistic channel to guarantee a united EU. The forthcoming contributions of the new member states to join the plurilingual EU, and their resolution to offer high quality EMI through reformation of the ESP courses, will shed more light onto future evolutionary processes of the ESP track in the EU.

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ENGLISH FOR STUDENTS OF PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION: DESIGNING A TEXTBOOK

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Abstract. *This paper considers some issues in designing a textbook for students of psychology and students of education enrolled in the same ESP course. These issues include balancing students' objective and subjective learning needs in the selection of real content aimed at developing necessary competences in accordance with the course objectives, as well as selecting carrier content to satisfy the needs and interests of students of both disciplines. An additional challenge involves accommodating learning needs of students with different levels of language proficiency, while also taking into account their evolving specialist knowledge. The paper then looks at the structure and content of the textbook* English for Students of Psychology and Education, *published by the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade.*

Key words: *ESP textbook design, English for psychology, English for education, learner needs, content selection*

1. INTRODUCTION

The textbook *English for Students of Psychology and Education* was produced for first- and second-year students of psychology and education (pedagogy and andragogy) at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade. English courses for students of psychology and students of education fall into the sub-category of English for Specific Purposes – English for the Social Sciences (ESS), which has not received much attention "probably because it is not thought to differ significantly from more traditional humanities-based General English" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 16-18). Consequently, there are few, if any, textbooks on the ELT market catering for the needs of students of these disciplines, particularly when they are enrolled in the same ESP course as is the case at the Faculty of Philosophy, thus necessitating the production of in-house materials/textbooks. The textbook presented in this paper, published in 2017, was produced to meet this need.

The prerequisite for students enrolling in the first-year English course is at least eight years of studying the language during their previous schooling, and their proficiency is therefore expected to be at minimum B1 level; by the end of the second year, students' receptive and productive skills are expected to be at approximately B2+ – C1 level. Yet in reality, their proficiency level on entering university ranges from A2 to C1, occasionally even

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C2. These significant variations in their language ability, together with the fact that the course comprises students of two different social sciences, poses certain challenges and affects syllabus and materials design.

2. SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN DESIGNING TEXTBOOK

Before embarking on materials design and production, it is imperative to consider students' learning needs. At the Faculty of Philosophy, all department curricula include LSP courses in the first two years of study, the objectives of which are 'mastering the structures of general language with some elements of academic language within the different disciplines taught at the Faculty of Philosophy' and 'mastering basic language features of a particular discipline, while acquiring knowledge of more complex syntactic structures and stylistic features of general academic language and academic language of a particular discipline' for the LSP 1 and the LSP 2 courses respectively. It has been established through needs analysis that students' primary LSP need is developing the necessary competences for independent use of academic literature in English in their fields of study. For students of psychology this is indeed an immediate need, since they are expected as early as in the first year to use English-language sources in addition to Serbian-language ones when writing essays, preparing presentations, etc. For education students, on the other hand, this is a delayed, somewhat abstract need, since in the first two years of study they are not yet assigned any reading in English by their department professors. Other possible objective needs of both groups of students include listening to lectures by foreign guest speakers, and, at some point in the future, taking part in research with foreign colleagues and participating in international seminars and conferences. On the other hand, when surveyed about their subjective needs or 'wants', the majority of students cite the need to improve their speaking skills and knowledge of grammar, followed by vocabulary expansion, with reading skills a distant fourth and writing skills rarely mentioned at all.

As can be seen, there is a certain discrepancy between students' objective and subjective needs, which, unless adequately addressed by the lecturer/materials provider, could adversely affect student motivation. In view of this, the focus of the textbook has been placed on reading skills and vocabulary work in accordance with their immediate objective needs, while ensuring plenty of material and opportunities for the development of speaking skills and grammar practice; there is less emphasis on writing skills, which are lower on the list of both their immediate target needs and their wants.

Taking into account the fact that the course had to be designed for students with different specialist interests and whose language proficiency varies considerably, and in an attempt to balance students' needs and wants, the adopted approach to course design was one that falls somewhere in the middle of the continuum of course specificity, between the narrow-angled and the wide-angled course design options, i.e. geared towards the needs of a fairly specific group of learners but at the same time not highly specific in content (Basturkmen 2010: 55-59). This has also influenced the choice of topics covered in the course. Namely, as students from different disciplines are enrolled in the course, there was a need for the topics to be broader-based so as to be able to be approached from the perspective of these different disciplines (Jordan 1997: 254). Another reason for topics to be more broadly conceived rather than very specific is, once again, the important question of motivation. The piloting of different materials has borne out Dudley-Evans and St

John's (1998: 10) observation that "students who are studying English because it is on the timetable of their institution [...] may be demotivated by more specific work and may be more motivated by ESP work that falls more towards the centre of the continuum' of ELT course types. The choice of topics and texts in the textbook thus represents an attempt to balance students' needs and interests, and to 'offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners' experience and knowledge" (ibid., 172); or, in other words, to provide relevant real content through relatable carrier content that will ensure students, regardless of their field of study, language level or interests, are actively engaged.

The textbook *English for Students of Psychology and Education* consists of six parts or thematic modules: The Family, Siblings, Schoolchildren, Gender Differences, The Teachers' Perspective and Survey Research, each comprising from three to five units. There is a progression in the sense that topics are graded from the more general to the more specific. 'The Family' is the first thematic module in the textbook because of its universal interest and relatability, allowing students, who are just starting their first year of studies and whose subject knowledge is still quite limited, to engage with the topic in a meaningful way, facilitating the transition from the general English they encountered in their previous schooling to academic English. Similarly, the topic of 'Schoolchildren' (which also covers adolescents and school) is introduced in the first half of the book (for first-year students), as it mostly relies on students drawing on their personal experience with education in their approach to the material, while 'The Teachers' Perspective', which invites students to consider education from the point of view of educators/as future practitioners in the field of education, is featured in the second half of the book (for second-year students). Admittedly, there are more units dealing with issues of education, because experience has shown that it is easier for psychology students to engage with such content than for education students to engage with highly specialized content from the field of psychology. Yet even in thematic modules which are more education-focused, issues of interest to psychology students are introduced, such as mental health issues of schoolchildren and adolescents, behavioral problems in the classroom, career counselling, etc. In addition, individual units can be expanded with supplementary materials related to the subject, posted on Moodle, Google Classroom or other platforms. Thus, to give just two examples, a unit about the adverse effects of high-stakes testing on schoolchildren's mental health can be supplemented with materials on types of assessment in education, school anxiety in children, or the effects of stress on the mental well-being of children and adults; a unit dealing with the role of school and the effects of school transition on the lives of adolescents can be supplemented with texts on identity formation in adolescence or the development of achievement attributions in childhood and adolescence (relevant for both psychology and education students). As these additional texts can be given as reading assignments to be completed between classes, they can be longer than the texts used in class, where constraints such as time available and students' attention span place limits on the length of the reading material that can be covered.

3. UNIT STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

The units have a recognizable pattern, but care was taken to avoid the "assembly line approach" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 107), where units are of uniform structure and length, each with the same type and number of exercises. The emphasis is on variety in

terms of both type and number of exercises, which are divided into sections. At the core of each unit is a text, accompanied by pre- and post- reading activities. Each unit also includes a vocabulary and language use section with a varying number of exercises, as well as one or more of the following sections: grammar, cohesion, function, writing task and gapped text.

The length of the texts varies between 500 and 900 words, their length and the complexity of language and content gradually increasing throughout the textbook. The texts have been taken from different types of sources: university textbooks, academic books and papers, handbooks for professionals in the relevant fields, online editions of newspapers, and websites. Due to their length, book chapters and academic papers could not be reproduced in the textbook in their entirety, so excerpts were used instead; nevertheless, care was taken to ensure these excerpts had a coherent rhetorical structure and represented meaningful wholes, allowing students to identify the author's purpose and main idea and lending themselves to analysis and summarizing. Indeed, one of the important considerations in selecting texts was the possibility of their being shortened/abridged (and slightly adapted if necessary) without impairing their rhetorical structure.

The reasons for the inclusion in the textbook of academic types of text as carrier content are self-evident, but since it could be argued that newspaper prose is not immediately related to students' target situation needs, i.e. reading texts in their subject areas, it might be worth explaining why several articles from The Guardian have been included as well. The most important reason is their topicality and interest, as they provide insight into contemporary educational and mental health issues in Britain, at the same time introducing students to culture-specific concepts and vocabulary. Moreover, students are introduced to a reliable source of information on current educational and other social issues in Britain that in the future they may wish to access on their own. Articles also provide an opportunity for communicative activities such as analyzing and discussing writer's stance and the way and the order in which information, including quoted content, is presented, and their overall effectiveness. Also, since newspaper headlines tend to be catchier than the titles of book chapters or journal papers, as a pre-reading activity students can be asked to speculate on what information the article may contain based on the headline, and as a post-reading activity they can be asked to discuss the effectiveness of the original headline, as well as to come up with alternative ones. Finally, contrasting the genres of academic texts and newspaper articles can help highlight the specific features of each genre.

The texts serve as the basis for communicative activities aimed at developing students' speaking skills. Texts are preceded by pre-reading questions, and followed by reading comprehension questions as well as follow-up questions and prompts for discussion. The pre-reading questions serve to introduce the topic and arouse students' interest, and are designed so that every student regardless of their proficiency level is able to contribute their world knowledge and views on the topic to the discussion. Reading comprehension questions, although given after the text, can also be read beforehand, to guide students in their reading. Discussion questions and prompts aim to broaden the scope of the topic while eliciting some of the vocabulary and structures found in the text. What seems to work best regarding both pre-reading and discussion activities is if students are first asked to discuss each question in pairs or small groups before sharing their ideas with the whole class, which allows for thinking time and an exchange of views in a more relaxed setting, thus increasing the activity's communicative potential. Also, in multilevel classes, this provides students who are less confident about their speaking skills with an

opportunity to rehearse what they might like to say when they join the whole-class discussion of the questions, and also to receive assistance from fellow students or the teacher. Other text-related activities that are not explicitly referenced in the book but are regularly practiced in class include skim reading the text in order to identify the main points, giving an oral or written summary of the text, and translating more difficult passages in order to improve accuracy of comprehension and to draw attention to certain L2 structures through comparison and contrast with L1. The gapped texts that wrap up some of the units are on the same or a closely related topic as the main text and provide an additional opportunity to practice/recycle and expand topic-related vocabulary.

In line with the previously mentioned level of specificity of the course, the vocabulary covered in the textbook is for the most part general academic and semi-technical vocabulary (highly technical or specialist vocabulary being arguably a less salient feature of the language of the social sciences than of many other fields), seeking to meet the selection criteria of frequency, utility and range (de Chazal 2014: 114), and to be relevant to the needs of both groups of students. The first activity in the 'Vocabulary and Language Use' sections, 'New Vocabulary', requires students to find the words and phrases in the text that match the given definitions, as in the following excerpt from one of the texts and part of the accompanying exercise:

A child's position in the family – that is, first-born or a later-born child – can affect siblings, parents and the interactions among all family members as well as the child. Each child's experience and temperament is different, but the experience of the first-born child is unique because, at least for some period of time, a first-born child is the sole focus of parental attention. First-born children are generally more adult-orientated, helpful and self-controlled than their siblings; they also tend to be more studious, conscientious and serious, and to excel in academic and professional achievement.

Find the words in the text that correspond to the following meanings:

1. *only, single (used only before a noun)* _____
2. *spending a lot of time studying or reading* _____
3. *taking care to do things carefully and correctly* _____
4. *to be very good at doing something* _____
5. *something done successfully, esp. using one's effort and skill* _____

These definitions have the same form as those found in English advanced learner's dictionaries as they are fairly easy to understand at all levels and often provide more nuance than L1 equivalents of a word or phrase. Indeed, an important concern in any ESP course should be the development of students' dictionary skills, which are necessary if they are to become independent learners, particularly if, as in this case, their primary target need is reading academic texts. This can be achieved by helping students familiarize themselves with the various types of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, by giving them the opportunity early on in the course to study the structure and content of entries in advanced learner's dictionaries in order to understand and make use of all the information provided, and by encouraging them to independently use online dictionary resources. Experience has shown that some aspects of dictionary use require particular attention. For example, our analyses of student L2 -> L1 translations produced in class with recourse to a dictionary suggest that a number of students tend to struggle when, on looking up a polysemous word, they have to choose the most appropriate of several meanings. The

'Word in Focus' exercises included in some of the units seek to help students become aware of polysemy and practice choosing the right definition based on the context in which the word occurs. After completing the matching exercise, students are asked to translate the sentences into L1 and find the appropriate L1 equivalent for each of the different meanings of the given word.

Word in focus: *range*

Write the number of each example next to the corresponding definition.
1. *They have welcomed what appears to be an increasing _range_ of choice for individuals.**
2. *Estimates of the damage _range_ from £5,000 to £7,500.*
3. *Adults have a _range_ of different motivations for selecting a course.*
4. *John has had a number of jobs, _ranging_ from hairdresser to ski instructor.*
5. *The _range_ of human hearing is roughly 20 Hz – 20 kHz.*
6. *We are going to present our new _range_ of organic hair care products.*
7. *These mental health problems _range_ from depression to eating disorders.*
8. *Most of the students are in the 19-22 age _range_.*

[*The first example sentence is always from the main text in the unit]

a. (noun) a number of different things of a particular type   ____
b. (noun) the limits between which something varies   ____
c. (noun) a set of products of a particular type   ____
d. (verb) to vary between two particular amounts, sizes, etc.   ____
e. (verb) to include a variety of different things in addition to those mentioned   ____

Another area given significant attention in the book are word families. The first part of the 'Word Families' exercise is a table of word families containing words that occur in the text, and students have to complete the missing word forms by looking them up in paper or online dictionaries. Students are then given the opportunity to practice these vocabulary items in a follow-up exercise (due to space constraints, the exercises from the textbook reproduced in this paper have been abbreviated).

Word families
Complete each sentence with the appropriate word from the same word family as the one given in brackets.

1. *During the argument I remained quite calm, which seemed to _____ her even more. (angry)*
2. *Encoding, storage and _____ are the three stages involved in remembering information. (to retrieve)*
3. *_____ is the essence of good design. (simple)*
4. *Parents with an authoritarian parenting style expect a high degree of _____ from their children. (to comply)*
5. *Non-_____ behavior can be a challenge for parents and caregivers of children with autism. (to comply)*

The follow-up exercise can also take a slightly more challenging form of sentence rephrasing using words of a different word class from the same word family, which also entails making certain changes, thus providing students with the opportunity to practice certain collocations, the use of prepositions, transformations of adjective+noun structures into adverb + verb structures or vice versa, etc.

Rephrase each sentence replacing the underlined word with a different part of speech from the same word family and making any other necessary changes to the structure of the sentence.

Example: *May I suggest something? (noun) → May I make a suggestion?*

1. *Let's not assume anything before we know all the facts. (noun)*
2. *Modern physiology is based on Bernard's work. (noun)*
3. *In order to survive, animals need to be able to adapt easily. (adjective)*
4. *Sales have slightly increased over the last three months. (noun)*
5. *People who suffer from depression may benefit from physical exercise. (adjective)*

'The Vocabulary and Language Use' sections also include word formation exercises, exercises for synonyms and antonyms, easily confused words, lexical groups, collocations and prepositions. These sections also look at elements of academic writing such as hedging, abbreviations, sentence connectors and reporting verbs. Some abbreviated sample exercises from different units are given below:

Word formation: compound adjectives with the form ***noun + past participle***

1. The past participle *related* can combine with nouns to form adjectives that describe what something is connected with:
   a. *unprecedented levels of school-related anxiety, stress and mental health problems among pupils*
   b. *big increases in school- and education-related issues*

2. Some other past participles can also combine with nouns to form adjectives:
   goal-directed aggression, community-supported agriculture, taxpayer-funded infrastructure projects, an employer-sponsored pension plan, a problem-centered approach, etc.

Rephrase the following phrases using noun + past participle compound adjectives:

1. *a curriculum that is centered on the learner – _____*
2. *research centers funded by the government – _____*
3. *an illness that is related to stress – _____*
4. *training programs that are sponsored by the state – _____*
5. *learning that is directed towards a goal – _____*
6. *differences in performance that are related to age – _____*

Synonyms

A. Write the adjectives in the box next to synonymous adjectives below:

enormous – vast – small – considerable – huge – substantial – modest – massive

a slight / _____ / _____ increase etc.
a significant / _____ / _____ increase etc.
a tremendous /_____ /_____ /_____ / _____ increase etc.

B. Rephrasing. Fill in the table:

adverb + verb / verb + adverb	adjective + noun
X has gradually declined	
	there has been a steady increase in X
X has dropped slightly	
	there has been a significant rise in X
X has substantially decreased	

Collocations. Write the nouns from the box next to the verbs they collocate with:

progress – a problem – therapy – a task

1 to address / to deal with / to work through / to solve   _____
2 to set / to assign / to get on with / to complete   _____
3 to make / to achieve   _____
4 to have / to go into / to receive / to undergo   _____

'The Grammar' sections provide explanations and practice of structures that represent the "real content" of the texts in terms of grammar, so that "the relationship between meaning and form can be taught or revised in context through analysis and explanation" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 75). The aim is to help students revise and build upon the knowledge of grammar they acquired at school. Thus, in large part, the grammar covered in the textbook represents a revision of structures that students are already familiar with, yet which in practice they tend to have incomplete control of, especially those whose proficiency level is below B2. These structures include verb tenses, the passive voice, the sequence of tenses, modal verbs, conditionals, comparative forms, relative pronouns and relative clauses, verb patterns with the gerund and the infinitive, etc., (in the case of verb tenses the emphasis is not so much on a thorough revision of their forms and all their possible uses as on analyzing the use of tenses in the context of the carrier texts, that is, in examples of academic writing). The fairly 'basic' area of the plural of nouns, for example, is also revisited, but only insofar as it relates to their academic needs, specifically focusing on the plural form of nouns of Greek and Latin origin. Areas that have been given particular attention are those relevant to academic writing, notably passive structures and certain types of clauses. Here are two sample exercises:

Participle clauses: reduced (shortened) relative clauses

A. Underline the participle clauses in the sentences below and then replace them with full relative clauses, as in the following examples:

a. *A recent study* _based on a large sample survey_ *found that one-third of adults live within 15 minutes' travel time of their mother.*
→ *...* _which/that was based on_ *...*
b. They conducted a study comparing attitudes to play in three different cultures.
→ … _which/that compared_ attitudes to play …

1. Teenage dating violence is essentially aggressive behaviour inflicted by a girlfriend or boyfriend in the context of an intimate relationship.
2. The researchers deliberately oversampled children living in homes in areas particularly vulnerable to violence.

3. Overall, about two-thirds of households approached completed the interviews.
4. For violence involving injury, it was found that female victims were twice as common as male victims.
5. Psychologists working with professionals from other disciplines will note the relative infrequency of survey research in psychology.

B. Underline the relative clauses in the following sentences and then reduce them to participle clauses.

1. The children were followed up by a clinically trained research team member who was skilled in telephone crisis counselling.
2. Most psychological research is based on convenience samples which are not selected randomly and which often consist of students.
3. It is important to understand what the basis is for selecting a sample which is designed to be representative of a population.
4. Researchers who adopt a qualitative perspective seek insight rather than statistical analysis.
5. They are studying mental disorders that co-occur with drug abuse.

Sentences with double comparatives: *the + [comparative form] …, the + [comparative form] …*

Study the example from the text in which a double comparative (*the + [comparative form] …, the + [comparative form] …*) is used:

The larger the family, the greater the number of relationships there is for a child to experience.

This type of sentence with two comparative forms (adjectives, adverbs, or quantifiers) is used to say that changes in the degree of something, or changes in a particular situation, bring about changes in another thing or situation.

The word order in the two clauses is:

The + comparative form + subject + verb, the + comparative form + subject + verb

Note: When *to be* is the main verb in a clause, it can be omitted after a comparative form + noun phrase.

Write sentences with coordinated comparatives using the following ideas:

1. more children in family → less individual attention from parents
2. siblings closer in age → more shared experiences
3. smaller age difference → more competition between siblings
4. longer interval between births → parents can give children more individual attention
5. child achieves more → parental expectations become greater

The sections on cohesion focus on the use of linking words and phrases to signal textual relationships such as comparison and contrast, cause and effect, contrastive substitution and concession. In the Function sections, the focus is on various communicative functions: agreeing/disagreeing, making a suggestion, arguing for/against a position, comparing/contrasting and discussing causal links, which are practiced through speaking and writing tasks.

COHESION: concession

A. Study the way that concessive meaning is signalled in the following sentences:

a. *She had very little work experience. Nevertheless/Nonetheless/Still/However, she got the job.*
b. *She had very little work experience, (and) yet she got the job.*
c. *Although/Even though/Though she had very little work experience, she got the job.*
d. *In spite of/Despite having very little work experience, she got the job.*

B. Link each pair of sentences using different types of concessive links *(yet; (and) yet; nevertheless/nonetheless/still/however; although/even though; in spite of/despite)*:

1. Childhood aggression is difficult to treat. Some intervention programs that include traditional behavior management practices have been successful.
2. A lot of teachers work up to 50 hours during the week. They often don't manage to finish their marking and have to do it over the weekend.
3. There are many differences between the US and UK higher education systems. Both provide an excellent environment for learning.
4. There have been critical reports about schools over the years. Most citizens continue to support schools and express their faith in education.

FUNCTION: speculating about causal links

Cause-and-effect relationships can be expressed by using conjunctions (*because*, *since*, etc.), verbs (*to cause*, *to lead* to, *to result* in, *to result* from, *to be linked* to, etc.), nouns (to be the *cause/consequence/result* of, etc.), adjectives (to be *responsible* for, to be *due* to, etc.) or connective adverbs and adverbial phrases (*therefore*, *consequently*, *as a result*, etc.)

Study the following examples from the text:

1. *Low achievement at tests or exams is resulting in low motivation and low self-esteem.*
2. *The problems are caused by increased pressure from tests/exams, [children's] greater awareness at younger ages of their own 'failure', and the increased rigour and academic demands of the curriculum.*
3. *The increase in diagnosis of ADHD (attention deficit hyperactive disorder) has been shown to be linked to the increase in high-stakes testing.*

Write sentences about the possible causes of and contributing factors to: (a) anorexia, (b) self-harming, (c) social anxiety in teenagers, (d) increasing obesity among children using the following words and phrases (don't forget to use hedges where necessary):

- to lead to, to result in, to be responsible for
- to be related to, to be linked to, to be associated with
- to be due to, to result from, to arise from, to stem from, to be caused by
- to contribute to
- to affect, to have an impact on, to be a factor in
- to account for
- to be a/the cause of, to be the origin of
- to be a/the result of, to be a/the consequence of
- as a result, as a consequence, consequently
- therefore, for this/that reason

4. Conclusion

The textbook *English for Students of Psychology and Education* has been created as the core material for a two-year ESP course for students of these two fields. It is meant to be used in conjunction with other language materials, notably audio-visual materials and additional texts, and supplemented by various activities such as presentations, communicative group activities, translation activities, and writing tasks, in order to help students master essential academic language of their fields of study.

In designing the textbook, several important considerations had to be taken into account. The fact that the book has been produced to meet the needs of students of two related but distinct disciplines has necessitated an approach that is neither too narrowly specialist nor too broad, with carrier content aiming to be useful and appealing to both groups of students. Another challenge has been to try to accommodate the learning needs of students with different levels of language ability by providing a range of language content of varying complexity and topics that students can engage with regardless of their proficiency level. Finally, and most importantly, the textbook design has sought to strike a balance between students' objective and subjective needs, as well as their interests in order to enable students to develop the necessary competences in accordance with the course objectives and to maintain motivation, which is essential if effective learning is to take place.

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ESP STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION BEFORE AND AFTER CROATIA JOINED THE ERASMUS PROGRAM

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Abstract. *Results of our research study conducted before Croatia joined the Erasmus program in 2010 suggested that the experience of internationalization might affect ESP students' attitudes, learning priorities and motivation. To establish whether generations that participated in academic mobility programs differ from their pre-Erasmus peers, we repeated our original study from 2009: Business and economics students' attitudes to English, L2 motivation and invested effort were measured using the same questionnaire based on sociolinguistic and L2 motivation research rooted in social psychology. The same attitudes and motivation scales were used to compare the two groups. To ensure comparability, the data from the original and the present study were submitted to Coarsened Exact matching, which resulted in two subsets (N=98 each). T-test and correlational analyses revealed significant differences between the two groups, but the findings somewhat disappointed our previous expectations regarding the impact of university internationalization.*

Key words: *EFL attitudes, EFL motivation, international academic mobility, ESP*

1. INTRODUCTION

The status of English as a global language has a significant and well-documented effect on the affective basis of learning English as a foreign language (Gnutzmann, Jakisch, and Rabe 2015; Dörnyei and Ryan 2015; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). What still needs to be researched in more depth is how the status of English affects the attitudes, aims and motivation of ESP learners, and if these are "shaped by the NS centered ideology… or by the strong impulses of today's globalized world." (Csizér and Kontra 2012, p. 2).

To obtain an insight into ESP learners' attitudes and motivation in Croatia, in 2009 we conducted research among business students at the University of Zagreb (Kabalin Borenić 2013, 2019). Amongst others, the research yielded some unanticipated findings:

1. Apparent preference for native English norms and pronunciation models.
2. Presence and effectiveness of integrative motivation.
3. Dual temporal focus and unequal effects of instrumental motives.

It seemed that these findings could be contextualised and explained within the framework of studies that emphasise the importance of first-hand experience with English in international communication (Csizér and Kontra 2012; Yashima 2009), in an authentic

target community (Kim 2009) and with non-native speakers of English during student exchange (Jenkins 2005, 2009; Kimura 2017). These ideas motivated the present study.

At the time of our original research in 2009 (pre-Erasmus group), Croatia was not an Erasmus country and our students had little and sporadic experience with academic and/or professional international communication, including communication with non-native speakers. We could only speculate about the effects of internationalization resulting from academic mobility. Croatia finally joined Erasmus in 2010 and the growing number of outgoing students encouraged us to repeat our original study, compare the results and explore the possible effects of internationalization on students' attitudes to English, learning goals and motivation.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Attitudes to English

English is generally perceived as important for the learners themselves and for their country (Björkman 2015; Gnutzmann, Jakisch, and Rabe 2015). Non-native speakers of English in different professional and educational contexts see it as a tool for global communication used primarily for economic reasons (Tardy 2004; Sinno 2008; Preisler 2003; Erling 2004; Bergroth 2008). It gives social prestige, increases employability, and enables access to information on the global scale. Moreover, the usefulness of English for connecting with the world overrides the more negative aspects of the spread of English: the supposedly adverse effects on local languages and cultures, social inequality arising from the user's non-native status, and the substantial costs related to language learning (Kaylani 1996; Knapp 2002; Erling 2007; Flowerdew 2001; Bergroth 2008; Sinno 2008).

Research on attitudes to varieties of English and learning goals has so far produced inconclusive results. For instance, regardless of the increasing use of English among non-native speakers, several large-scale empirical studies demonstrated that native norms retain a strong influence on teachers and learners alike (Murray 2003; Timmis 2002; Csizér and Kontra 2012), especially in Europe (Muir, Dörnyei, and Adophs, 2019). Other studies, however, revealed that this may be changing in truly international settings (Erling 2007), among younger people (Ranta 2010; Chand 2009), as a result of academic mobility, passage of time (Adolphs 2005; Subtirelu 2013; Kimura 2017), and in relation to gender, field of study and self-described level of perfectionism (Stanojević and Josipović Smojver 2011).

2.1.1. Attitudes of Croatian business students towards English in 2009

Our earlier research (Kabalin Borenić, 2013, 2019) corroborated some of the findings from the literature: Our students perceived English as a welcome shared language rather than a threat to the Croatian language and culture. While most of our respondents expressed a preference for native English models (American English) and a desire to achieve native-like competence, we recorded a mildly positive attitude towards a culturally neutral variety of English. Our respondents also had a relaxed attitude towards the integrity of the national varieties of English. Taken together, the last two findings might signal a possible shift in our students' learning goals, a development already reported among non-English majors in other contexts (Erling 2004; Kontra and Csizér 2011; Stanojević and Josipović Smojver 2011).

2.2. Language Learning Motivation

The macro-perspective of the socio-psychological approach is useful for researching motivational patterns of whole communities (Dörnyei 2005; Sugita McEown et al. 2014). Thus, our interest in the motivation of Croatian business students in the context of globalization led us to focus on generalized and relatively stable motivational variables, i.e. integrativeness (Gardner, 2001) and its reconceptualization by Dörnyei (2005, 2010).

The decades-long domination of the field by integrative motivation ended as English became the primary language for international communication. In the contexts where English is learnt as a foreign language, integrative and instrumental motives merged (Clément and Kruidenier 1983; Noels et al. 2000; Dörnyei 1994; Mihaljević Djigunović 1998; Yashima 2000; Kimura et al. 2001) while the desire for integration with the global community of English speakers became a regular feature (Mihaljević Djigunović 1998; McClelland 2000; Irie 2003; Dörnyei and Csizér 2002; Lamb 2004; Yashima, 2000). Nevertheless, research continues to demonstrate that a latent factor which would traditionally be termed *integrativeness* still plays an important role in language learning success (Dörnyei 2009; Gardner 2012; MacIntyre, MacKinnon, and Clément 2009; Sugita McEown et al. 2014). Using structural equation modelling (SEM), Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) established that instrumentality is a significant and immediate antecedent of integrativeness. In Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (2005), instrumental motives, depending on the level of internalization, characterize both the Ideal and Ought-to L2 Self (Csizér and Dörnyei 2005): internalized instrumental motives have a promotional focus and belong to the Ideal L2 Self while extrinsic instrumental motives are associated with the Ought-to L2 Self and have preventional focus. The literature, moreover, suggests that first-hand, authentic experience of communication with the target community has a reinforcing effect on motivation, possibly through a process of internalization of extrinsic instrumental goals (Kim 2009; Yashima 2009).

2.2.1. EFL Motivation of Croatian business students in 2009

Principal components analysis performed in 2009 established the presence of four motivational dimensions in our original sample: integrative motivation, a demotivator stemming from the hierarchy of respondents' current learning goals and two types of instrumental motivation (Kabalin Borenić 2013, 2019). They were related to two temporal frames of reference: future (benefits for future career, travel, and education) and past/present (experienced benefits and self-confidence). The former, termed Expected benefits, was a typical blend of instrumental and integrative motives, characteristic of settings where English is learned as a foreign language for international communication (Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh 2006; Lamb 2004; Mihaljević Djigunović 1998; Yashima 2000, 2009). Since it also included milieu and vitality of L2 community items and failed to contribute to motivated learning behavior, expected benefits could be likened to the concept of Ought-to-L2 Self. The latter type of instrumental motivation, Experienced benefits, involved positive examples from one's family, personally experienced benefits of using English and self-confidence. Unlike Expected benefits, Experienced benefits was a significant predictor of the invested effort.

3. RESEARCH METHODS

3.1. Participants

Our research design included two matched groups of business students from the Faculty of Economics and Business (FEB), University of Zagreb: Pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups. The pre-Erasmus group was derived from a subsample of 2nd year or older students (N=382) from the pre-Erasmus era who took part in our original study. The post-Erasmus group was derived from the group of 2nd year or older students (N=118) who had spent a semester abroad in a non-native English country and had used English primarily for communication with non-native speakers. Before taking part in the study, the participants had been learning English between 10 and 16 years and had attended at least two semesters of Business English (recommended proficiency level: B2 or higher).

A total of 118 students in the post-Erasmus group completed the questionnaire but a comparison with the subsample from 2009 (N=382) revealed that the post-Erasmus group was significantly better in terms of Business English grades and overall success. Coarsened Exact Matching (CEM) (Iacus, King and Porro 2011) method was employed to match the two samples in terms of size, Business English grades, and overall grade average. The method yielded two matched groups of 98 students each (Table 1).

Table 1 Participants

	Pre-Erasmus group	Post-Erasmus group
N	98	98
Gender	26 males, 72 females	18 males, 77 females, 3 N/A
Age	M = 21.34, SD =1.3; range 20 to 29	M = 23.6, SD =1.62; range 21 to 28
BE1 grade	M = 4.50, SD = 0.72; range 2 to 5	M = 4.50, SD = 0.72; range 2 to 5
BE2 grade	M = 4.44, SD = 0.77; range 2 to 5	M= 4.44, SD = 0.74; range 2 to 5
Grade average	M = 3.67, SD = 0.57; range 2 to 5	M = 4.11, SD = 0.46; range 2 to 5

3.2. Instrument

The same four-part questionnaire in Croatian was used in both groups. The attitudes section was based on the instrument used by Erling (2004, 2007) to establish the sociolinguistic profile of Berlin university students (both English- and non-language majors). It included 20 items dealing with attitudes to language globalization, the spread of English, its causes and consequences, preference for native vs. culturally neutral varieties of English, and respect for national linguistic norms (British or American). The motivation items were adapted from the instrument used by Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh (2006) to explore the effects of language globalization in Hungary, and from Mihaljević-Djigunović's L2 motivation questionnaire (1998) developed for the Croatian context. The questionnaire (36 items) covered eight well-established, generalized aspects of L2 motivation: the integrative dimension, direct contact with native speakers, cultural interest, the affective dimension, instrumental dimension, milieu, vitality of L2 community, and linguistic self-confidence. Both attitudes and motivation items were adapted for self-assessment on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The invested effort scale (11 items) was developed by the author. It used Likert scales ranging from no or very little effort (1) to a lot of effort (5), and measured effort invested in developing competences and skills required

for or taught in the programme (reading comprehension, business writing, business terminology, grammar, fluency, idiomatic language etc.). The average score for self-assessed invested effort served as a criterion measure of motivated behaviour.

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis

The participants completed the questionnaire anonymously and voluntarily after learning about the study and its purpose. Completing the questionnaire took between 15 and 20 minutes. The attitudes and motivation factors from the original study were also used in the present study. The matched data for the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups were submitted to descriptive statistics. T-test was used to compare the differences between the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups. Both groups' data were also submitted to correlation analyses.

4. RESULTS

The results of statistical analyses comparing the findings from the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups are reported in four sections.

4.1. Attitudes towards English in the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups

The principal components analysis of the data obtained in 2009 yielded a four-factor solution explaining 44.5% of the variance: Attitudes factor 1 (AF1)–English as a threat, AF2–English as a shared language, AF3–Desirability of a culturally neutral variety, and AF4–Concern for the integrity of national varieties (Kabalin Borenić, 2013, 2019). The same attitudes scale was employed in the post-Erasmus study and T-test results revealed some expected and some unexpected developments (Table 2).

Table 2 Descriptive statistics and t-test results for the attitudes to English subscale in the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups

	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*T*	*df*	*p*
AF1-English as threat	Pre-Erasmus	98	1.73	.84	1.35	193	.18
	Post- Erasmus	97	1.58	.72			
AF2–English as shared language	Pre-Erasmus	97	3.66	.74	-3.80	188	.00
	Post-Erasmus	93	4.04	.64			
AF3–Pro neutral variety	Pre-Erasmus	98	3.28	.69	.48	191	.64
	Post- Erasmus	95	3.23	.67			
AF4–Integrity of national varieties	Pre-Erasmus	97	3.07	1.20	-2.12	190	.04
	Post-Erasmus	95	3.43	1.12			

In both groups, English was perceived as unthreatening to the Croatian language and culture while the post-Erasmus group had a significantly more positive attitude towards English as a shared language. At the same time, the unchanging mean score for AF3–Desirability of a neutral variety suggests that the post-Erasmus group had not developed a more positive attitude towards non-native English. Furthermore, the significantly higher score for AF4–Integrity of national varieties in the post-Erasmus group suggests that the group with international experience had a significantly greater concern for the integrity of the national varieties of English (e.g. British or American English).

4.2. EFL Motivation in the Pre-Erasmus and Post-Erasmus Groups

The principal components analysis of the data collected in 2009 yielded a four-factor solution explaining 39.15% of the variance. The four non-situation-specific dimensions of motivation were named as follows: Motivation factor 1 (MF1)–Integrative motivation, MF2–Expected benefits for future education and career, MF–3 Demotivating effect of learning English at university, and MF–4 Experienced benefits and self-confidence. The same EFL motivation scale was employed to explore the motivation of students in the post-Erasmus group. T-test results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Descriptive statistics and t-test results for the EFL motivation and invested effort subscales in the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups

	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
MF1 –Integrative	Pre-Erasmus	96	2.82	.58	-1.28	190	.20
	Post-Erasmus	96	2.93	.61			
MF2 – Expected benefits	Pre-Erasmus	97	4.31	.45	-4.54	187	.00
	Post- Erasmus	92	4.58	.37			
MF3 –Demotivator	Pre-Erasmus	96	1.90	.47	1.70	186	.09
	Post-Erasmus	92	1.78	.45			
MF4–Experienced benefits	Pre-Erasmus	98	3.33	.68	-2.32	193	.02
	Post-Erasmus	97	3.55	.64			
Invested effort	Pre-Erasmus	98	3.25	.70	-3.72	189	.00
	Post-Erasmus	93	3.60	.60			

The post-Erasmus group had higher scores for all motivation dimensions but the differences for MF1–Integrative motivation and MF3–Demotivator were not significant. The significantly higher score for MF2–Expected benefits in the post-Erasmus group suggests that participation in the Erasmus program strengthened the expectations that English will be a useful tool for future education and career. Finally, although the difference in the scores for MF4-Experienced benefits was somewhat less significant, the post-Erasmus group had significantly higher levels of motivation stemming from daily usage of English and self-confidence.

4.3. Invested effort in the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups

The significantly higher score for self-assessed invested effort in the post-Erasmus group suggests that participation in the Erasmus program was associated with investing more efforts into learning/using English in formal settings and otherwise (Table 3). T-test analysis of individual effort items revealed that the post-Erasmus group invested significantly more effort into mastering fluent and correct speech, professional and academic writing skills, idiomatic expressions and colloquial style, professional terminology and spelling (listed from highest to lowest score). Interestingly, the post-Erasmus group invested significantly more effort into skills that are relevant to a native-like mastery of the language and its professional use.

4.4. Correlations among Attitudes, EFL Motivation Types and Invested Effort in the Pre-Erasmus and Post-Erasmus Groups

The results of correlational analyses are presented in Table 4 (pre-Erasmus below the diagonal and post-Erasmus above the diagonal). The most indicative findings are briefly compared in the text below. A positive attitude to English as a shared language in the pre-Erasmus group had no correlation with a positive attitude to a culturally neutral variety of English which, in turn, only correlated with the perception of English as a threat (r=.26; p<0.05) and the demotivator identified in our study (r=.62; p<0.01). Also, the perception of English as a threat and the demotivator were moderately negatively correlated (r= -.26 and r= -.45, respectively; p<0.01) with invested effort in the pre-Erasmus group.

While few correlations with attitudinal measures were recorded in the post-Erasmus group, a low positive correlation (r=.27; p<0.05) between the perception of English as a shared language and a concern for the integrity of national varieties appeared only in the post-Erasmus group. As to the motivation variables, Experienced benefits correlated with Integrative motivation (r=.39; p<0.01) and with Expected benefits (r=.29; p<0.01) only in the post-Erasmus group. Finally, the perception of English as a threat and the demotivator had no correlation with invested effort in the post-Erasmus group.

Table 4 Correlations among attitudes, motivation dimensions and invested effort.

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	AF1 – English as threat	-	-.21[*]	.21[*]	-.09	-.03	-.19	.47[*]	-.14	-.04
2	AF2 – Eng. as shared language	-.42[**]	-	.18	.26[*]	.18	.49[**]	-.33[*]	.16	.27[*]
3	AF3 – Pro neutral variety	.26[*]	.03	-	.08	.05	.08	.03	.13	-.07
4	AF4 – Integrity of nat. varieties	.07	.10	.01	-	.07	.12	-.16	-.15	.07
5	MF1 – Integrative	-.08	.40[**]	-.01	-.00	-	.34[**]	-.35[**]	.37[**]	.39[**]
6	MF2 – Expected benefits	-.22[*]	.64[**]	.02	-.07	.52[**]	-	-.64[**]	.38[**]	.29[**]
7	MF3 – Demotivator	.62[**]	-.60[**]	.26[*]	.09	-.32[**]	-.57[**]	-	-.24[*]	-.19
8	MF4 – Experienced benefits	-.12	.19	-.02	.02	.11	.14	-.43[*]	-	.36[**]
9	Effort	-.26[**]	.44[**]	-.07	-.10	.45[**]	.47[**]	-.45[**]	.25[*]	-

Correlations above the diagonal refer to the post-Erasmus group
and correlations below the diagonal to the pre-Erasmus group. [*] p<0.05; [**] p<0.01

5. DISCUSSION

The following discussion revolves around the issues which were identified in our original research (Kabalin Borenić, 2013, 2019) and which prompted the current study.

5.1. Apparent Preference for Native English Norms and Pronunciation Models

The data collected in 2009 suggested that Croatian business students generally preferred native English norms and pronunciation models, which is similar to findings from other contexts (Jenkins 2007; Timmis 2002; Hynninen 2010; Young and Walsh 2010; Csizer and Kontra 2012). Correlation analyses in the present study also revealed that pre-Erasmus students' positive attitude to a culturally neutral variety of English had no correlation with their perception of English as a useful shared language. A positive attitude to a neutral variety only correlated with the perception of English as a threat and the demotivator

identified in our study, suggesting that an interest in a neutral variety might have been associated with negative feelings about English or English language learning. The data collected in the post-Erasmus group revealed that the preference for native English norms and models might be even stronger among the students who took part in international exchange: First, there was no difference between the scores for Desirability of a neutral variety in the two groups. Second, the returning exchange students expressed significantly higher levels of concern for the integrity of the national varieties of English. Third, a positive attitude to English as a shared language correlated positively with an interest in upholding the integrity of national varieties, which was not the case in the pre-Erasmus group.

The apparent preference for a native English model could be explained by research into non-native speakers' reaction to non-native pronunciation. It generally suggests that non-native speakers prefer native accents because they »have internalized the privileged status associated with L1... and the stigma associated with L2 varieties, including their own« (Lindemann, Litzenberg, and Subtirelu 2014, p 172). Such preference for native and nativelike accents may also be a reflection of learners' "lack of awareness of what constitutes nativelike speech…" and inability to "recognize nativelike speech when it is presented to them" (Lindemann et al. 2014, p 185). Research suggests that orientation to a native model is also strengthened by test designs, corresponding teaching materials (Csizér and Kontra 2012; Jenkins 2005, 2007), and teachers' preferences (Tsui and Bunton 2000; Xu, Wang, and Case. 2010; Zacharias 2005).

In the context of research on the attitudes of Croatian students towards expressing their national identity while speaking English, Stanojević and Smojver (2011) found that more proficient pronouncers in their subsample excluding English majors desired to speak like native speakers and preferred to be taught pronunciation by native teachers. Since our sample included only students with high Business English grades and, it would follow, rather efficient pronouncers, it is possible that our respondents also preferred to mask their national identity.

To conclude, the comparison of our descriptive and correlations data from the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups disprove our expectations. The data from the post-Erasmus group offer no evidence that a semester abroad might induce our students to adopt a more favorable orientation to culturally neutral accents and pronunciation models, at least as far as highly proficient students are concerned.

5.2. Presence and Effectiveness of Integrative Motivation

The score for integrative motivation was practically the same in the pre-Erasmus and post-Erasmus groups. The low moderate score signaled that this type of motivation, although present in both groups, was not strong. In the pre-Erasmus group, it moderately correlated with a positive attitude to English as a shared language and with instrumental motivation related to expected benefits. Finally, integrative motivation had the second highest correlation with Invested effort in the pre-Erasmus group. In the post-Erasmus group, integrative motivation correlated with both Expected and Experienced benefits, while it no longer correlated with a positive attitude to English as a shared language. The correlation with Invested effort was the highest among the motivation variables, suggesting that participation in the Erasmus program does not diminish the importance of integrative motives. Two conclusions can be made as a result. First, integrative motivation continues to play a role among our respondents, which is similar to findings from other contexts (Dörnyei and Csizér 2002; Gardner 2012; Sugita McEown, Noels, and Chaffee 2014). Second, a semester abroad may not have any impact in that respect.

5.3. Dual Temporal Focus of Instrumental Motives and Their Association with Invested Effort as a Measure of Motivated Behavior

As expected, and in line with relevant research (Kim 2009; Yashima 2009), the results of the current study confirmed that spending a semester in an international setting enhanced the strength of instrumental motives deriving both from experienced benefits and from expected benefits. We had expected, moreover, that the level of motivation stemming from experienced benefits of using/learning English in the post-Erasmus group would be even higher, but our expectations were somewhat disappointed. This could be explained by the wording of the items comprising the dimensions of Expected benefits and Experienced benefits in our questionnaire. The majority were adapted from instruments (Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh, 2006; Mihaljević Djigunović 1998) designed primarily for L2 motivation research in primary and secondary schools, meaning that the items reflecting instrumental motives mostly refer to the future benefits of knowing English (e.g., English will be useful in my future education.; English will be useful in my future career.). As a result, the instrumentality items in our questionnaire do not comprehensively explore the present uses of English and the questionnaire may not be sufficiently sensitive to the temporal frame of reference shaping senior students' instrumental motivation: the close temporal proximity of their present and future goals and needs. Our correlation analyses support this conclusion. In the post-Erasmus group, expected benefits had a moderate positive correlation with Experienced benefits, which may signal that the present-future goal distinction is difficult to capture. Amongst the post-Erasmus group, however, Experienced benefits correlated slightly stronger with Invested effort than Expected benefits. The correlation between Experienced benefits and Invested effort in the pre-Erasmus group was also lower. Overall, it seems that a semester abroad contributed to the internalization of extrinsic instrumental motives.

5.4. Limitations

We should also mention the limitations to our study. All our respondents were highly proficient English users. This is primarily because most students who participated in Erasmus exchange and volunteered to take part in our study were high achievers. Consequently, our findings cannot be generalized to the whole population, but they are a good starting point for further research. Second, it is possible that business students do not have a very good understanding of sociolinguistic issues and this may have affected their responses. However, since the questionnaire was in Croatian and the wording of the items in the questionnaire was not strictly professional (e.g., "culturally neutral variant" instead of ELF or non-native variant), we believe that the impact of (possibly) unknown terminology was not decisive. Third, it appears that the questionnaire used in the study was not sufficiently sensitive to the close temporal proximity of our respondents' present and future uses of English.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Research studies on ESP learners' dispositions towards English(es) and motivation to learn English are still relatively rare and inconclusive (Csizer and Kontra 2012; Lindemann, Litzenberg, and Subtirelu 2014). Our own research (Kabalin Borenić, 2019) on attitudes to English and motivation to continue learning English in tertiary education resulted in several intriguing findings that could be explained by our ESP learners' lack of relevant, first-hand

international experience. Since the international mobility of Croatian students significantly increased when Croatia joined the Erasmus program in 2009, we repeated our original study with a group of exchange program participants who had spent a semester in a non-native speaker country and compared the findings. We expected that the post-Erasmus group would be characterized by a more positive attitude towards culturally neutral (non-native) English models, a lower score for integrative motivation, and a higher score for instrumental motivation deriving from experienced benefits than the group who did not participate in the Erasmus program.

Concerning the apparent preference for native English variants, our findings contradict our expectations. Namely, the data suggest a stronger preference for native accents and pronunciation models in the group with international experience. However, given that our sample consisted of highly proficient English speakers/users only, their disposition could be explained by the possibility that their accent afforded them social privilege and was therefore perceived as a valuable investment.

As regards the strength of integrative motivation, there was no difference between the two groups. It seems that the level and effectiveness of integrative motivation were not affected by living and working/studying in a community of non-native speakers while visiting a country where English is a foreign language. Given that our study was conducted among students of business and economics, we may hypothesise that the economic strength and prestige of native English communities has a lasting attractive influence on future business professionals regardless of their international experience or lack of it.

Finally, and in line with our expectations, both types of instrumental motivation (expected benefits and experienced benefits) were significantly stronger in the post-Erasmus group. We had also anticipated that the score for "experienced benefits" in the post-Erasmus group would draw nearer to the high score for motivationally ineffective "expected benefits", but we were disappointed in that respect. This could be explained by the questionnaire design: It seems that our motivation items, although adapted from questionnaires used in well-known large-scale studies, could not capture the distinction between our senior business students' present and future goals, i.e. experienced and expected benefits.

To sum up, our analysis revealed that students with international experience of using English in non-native contexts did not demonstrate a more positive attitude to culturally neutral English models than their counterparts without such experience. Rather, they had a stronger preference for native English accents and norms. On the other hand, the scores for integrative motivation in the two groups were similar, suggesting that a semester in a non-native speaker country neither increased nor diminished the attractiveness of native speaker communities. Next, as could be expected, the scores for instrumental motivation deriving both from expectations and from experience were significantly higher in the group with international experience.

Our research identified issues that are specific to the ESP context and provided directions for future research. First, as regards attitudes to variants of English it would be interesting to research the effects of internalization through student exchange in a stratified sample, using both quantitative and qualitative methods and with students majoring in other fields. Second, to explore the comparative effects and strength of instrumental motives deriving from expectations and from experience, we need to take into account that university students' present and future goals overlap and employ a more sensitive instrument.

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SYSTEMATIC RESEARCH SYNTHESIS ON RATING IN ESP SPEAKING ASSESSMENTS

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Abstract. *Jacoby and McNamara (1998) insist that domain specialists (e.g., doctors) and language specialists (e.g., teachers) differ in their approaches to evaluating profession-specific communication tasks. However, due to the scarcity of studies examining speaking assessments for occupational purposes, the differences between the two rater groups have not yet been clearly revealed. In response to this gap in the literature, this systematic research synthesis study examines how the workplace speaking skill has been evaluated, focusing on rater groups and rating scales. The major findings are as follows. First, research on ESP speaking assessments tends to include more than one rater group such as domain specialists and language specialists. Second, while domain specialists and language specialists generally demonstrate high intergroup correlations, the rater group notably differs in terms of field-specific criteria. Third, compared with linguistic scales, field-specific criteria have not been developed. Based on these results, directions for future research are discussed.*

Key words: *English for specific purposes, English for occupational purposes, speaking, assessment, rating, systematic research synthesis*

1. INTRODUCTION

Language assessment for professional purposes (LAPP) is defined as "any assessment process, carried out by and for invested parties, which is used to determine a person's ability to understand and/or use the language of a professionally-oriented domain to a specified or necessary level" (Knoch and Macqueen 2020, 3). Is LAPP, or language for specific purposes (LSP) assessment, different from other general language assessments? Douglas (2013) claimed that they are similar in that test developers must consider the purposes of tests, characteristics of test-takers, the target language-use situations, and the reliability, validity, and impact of each potential test. However, he also stated that these two types of test differ in the two aspects: (a) the authenticity of a task and (b) the interaction between language knowledge and domain-specific content knowledge.

Although there has been an increasing need to develop performance-based workplace English assessments, it is difficult to develop speaking assessments of English for occupational

purposes (EOP). The difficulty largely stems from the fact that developers of ESP assessments are not necessarily 'experts' in the learners' fields and thus do not have sufficient knowledge for understanding a learner's communication in their workplace. For example, language professionals are not familiar with technical terms used at a certain workplace, necessary language function, or real conversations because they are not experts in the relevant domain (e.g., medicine or engineering). Nevertheless, language teachers or language program developers must develop an authentic context for EOP learners and appropriate speaking assessments. In order to ensure that ESP practitioners can collect language samples and understand learners' requirements at their workplaces, a needs-analysis is generally conducted (e.g., Cowling 2007). However, discrepancies can be noted between highly customized learning materials, which use authentic content and tasks related to the jobs at hand, and standardized tests targeting a general work-related language, such as Comprehensive Adult Students Assessment System or Adult Basic Learning Examination (Ekkens and Winke 2009).

Another significant challenge is evaluating learners' speaking performances without content knowledge in the specific job-related domain, such as hospitality industries, health medical fields, businesses, or construction companies. Jacoby and McNamara (1999) proposed the notion of "indigenous criteria," which emphasizes elements closely related to a specific domain of the language (Elder and McNamara 2016), particularly for the Occupational English Test (OET). Furthermore, Douglas (2000) admitted that the most crucial and complicated concern in developing LSP speaking tests is developing evaluation criteria or rating scales. Douglas (2001) insisted that assessment criteria must be derived by incorporating a target language to use as the test content. This issue raised the following question: Who should be trained and included as a rater in ESP speaking tests? Domain specialists are experts in the subject area but not in the language. By contrast, language professionals are familiar with evaluating speaking performances and developing tasks used in speaking tests. However, they are not specialists in the specific fields of the test-takers.

The effects of raters on speaking assessments have been examined in many studies (e.g., Duijm et al. 2018), although most did not have a specific focus on ESP. Duijm et al. (2018) compared linguistically trained and non-trained raters in terms of accuracy and fluency in speaking. They found that the former group focuses on accuracy while the latter group paid more attention to fluency. In'nami and Koizumi (2016) conducted a meta-analysis focused on generalizability studies in speaking and writing. Their analysis compared the impacts of tasks and task-related interaction and raters and rater-related interaction to see which was more responsible for score variances and found that task and task-related interaction had greater influence. They also compared types of tasks, contexts, and scoring methods to the degrees of person-by-task interactions and found that person-by-task interactions had a greater influence on assessments when they were based on both academic and general contexts compared to interactions based only on academic contexts.

Considering the above, we predict that, in the occupational context, the effects of raters would be large depending on whether the rater had much background knowledge in each professional domain and whether the rater had experience with evaluating language performance. To examine this possibility, we need to systematically review the effects of raters and evaluation criteria. To the best of our knowledge, no synthesis has been performed regarding ESP speaking assessment rating. Therefore, in this systematic research synthesis study, which examined the existing literature in ESP speaking assessment, we addressed the following research questions (RQs):

RQ1: Which group—domain specialists, language specialists, or both—served as raters in EOP speaking assessment research?

RQ2: What assessment criteria have been used in research on EOP speaking assessments?

RQ3: Do domain and language specialists differently rate speaking performance?

2. METHOD

This study adopted the systematic research synthesis to synthesize the existing literature in ESP speaking assessments. The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), PsycINFO, and ScienceDirect were used to acquire data because they have been frequently used in previous research syntheses and meta-analyses. We first examined papers published before August 2019 in 10 peer-reviewed journals in applied linguistics: *Applied Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, Language Assessment Quarterly, Language Learning, Language Teaching Research, Language Testing, Modern Language Journal, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, System, and TESOL Quarterly*. Among these journals, seven were included in this synthesis based on the selection of comprehensive international peer-reviewed journals in applied linguistics by Hashemi and Babaii (2013): *Applied Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, Language Learning, Language Teaching Research, Language testing, Modern Language Journal,* and *TESOL Quarterly*. Considering the focus of this synthesis (i.e., speaking assessment) and In'nami and Koizumi's (2009) meta-analysis, three journals (*Language Assessment Quarterly, Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* and *System*) were additionally selected. The following 15 keywords were used to retrieve empirical studies: (1) ESP assessment, (2) speaking assessment, (3) oral assessment, (4) ESP testing, (5) speaking test, ESP, (6) speaking test, professional English, (7) oral test, ESP, (8) spoken fluency, (9) speaking fluency, (10) interpreter test, (11) English aviation test, (12) "business English" test, (13) health professional English test, (14) legal English test, and (15) professional English test. This list of keywords was developed on the basis of the key terms and synonyms used in the initially reviewed books and articles, authors' experiences, and major professional fields of interest as described by Douglas (2013).

We performed a secondary screening of papers that were selected from the initial screening of abstracts using a spreadsheet. We coded each paper as "Include" or "Not Include" in the synthesis based on the following criteria: (a) adult learners, (b) English as the target language, (c) domain-specific EOP, (d) non-self-evaluation, (e) focus on speaking assessment, and (f) empirical or corpus study. Regarding (a) the participants, we included undergraduate, graduate, and international teaching assistants engaging in particular professional domains, as well as adult learners, who were working professionals from specific fields. Concerning (b) the target language, we excluded papers that addressed languages other than English. For (c) domain-specific EOP, papers that included EAP or immigration issues were not selected. In contrast, we included working professionals and university students (i.e., undergraduate, graduate, and international teaching assistants), who studied English for specific professional purposes, if the study was specific to a certain professional domain. In other words, we did not include papers which were EOP in general. For (d), we excluded studies conducted based only on self-assessment data because judgments regarding an adequate level of domain-specific English proficiency do not necessarily match the self assessments (Knoch and Macqueen 2020, 9) and we aimed to analyze scoring rubrics. Regarding (e) and (f), we included both empirical and corpus studies focusing on ESP

speaking assessment as far as working professionals' speaking skills were actually measured. In other words, research that investigated how English is used in the workplace was excluded. Regarding (f), we did not include papers without empirical data even if the topic was related to ESP assessment.

The agreement percentage between the two researchers was 95.76%, whereas disagreements were resolved through a discussion. Among 6,795 studies that were initially retrieved, 34 studies were finally selected using the aforementioned process.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Raters in EOP Speaking Assessment Research

Raters were categorized as (i) domain specialists such as doctors and pilots, (ii) language professionals, (iii) both domain and language specialists, and (d) no raters were included or rater information was not clearly described. Table 1 presents the raters in each professional domain.

As can be seen here, approximately 18 percent of studies included both domain specialists and language professionals, nearly 30 percent of studies only involved domain specialists, and over 30 percent only included language professionals as raters. This means that nearly half of the previous studies included domain specialists in the rating stage. It is also worth noting that some studies had several domain specialist groups such as pilots and air controllers (Kim 2018; Kim and Billington 2016), as well as medical and nursing clinical educators (Manias and McNamara 2016; Pill and McNamara 2016).

When comparing within professional domains, no differences in tendency were evident. Both Health and Aviation, the two major domains, showed similar tendencies in that (a) over half of the studies included domain professionals as raters, (b) less than a quarter of the studies only involved language professionals, and (c) multiple studies included more than one professional group (doctors and nurses, pilots and controllers).

Table 1 Raters in previous studies

Raters	Professional fields				
	Health	Aviation	Education	Others[*]	Total
Domain specialists	6 (35.29)	2 (33.33)	0 (0.00)	2 (28.57)	10 (29.41)
Language specialists	4 (23.53)	1 (16.67)	2 (50.00)	4 (57.14)	11 (32.35)
Both domain and language specialists	3 (17.65)	1 (16.67)	1 (25.00)	1[*] (14.29)	6 (17.65)
No raters / Not clearly mentioned	4 (23.53)	2 (33.33)	1 (25.00)	0 (0.00)	7 (20.59)
Total	17 (100.00)	6 (100.00)	4 (100.00)	7 (100.00)	34 (100.00)

Note. Figures in parentheses indicate percentages. "Others" included Customer Service, Interpretation, Business and Management, and Science and Technology. Raters in Friginal (2013) were professionals in service quality who had worked as university TESL instructors before; although there were not two different rating groups, this study was counted in "Both domain & ESL specialists – Others" because the raters were qualified as both domain and ESL specialists.

In sum, ESP speaking research tended to include domain specialists as raters, and some studies even included different profession groups in one professional field.

3.2. Assessment Criteria in EOP Speaking Assessment Research

Not all papers explicated the definition of each dimension, and thus, we evaluated 23 papers that measured speaking skills by using rating scales.

Table 2 shows that fluency ($k = 18$), intelligibility ($k = 21$), appropriateness of language ($k = 13$), and grammar and expression ($k = 17$) were included in the majority of studies regardless of the professional category. The rating scales in more than 50% of the studies included the appropriateness of language ($k = 13$). That is, these dimensions can be considered general speaking skills. However, we must note that numerous studies, excluding Friginal (2013), have not presented detailed scales. Therefore, comparing these studies was not simple. For example, the majority of these studies (18 out of 23) included fluency in their rating scales. However, definitions of "fluency" were different among studies. For example, Knoch (2014) emphasized "rate of delivery," whereas Han's (2016) disfluency (un/filled pauses and long silence) may overlap with "intelligibility." Therefore, clearly defining each dimension is a necessary task for future research.

Table 2 Assessment criteria used in previous studies

Dimension		k (/23)
Overall communicative effectiveness		10
Linguistic	Fluency	18
	Intelligibility (pronunciation, intonation, stress, rhythm, accent)	21
	Appropriateness of language (e.g., use of suitable professional language)	13
	Grammar and expression (range and accuracy of language)	17
	Comprehensibility	4
	Comprehension	6
Professional	Clinician engagement (professional manner, patient awareness)	5
	Management of interaction (information gathering, information giving)	11
	Professional tasks, information completeness, handling questions	6
Others	L2 perception / Accuracy of information / Knowledgeableness about content / Voice quality / Interlocutor influence	5

Note: One study (Lumley 1998) used different criteria for doctors and language teachers; more specifically, doctors evaluated only based on "overall communicative effectiveness" while language teachers evaluated based on linguistic categories. Other studies adopted the same criteria for language and domain specialists.

The results reveal another trend; that is, more field-specific criteria have been developed and used in ESP speaking assessments in recent studies (e.g., Friginal 2013; Manias and McNamara 2016; Wette and Hawken 2016). That is, recent studies have considered factors beyond the general criteria of the overall communicative skills and effectiveness of test-takers. They also included criteria that reflected more specific context-related characteristics. For example, health professionals interact and communicate with not only colleagues with the same profession but also patients who do not have professional health-related knowledge. Thus, two new criteria, namely clinician engagement and management interaction, were developed to reflect the real language requirements and situations of test-takers (e.g., Manias and McNamara 2016; O'Hagan et al. 2016). By contrast, aviation professionals (e.g., pilots and air-traffic controllers) prominently communicate with people engaged in the same field. Therefore, speaking assessment criteria, such as the one developed by the international civil aviation organization (ICAO), primarily focuses on target language usage among professionals (e.g., Knoch 2014). Other professional domains did not derive field-specific criteria. Despite

the fact that non-verbal communication is important in workplace communication, non-verbal factors were not included in rating scales. Considering their importance, criteria to assess non-verbal skills should be developed.

3.3. Differences Between Domain and Language Professionals

In this section, we examine how rating performances differ between the evaluation groups, domain, and language specialists. We qualitatively analyze the results from the five studies, which had both domain and language professional groups. The raters in Friginal (2013) are excluded here because they belong to both groups, and comparison is impossible.

Three quantitative studies (Elder 1993; Lumley 1998; van Naerssen and Riggenbach 1987) estimated correlation coefficients between domain and language rater groups, and they all showed that the two rater groups had moderate to high correlations for many dimensions, while some dimensions led to lower coefficients. In Elder (1993), where eight math/science teachers were compared with seven language specialists, the two rater groups demonstrated high correlations (r = .85 - .96) for linguistic dimensions (Intelligibility, Fluency, Accuracy, Comprehension, Interaction, and Overall Performance). However, a lower correlation coefficient (r = .73) revealed that domain specialists rated differently from language professionals in the dimension of subject-specific language. Another finding was that domain specialists disagreed within the group on linguistic rating categories (i.e., accuracy, fluency) but not on subject-specific language; meanwhile, the opposite was the case for language professionals. Lumley (1998) examined all correlation coefficients between nine doctors and ten ESL teachers. The language professionals generally had tolerable agreements with the doctors because the average coefficient was around .70. However, individual differences were found even in the same rater group, and some doctor pairs had a coefficient of .44. Van Naerssen and Riggenbach (1987) also showed high correlations between domain and language specialists who were native speakers of English for professional tasks (r = .96) and for general proficiency questions (r = .99). However, domain specialists and nonnative language specialists had only a moderate correlation (r = .54) when grading for general proficiency questions. Thus, they concluded that grading was primarily influenced by whether English was the raters' first language, rather than the raters' professions.

Two other studies (Knoch 2014; Wette and Hawkin 2016) had qualitative features. Wette and Hawkin (2016) examined correlation coefficients in a quasi-experimental study, but the raters were one domain specialist and one language professional. In the pre-test, the correlation coefficients (r) between the two raters were .77 for language criteria and .80 for medical criteria. However, in the post test, the medical criteria did not show significant correlation (r = .51) because the medical educator marked lower scores. Knoch (2014) investigated whether two language professionals and ten pilots agreed on the appropriate proficiency level for operational flying through focused group interviews. While the pilots and language experts generally had similar evaluations, some discrepancies were also found. For example, while the language specialists judged that a certain speaker's language ability was not sufficient, the majority of the pilots regarded that he should be operational. In contrast, another speakers' language skills were regarded as insufficient by most of the pilots although the language specialists were positive. These may have been caused by differences in the degrees to which the rater groups weigh on the technical knowledge of the speaker.

The similarities and differences between domain and language professionals are summarized as follows. First, while the ratings of the two groups were largely consistent, domain specialists tended to record lower scores. Second, among the rating criteria, the domain specialists emphasized technical knowledge. Third, raters' first languages and individual differences in harshness also affected their rating performances.

4. DISCUSSION

We conducted a systematic research synthesis of 34 studies on speaking assessment in the field of ESP, and revealed the following results. Firstly, significant finding is that research on ESP speaking assessments tends to have more than one rater group, that is domain specialists and language specialists. Secondly, although domain specialists and language specialists generally demonstrate high intergroup correlations, the rater group notably differs in terms of field-specific criteria, and the domain specialists emphasized technical knowledge. Last but not least, field-specific criteria have not been developed compared with linguistic scales.

Based on the aforementioned results, we suggest several directions for future research on ESP speaking assessment rating. First, future researchers must promote approaches for developing appropriate rater training programs and to facilitate cooperation between the two rater groups. When language specialists serve as raters, it is crucial to develop rating scales for each professional domain. Second, non-verbal communication should be included in the rating scale.

This study has some limitations. The first one is the use of only three search engines, namely ERIC, PsycINFO, and ScienceDirect. Although we retrieved 6,795 studies, other databases may offer other papers that we would have done well to include. The second limitation is that we limited our synthesis to ESP and did not include other languages, such as Japanese (e.g., Brown, 1995). To capture the complete picture of LSP, future research synthesis would do well include other languages. Last, due to the small number of studies which compared domain and language specialist rater groups, we could not conduct a meta-analysis. Accumulating correlation coefficients and estimating a synthesized coefficient would enhance the results.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, this study revealed rating characteristics and challenges in ESP speaking assessment research. Since little research synthesis has been conducted on the ESP speaking field, this study contributes significantly to the discussion of rater-related issues.

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LEXICAL BUNDLES IN L1 AND L2 ENGLISH DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS

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Abstract. *Based on contrastive interlanguage analysis, this study explores the usage of lexical bundles occurring in doctoral dissertations produced in the English language related studies in the USA by L1 American English speakers and in Turkey by Turkish speakers of English in the last ten years between 2010-2019. In our analysis of the data, we identified a significant number of types of 4-word bundles from both corpora from a structural and functional perspective. The findings regarding the types of lexical bundles and their structural and functional dispersions revealed significant differences between the two corpora. While L1 English writers refrained from heavily utilizing formulaic sequences, the opposite could be observed in the works of L2 English authors. This study has significant implications for academic writers producing work in the English language since corpus-informed lists and concordances might be of great help to L2 speakers of English in identifying appropriate lexical bundles that are specific to their disciplines.*

Key words: *lexical bundles, doctoral dissertations, functional classification, structural classification*

1. INTRODUCTION

Constructed from culturally and disciplinary conventions, academic writing is different from other writing registers. It is not merely a presentation of propositional content but possesses many pragmatic functions like creating writer-reader engagement, building authorial stance, and most prominently, it is a key for academics to get a credible place in an academic community. Hyland (2002) states that academic writing is rested on practices and structures of social communities and conveys a representation of the writer reflected by the discoursal choices to convince readers about the truth of propositional content and arguments.

Murray & Moore (2006) explain that what and how we write shapes our career development as an academic writer. It is this realization which puts academic writing at the core of academic performance and success. It is a socially-constructed means of sharing ideas under the framework of expected conventions in a shared academic context. Similarly, Burke (2010) contends that academic writing is a social process in which writers,

by making institutionally motivated rhetorical choices in a particular discipline, convey meaning, marshal arguments and reach agreements with their readers through drawing on strategies at an interpersonal level.

It is undeniable that English, as the lingua-franca of a global academic world, is the key to gaining credibility in academia (Genç & Bada, 2010) since a number of articles are published, presentations in international conferences are performed, and in recent years projects with the contribution of many stakeholders from different countries are conducted in this global language. In all of these academic activities, academic writers employ disciplinary and culturally-situated linguistic norms to meet the expectations of a worldwide audience. Among these linguistic norms, lexical bundles (LBs), i.e., formulaic sequences of words, are beneficial in creating coherence in an academic discourse and mitigating authorial stance.

Corpus linguistics is one of the fields that investigates LBs from a variety of perspectives such as forms, structures and functions (Cortes, 2004; Biber, Conrad & Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a) historical changes (Hyland & Jiang, 2018); and cultural and disciplinary variations (Lu & Deng, 2019; Muşlu, 2018; Karabacak & Qin, 2013; Dontcheva-Navrotileva, 2012). The results of these studies that are based on the analysis of a large amount of language data have improved our understanding of formulaic sequences.

Most studies in the literature have also focused on different academic genres: research articles (Güngör & Uysal, 2016; Hyland, 2008a); argumentative essays (Karabacak & Qin, 2013); BA theses (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012); acknowledgment in research articles (Demirel & Hesamoddin, 2013); research articles, MA and PhD theses (Hyland, 2008a); literature reviews (Wright, 2019). However, no previous study has dealt with the analysis of LBs regarding their structures and functions in a corpus of PhD dissertations written by L1 and L2 English academic writers.

In this study, we intend to examine the structures and functions of LBs in a corpus of doctoral dissertations written by L1 and L2 English academic authors. As Hyland (2008a) states, all research genres reflect similar use of academic register, but students' genres have some challenges and constraints. MA and PhD theses are high stakes genres that students have to deal with in their university lives. The credibility of these genres improves students' chances of succeeding in their academic community. Yet, it is a difficult process that they face while they endeavor to comply with the appropriate linguistic norms of their disciplines. To this end, the following research questions constituted the essence of this study:

1. What are the frequently emerging LBs in PhD dissertations written by L1 English writers and Turkish-speaking academic writers of English regarding their structures and functions?

2. Do L1 English writers and Turkish-speaking academic writers of English significantly differ in their use of LBs in their PhD dissertations regarding their structures and functions?

3. What are the common LBs utilized by L1 English writers and Turkish-speaking academic writers of English in PhD dissertations?

2. RESEARCH IN LEXICAL BUNDLES

One of the most striking features of academic written texts is the employment of LBs. Biber et al. (1999) define LBs as "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status" (p. 990). They can be formed from two or more

words and must frequently recur to represent a typical LB. They are also widely used by different speakers in different situations.

Hyland (2008a) identifies them as structural units of words to establish coherence in a text, and their identification relies mainly on the frequency of counts. The minimal cut-off set for recurrent sets of words to be conceived as LBs is at least ten times per million words. The use of 4-word bundles is more common in research since they present a wider range of structures. It seems, therefore, that the criteria for the cut-off sets depend on the scope of the study. According to Biber (2006), general characteristics of LBs could be explained as;

- A frequency-driven approach is essential to identify LBs. The occurring sets of words that meet the frequency criteria qualify as LBs, and they are extracted from a corpus using computer software.
- They are incomplete grammatical structures occurring frequently. They connect two structural units; usually, the last of a bundle is followed by the first element of another structure. Although having unidiomatic meaning, they reflect particular pragmatic and discoursal functions.
- The criteria applied for the frequency cut-off used to label them is not definite. It can be employed differently, depending on the number of words to be analyzed.
- To be identified as an LB, a multi-word sequence must occur in at least five different texts.

Hyland (2008b) states that bundles are beneficial in organizing meaning in texts and facilitating distinctiveness in a register and participation in a community. To maintain a new language or a register, novices have to be aware of the expert's preferences of LBs. In other words, disciplines rely upon some fixed phrases, and it is necessary for L2 English academic writers to learn the way they are used to gain communicative and linguistic competence in their academic disciplines. Similarly, Hyland & Jiang (2018) emphasize that LBs contribute to efficient communication in terms of pragmatic issues, and do also facilitate more specific purposes in academic texts. The usage of familiar recurrent structures helps readers to understand the texts in a short time by guiding them to particular propositions. They are also disciplinary-based linguistic features that create engagement of readers and construal of author stance.

Studies on characteristics of LBs have led to the emergence of some categories regarding the classification of LBs grounded in their structural units and functions. For instance, Cortes (2004) suggested a structural categorization of LBs: noun phrase with 'of' phrase fragment, noun-phrase with post-nominal clause fragment, prepositional phrase with embedded 'of' phrase, other prepositional fragments, verb (be)+ complement (noun phrase), other expressions. According to their functions performed in context, LBs were grouped into two categories: referential bundles and text organizers. In the same year, Biber et al. (2004) developed a more detailed categorization of LBs, which distinguishes among three main structural categories: LBs that incorporate verb phrase fragments, LBs that incorporate dependent clause fragments, LBs that incorporate noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments. Functional aspects were divided into three categories: stance expressions, discourse organizers, and referential expressions. As revealed by Biber et al. (2004: 384), stance bundles display attitudes or assessments of propositional certainty, and discourse organizers state the relationship between prior and upcoming discourse. On the other hand, referential bundles suggest direct referencing to physical or abstract entities, or to textual contexts.

A modification of a framework was proposed by Hyland (2008a) with more or less the same content yet with differing terminology. Upon completing the analysis of research articles and MA and PhD theses, Hyland proposed three broad functional categories of LBs: research, text, and participant-oriented. Research-oriented bundles "help writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world." Text oriented "clusters are concerned with the organization of the text and the meaning of its elements as a message or argument," and participant-oriented bundles "focused on the writer or reader of the text" (p. 49).

With the advances in corpus linguistics, researchers have focused on the continuous sequence of frequently recurring words to have a better understanding of these formulaic units. The frequency-driven approach has inspired new and various studies (Salazar, 2014). Similarities and differences between written and spoken genres have been examined in some studies; a pioneering one being made by Biber et al. (1999) introduced the concept of LBs for the first time in literature. The researchers analyzed large corpora, including both written and spoken academic registers in terms of frequency counts. Following a frequency-driven approach, Biber et al. (2004) later examined LBs in two registers: textbooks and classroom teaching. They indicated that LBs reflected important functions on the construction of discourse; they guide readers/listeners to interpret a text in terms of stance, discourse organization, and referential status, and signal well-defined structural forms. In a corpus consisting of written and spoken activities related to university life, Biber & Barbieri (2007) found that the usage of bundles is closely associated with writers' or speakers' communicative purposes. The reasons for the less frequent employment of bundles in written registers are that these particular registers have limited communicative purposes compared to spoken ones. While LBs tend to appear at high frequencies in sub-corpora of service-encounters and class management in the corpus of spoken registers, in written registers, however, they are utilized most frequently in written course management. Regarding their functions, each register was rested on different functions. Stance bundles were dominant in spoken university registers, while referential functions were more common in written registers.

Some researchers have attempted to investigate LBs in a pedagogical framework. Byrd & Coxhead (2010) examined the most frequently occurring LBs in the corpus of Academic Word List developed by Coxhead in 2000. This corpus includes various genres, including articles, book chapters, course workbooks, laboratory manuals, and course notes. Cortes (2004) analyzed the functions of LBs in two academic prose written by published authors and students in two disciplines. After identifying the most frequent LBs used by published authors, they examined them in the writing of students and found that these bundles did not exist in students' writings. Neely & Cortes (2009) concentrated on LBs in academic lectures and suggested that EFL teachers should utilize corpus-based research tools to aid students in discovering their functions.

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the employment of LBs in L2 academic writing. Hyland (2008b) analyzed the forms, structures, and functions of 4-word bundles in corpora consisting of research articles, MA theses, and PhD dissertations written by Cantonese writers of English across four disciplines and observed disciplinary variations in the employment of LBs in the corpora. Writers in different fields marshal their arguments, gain credibility, and communicate with their readers through the use of different bundles. In another study, Hyland (2008a) compared the use of LBs in the same corpus, revealing considerable variations in terms of structures and functions of bundles in three genres: published articles, dissertations, and student writings. The preferences of writers were shaped to improve their arguments, persuade their readers and build their stance.

In a recent study, Shin et al. (2018) specifically focused on definite articles in LBs in academic writing produced by L2. The analysis of this learner corpus showed a number of the- errors in bundles. Presenting a problematic area in the formation of LBs by L2 English writers, they recommended the implementation of article-related instruction in the teaching of LBs. Shin (2019) compared L1 and L2 English novice academic writing in terms of utilization of frequency of LBs, and observed the existence of many common functions, especially stance expression and referential LBs.

Some studies were also conducted by Turkish academic writers. Nesi & Basturkmen (2006) investigated LBs in a corpus of 160 university lectures. The corpus consisted of lectures from the Corpus of British Academic Spoken English (BASE) and Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken Corpus (MICASE). The researchers stated that LBs played a pivotal role in discourse, suggesting that language learners should be aware while using them. It is likely that L2 English writers may not have a clear understanding of the functions of bundles. A study conducted by Muşlu (2018) showed that while there was a heavy reliance on LBs by Japanese and Turkish writers, L1 English writers did not have a tendency towards employing such bundles frequently in their argumentative essays. Karabacak & Qin (2013) compared the argumentative essays written by Turkish, Chinese, and American students with an academic writing corpus taken from the New York Times magazine. Five-item bundles were found to be employed less by American students compared to Turkish students, and the Chinese used them the least. LBs used by L1 English speakers were different from those employed by Turkish and Chinese writers of English. Güngör & Uysal (2016) examined the utilization of LBs in research articles and found that Turkish researchers used more LBs than L1 English writers.

Recent work has concentrated on particular sections of academic genres. Looking at forms and functions of LBs in doctoral dissertation abstracts written by L1 English and Chinese writers of English, Lu & Deng (2019) found that Chinese writers employed LBs more frequently than L1 English writers regarding structural and functional categories. Wright (2019) analyzed LBs in published literature reviews in three disciplines: psychology, education, and medicine. The results reflected a frequent utilization of referential bundles followed by stance and discourse bundles.

Few studies have been carried out to discover potential changes in the usage of LBs. Most prominently, we see Hyland & Jiang's (2018) study highlighting that LBs signal the argument patterns and the purposes of writers and readers. In this study, the researchers tracked changes in terms of frequency, forms, and functions of LBs in research writing in the last 50 years. They analyzed a corpus of articles in top journals in four disciplines: applied linguistics, sociology, electrical engineering, and biology, and they discovered that noun/preposition related phrases were the most common types used, yet there was a decline in this structural category. According to researchers, regarding functions, there was a shift from research-oriented to participant-oriented forms in the hard sciences. In contrast, the soft knowledge fields have moved in the opposite direction.

As can be seen from this overview, LBs, which are frequently recurring expressions functioning as structural units, have proven to be highly influential in organizing texts, persuading readers, and mitigating stance in academic writing. Lack of mastery in proper utilization of such expressions may have a significant impact on L2 English writers' credibility in a global, academic world. Since a wide range of functions are realized through LBs in academic texts, ineffective and/or erroneous utilization may lead to failure in

responding to readers' expectations. Appropriate utilization of these formulaic structures, thus, may be an area to which L2 English academic writers should give due attention.

3. METHODS

The study adopts a corpus-based contrastive interlanguage analysis (CIA) (Granger, 1996) approach to figure out the use, structures and functions of 4-word LBs occurring in the corpus of L1 English authors (CNAE) and the corpus of Turkish speaking academic authors of English (CTAE). To compare the use of LBs across the two corpora, we performed both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.1. Data collection

The data for this research consists of two corpora of PhD dissertations written by L1 and L2 English authors. PhD dissertations in the English language related fields written in English by L1 American English speakers studying at various universities in the USA constituted CNAE while PhD dissertations in the same fields produced in English by Turkish PhD students studying at the Turkish universities formed CTAE. Informed consent of the authors was obtained in the process of corpus compilation, and the corpora consisted of dissertations constructed through a convenience sampling technique. The data was compiled from PhD dissertations written between 2010 and 2019 in the English language related fields. In the process of corpus compilation, sections such as introduction, results and discussions, and conclusion were included into the corpora; all quotations and paraphrases were excluded to avoid potential interference of other authors cited in dissertations. CNAE consisted of 63 dissertations, totaling 1.245.681 words while CTAE comprised 64 dissertations, totaling 1.413.876 words.

3.2. Identification of lexical bundles

In this study, we decided to explore the use, structures, and functions of 4-word formulaic sequences that emerged in PhD dissertations written by L1 English and Turkish L2 English speakers. As stated by Hyland (2008b), 4-word bundles "[…] are far more common than 5-word strings and offer a clearer range of structures and functions than 3-word bundles" (p. 8). In addition, the practice of previous research demonstrated that 4-word bundles were the most frequently explored units in the field due to their frequency, prevalence, and variety, which enable scholars to make further analysis (Chen & Baker, 2010). Similarly, Hyland (2012) revealed that 3-word bundles were very common and could not be handled in large corpora while 5+ bundles were relatively rare, and they generally encapsulated shorter bundles. Since 4-word bundles "offer a wider variety of structures and functions to analyze" (Hyland, 2012: 151) and "are more phrasal in nature and correspondingly less common" (Biber et al., 1999: 992), the 4-word bundles occurring in CNAE and CTAE were analyzed in the current study.

LBs are identified through two criteria: frequency and range. The methodology of identifying the formulaic sequences is not under debate in the field (Hyland & Jiang, 2018), whereas frequency and dispersion thresholds are arbitrary. For this reason, the frequency and range cut-off set by the scholars differ. Frequency thresholds in the field have settled on 10 (Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2006), 20 (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a; 2008b;

Lu & Deng, 2019) or 40 (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Pan, et al., 2016) times of occurrences per million words. In addition, there have been studies taking the raw frequency counts as the baseline of bundle identification (Chen & Baker, 2010). Even though the threshold frequency shows differences across studies, the purpose of setting a frequency cut-off "is to identify bundles that recur often enough to be regarded as typical of the target" (Pan et al., 2016: 63).

Range thresholds, the second identification criterion, have to be set to make sure that a specific multi-word sequence is used in a variety of texts which "guard[s] against idiosyncratic uses by individual speakers or authors" (Biber & Barbieri, 2007: 268). Similar to the frequency thresholds, the cut-off breadth of use is also somewhat arbitrary. While some of the studies set raw frequency such as three to five texts as the threshold range (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber & Barbieri, 2007, Pan et al., 2016), Hyland (2008a, b) highlighted the importance of setting the threshold in proportion to the number of texts construing the corpus. For this reason, they suggested including word strings emerging at least 10% of the texts in the corpora.

Regarding the frequency and range thresholds, we decided to take a conservative approach by following the suggestions made by Hyland (2008a, 2008b, 2012), and we set the frequency cut-off of 20 times per million words and included only the 4-word LBs used in at least 10% of texts. Using Ant Conc version 3.5.8 (Anthony, 2019), the bundle lists for the texts in the two sub-corpora were generated by applying the aforementioned criteria. Through concordance, the overlapping LBs constituting "complete overlap" (Chen & Baker, 2010: 33), where two or more 4-word bundles are part of 5-word formulaic sequence, were manually removed as they might inflate the quantitative results (Chen & Baker, 2010; Bychkovska & Lee, 2017).

3.3. Annotation of the data

The refined data was annotated structurally regarding grammatical features, and functionally in terms of discourse functions in the text. Structural tagging was performed by one researcher through a vertical reading of the data. Each bundle was tagged regarding its part of speech based on the structural categories generated by Biber et al. (1999) and updated by Hyland & Jiang (2018). While the former taxonomy consisted of 12 categories of academic bundles, the latter identified three distinct main categories with various sub-categories. In our study, we adapted the abovementioned classifications by making some amendments. Similar to Hyland and Jiang's structural categories, we divided the structures into verb phrase-related bundles (VP), clause-related bundles, noun phrase-related bundles (NP), and prepositional phrase-related bundles (PP). Even though we benefited from Hyland and Jiang's structural categories, it should be noted that the scholars merged noun and prepositional phrase-related bundles into the category of noun/preposition-related bundles, and this was criticized by Lu & Deng (2019) pointing out that combining bundles with different phrases (e.g., noun phrase and prepositional phrase based bundles) might "obscure important distribution patterns" (p. 25). Therefore, we added the category of others, which includes structures different from the abovementioned categories.

As for functional annotation, we adopted the functional taxonomy suggested by Hyland (2008a, b) since their corpora also consisted of texts compiled from academic writings. According to Hyland's (2008b) framework, the functions of LBs are organized around three main functional categories, which are research-oriented, text-oriented, and

participant-oriented, and each category is divided into various sub-categories grouping more specific roles of word strings.

Although structural tagging was not ambiguous, and it could be performed through part of speech tagging, functional annotation of the data was relatively subjective because a specific LB could have multiple functions. In this study, the primary function of a bundle at hand was determined through an integrated reading of the data (both vertical and horizontal reading) to figure out how the bundle was employed in the text.

For functional annotation, two researchers tagged 10% of the data independently for an inter-rater reliability test before annotating the whole data. According to Loewen & Plonsky (2016), an inter-rater reliability test is"[a] method of dual coding of data to ensure that the coding categories or scores are being used in a consistent manner" (p. 93). The reliability test revealed a high correlation between the raters since the p-value was above 0.80 (p=0.84). For the rest of the functional annotation, the three researchers were in constant interaction.

3.4. Statistical measures

The principal aim of this study is to reveal overall usages of 4-word LBs by L1 and L2 English writers in doctoral dissertations. Hence, the study is a corpus-based study, and it adopts CIA to reach its abovementioned aim. To reach this goal, we performed descriptive statistics to set out overall usage rates of LBs along with distributions of structural and functional categories of the 4-word LBs in both corpora. In addition, the log-likelihood (LL) ratio of raw frequencies of the 4-word bundles was computed through Rayson's spreadsheet calculator at http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html to compare the overall distribution of bundles, their structures and functions across the two corpora.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This study mainly concentrated on the comparison of LBs occurring in doctoral dissertations written by L1 and L2 English writers. In line with our aim, the data is presented in tabular form, and analysis and commentary were made related to each cited table. In the tables, L1 stands for L1 English writers' dissertations included in the Corpus of Native Academic Authors of English; L2, for L2 English writers' dissertations included in the Corpus of Turkish Academic Authors of English; N, for the raw frequency of LBs; N/10000, for the number of LB occurrences per 10000 words; %, for percentages of LB usages; and LL, for log-likelihood in the corpora.

Table 1 compares the overall distribution of LBs in two corpora. L1 consisted of 1.245.681 words, while L2 included 1.413.876 words. We identified 103 and 275 types of LBs in L1 and L2, respectively, which demonstrates that there might be a relationship between author's L1 background and academic writing conventions employed in the disciplines related to the English language. This fact was also supported by the normalized frequency counts of 37.24 per 10.000 words in L1 and 119.22 per 10.000 words in L2. Type/token ratio of 0.008 and 0.020 in L1 and L2 allowed us to state that LBs were less varied in the product of L1 compared to L2. The results were consistent with Öztürk (2014), who found that LBs were employed more frequently by Turkish researchers against L1. However, Muşlu (2018) found that L1 English corpus was more varied than L2 English corpus in terms of LB usage.

Table 1 The overall distribution of LBs in the two corpora

	L1	L2
Corpus size in words	1245681	1413876
Lexical Bundle type	103	275
N /10000[*]	0.83	1.95
N	4639	16856
N/10000[**]	37.24	119.22
T/T ratio[***]	0.008	0.020

[*] lexical bundle types per 10.000 words
[**] frequency of lexical bundles per 10.000 words
[***] type/token ratio: percentage of number of lexical bundles (types) in total words in each corpus

We conducted LL statistics to calculate whether the difference of frequency counts in the two corpora was statistically significant. As shown in Table 2, while L1 did not heavily rely on formulaic sequences in their academic writing, L2 resorted to such forms quite frequently. For this reason, there was a statistically significant LB usage difference between L1 and L2 in terms of types (-60.95) and frequency counts (-5915.22) against. Hence, it could be stated that there was a substantial reliance on the use of LBs in doctoral dissertations written by L2. Hyland (2012) states that postgraduate genres are more phrasal than published ones. It may be due to the fact that Turkish postgraduate students tend to distance themselves from their dissertations and assert credibility for readers by using a large number of LBs.

Table 2 LL ratio of LBs in the two corpora regarding types and raw frequencies

	L1		L2		LL Ratio	ELL
	(O1)	1%	(O2)	2%	(p<0.05)	
LB type	103	0.01	275	0.02	- 60.95	0.00000
LB N	4639	0.37	16856	1.19	- 5915.22	0.00024

Table 3 compares the distribution of LBs in two corpora and shows LL ratio values regarding their structural categories. A quick glance at the table shows that type and frequency counts of all major and sub-categories of LBs were significantly lower among L1 compared to L2. Additionally, both L1 and L2 had different tendencies in the utilization of LBs regarding main categories and sub-categories, both groups employing a great number of NP and PP in their doctoral dissertations.

While PP utilization was at the top in L1, accounting for half of all LBs with a frequency of 22.09 per 10.000 words and 55 types, it was the second most common structural category of LBs in L2 with 83 types and 39.90 times of occurrences per 10.000 words. PP with embedded of-phrase was observed as the most frequented sub-category of this structure, which was followed by other PP. Biber et al. (1999) state that of-phrases are common features of written and spoken registers. Although it was the most preferred structure of LBs in L1, the LL ratio of -682.81 indicated a significant overuse of this structure by L2. It can be inferred from (S1) and (S2) that this type of structure is a sign of logical relations between two claims or propositional elements.

Table 3 The structural distribution of LBs in the two corpora

Major structure	Sub-Structure	Type				Frequency				LL Ratio (p<0.05)
		L1		L2		L1		L2		
		N	%	N	%	N	N/10000	N	N/10000	
Noun-phrase	with embedded of-phrase	13	12.62	67	24.36	489	3.93	3964	28.04	-2668.30
	other noun phrase	8	7.77	26	9.45	405	3.25	1884	13.33	-858.48
	Sub-total	21	20.39	93	33.82	894	7.18	5848	41.36	-3469.66
Prepositional-phrase	with embedded of-phrase	21	20.39	41	14.91	1162	9.33	2756	19.49	-481.51
	other prepositional phrase	31	30.10	41	14.91	1423	11.42	2751	19.46	-278.48
	comparative expressions	3	2.91	1	0.36	167	1.34	134	0.95	+9.01
	Sub-total	55	53.40	83	30.18	2752	22.09	5641	39.90	-682.81
Verb-phrase	Copula be + noun/adjective phrase	5	4.85	3	1.09	183	1.47	188	1.33	+0.92
	imperative + verb phrase	2	1.94	-		56	0.45	-	-	-
	Verb + to clause fragment	1	0.97	14	5.09	63	0.51	617	4.36	-455.52
	with passive verb	2	1.94	21	7.64	71	0.57	953	6.74	-796.03
	Sub-total	10	9.71	38	13.82	373	2.99	1758	12.43	-810.69
Clause-related	abstract subject	1	0.97	6	2.18	27	0.22	205	1.45	-133.13
	Anticipatory it	5	4.85	20	7.27	231	1.85	1289	9.12	-683.86
	as + fragments	4	3.88	9	3.27	127	1.02	758	5.36	-422.55
	human subject	1	0.97	5	1.82	38	0.31	314	2.22	-213.51
	if + fragments	-	-	2	0.73	-	-	58	0.41	-
	that + fragments	2	1.94	7	2.55	96	0.77	425	3.01	-184.82
	there+fragments	-	-	4	1.45	-	-	212	1.50	-
	wh + fragments	1	0.97	4	1.45	25	0.20	187	1.32	-120.41
	Sub-total	14	13.59	57	20.73	544	4.37	3448	24.39	-2003.54
Others	Sub-total	3	2.91	4	1.45	76	0.61	161	1.14	-21.36

(S1) In the case of American literature anthologies, these rhetorical moves include explicit mention of additions to each edition without mentioning deletions; in composition textbooks, these rhetorical moves emerge in the promotional overview of what the editions include with no mention of what the editors have opted to exclude. (L1-10)

(S2) This outcome is again in line with the related literature indicating EFL learners' positive attitudes towards corpus use in language classes. (L2-10)

Being the second most frequented category in L1 and the most frequently employed one in L2 in terms of the types and frequency counts, NP usage was represented by 21 and 93 types with a frequency of 7.18 and 41.36 per 10.000 words in L1 and L2, respectively. Clearly, L1 adhered to less varied types of NPs compared to L2 in their doctoral dissertations.

The LL ratio of -3469.66 proved the statistically significant fewer usage rates of NP category by L1 against L2. Regarding the sub-categories, LBs of NP with embedded of-phrase were seen more frequently than other NP types in both corpora. Hyland (2008b) found that NP with embedded of phrase was the most dominant structure of LBs. This finding does not collaborate with some studies in the literature. In Byrd & Coxhead's (2010) study, for instance, PP represented 38% of the LBs in the corpus, whereas NP had a percentage of 24 in this analysis. As can be seen from (S3) and (S4), the author attempted to build a bridge between two contents in (S3), and to direct readers to a particular section in the dissertation in (S4).

(S3) Unable to explain the meaning of the lyrics, he tells the Kakyaks, "it is one of the many coon songs which are so immensely popular in my country. (L1-1)

(S4) In this part of the study, the relationship between the training and students' awareness and use of SRL strategies will be discussed to address the third research question. (L2-7)

Biber & Gray (2010) emphasize that NPs are grammatical devices of structural complexity, especially common in academic writing. Liu & Li (2016) further explain that achieving structural complexity is an indication of linguistic maturity in academic literacy. An understanding of the NP centered structural units contributes to the development of this academic literacy. An overuse of NP structures in L2 allowed us to suggest that L2 did not seem to have a complete knowledge of the appropriate usage of NP. They produced a style rested on massive use of NPs to give detailed information about the propositional content in terms of quantity, quality, size, and place.

These findings were parallel to Güngör (2016) and Güngör & Uysal (2016) who found that PP was the most frequently applied structural category of LBs among L1 while NP was mostly used in L2 corpus. In studies conducted by Hyland (2008a, 2008b), it can be observed that NP and PP were essential features of academic writing, which is parallel to our findings. In the same vein, Parkinson & Musgrave (2014) identify PPs as "the most common postmodifiers in the twentieth-century academic prose" (p. 49).

Another notable difference between the two corpora was that VP was the fourth frequented category in L1 corpus represented with ten types and 2.99 frequency counts per 10.000 words. However, it was utilized in L2 with 38 types and 12.43 per 10.000 words as the third frequently applied category. In (S5), the author tried to describe a certain point in the study.

(S5) Thus, to find out whether this difference is statistically significant, a binomial test was run. (L2-3)

Among the sub-structures of VP, the most paramount difference between L1 and L2 was observed in the use of passive verbs. Along with the scarce usage rate of the other sub-categories of LBs of VP by L1, passive verbs did not constitute a common LB in L1 corpus while they were the most common sub-structure of VP LBs among L2. Due to this fact, we observed -796.03 LL value indicating that it was applied significantly more frequently by L2 against L1.

It is quite clear that the utilization of passive verbs does not only allow researchers to present the propositional content and their claims objectively but to also distance themselves from their text and leave readers alone with texts, which increases the possibility of reader's approval towards their claims as seen in (S6). According to Biber et al. (1999), passive forms present an ambiguous attribution of stance. In addition, Hyland (2008b) explains that passive bundles not only assist readers through the text but also make the basis of claims clear for readers.

(S6) This can be seen in Figure 3.5 below, which re-plots the results of the simulations seen in Figure 3.3 to show the probability of a coda cluster being realized as a cluster. (L2-12)

As for clause-related category, we found 14 and 57 types with 4.17 and 24.39 frequency counts per 10.000 words in L1 and L2 corpora respectively, accounting for -2003.54 LL value, which revealed a rather statistically significant difference between the two corpora in terms of structural dispersion of LBs. The majority of clause-related structures were utilized through the use of anticipatory it in both corpora, but it was significantly more frequent among L2 compared to L1 as the LL value was observed to be -683.86, indicating a significant difference between the two groups. This sub-category usually indicates that the focus is on the evaluation of the propositional content with a disguise of the writer from the text (Hewings & Hewings, 2002; Hyland, 2008b). The examples (S7) and (S8) clearly display writers' claims without explicitly signaling themselves.

(S7) […] because of the rhetorical traditions students mentioned above, and, it is important to note, material circumstances. (L1-30)

(S8) As such, it can be argued that not having a child is suggested as a desirable attribute for a woman who wants to get married. (L2-28)

The last structural category, others, was at the bottom of the list in both corpora. It was observed with an occurrence of 0.61 and 1.14 times per 10.000 words in L1 and L2 with -21.39 LL value, which was quite low compared to other structural categories. The writer directed readers on how the sentence should be interpreted in (S9).

(S9) Therefore, it can be expected that the lack of these features will have a negative effect on the quality of writing. (L1-26)

Now that we figured out the use of structural units of LBs in the two corpora, we can move on to the functional analysis of LBs found in the data. Table 4 displays the comparison of functional units of LBs by showing the frequencies, the types, and the LL values between the two corpora. From the table, we can see that text-oriented function was the most dominant category, followed by research-oriented and participant-oriented in the two corpora, which is in line with Hyland (2008a) and Lu & Deng (2019).

According to Table 4, the text-oriented category emerged 20.45 and 56.11 times per 10.000 words with 54 and 121 types in L1 and L2, respectively, which was proven to be statistically significant with -2263.48 LL. Framing was the most frequently utilized sub-category in the two corpora with 21 and 43 types in L1 and L2, respectively, indicating that L2 employed a variety of this sub-category compared to L1. In L1, LBs, with the transition function, occurred as the second most frequently employed category with 20.45 times per 10.000 words and 15 types. Structuring was the third and resultative was the least frequently employed sub-category among L1. In L2, however, resultative was the second most employed category with 14.19 occurrences per 10.000 words and we observed 31 resultative LBs. Structuring also had the same number of occurrences with a frequency of 12.70 per 10.000 words. Transition was at the bottom of the list with 16 types and a frequency of 12.39 per 10.000 words. The functions of text-oriented category were illustrated in sentences (S10) - (S13):

(S10) In "American Callings" I too explore a specific, limited strand of American identity: the identity of liberal, cosmopolitan American citizens in a position to be able to extend humanitarian aid to someone else. (L1-1; framing)

(S11) This fact that himself is bound as a result of the semantic computation derives Principle A for LSOR anaphors. (L1-56; resultative)

(S12) The results are presented in Table 41. (L2-10; structuring)

(S13) Section 4.2 presents the qualitative evidence recorded after the informal interviews that were carried out throughout the study and the observations made as well as the open-ended questions forwarded in the questionnaires, and discusses these. (L2-11; transition)

Table 4 The functional distribution of LBs in the two corpora

		Type				Frequency				LL Ratio (p<0.05)
		L1		L2		L1		L2		
		N	%	N	%	N	N/10000	N	N/10000	
Research-oriented	Description	5	4.85	55	20.00	170	1.36	2799	19.80	-2492.30
	Location	3	2.91	9	3.27	272	2.18	794	5.62	-205.12
	Procedure	5	4.85	12	4.36	199	1.60	681	4.82	-221.58
	Quantification	8	7.77	19	6.91	328	2.63	1083	7.66	-355.92
	Topic	2	1.94	-	-	97	0.78	-	-	---
	Sub-total	23	22.33	95	34.55	1066	8.56	5357	37.89	-2613.04
Text-oriented	Framing	21	20.39	43	15.64	978	7.85	2380	16.83	-439.56
	Resultative	8	7.77	31	11.27	336	2.70	2006	14.19	-1118.48
	Structuring	10	9.71	31	11.27	359	2.88	1795	12.70	-871.82
	Transition	15	14.56	16	5.82	875	7.02	1752	12.39	-197.93
	Sub-total	54	52.43	121	44.00	2548	20.45	7933	56.11	-2263.48
Participant-oriented	Engagement	4	3.88	9	3.27	139	1.12	518	3.66	-187.37
	Stance	22	21.36	50	18.18	886	7.11	3048	21.56	-998.59
	Sub-total	26	25.24	59	21.45	1025	8.23	3566	25.22	-1185.35

The dominant employment of text-oriented bundles by two groups of academic authors suggests that doctoral students have an awareness of their audience and positioning their claims in the norms of their disciplines. This functional category is also an effective means for writers to stamp themselves as competent academics, which is mainly achieved by transition bundles (Hyland, 2008a). The high concentration on framing bundles also shows that both groups of writers tend to "situate arguments by specifying limiting conditions" (Hyland, 2008a, p. 49). In this way, they may limit the truth of the propositional content and their claims and reduce the risks of readers' objection to their claims. Although L1 focused more on "establishing additive and contrastive links" with the use of transition bundles (Hyland, 2008a, p. 49), L2 give more importance to establishing a cause-effect relationship with the use of resultatives. The striking difference between the two corpora in terms of type and frequency of structuring might be an indicator of L2 refer more on the organization of the text against L1.

Research-oriented bundles showed statistically significant difference (LL= -2613.04) between the two corpora as L1 used them 8.56 times per 10.000 words with 23 types while LBs with research-oriented function were represented with 95 types and 37.89 occurrences per 10.000 words by L2. Among L1, we found quantification as the most frequently employed sub-category, followed by location, procedure, and description. However, the topic occurred with low-frequency counts. The description was calculated as the most frequent sub-category in L2. The relatively less common sub-categories were quantification, procedure, and location. Topic was not observed in L2. With the use of research-oriented bundles, both L1 and L2 tend to refer to their research rather than its presentation. While L1 demonstrate

their competence by controlling the quantification of the material sources with the use of quantification bundles, the heavy use of description bundles made us to state that L2 emphasize how they conduct the research. Extracts in (S14) - (S17) below demonstrate the sub-categories of research-oriented bundles.

(S14) The majority of the cross-linguistic data presented in this dissertation has focused on breathy voiced sonorants as rare (L1-33; quantification)

(S15) The rules of grammar do not necessarily apply to idioms as they do to other expressions, and knowledge of the literal meanings of the individual words does not always assist in determining the meaning of the idiom. (L1-45; description)

(S16) Specifically, then, threateners strengthen their stance through an implicit and/or explicit control over the victim and an emphasis on the victim's active participation in the threat; they weaken their stance by demonstrating a level of compassion for the victim and saving face through the use of more polite language. (L1-24; procedure)

(S17) Another problematic issue at this point is that from their responses or their enthusiasm during the interviews, it was observed that the learners participated in the current study might have overstated their feelings about these activities. (L2-10; location)

These findings are in line with Hyland's (2008a) study in which text-oriented features are more frequently utilized than research-oriented ones in doctoral dissertations. In Güngör & Uysal's (2016) study, text-oriented features were more frequented than research-oriented features in L2 research articles while the vice versa was observed in L1 research articles. It is likely that the employments of LBs may vary based on genre differences. As Hyland (2008b) states, the use of LBs is shaped by genres.

Consistent with the findings of Lu & Deng (2019) and Hyland (2008a), both L1 and L2 preferred to use fewer participant-oriented features. This category occurred 8.23 and 25.22 times per 10.000 words with an LL value of -1185.35, indicating a statistically significant difference across the two corpora at p<0.01 level. Participant-oriented LBs were represented by 26 types among L1, while there were 59 types among L2. Both groups had the tendency of employing more stance bundles than engagement bundles in their doctoral dissertations, contrary to Hyland (2008a), who observed that 70% of this category consisted of engagement markers in doctoral dissertations, reflecting a reader-focused text. The overuse of stance bundles may reflect that doctoral students are comfortable with aligning themselves with a personal evaluation of the content and their claims, as shown in (S18). In (S19), the writers tried to draw the readers' attention to a certain claim.

(S18) While the preservation of the [h] in these cases is somewhat unexpected given that the epenthetic vowel is unstressed, it is clear that resyllabification is not forced. (L1-12; stance)

(S19) Moreover, it should be noted that it was assumed in this study that the three universities in question follow more or less the same curriculum. (L2-16; engagement)

In order to find out the most common LBs in the two corpora, we calculated LBs that occurred over 40 times per million words, as Hyland (2008a) suggested. The results revealed that 26 LBs in L1 and 93 LBs in L2 were calculated as the most frequently recurring LBs in the corpora. Table 5 illustrates these particular LBs, and the ones in bold were used in both corpora. A total of 16 LBs were shared by L1 and L2. Seemingly, either corpus did not share similar LBs, which is in line with Salazar (2014), who observed that the most frequently employed LBs by L2 were not preferred by L1 English academic writers. The most common first eight LBs in L1 corpus occurred in L2 corpus with varying frequency counts and orders. However, on the other hand was the most frequented bundle in both corpora, which is consistent with Hyland (2008a).

Table 5 The most frequent LBs in the two corpora

L1	L2		
on the other hand	**on the other hand**	in relation to the	of English language teaching
in the case of	the participants in the	in the present study	experimental and control
at the end of	**the results of the**	the number of the	groups
at the same time	as opposed to the	in line with the	of the fact that
as well as the	the end of the	with the help of	it is observed that
the fact that the	**in terms of the**	can be seen in	are given in table
in terms of the	**at the end of**	in other words the	as seen in the
it is important to	the evaluation of the	to find out whether	findings of the study
in the context of	the distribution of the	it was found that	**it is important to**
over the course of	it is seen that	that there is no	the students in the
the ways in which	significant difference	in terms of their	were found to be
as a result of	between the	**at the same time**	in the light of
that there is a	**as a result of**	majority of the	in accordance with the
the extent to which	**the fact that the**	participants	in the target language
the results of the	**at the beginning of**	native speakers of	according to the results
to be able to	the difference	English	number of the participants
at the beginning of	between the	most of the	on the basis of
in the United States	the participants stated	participants	when compared to the
the rest of the	that	the majority of the	it is clear that
in this section I	in the use of	there is no difference	it should be noted
in addition to the	**to the fact that**	**to be able to**	that most of the
in this chapter I	**in addition to the**	are presented in table	the nature of the
to the fact that	it is possible to	the name of the	the role of the
are more likely to	**as well as the**	the use of the	for the first time
it is possible that	one of the most	due to the fact	the most frequently used
in the same way	**that there is a**	in the form of	there is a significant
	of the present study	it can be concluded	as one of the
	in the case of	it can be said	more than half of
	is one of the	it can be seen	of the study is
	was found to be	with the use of	one of the participants
	the total number of	as can be seen	the relationship between the
	a statistically	with regard to the	that is to say
	significant difference	**the rest of the**	
	the analysis of the	with respect to the	
	as shown in table		

The structural distribution of the most frequently employed LBs revealed that there were 16 PP-related, five NP-related, three clause-level, and two VP-related bundles in L1. Out of 93 LBs in L2, however, the distribution of structural categories was as follows: 32 PP-related, 30 NP-related, 22 clause-level, eight VP-related, and one others. The structural distributions of the both groups regarding the most pervasively used LBs in both corpora exhibited that PP related LBs were the most frequently preferred one. As for the functional distribution of the most common LBs, we found that text-oriented function was the most commonly utilized one in L1 and L2 corpora represented with 14 and 43 types successively. Participant-oriented and research-oriented functions occurred in 6 types of LBs in L1, while these two functions emerged in 22 and 28 types of LBs in L2, respectively.

5. CONCLUSION

Academic writing has long been a great question of interest in some particular fields, revealing that it does not simply refer to the presentation of propositional content but reflecting authors' stance and interacting with readers through the use of some linguistic features, one of which is LBs. Drawing on a detailed analysis of two specialized corpora, the main goal of the current study was to assess the use of LBs by L1 of English and Turkish L2 of English in doctoral dissertations. LBs in this study were investigated in terms of their structural and functional units by using Ant-Conc software, and LL statistics were run to examine whether there was a statistical difference between these two groups of authors.

Overall we observed a greater reliance on LBs by L2, which might be an indication of their less confidence in shaping their texts. In addition, the small amount of common LBs in the two corpora can be interpreted as an indication of the culturally-shaped production of doctoral dissertations in the Turkish academic community. Hyland (2004) states that disciplinary communities have an influence on rhetorical practices of arguing the claims and engaging readers into texts. Whether or not they are conscious choices or unreflective practices, authors follow a community-oriented employment of linguistic devices to construct their stance, texts, and interaction with their readers. In this study, we clearly can see a discrepancy of LB usage in the L1 academic community when compared with the L2 community in that community-oriented use of LBs in the L2 academic community, which does not share much with the L1 academic community. However, it may reduce the credibility of these academic authors in today's global academic world, adhering to L1 English speakers' linguistic norms.

Differences existed in the use of LBs by the two groups of authors in terms of structural categories. While L1 preferred more PP bundles, L2, however, employed more NP related formulaic sequences. Having said this, though, we can observe that both groups used substantially more text-oriented bundles compared to research-oriented LBs, which may be interpreted as an attempt to create a reader-friendly academic text and thus communicate with readers, as had also been well observed by Hyland (2008a). The two corpora included fewer participant-oriented bundles. Suffice to add that stance bundles were more common than engagement bundles in our corpora. The least variety of engagement bundles showed that both L1 and L2 tended to create a distance-relationship with their readers. It is likely that they were reluctant to put themselves as a member of the discipline in the leans of their readers who are highly qualified professionals of the discipline. On the contrary, readers' refusal of the claims is a major problem for writers to be dealt with. Therefore, in order for writers to persuade their readers about the truth of their claims, they need to signal their stance and engage the readers in their texts.

Awareness of common LBs in a particular discipline is a prerequisite of gaining communicative competence in that discipline. Thus, it may be of help to assist learners in acquiring these features of academic genres (Hyland, 2008a). In the implementation of learner corpora as a teaching material to a curriculum, several points need to be taken into account. Firstly, LBs that are driven from the recent academic genres should be applied in the classroom with a particular purpose. It is also important to build a knowledge of LBs incrementally with a focus on context. Since each academic genre has its own linguistic conventions, teachers of English using the language for academic purposes should emphasize the existing diversity of LB usage based on genres (Byrd & Coxhead, 2010).

Pang (2010) claims that students taking general English academic writing courses do not have an academic identity in their discipline in addition to being unaware of the expected language skills in their disciplines. LBs are disciplinary-based and it is essential for academic writing teachers to highlight dissimilar ways in different disciplinary environments. Corpus-informed lists and concordances can be used as teaching materials to assist learners in identifying common LBs specific to their disciplines, and through consciousness-raising activities, they can be encouraged to apply such identified entities in their own texts (Hyland, 2008b). It is also possible to offer a genre-based and disciplinary-specific instruction of English in academic writing courses. In such courses, students' awareness of cultural and universal norms of academic genres should be raised. To illustrate, in MA and PhD dissertations, postgraduate students may employ more cultural norms since their readers are specifically their supervisors and academicians, yet for a piece of research to be published in an international journal, they should be aware of universal linguistic norms since the potential readers would be academicians from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Most importantly, academic students should respond well to the expectations of academic genres with the appropriate use of linguistic devices to marshal their arguments convincingly; construct their stance, and negotiate with their readers through their academic texts.

Despite the contribution this study provides by identifying LB employment by L1 and L2 of English in doctorate dissertations, it is, however, limited to such bundles in a specific genre and field. Therefore, it would be too daring to generalize the results to all academic genres and disciplines. As for implications for further studies, a program evaluation of a professional development course for teachers to adapt corpus-linguistics and its outcomes into their teaching might yield fruitful results. The main problem in the teaching of academic writing, particularly faced by L2 English teachers, seems that they mostly use course-books that do not provide authentic materials for students to learn appropriate linguistic conventions. In this sense, an analysis of learner corpora and specialized corpora consisting of academic genres will offer effective teaching materials to be utilized in academic writing classes. More corpus-based studies should also be conducted to identify unrecognized linguistic and cultural features that may affect and shape L2 English speakers' academic writing.

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DEVELOPMENT OF FUTURE TEACHERS' PROJECT COMPETENCE TO DESIGN LEARNING PROCESS OF GE, ESP, LSP

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Abstract. *The article discusses the problem of the formation of future teachers' project competence to design learning process of General English (GE), Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). We used the questionnaire to identify the interest of the third-year students in learning GE, methods, as well as factors which influence the study of GE at Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University. The methods of expert assessment and self-assessment were used to identify the level of project competence, based on such indicators, as the ability to determine the current level of language and professional training of students, their interests and skills; the ability to single out relevant information and communication technologies that are optimal for teaching GE, ESP and LSP in each group of students; the ability to differentiate methods to enhance the interest of students, create a positive emotional atmosphere in the classroom; the ability to determine the prospects for the development of personal and professional qualities of students; the ability to select the best methods for each student to study GE, ESP, LSP using on-line, e-learning. The data reflects levels of formation of project competence. In order to form this competence of future teachers, we have developed the project activities and creative tasks, aimed at the formation of skills and knowledge about the organization of learning process of GE, LSP and ESP.*

Key words*: project competence, design, learning process, future teachers*

1. INTRODUCTION

Today's challenges, including strengthening of the role of distance learning, the need to develop and implement effective methods of teaching English under these conditions, taking into account the individual needs of pupils and students, have highlighted the problem of preparing students for project activities. The intensification of project activities is also explained by the introduction of modern scientific approaches, author's programs, innovative methods of teaching GE, ESP, LSP. Future teachers try to discover everything pedagogically valuable for themselves in the latest experience; to comprehend and diagnose didactic and educational expediency, rationality and value of the latest methods. Thus, the formation of project competence of future teachers is currently one of the most

important to ensure highly effective teaching. That is why we set a goal to explore the problem of developing project competence of future teachers.

It should be emphasized that the concept of "competence", in addition to professional knowledge and skills, also includes such qualities as initiative, cooperation, sociability, ability to work in a group, to learn, think logically, select and use information, evaluate the effectiveness of activities. Project competence includes the ability to receive and process information, to make optimal use of acquired knowledge in professional activities interaction; self-assessment. Considering the scientific position of N. Redchenko that "a project activity allows students to act as authors and initiators, strengthen their creative endeavors, broaden their outlook and develop their language skills" (2016: 6203), the ability of students to design and test their own techniques in practice of teaching GE, ESP, LSP in various types of educational institutions is also important.

At the same time, scientists point out that project activities allow enhancing the students' motivation to learn English and promote social and professional values (Castañeda, 2014; Tarnopolsky, 2012). In addition, A. Kotkovets underlines that the project activity "fosters the development of language skills in an integrated manner, similarly to the way they are used in real communication" (2014: 66). We fully share the scientific positions that project activities promote more dynamic formation of students' professionally important competencies, in particular, intercultural communicative competence (Redchenko, 2016), the vocational students' productive competences (Jalinus, Nabawi & Mardin, 2017), self-development competence (Kniazian & Khromchenko, 2019). Furthermore, project method is a significant vehicle for learning ESP in professional training of future designers (Lee, 2009), musicians (Borisova & Letkina, 2019), engineers (Kotkovets, 2014), economists (Mushynska & Kniazian, 2019), geographers (Ke, 2010) and other specialists.

The project method is of paramount importance in the professional training of future teachers, as well as their pedagogical activity. B. Condliffe, J. Quint, M. G. Visher rightly insist on changing the teacher's role in the classroom in context of project-based learning. Notably, attention is drawn to the fact that "it requires that teachers modify their roles (from directors to facilitators of learning)" (2017). In this regard, a teacher of foreign languages is required to apply a variety of personal qualities and skills in their project activities. M. Aksela and O. Haatainen rightly conclude that these activities actualize "learning responsibility, goal setting, independence, and discipline…" (2019: 11).

Summarizing the above scientific positions, as well as basing on the design features of the GE, ESP, LSP learning process, we have the opportunity to assert that the project competence reflects the system of knowledge and skills in diagnosing the features of the current and future development of each student (Ke, 2010), the specific properties of interaction and communication in the student team (Condliffe et al, 2017), modern methods and technologies of teaching foreign languages (Tarnopolsky, 2012), techniques of professional self-development using ESP (Kniazian & Khromchenko, 2019). Accordingly, the components of project competence are diagnostic, organizational, and prognostic.

The diagnostic component of the project competence provides for the identification of individual abilities and motivation of each student during the learning GE, ESP, LSP, namely the character of the person's embodiment of his or her unique potential and how the student develops himself or herself in the educational, professional, social, and cultural spheres. Scrupulous attention is paid to the study of the hierarchy of value orientations and needs of the student, on the basis of which it becomes possible to determine the trajectory of his or her further self-development as a professional. The study of the

features of students' creative activity, the individual learning style allows designing the optimal conditions (stress-free environment in the classroom, effective teamwork) and teaching methods of GE, ESP, LSP and, thus, predict and achieve success in mastering all types of speech activity. Thus, we have identified such important skills related to the diagnostic component of students' project competence as ability to determine the current level of language and professional training of students; ability to determine students' interests and abilities.

It should be emphasized that the organizational component reflects the skills to select and develop effective methods to teach GE, ESP, LSP. A future teacher should grasp the development of a pedagogical phenomenon globally, see several options for its development at once, and creatively modify the educational process. The subject of the activity is the search for new options for combining known methods, as well as the design of their own methods, taking into account the originality of the intellectual activity of students, the experience of their creative activity. It is important to orient future teachers to research the methods of developing students; individual culture in the course of team activities. Effective teamwork produces a creative educational space, contributes to the continuous interchange of experience, working collaboratively the students have the opportunity to assess the multifunctionality of their influence on other people. Thus, the most important abilities were such as ability to choose from existing information and communication technologies that are optimal for teaching GE / ESP / LSP; ability to differentiate methods to enhance the interest of students, to create a positive emotional atmosphere in the classroom.

The prognostic component of the project competence orients future teachers to identify the prospects for the development of the personality of each student. Analysis, synthesis and generalization of the results of the actual development of the student and the student collective as a whole helps the future teacher to see the paths of their subsequent development and self-development in many ways. The activities of the future teacher provide for forecasting possible changes in the trajectory of professional training of each student, ways of developing their personal qualities, disclosing "tomorrow's personality", on the basis of which to design methods of self-study GE, ESP, LSP using on-line, e-learning. Forecasting allows for a propaedeutic assessment of the student's success and, accordingly, makes the necessary adjustments in the design of the learning process. Accordingly, the most significant abilities are the following: ability to determine the prospects for the development of personal and professional qualities of students; ability to sort out the best methods for each student to study GE / ESP / LSP using on-line, e-learning.

2. METHODOLOGY

We organized experimental work in which the third-year students who, after receiving a bachelor's degree, entered the master's program of Odessa National I. I. Mechnikov University, took part. At the beginning of our research 155 students were involved, 98 students entered the master's program and continued to participate in the experimental work. The experiment lasted from 2017 to 2020.

We put forward the assumption that the effectiveness of the formation of competence in the design of the GE, ESP, LSP learning process is ensured by means of a two-stage experiment, at the first stage of which it is necessary to organize the project activities of the third-year and fourth-year students in the course of their study of GE, at the second

stage − to offer the master's degrees students the creative tasks for independent development of projects for training ESP and LSP (German / French / Spanish).

The following experimental tasks were set:

- to identify the interest of the third-year students in studying GE, methods, as well as factors influencing the study of GE at the university;
- to diagnose the level of competence formation in the design of the learning process GE, LSP (German / French / Spanish) and ESP among third-year students;
- to organize a pedagogical experiment for three years (from 2017 to 2020), namely: to develop stages of organization of project work of the third year and fourth year students; to offer master's degree students creative tasks that involve the development and testing of their own teaching projects for GE, ESP, LSP;
- to diagnose the final level of competence formation in the design of the learning process GE, LSP (German / French / Spanish) and ESP among master's students.

To conduct the research we used such empirical methods as questionnaire, methods of expert assessments and self-assessments. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the obtained results was applied using the methods of mathematical statistics.

In order to learn the volitional sphere of the student, their interest and motives for learning GE, we conducted interviews with the third year students. They were asked to respond to questions using a 5-point scale, from excellent (5) to poor (1) (Table 1).

Table 1 Questions to identify students' motivation to study GE

Questions					
1. Which factors motivate you to study?		2. Which methods of teaching and learning do you prefer?		3. Which factors influence your attitude to the studying of GE at University?	
1a)	I want to receive higher education;	2a)	discussions;	3a)	its relevance to the future profession;
1b)	I want to gain profound knowledge;	2b)	question and answer sessions;	3b)	positive emotional atmosphere in the language classroom;
1c)	I want to get a good job;	2c)	workshops;	3c)	engaging tasks;
1d)	I do not want to get bad marks;	2d)	creative tasks;	3d)	personality of the teacher;
1e)	I want people to respect me.	2e)	lectures.	3e)	I like studying languages.

For the purpose of exploring the dynamics of the development of students' competence of designing the learning process of GE, ESP and LSP (German / French / Spanish) experts (teachers of Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University) assessed interviews with 155 third-year students and 98 graduate students − future teachers in various educational institutions. In particular, the experts had to assess the level of formation of this competence according to indicators that reflect the components of this competence, namely: the ability to determine the current level of language and professional training of students, their interests, capacities; the ability to choose from existing information and communication technologies that are optimal for teaching GE, ESP and LSP in each separate group of students; the ability to differentiate methods to enhance the interest of students, create a positive emotional atmosphere in the classroom; the ability to determine the prospects for the development of personal and professional qualities of students; the ability to select the best methods for each student to

study GE, ESP, LSP using on-line, e-learning. The same complex of skills was assessed by the students (undergraduate and graduate) themselves. We used the grading scale that assumes a score from excellent (5) to poor (1).

3. RESULTS

The questionnaire aims to explore students' learning motives (Table 2). According to the obtained results, the leading motives for teaching of university students are professional (I want to get a good job) and cognitive motives (I want to gain profound knowledge): 28% and 27%, respectively.

Table 2 Results of third-year students' questionnaires about the interest of studying GE

Questions					
1. Which factors motivate you to study?		2. Which methods of teaching and learning do you prefer?		3. Which factors influence your attitude to the studying of GE at University?	
Students' answers (%)					
1a)	22,0	2a)	25,0	3a)	40,0
1b)	27,0	2b)	13,0	3b)	29,0
1c)	28,0	2c)	21,0	3c)	31,0
1d)	04,0	2d)	22,0	3d)	0,00
1e)	19,0	2e)	19,0	3e)	0,00

The third and fourth places hold the pragmatic motive (I want to receive higher education) (22%) and the motive for personal prestige (I want people to respect me) (19%), respectively. The motive for avoiding failures (I do not want to get bad marks) took the last step (4%). This motive has a negative impact on students' achievements.

The results of the interview indicate that the dominant factor in the attitude of students to the subject is its professional orientation (relevance to the future profession) (40%).

The second and third places occupy engaging tasks (31%) and positive emotional atmosphere of the lesson (29%). Taking into account the data, we concluded that favorable attitude to the subject, and the positive motives, professional orientation of classes contribute to the development of project competence of students.

Table 3 illustrates project competence diagnostic results before the start of the forming experiment (before the experiment – BE) and after it was carried out (after the experiment – AE). Based on the data presented in table 3, it is obvious that the number of students with higher levels of competence formation in the design of the English language teaching process increased significantly in comparison with the initial cut. For example, before the experiment, there were almost no students whose skill "ability to determine the current level of language and professional training of students" would be assessed as excellent, but at the same time, a low level of formation of this skill was found in 23% of students in GE and 44% of students in the ESP and LSP. After conducting a forming experiment, the number of high-level undergraduates increased significantly, for example, in the aspect of teaching GE, they became 45%, ESP – 51% and LSP –53%. The same trend is observed in terms of the formation of other abilities, for example, the number of students whose skills "ability to choose from existing information and communication technologies that are optimal for

teaching GE / ESP / LSP" were formed at a high level increased from 14% to 46% (GE), from 0% to 53% (ESP), from 0% to 49% (LSP).

Table 3 Project Competence Diagnostic Results before and after the forming experiment (in %)

Grading scale:	Diagnostic component						Organizational component						Prognostic component					
	Ability to determine the current level of language and professional training of students						Ability to choose from existing information and communication technologies that are optimal for teaching GE / ESP / LSP						Ability to determine the prospects for the development of personal and professional qualities of students					
	GE		ESP		LSP		GE		ESP		LSP		GE		ESP		LSP	
	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE
1	23	0	44	0	44	0	21	0	46	0	48	0	24	0	23	0	34	0
2	33	0	47	0	46	0	28	0	47	0	43	0	35	0	40	0	36	0
3	18	4	9	2	10	4	17	2	7	2	9	5	20	10	35	9	29	8
4	16	51	0	47	0	43	20	52	0	45	0	46	12	49	2	45	1	45
5	10	45	0	51	0	53	14	46	0	53	0	49	9	41	0	46	0	47
Grading scale:	Ability to determine the student' interests, capacities						Ability to differentiate methods to enhance the interest of students, create a positive emotional atmosphere in the classroom						Ability to select the best methods for each student to study GE / ESP / LSP using on-line, e-learning					
	GE		ESP		LSP		GE		ESP		LSP		GE		ESP		LSP	
	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	AE
1	31	0	39	0	49	0	34	0	43	0	45	0	35	0	43	0	43	0
2	40	0	46	0	45	0	36	0	47	0	48	0	38	0	42	0	45	0
3	21	2	11	0	6	2	12	4	10	1	7	4	25	3	15	8	12	5
4	8	50	3	39	0	40	12	49	0	58	0	49	2	47	0	46	0	44
5	0	48	1	61	0	58	6	47	0	41	0	47	0	50	0	46	0	51

In parallel with this, the percentage of students whose skills were rated as "excellent" has increased after the experiment, for example, regarding the skill "ability to determine the prospects for the development of personal and professional qualities of student" there were 9% of students with this level, it became 41% (GE). Using the methods of mathematical statistics, we evaluated the average result for each level of development of project competence in GE, ESP, LSP (Table 4).

Table 4 Average results of the formation of project competence in GE, ESP, LSP (in %)

Level	GE		ESP		LSP	
	Before the experiment	After the experiment	Before the experiment	After the experiment	Before the experiment	After the experiment
1.	28,0	0,0	39,7	0,0	43,8	0,0
2.	35,0	0,0	44,8	0,0	43,9	0,0
3.	18,8	4,2	14,5	3,3	12,3	4,7
4.	11,7	49,6	1,0	46,7	0,0	44,5
5.	6,5	46,2	0,0	50,0	0,0	50,8
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

As it can be seen from Table 4, before the beginning of the experimental work, two-thirds of the students had a low level of development of project competence in GE

(35,0%), very low level – 28,0%. However, after completing the experimental work, half of the students already had a high level (49,6%), and a very high level – 46,2%.

The third-year students predominantly had a low level of project competence in ESP (44,8%) and very low level (39,7%) However, after the introduction of the stages of project activities and creative tasks, percentage of students with a very high level of this competence has increased significantly (50,0%). At the same time, there were no students with a low or very low level of formation of this competence.

As in the case with GE and ESP, project competence in LSP was formed at a very low level in 43,8% of students, at a low level - in 43,9%. But at a high level, it was not formed in any student. After the experimental work a very high level of this competence was revealed already in half of the students (50,8%).

These obtained results indicate the need to introduce specially designed projects and creative tasks into the process of GE, ESP, LSP, which allow achieving a higher level of development of students' project competence.

4. DISCUSSION

In order to ensure the effective formation of the project competence of undergraduate students, we organized experimental work, which lasted three years. First of all, we offer the following stages of organizing project work: preparatory, technological and reflective.

During the preparatory stage students learn theoretical material, discuss the structure of the project, make a work plan, collect and analyze information. Future professionals are invited to perform the following tasks: study the theoretical material on the topic of project work; make a list of theoretical sources; make a detailed plan-summary on the topic of the research.

At the technological stage students consolidate theoretical knowledge, discuss intermediate results. Variants of tasks of this stage are: develop exercises for the formation of skills of past tenses (at least 3 exercises); make a plan of an original fairy tale, story, etc. Describe in detail the place and time of the action, the heroes of the fictional story. Create and design your fairy tale or story using the past tenses of the English language (at least 4-5 pages).

The final stage of students' project work is reflective. At this stage students are asked to complete the following tasks: prepare for the presentation of your project; analyze the work done: students must evaluate their own work, explain the importance for them of a particular type of work. They find out what goal has been achieved, what skills have been improved.

Based on the presented results we elaborated the set of project tasks for the third-year students of GE. As part of the course "Practical English Grammar" we suggest implementing the project-based activities for the third-year students of the English department of full-time study on the design of the following themes: "Comparative Analysis of the Use of the Past Simple Tense and the Present Perfect Tense in Modern Dialogic Speech", "Comparative Analysis of Past Simple and Past Continuous Tense in Modern English".

According to our observations, these activities have a positive impact on the formation, first of all, of the organizational and prognostic components of project competence.

At the stage of professional training of master's degree students we offered creative tasks. These tasks aimed at developing projects for teaching GE, ESP, LSP were such as organizing

online / offline collective brainstorming, discussions, student scientific and practical conferences with graduate students. For example, a collective brainstorming session "My innovations in teaching GE, ESP, LSP" was held, the purpose of which was to highlight the various issues of innovation in teaching GE, ESP, LSP using the potential of e-learning. This task had a significant impact on the formation of ability to choose from existing information and communication technologies that are optimal for teaching GE, ESP, LSP. In order to develop the abilities related to the diagnostic component students interviewed teachers of higher educational institutions on the problem of increasing the effectiveness of training GE, ESP, LSP. Special attention was paid to the experience of introducing information and communication technologies; students analyzed the results obtained, identified directions for solving this problem which made it possible to form the prognostic component of project competence. Besides, a competition was organized, according to the results of which the most effective innovative teaching methods GE, ESP, LSP were selected and a kind of "bank of creative pedagogical ideas" was organized. In the process of teaching practice, students were asked to develop press conference programs, during which it was supposed to meet with GE teachers. Future lecturers developed questions on topical issues of motivating students to study GE, developing and implementing methods and technologies to organize educational activities for the first year students. Particular attention was paid to the discussion and analysis of innovative methods and technologies that teachers use to prepare students for independent mastery of GE, ESP, LSP, which is especially relevant in the context of the global crisis caused by the pandemic. An on-line discussion on the Structure of Modern ESP Textbooks was organized. In particular, textbooks on "English for navigators / economists / lawyers" were analyzed. Students studied the structure of various textbooks, principles and requirements for the presentation of the content of information of a linguistic and sociocultural nature, made up a typology of exercises for the formation of skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Based on the knowledge gained, they developed their own version of the ESP textbook for a specific level of language proficiency (A1 - C2). This approach made it possible to ensure a higher level of formation of all components of project competence, since future teachers had to diagnose the level of knowledge of students, develop and implement their own exercises, make a forecast of probable difficulties and methods, how to effectively avoid them.

The research perspectives are seen by us in the further development of the system of creative activity of undergraduate and graduate students. Scientific discussions regarding the use of cloud technologies for the formation of project competence of teachers in secondary and higher education will have a great impact on the formation of project competence.

5. CONCLUSION

In the recent years the problem of the formation of future teachers' project competence has become especially important. The project competence reflects the system of knowledge and skills in detecting the features of the development of each student, the specific properties of interaction and communication in the student team, modern methods and technologies of teaching foreign languages. We have developed a system of interrelated components of this competence (diagnostic, organizational, and prognostic). We carried out a study that involved determining the level of formation of these components of the project competence of students. A low level of this competence was found in GE, ESP, LSP. In order to increase the level of

project competence, we developed the stages of project activities (preparatory, technological and reflective) and creative tasks (organization of online / offline collective brainstorming, discussions, student scientific and practical conferences, development of questions on topical issues of motivating students to study GE, ESP, LSP, implementation of methods and technologies for organizing educational activities of first year students) which, as evidenced by the results of diagnostics, contributed to the formation of future teachers' project competence.

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Review research paper

USING LITERARY TEXTS
IN NORWEGIAN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract. *The use of literary texts in teaching language has varied from the strict focus on translation and essential grammar and vocabulary lists derived from the text to the more creative uses like acting, writing and debating. Nowadays, communicative language approach prevails in most classrooms and insists on immersing students into both the target language and culture. In this paper, the author argues that to accomplish this, one can use literary texts in a number of ways and help the students learn, practice and master various language skills, while at the same time relating the texts to the students' interests, goals and lived experiences and help them relate to the society whose language they are learning. Literature is presented as a great source of authentic material that can contribute to students' language enrichment and cultural awareness. According to the data obtained from the research conducted for the purpose of this paper, students learning the Norwegian language by extensive use of literature reported better understanding of the target culture, raised awareness of the different cultural patterns and improved language skills. The pedagogical implications of the research are that more authentic literary texts should be used in language classroom to boost successful language acquisition.*

Key words: *literature, language learning, cultural awareness, Norwegian literature, Norwegian language*

1. INTRODUCTION

Literature has always had an important place in language teaching, from the grammar-translation method to the communicative language teaching in use today. The use of literary texts has varied from the strict focus on translation and essential grammar and vocabulary lists derived from the text to the more creative uses like acting, writing and debating. Cook notes that during the reign of the translation method "success was measured in terms of the accurate use of grammar and vocabulary rather than effective communication" (Cook, 2003: 32) and that "using the language meant written translation" (Cook, 2003:33). There was no emphasis on fluency, but rather on the fact that one could correctly translate given texts, however abstract and removed from real life experiences they might have been. In language teaching today, however, the focus has been shifted

from successful translation to successful communication and what is highlighted now is "the ability to do things with the language, appropriately, fluently, and effectively" (Cook, 2003: 36). Stressing the relevance of the classroom tasks to the students' goals, as a part of CLT, has extensively featured in classrooms around the world, as well as the idea that "language is best handled all at once, as it would be in the real world" (Cook, 2003:37).

In this paper, the author argues that to teach students how to handle language as it would be in the real world, one can use literary texts in a number of ways and help the students learn, practice and master various language skills, while at the same time relating the texts to the students' interests, goals and lived experiences. Literature is presented as a great source of authentic material that can contribute to students' language enrichment and cultural awareness. Thus, the paper will present the author's experience in teaching Norwegian by using Ellingsen and MacDonald's book *Stein på stein*, which offers a variety of literary texts suitable for diverse type of activities. The student's book, intended for the intermediate (B1) level, is accompanied by the teacher's book that offers a wide range of possible tasks that the teacher can implement in her or his classroom. The author will show how she used the exemplary texts in her classroom when helping the students improve their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. The texts featuring in the student's book relate directly to the themes and topics of the units. The texts are mostly by Norwegian authors, thus providing the students with access to Norwegian literature while being a useful tool that provides the arguments for discussion needed in the specific unit. Lastly, the opinions, criticism and suggestions of the students who have completed the B1 course, regarding the use and importance of the texts given in the student's book, will be given and briefly discussed. In the conclusion, all the obtained results will be used to highlight the pedagogical implications of the practice of including literature in the language learning process.

2. REASONS FOR USING LITERARY TEXTS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

It is an undisputed fact that literature cannot exist without language. Literature is created by language and is in itself an example of language use. For centuries, it has been used to aid the acquisition of language, therefore Brumfit and Carter rightfully call it "an ally of language" (Brumfit and Carter, 1986:5). According to Lenore, just the use of drama in teaching promotes language development, develops critical thinking skills, heightens effective listening skills, increases empathy and awareness of others, strengthens comprehension and learning retention by involving the senses as an integral part of the learning process and reinforces positive self-concept (Lenore, 1993: 43-47). Collie and Slater also assert that including literature in language teaching can be extremely beneficial and to support their claim, they state four reasons to include it in the classroom. They claim that literary texts are "valuable authentic material" and that they can serve the purpose of "cultural enrichment" and "language enrichment" while also prompting the student's "personal involvement" (Collie and Slater, 1990:5). The reason why literature is seen as a "valuable authentic material" is, according to Collie and Slater, because it "offers a bountiful and extremely varied body of written material which is 'important' in the sense that it says something about fundamental human issues, which is enduring rather than ephemeral. Its relevance moves with the passing of time, but seldom disappears completely" (Collie and Slater, 1990:6).

The fact that many literary critics have been dissecting the same works of Shakespeare, for example, and have always found new meaning and related it to the time they lived in, proves that literature is always relevant and important. It is also "authentic" in the sense that it was not written with the idea that it would be used for language teaching but is rather an authentic expression of the author:

"In reading literary texts, students have also to cope with language intended for native speakers and thus they gain additional familiarity with many different linguistic uses, forms and conventions of the written mode: with irony, exposition, argument, narration, etc. And, although it may not be confined within a specific social network in the same way that a bus ticket or an advertisement might be, literature can nonetheless incorporate a great deal of cultural information" (Collie and Slater, 1990:6).

As far as the "cultural enrichment" component is concerned, the authors mention that it is important for the students to somehow experience culture and while those experiences are usually not readily available, they can be compensated by focusing on certain literary texts. Literature is full of colorful characters that come from different backgrounds and exhibit behavior that can be used to describe and understand certain customs, social codes and norms typical for the country they come from, and help the student gain insight into the culture whose language they are studying (Collie and Slater, 1990:6). Kitao asserts that having insight into the culture of the target language can account for language learning motivation and that after learning more about the culture of the language they were studying, the students "showed an increased interest in studying foreign languages and foreign cultures" (Kitao, 2000:17). Implementing the cultural context into foreign language teaching can be said to play an important role since, according to Kitao, "students have difficulty relating to the people of another culture without knowing anything about them" (Kitao, 2000:17).

Teachers worldwide advise their students to read more in order to improve their vocabulary and master the language faster. Collie and Slater advocate for the same practice by including "language enrichment" as their third reason for using literature in teaching. Students get acquainted with a variety of lexical and syntactic items when reading. They learn about syntax, various different ways of connecting ideas and using sentence structures which later can improve their own writing and speaking skills (Collie and Slater, 1990:7). Povey argues that "literature will increase all language skills because literature will extend linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage, and complex and exact syntax" (Povey, 1967:43). The texts can equip students with new idioms and expressions that can aid them in better expressing and conveying meaning. The authors claim that "literary language is not always that of daily communication, as we have mentioned, but it is special in its way. It is heightened: sometimes elaborate, sometimes marvelously simple yet, somehow, absolutely 'right'"(Collie and Slater, 1990:7).

Finally, the personal involvement fostered by the literary texts used in the classroom can improve student's learning experience and language acquisition because the student "becomes involved in the text and enthusiastic to find out what happens as events unfold via the climax; he feels close to certain characters and shares their emotional responses" (Hişmanoğlu, 2005:55). This can have beneficial effects upon the whole language learning process.

Hişmanoğlu mentions that, apart from all the reasons mentioned, using literature in language teaching is important because literature possesses sociolinguistic richness. It provides students with language varieties and exposes them to different dialects, sociolects, jargon, etc., thus developing the student's own sociolinguistic competence in the target

language (Hişmanoğlu, 2005:56). By acquainting the students with language varieties, literary texts help them adapt and better understand the culture of the language they are learning and can help them develop tolerance and acceptance of the existence of different forms of the standard language.

3. Ways of Using Literary Texts in Classroom

Carter and Long propose three approaches to teaching literature: the language model, cultural model and the personal growth model (Carter and Long, 1991:2). The language model focuses on the way language is used in literary texts and draws the students' attention to grammar, lexical and discourse categories. Literature is seen as a medium for teaching specific vocabulary and grammatical structures. Bobkina and Dominguez write that this model considers literary texts "as a wide source of contextualized linguistic features that can be systematically implemented through a wide range of activities" while the literary quality of the texts remains ignored (Bobkina and Dominguez, 2014:253).

On the other hand, the cultural model represents all the possibilities literature brings into teaching, regarding cultural awareness and appreciation of different cultures. Padueran calls this approach "transdisciplinary" because it does not bring into focus "mere language acquisition, but also the knowledge of a country's culture and ideologies" and encourages students to "go beyond the lexis to other components of a nation" (Padueran, 2015:196). This model demands that students explore, engage with and interpret the given text in regards to its social, literary, historical and political time and context.

The third approach, the personal growth model, tries to create a hybrid model out of the two models already mentioned. Carter and Lang state that it prioritizes personal experience "as a means to engage students in the reading process" while their interaction with the texts serves to "enhance their personal development and language awareness" (Carter and Lang, 1991:3). This model relies on the students expressing their own beliefs and opinions while engaging with the literary texts. Their critical opinion is valued and the connections between the texts and the students' real-life experiences are encouraged.

In this paper, the author advocates for the combined method as it will be shown in the following segments. The student's book examined in this paper contains preselected literary texts and the activities that accompany them. They vary from grammar exercises to debates about current political topics. The author will give examples and explain how the texts were used in her classroom in separate segments, each relating to a specific language skill that was targeted by the activities.

3.1. Reading

All of the literary texts in *Stein på stein* can be used for different reading exercises. First and foremost, they can all be used to practice reading. Even though the students are at an intermediate level, new words sometimes cause confusion because students are not sure about the word's correct pronunciation. Therefore, reading the texts can serve as a reminder of pronunciation rules. In the second unit of the book, the students read the excerpt *I sjasmines tid (In the time of jasmine)* from Tage Danielsson's book *Tage Danielsson: Bok*. The pronunciation of the words like "vidunderlig" and "barnslig" tend to confuse the students since the rule of never pronouncing the letter "d" in combination with "n" is constantly overlooked as well as the rule of reading "sl" as "ʃl".

The book contains questions regarding every text and they relate mostly to the topic of the text, the persons depicted in it and the themes. The questions encourage students to think and give their answers in Norwegian thus allowing them to practice sentence structures and vocabulary. What students find even more useful are reading comprehension exercises that mirror the exercises that are featured in official Norwegian language tests like "Norskprøve" and "Bergenstest". The tests bear resemblance to TOEFL and IELTS tests and the certificates are usually required from the foreign workers coming to Norway. By simulating the reading comprehension part of the test, the students can prepare and gain more confidence for the eventual participation in the official testing. The same simulation exercise can be done when testing and practicing other language skills, too.

Keshavarazi reminds that "literature provides learners with texts which are above the level of their production/understanding. In fact, literature helps students improve their reading comprehension of the language. They give chance to the students as well as teachers to set various forms of questions based on their contents" (Keshavarazi, 2012:556). By using the text given in the fourth unit of the student's book, the author of this paper has done exactly the same thing. The students can read and focus on the excerpt from Erlend Loe's book *Naiv.Super (Naïve. Super)* and then answer ambiguous questions about various parts of the text and explain some unfamiliar words. Since it is unrealistic to expect to be familiar with all of the words in the texts that would be given in "Norskprøve" exam, this proves to be an excellent opportunity to practice and recreate the atmosphere of the real reading comprehension test. As a modern writer whose style is ripe with irony, humor and exaggeration, Loe's texts present a great source of modern and creative use of language. His choice of words and his syntax can make the test challenging and didactic.

A lot of other strategies that Ritlyová mentions can be applied: skimming, scanning, predicting, intensive and extensive reading (Ritlyová, 2014:97). The students can match the titles with the paragraphs, extract specific information that is required of them, speculate about the development of the text and focus on finding certain lexical and grammatical units.

Naturally, these texts also serve to introduce new vocabulary and certain grammatical points. Some of the vocabulary can be suggested by the students, as was, for example, the case with the text *I sjasmines tid.* The students wanted to learn more about flower vocabulary and were presented with the list of flowers with their Serbian equivalent:

(en) blomst - flower   **(en/ei) rose** - rose
(en) tusenfryd - daisy   **(en) løvetann** - dandelion
(en) ringblomst - marigold   **(en) lavendel** - lavender
(en) fiol - violet   **(en) påskelilje** - daffodil

The same text can be used for the activity concerning the perfective forms of verbs. The students can try to find the verb forms, underline them and provide the infinitive and imperfective forms.

3.2. Writing

After having read the texts, students usually get written assignments whether as homework or as an in-class activity. The questions that appear in the book relating to the text can sometimes be used as an essay topic. The activities concerning writing are numerous. The students could write a short dialogue between the characters from the text, or write an imaginary interview with a character, write an original story, compose a new ending, insert

their own character into the text, pretend to be a character from the story and write a dairy for one day, give their own opinion about the text or the characters, etc.

The third unit features a poem by the Norwegian poetess Inger Hagerup called *Jeg vil bygge meg en gård (I will build myself a farm).* The poetess writes about building a farm and about her daily activities there. This poem can serve as a good basis for the written assignment about the dream house and dream job that the students wish to have. The students can write about their future jobs in Norway and what activities those jobs would entail. Since a lot of the students in the author's classroom were doctors and nurses, this activity prompted their questions about specific vocabulary related to their occupations. They also had to research on their own and had come up with some of the following results:

(en/ei) mental helse - mental health   **(en) diagnose** - diagnosis
(en) medisin - medicine   **(en) spiseforstyrrelse** - eating disorder
(en) blodforgiftning - sepsis   **(en) lungebetennelse -** pneumonia

The tenth unit gives the students insight into the Norwegian folklore and provides a good basis for comparative writing and gaining insight into the Norwegian fairytales, mythology and superstitious belief. Bottino claims that the students have to have the ability to "identify with the experiences, thoughts and situations in the text" and to be able to "enjoy it by relating it to what they themselves know about themselves and the world" (Bottino, 1999:213). She also states that "a learner who is involved with the text" will want to work on his or her language skills and will use the text as stimulus for further advancement of his knowledge of the language (Bottino, 1999:213).

The students read a fairytale called *Askeladden som kappåt med trollet (Askeladden who ate with the troll).* From the beginning, the students can draw parallels with their own culture by comparing the character of Askeladden with the Serbian folk hero Prince Marko since both are the heroes of many folktales. In Serbian folktales, Prince Marko encounters fairies, whereas Askeladden encounters trolls. They both rely on cunning and trickery and are depicted as mortal men.

In this fairytale, Askeladden outsmarts the troll and saves himself and his family from ruin. One of the tasks that the students are assigned is to retell the fairytale and write about what they would do if they were in Askeladden's place. The fairytale provides an opportunity to talk about Norwegian mythology and Scandinavian folklore. After the discussion in class, the students have to write an assignment on the topic covered and they have to answer the following questions: "Why do so many fairytales feature trolls?" "How does Norwegian landscape tie into this?" "Why hasn't this particular mythological being ever appeared in Serbian folklore?" "How do the mythologies of both cultures differ?", etc. After the discussion, the students are advised to watch certain movies, read other relevant texts and listen to music and podcasts.

3.3. Listening

Stein på stein is a book that comes with audio recordings of almost all the texts that can be found inside. The audio is recorded by native Norwegian speakers and can offer insight into the vast world of Norwegian dialects. One of the texts is read by Erlend Loe himself, so the students have the opportunity to hear the writer read his own work in the target language. Brown writes that:

"whether students are listening individually to a recorded poem to hear the uses of figurative language or the whole class is listening as their teacher reads a particularly dramatic chapter from the book everyone is assigned, students will hear and experience the sound of intertwining of words and their power to convey meaning and images and ideas and hopes. A shared listening activity provides both teachers and students with an experience that is both vital and immediate". (Brown, 2001:14)

However, when dealing with developing this particular language skill, passive listening without tasks will not yield significant results. As Ritlyová observes in her paper - "listening is an active activity" and states that any listening activity will be successful only if "the students are given a particular task and if they listen to find specific information" (Ritlyová,2014:98). As with both reading and writing, listening activities abound.

The teacher's book offers more texts that can be used besides the ones in the student's book. Another fairytale is given, *Askeladden som hadde gulleplene (Askeladden who had gold apples)*, that can be used in various listening exercises. The students can fill in the gaps, answer questions, try to predict the outcome after having listened to only half of the story, describe the character's feelings and motivation based on his or her tone of voice and words, answer true/false questions or do multiple choice, guess the meaning of new vocabulary, point out unfamiliar idioms, etc. Listening to the native speakers can also stimulate the learner's desire to approximate their speaking abilities to those of the native speakers "by adhering to the principles of rhythm, rhyme, and intonation" (Shazu, 2014:32).

In the fourteenth unit, students can listen to Henrik Ibsen's *Et dukkehjem (A Doll's House)*. The language of the play is somewhat different from the language of the classroom that the students are used to and that can help the teacher open a discussion about the way Norwegian language has changed throughout history and the implications of that change. This text can also lead, for example, to a compilation of Norwegian phrasal verbs and expressions with body parts. When students hear Nora say "bare fra hånden og i munnen" they recognize the words "hånd" and "munn" as "hand" and "mouth" respectively, but do not understand what the expression as a whole means. The teacher can then provide the students with a list of frequent expressions that contain words relating to body parts.

Brown states that "listening to books helps students to understand the development and evolution of characters and the interrelationships among them" and talks about her own classroom experience where her students had indicated that they enjoyed the assigned book more when hearing it on tape and that they loved experiencing the characters' unique voices and sharing their emotions (Brown, 2001:16). Personal involvement like this can enhance language acquisition and help the student feel more relaxed by creating a more carefree atmosphere in the classroom and therefore enable her or him to better focus on developing the language skills needed.

3.4. Speaking

Literary texts are very convenient for speaking activities and the teacher can exploit them to improve the students' communication skills. Activities like role play, improvisation, retelling, debate, oral comprehension check questions, presentations, etc. are all applicable here. The activities serve to improve speaking abilities and to maintain students' interests and involvements at the same time (Phat, 2013:676). Developing this language skill is what students focus on most, since the reason they are studying the language is to be able to use it in daily life and to be understood. This interest ties neatly with the goal of the communicative

language approach that is in use in most classrooms today. Ur says that "of all the four skills, speaking seems intuitively the most important. People who know a language are referred to as "speakers" of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing, and many if not most foreign learners are primarily interested in learning to speak" (Ur, 1991:120).

The text *Et dukkehjem* by Ibsen can serve well as the starting point for many of the already named speaking activities. Since it deals with the suffocative environment in which women lived in the 19th century and with criticism of the marriage institution it can be used in classroom as the basis for the debate about women's rights and male-female relationships. The students learn about the fact that the play was considered very controversial and that Ibsen had to change the ending for his audience in Germany as it was unimaginable for a woman to just leave her husband at that time. Ellingsen and Macdonald give extra texts in the teacher's book that can be given to students and also some questions that could help with the debate. The students split into two groups and then follow the rules of debating previously given to them by the teacher. The debate provides them with the opportunity to practice speaking but also to use the vocabulary they learned in the unit. More complex sentence structures have to be used in order to ground the arguments, so the students have to start using subordinating conjunctions, relative clauses and complex tenses. In any debate exercise students have the chance to share their views with their classmates and present their arguments confidently while the teacher has the opportunity to correct mistakes and assess students' overall communicative and linguistic competence.

The introduction of Henrik Ibsen and his work can be used by the teacher as a convenient occasion for learning more about the capital of Norway. By using the map of Oslo and Google Maps the students are encouraged to imagine walking down the main street of the city, Karl Johans gate, and reaching the National Theatre where they can see the statue of Ibsen. They practice giving and asking for instructions and can experience the way language figures in everyday life.

The ninth unit dealing with immigration and emigration introduces two literary texts that describe the lives of Norwegian immigrants in the USA and Pakistanis that emigrated to Norway. In the excerpt from the Norwegian - American author Ole Edvart Rølvaag's book *Peder Seier* students read about a frustrated Norwegian mother trying to stop her son's assimilation into American society. The learners could state their own opinions about the situation and imagine themselves and their own reactions in the given scene. They can be encouraged to enact it and provide arguments for their opinions. This particular topic can be of interest to the students because a lot of them anticipate moving to a foreign country and the activity can give them the chance to experience it through another person's eyes.

The other text by Norwegian-Pakistani writer Khalid Hussain deals with a similar topic. However, this time the author concerns himself with the potential loss of faith in the face of assimilations as opposed to the loss of language from the previous text. The dialogue from his novel *Pakkis* depicts a conversation between a father and a son concerning Islam and the ways in which the son has been neglecting his faith in order to be more like his Norwegian friends. The same activities already mentioned can be applied to this text. Both texts can be dramatized and acted out in various ways. The students can come up with the second part of the conversation or insert new characters or even themselves. Phat writes that role play can be a "riveting activity in which the students can develop the story in their own way, write their own dialog and bring their own props. This makes the classroom atmosphere become stimulating for all of the students and enhances the students' appreciations of a literary work" (Phat, 2013:676).

By doing all these activities students become active participants in the classroom rather than just passive listeners and they develop affinities for the written word and become aware of all the opportunities it offers.

4. STUDENTS' ATTITUDES ON THE USE OF LITERARY TEXTS WITHIN A LANGUAGE COURSE

The participants in this study were 15 students that had successfully completed the intermediate Norwegian language course and were using the book *Stein på stein*. They were all new to the Norwegian language and culture and were studying the language with the hopes of moving to and working in Norway. A set of questions (some open-ended and some yes/no questions) was used to collect data from the participants. The questions used focused on the following themes: language skills, cultural awareness, attitudes on the use of literary texts in teaching and critical assessment and suggestion of the activities. The overall scores of all participants are calculated and presented on the following pages.

Students' responses to the question of whether the texts used in the course contributed to their language acquisition showed that almost all students, 14 out of 15 (93.3%) answered positively ("Yes"), showing their belief in the positive effect of the use of aforementioned texts on their language learning (Table 1

Table 1 Literary texts' contribution to language learning

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	14	93.3
No	1	6.6
Total	15	100.0

When it comes to the improvement of the language skills, the use of texts influenced students' reading and writing skills most. This is probably mainly due to the frequent homework reading and writing assignments and the lack of time for the focus on listening and speaking practice (Table 2).

Table 2 Language skill improvement

Response	Frequency	Percent
Reading	6	40.0
Writing	4	26.6
Listening	2	13.3
Speaking	3	20.0
Total	15	100.0

The aim of understanding the Norwegian culture and relating to the people was achieved. Table 3 shows that 80% of the students felt that they understood the Norwegians and their culture better after having completed the course.

Table 3 Raising cultural awareness

Results	Frequency	Percent
Yes	12	80
No	3	20
Total	15	100

The positive effect of the use of literature in the course can be seen from the following statistics: 66.6 % of the students felt motivated to research the Norwegian culture more, thus enhancing their language acquisition by taking up more extensive reading of Norwegian authors. The students also reported greater interest in Norwegian cinema, theatre, music, architecture and linguistics.

Table 4 Motivation for further research

Results	Frequency	Percent
Yes	10	66,6
No	5	33,3
Total	15	100,0

The students were satisfied with the way the activities in classroom were conducted but they singled out dramatic monologues, essay writing, debate, presentation, role play and writing of the alternative endings for the texts they had read. One student explained that she liked role play "since it somehow dramatized the text and brought it to life". Another one explained that debating in class forced her to "have the thoughts translated into Norwegian" while the other considered the activity "a good practice for formal negotiations and arguments in real life, like working conditions and salary".

When asked to explain what they would do differently when dealing with literary texts and the way they were used in the classroom the students suggested various activities. One student wrote the following: "I would give the students freedom to choose the works they want to read and discuss. I would also organize a reading club or a literary club, where the students would have the opportunity to meet, look at the texts from different points of view and exchange their ideas." Other students suggested performing a simulation of a trial like they had done in high school. Learning poems and excerpts by heart and performing them in front of the class were also some of the suggestions. Making a short movie based on one of the texts or poems with a phone camera, bringing puppets and acting out a dialogue from the text and making power point presentations on the authors and texts were also some of the activities named.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper set out to argue for the inclusion of literary texts in the Norwegian language learning and to show its impact on the students already exposed to it. Babaee and Yahya write that "literary texts are reliable sources of linguistic inputs and can help the students practice the four skills – speaking, listening, reading and writing" and that literature is more "representational instead of referential" (Babaee and Yahya, 2014:84). Literature involves the students, their feelings, experiences and perceptions of the world.

It enables them to grow intellectually, raise their cultural awareness and build bridges between cultures. Türker goes on to say that the student who learns through the use of literature can feel "the power and possibility of contributing positively to a larger world than just his own" and that literature is an "ideal vehicle for illustrating language use and for introducing cultural assumptions" (Türker, 2014:304). Each literary text mentioned can provide the teacher with numerous language learning activities as previously mentioned. All the tasks and exercises based on a literary text can provide the students with invaluable practice and help them master different language skills, but they can also go beyond the classroom and help the students relate to different cultures and learn about and from them.

The courses that use the book *Stein på stein* and include its literary excerpts can be considered successful as shown by the statistically processed data obtained by the learners. The students reported an overall positive impact of the literary texts on their language learning process. They felt closer to the people of the target language and more inclined to further immerse themselves in the culture and explore it outside the classroom. They were given the chance to express their ideas in Norwegian, see how the idiomatic expressions are used, be creative and critical, open new horizons of possibilities and much more. In the end, one can conclude that using literature in language teaching can be beneficial for the students and their learning process because it not only gives them the opportunity to practice and perfect their language skills but it also builds up intercultural competence giving them insight into the culture of the society whose language they are learning.

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Review research paper

CHALLENGES AND ADAPTABILITY OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS TOWARDS VIRTUAL CLASSROOMS DURING COVID 19

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Abstract. *The outbreak of COVID 19 has locked down entire country and created a crisis situation. It compelled all Educational Institutions to close down. To keep teaching-learning process continuing, massive shift is being observed from physical classrooms to virtual classrooms. Language plays a key role in learning. Hence meaningful language learning is a must. Creating a conducive learning environment to teach languages effectively online, necessitates the use of virtual classroom by Language Teachers. However, it may create various challenges, unless the mindset of the teachers is positive and ready to adapt to new situations. Present study aims to find out challenges faced by the language teachers and their adaptability towards online teaching during COVID pandemic. The researcher used descriptive survey method. The sample of the study included 51 language teachers teaching at college level in the state of Maharashtra. The sampling technique used was snowballing through known contacts. The tool used was questionnaire. Data was analysed through descriptive and inferential statistical techniques such percentage, mean, standard deviation, graphical representation and 't' test. The findings of the study revealed that there is significant difference between the challenges faced by urban and rural language teachers. But no significant difference was found among urban and rural language teachers in adaptability towards virtual classroom teaching. Though teachers tried to adapt to online teaching voluntarily, proper training in the use of e-learning platforms, apt digital tools for language development and development of new skill set are recommended to adapt to the new normal effectively.*

Key words: *Language learning, Online teaching, Virtual classroom, COVID 19*

1. INTRODUCTION

The outbreak of COVID 19 has locked down entire country and created a crisis situation. Since the mid of March 2020 all educational institutions in India were shut down temporarily as a measure to contain the spread of novel corona virus. The pandemic has significantly disrupted the regular teaching-learning process in physical classroom. It has transformed the chalk-talk method to the one driven by technology. All educational institutions had to switch to online education so that there is no loss of learning for students and their education continues. While learning any subject, students

assimilate new concepts when they listen, talk, read and write about what they are learning. Hence meaningful language learning is a must. India is multilingual country which stresses the key role the language plays at all levels of education. As Altam Saleh noted, "A language is a tool that we use to communicate with each other; it may be our mother tongue, a second, or a foreign language that we learn."[1]. Language is a base for all other learnings. Hence meaningful language learning is a must.

A massive paradigm shift to online teaching through virtual classroom is being observed at all levels of learning due to COVID crisis. Technology has always been an important part of teaching and learning environment. The pandemic situation has made it compulsory for language teachers to use online teaching mode to continue effective language teaching. A virtual classroom has become the reality of today's education scenario. "A virtual classroom is a place where people can teach and learn interactively, communicate, view and discuss presentations and engage with learning resources while working in groups, all in an online environment."[2] The virtual classroom crosses the boundaries of location, time and space providing a flexible leaning environment for all.

However, migrating from traditional learning to fully virtual and online mode has posed many challenges for language teachers. Unless the mindset of the teacher is positive and ready to adapt to new crisis situation, a sudden shift towards online teaching is difficult. The unprecedented situation has posed many challenges with many questions at this stage remaining unanswered. Are the language teachers ready to face the challenges of online language teaching and adapt to virtual classrooms during COVID 19? With this research question in mind, the researcher aims to find out the adaptability of language teachers towards online teaching during COVID pandemic. The paper emphasises on the challenges faced by the language teachers while implementing e-learning platforms and teaching language in virtual classrooms.

2. METHODOLOGY

The present study used descriptive survey method. An online survey was conducted during the lock down period of COVID 19 between 12th June to 26th June 2020 in the state of Maharashtra, India.

2.1. Statement of the Problem

Challenges and adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19.

2.2. Aim of the Study

To study the challenges and adaptability towards virtual classroom by language teachers during COVID 19.

2.3. Objectives of the Study

1. To study the challenges faced by language teachers and their adaptability towards virtual classroom during COVID 19.
2. To study the significant difference in the challenges and adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19 with respect to geographical area.

2.4. Hypotheses of the study

1. There is no significant difference between the challenges faced by language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19 on the basis of geographical area.

2. There is no significant difference between the adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19 on the basis of geographical area.

2.5. Sample of the study

The sample selected was language teachers teaching at college level in the state of Maharashtra. The sampling technique used was snowballing through known contacts. The sample size was 51 language teachers. It included 82 % language teachers from urban area and 18% from rural area of Maharashtra.

2.6. Tool of the study

A Questionnaire was used as a tool to collect the data through Google form. The tool consists of 18 items out of which 13 were closed ended questions and 5 items were designed according to five-point Likert Scale to know the opinion of participants towards challenges faced by them and adaptability towards virtual classroom. The tool was administered via e-mail and social media platforms to get the responses from the target group.

2.7. Techniques of data analysis

The present research used the statistical techniques such as Percentage, Mean, Standard deviation, Graphical presentation and t-test for analysis of the data.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

An analysis of the results, gives us the understanding of the various challenges encountered by the language teachers to shift towards online virtual classes during lock-down period without any preparation and the efforts taken by them to adapt to this new normal situation created by pandemic crisis. The subtitles that follow pertain to the questions that were asked to participants and it discusses the results in detail. Further it tests the hypotheses of the study.

3.1. Virtual classrooms and lack of Technical skills

Teaching in a virtual classroom during lock-down period was considered as a challenge by 53% (27), an opportunity by 39% (20) and a burden by 7.8% (4) teachers. All the teachers in rural area considered it as a challenge (53% includes rural teachers), whereas 35% of urban teachers considered it a challenge and 39% took it as an opportunity. Majority of the teachers (76%) were of the opinion that shifting from physical classroom to virtual classroom is essential to continue the teaching-learning process during lock-down, 20% were not sure of it and only 4% believed that it is not essential. But while checking on preparedness for technical skills required for online teaching it was found that majority of them were not prepared at all or prepared to some extent and only 27.5% were well prepared to conduct online teaching. This clearly shows

that though majority teachers were willing to shift to online teaching, they were unprepared and lacked the technical skills required for it which was the major hurdle in smooth conduct of virtual classroom. As published in 'The Tribune', 'according to new research revealed by UNESCO's teacher task force, an estimated 2.7 million teachers in India who have been impacted by the coronavirus lockdown are untrained to deal with the altered situation.'[3] This highlights the need of training the teachers to cope up with the challenge of online teaching.

Majority (74%) of the teachers were asked by their institution to teach online during lock down period. For 10% teachers online teaching was optional whereas 16% did not receive any instructions for conducting online teaching. Technical constraints such as internet connectivity, power cuts, availability of gadgets for uninterrupted online teaching were faced, sometimes by 70%, Always by16% (includes 100% rural area), Rarely by 10% and Not at all by 4% teachers. It is noticeable that technical constraint disrupts the online teaching in both rural and urban area causing frustration and pressure among language teachers. As Susan Sun has stated in her study 'Time zones, Internet connectivity and bandwidth, technical breakdowns, individual students' schedules (work vs. study), etc. are all real issues facing online teachers and learners.'[4]

3.2. Awareness of e-learning platforms and digital tools

The orientation of teachers and students on the use of e-learning platforms prior to actually conducting online class was considered essential by 86.3% teachers. Though use of technology in language learning is not new, but sudden shift from physical classroom to virtual classroom without any proper training or orientation towards the use of e-learning platform, unpreparedness towards technical skills was a challenge for the language teachers. The result of De Paepe et al. agrees that 'acquiring technical skills prior to switching to virtual classroom is a must.'[5]

In a traditional language classroom, teachers facilitate the learning experiences which prompts the peers to interact spontaneously. For successful language learning, participation of learners and interaction with them is of crucial importance. For interactive virtual language classroom knowledge of various e-platforms, digital tools and its apt use at proper time for developing various language skills is a must. The results of awareness of using e-learning platforms prior to lockdown shows that the most known e-learning platforms were Zoom app (39%), Google classroom (39%), Google Meet (27%), followed by Edmodo (6%), Moodle (6%), Microsoft Team (5%) and Cisco WebEx (5%). But 23.5% were not at all aware of any of the e-learning platforms which poses a big challenge for conducting a virtual language classroom.

It was also observed in a survey that very few teachers were aware of the digital tool such as Thing Link (7%), Kahoot (7%), H5P Applications (4%), Podcast (11%) etc. and hardly use them in their virtual classroom for making the language learning more interactive and student centric. You Tube videos (61%) and Interactive PPT (59%) were the most used digital tools in the classrooms, which may not be sufficient to engage the students. Surely, teachers need proper orientation to online teaching and knowledge of various digital tools, specifically for online language class and its effective use to make language learning more interactive. De Paepe et al. also stated that professional development is perceived necessary to acquire the indispensable technical and pedagogical skills.[6]

Table 1 gives descriptive data analysis of Likert scale items on challenges and adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom.

Table 1 Descriptive data analysis of challenges and adaptability of language teachers

Questionnaire Items	Participant's Responses (in %)					Mean	S.D.
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree		
1. Necessity of orientation to e-learning platforms prior online class.	86.3	2	9.8	2	-	4.72	0.72
2. Difficulty in developing e-content	45.1	7.8	27.5	11.8	7.84	3.70	1.36
3. Difficulty in continuous engagement of students in virtualclassroom.	70.6	9.8	7.8	11.8	-	4.39	1.05
4. Monitoring of online assessment is roadblock to online language teaching.	56.9	13.7	21.6	5.8	2	4.17	1.09
5. Continuation of online teaching after lock-down gets over.	51	2	37.3	5.8	4	3.90	1.22

3.3. Face to face interaction and Student engagement

From Table 1(item 3), it is evident that 70.6% (M=4.39) of the teachers found it difficult to keep students engage continuously in a virtual language classroom. This corroborates with the results, "Student engagement and the facilitation of collaboration among students is perceived difficult and that online teachers need to make a shift towards an individualized, learner-centred teaching model."[7] In a normal physical classroom, body language, facial expressions, and teachers' voice are all important teaching tools. At the same time, emotional engagement, bonding and verbal communication with students, makes language learning more effective. In a virtual classroom it may be missing. "Once a course is switched to online teaching, body language and facial expressions are under restrictions as it is difficult to use these tools through screens, and only "voice" could be fully functioned."[8]

14. While teaching language discourse in a virtual classroom, I miss the following things
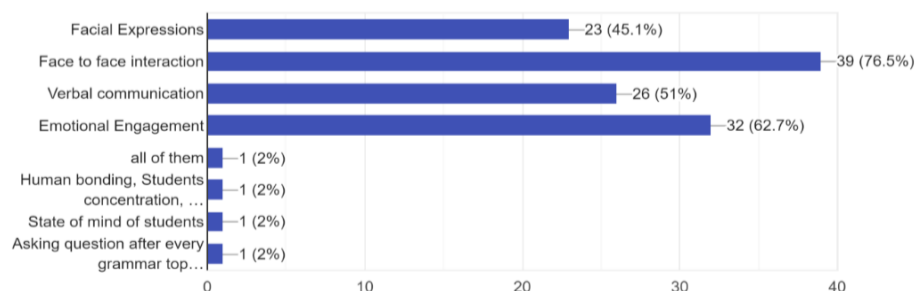51 responses

Fig. 1 The most missed things in virtual language class

The Bar Graph above (Figure 1), clearly shows that in a virtual language classroom teacher misses face to face interaction (76.5%) the most, followed by Emotional Engagement (62.7%), Verbal communication (51%), and Facial Expression (45.1%). As stated by Sun in her study "Even if a teacher manages to have students all coming to the virtual classroom at the same time, simple things such as the loss of lip synchronization and verbal clues, time lags, poor sound and images, turn-taking, etc. become huge challenges."[9] The results in the present study shows that few language teachers also miss the interaction, human bonding with the students and their state of mind during virtual classroom sessions.

3.4. Language Skills

"Language learning is a skill-based process rather than a content-based one. Skill developments, such as the acquisition of speaking and listening skills, required constant synchronous interaction in the target language."[10] The development of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are equally important for any language learning. The results in the present study show that the use of digital tools in a virtual classroom improves the listening skill the most (82.4%), followed by speaking skill (7.8%), reading skill (7.8%) and the least developed is writing skill (2%). It emphasizes the need to develop the digital tools which can be used by all the language teachers catering to development of all the language skills equally.

3.5. E-content and Online assessment

It was observed that conducting examination (39.2%) and doing assessment (35.3%) were the most difficult part of virtual language classroom than teaching (11.8%) and learning (13.7%). The pie chart below shows the percentage of the responses for the most difficult part in a virtual classroom of a language.

19. What was the most difficult part in a virtual classroom of a language?
51 responses
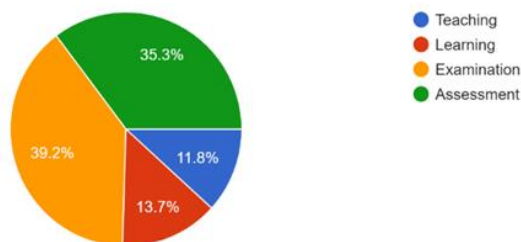
- Teaching
- Learning
- Examination
- Assessment

Fig. 2 The most difficult part in a virtual language class

Only conduct of online lectures in a virtual classroom is not sufficient, it also requires sufficient e-content, online study material, spreadsheets, practice sheets etc. so that students can access them easily. It is very essential that along with online teaching-learning process, the student's progress is also being tracked with timely conduct of examination and proper evaluation through online modes in this situation of pandemic. Teachers need to be conversant with procedure of e-content development and proper use of various digital tools

for assessment. It can be seen from Table 1(item 2), 53% teachers found development of e-content, a tedious work. But there are 27% who remained neutral, maybe they haven't yet developed any e-content and for 20% teachers e-content development was not tedious work. It is also observed that 70% of the teachers agree that monitoring of online assessment is the roadblock to effective online language teaching which can be seen in Table 1 (item 4). Very few teachers use any digital assessment tools such as Classmarker (17.6%), Blog (9.8%), Animoto (3.9%), Rubrics(9%). The most used is Google form (53%), but alarming 43% teachers do not use any of these assessment tools which shows their ignorance and lack in digital competence. In Sun's study she quoted Compton (2009, p.82) that a novice online language teacher must learn and possess the knowledge of strategies to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction, curriculum design frameworks and strategies for online language assessment.[11]

3.6. Adapting to virtual classrooms

As there was no other option but to conduct virtual language classes during pandemic, teachers have taken various efforts to adapt themselves to new normal i.e., virtual learning by attending Faculty development programs (62.7%), Webinars (60.8%), Practice and implementing e-learnings (49%), Self-learning (68.6%) etc. They agree that pandemic situation has given them an opportunity to develop themselves and their skills, by shifting to online teaching, such as Technical skills (84.3%), Professional Development (45%), Adapting to new teaching culture (68.6%), Pedagogy skills (31.4) and it is also observed from Table 1 (item 5) that 53% teachers would continue the trend of online teaching even after lock-down period is over to make language learning more interactive. Overall, it can be said that traditional professional expertise i.e., competence in language, pedagogical knowledge, experience in teaching language is not suffice to survive in new normal. "Synchronous online teaching requires a new and extended skills set."[12] Online teaching requires technological knowledge and awareness of web-based tools along with pedagogical and content knowledge. It needs a distinct set of skills to be used in virtual classroom. Teachers need proper training and exposure to digital tools to adapt to virtual classroom successfully.

3.7. Testing of Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference between the challenges faced by language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19 on the basis of their geographical area.

Table 2 Relevant statistics of challenges of language teachers
on the basis of their geographical area

Variable	Geographical area	N	Mean	SD	df	't' value	P	Significance (0.05 level)
Challenges of language teachers	Urban	42	3.90	1.32	49	2.35	0.02	Significant
	Rural	9	2.77	1.20				

For above Table 2, for N=51, df=49, tabulated t=2.01 at 0.05 level

From Table 2, it can be seen that the obtained 't' value is 2.35 which is greater than tabulated 't' value and 'p' values is less than 0.05, hence it is significant. That means

hypothesis is not accepted. Therefore, there exists significant difference between the challenges of language teachers on the basis of their geographical area.

The findings of the above reveal that language teachers working in rural areas face many challenges as compared to urban language teachers. Inadequate infrastructure facilities, technical constraints such as internet connectivity, bandwidth, availability of devices during lock-down, unawareness of e-learning platforms and digital tools for language teaching and development of e-content, could be the challenges that language teachers face in rural areas. In Susan Sun's study she mentioned, 'It seems that online teachers are, by and large, left to do their own experiments and perhaps learn from their own mistakes.'[13] This emphasises proper guidance and training to language teachers prior shifting to virtual classroom.

3.8. Testing of Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference between the adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom during COVID 19 on the basis of their geographical area.

Table 3. Relevant statistics of the adaptability of language teachers
on the basis of their geographical area

Variable	Geographical area	N	Mean	SD	df	't' value	P	Significance (0.05 level)
Adaptability of language teachers	Urban	42	4.76	0.69	49	0.77	0.44	Non significant
	Rural	9	4.55	0.88				

For above Table 3, for N=51, df=49, tabulated t=2.01 at 0.05 level

For the above hypothesis 'p' value is greater than 0.05. Hence it is not significant. That means hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there does not exist a significant difference in the adaptability of language teachers towards virtual classroom on the basis of their geographical area.

Though the lock-down period has forced the teachers to shift to online teaching and virtual classroom without any proper training, it has also provided an opportunity for many teachers to improve their technical and pedagogical skills by attending various workshops, seminars, conferences etc. To continue teaching-learning process without any hinderance teachers from both urban and rural area have taken various efforts to adapt themselves to new normal by self-learning. It shows that geographical area does not influence the adaptability towards virtual classroom.

4. CONCLUSION

Due to sudden emergence of COVID-19, new normal has emerged, a virtual classroom. This study conducted the survey of 51 language teachers in Maharashtra and found insightful information regarding the challenges faced and adaptations made by the language teachers while conducting virtual language class. Unpreparedness, Lack of proper training, Technical constraints were found as common challenges, both in urban and rural area of Maharashtra. Unawareness of e-learning platforms and digital tools for language teaching, developing e-content, engaging students in virtual classroom, development of language skills specially writing skill, monitoring online assessment were seen as major challenges in present study. Language teachers in rural areas had to face these challenges more as digital

tools and content are readily available in English language. Hence adapting to online teaching is easier for teachers teaching English language. Teachers teaching other regional languages had to work hard and put efforts in overcoming the challenges. Proper infrastructure facilities and technical support in rural areas, training in the use of e-learning platforms, apt digital tools for language development and development of new skill set are recommended to adapt to the new normal. Infusing creative ideas and innovation while creating new online language material and facilitating online transaction is the need of the hour. A competent teacher is the one who transforms challenges into opportunities and is ready to learn, unlearn and relearn. Developing positive mind set among language teachers and a fresh new approach towards virtual classroom teaching will help survive this storm of COVID 19 in education. The findings of this study will make teachers aware the practical problems of online language teaching and help all other language teachers to prepare in advance and adapt successfully to virtual classrooms. It will also give insight to Educational Institutions for conducting the apt and necessary orientations, workshops, webinars, faculty development programs required by the language teachers to develop new set of skills.

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Review research paper

STRATEGIES IN AUTONOMOUS LEARNING OF PROFESSIONALLY ORIENTED ENGLISH COMMUNICATION

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Abstract. *The article presents learning strategies that affect the process of students' autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication. The article provides various definitions and main characteristics of learning strategies used in the process of mastering English as a foreign language, and a number of factors that influence the students' choice of learning strategies as well. The learning strategy of autonomous learning is defined as a course of a goal-seeking and controlled behavior, which is organized in a certain way and is chosen by students to perform the tasks that they set for themselves. The study describes an explicit model of mastering strategies based on instructions, Oxford's Strategy Training Model (STL), which was introduced in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication. The main steps for the model implementation are presented and conditions, which are to be followed in its application, are identified. Experimental training with the use of the mentioned model of mastering strategies based on instructions was conducted among first-year students of the Pedagogical University, who are autonomously learning English as a foreign language. The analysis of the research results confirmed the effectiveness of the chosen model of mastering strategies based on instructions in the process of autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication. The use of this model makes the learning process more efficient as it increases the student's motivation and self-confidence, forms autonomy and independence, shows the interaction of foreign language learning strategies with other disciplines, makes the learning process open and clear, forms responsibility, and teaches introspection and task modification.*

Key words: *learning strategies, autonomous learning, professionally oriented English communication, intending educators*

1. INTRODUCTION

Active use of foreign language learning strategies helps students to control their own learning, develop language and speech skills, increase confidence and motivation to learn a language. Applying learning strategies increases autonomy and promotes students take responsibility for their learning. The more strategies students use the more confident, motivated and independent they feel. The priority task of the teacher is the selection of

appropriate teaching methods and strategies for students and the formation of their ability to use these strategies properly to increase the level of their autonomy in learning.

The research aim was to determine the level of strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication, as well as analysis of the data and determine the impact of strategies on learning results.

In the study, autonomous professionally oriented English communication is defined as a free, self-selected and managed, internally motivated learning activity to master professionally oriented English communication, which involves students to perform a set of action sequences: defining aims and objectives of educational activities, subordination of interests to the aim achievement, self-management in determining the educational activities and time for their implementation, and self-control of educational activities as well.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning strategy is also interpreted as purposeful thinking and behavior in order to remember and understand new information in the learning process (Oxford et al., 1988). Oxford (1990, p. 6) explained that "strategies are especially important for language learning, because they are a tool to stimulate independent activity, which is important for the development of communicative competence". Oxford's definition has gained a positive resonance in the professional environment, and has become the most cited in the scientific and methodological literature. According to the authoritative researcher, foreign language learning strategies are "specific actions, taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations"(Oxford, 1990, p. 8). It is a reflection of what the students intend to do and of the specific actions, they can take. The use of strategy is useful and effective if: a) the strategy is well combined with the purpose and task of mastering a foreign language, b) the strategy corresponds to the individual learning style of the student, and c) the student effectively uses the strategy and combines it with other relevant strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

Foreign language learning strategies have been described by Wenden and Rubin (1987) as "any set of operations, steps, plans, procedures used by a student to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information". Richards et al. (1992, p. 209) have argued that learning strategy is a goal-seeking thinking and behavior of the students during learning that help them find, understand, and remember new information. This definition related to the definitive characterization proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1), who have understood learning strategies as conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to understand, learn or store new information. Ellis (1994) has defined language learning strategies as the processes by which students accumulate new rules and automate existing knowledge through the processing of perceived information and simplification of it through experience. Thus, learning strategies are defined by experts as special ways of processing information that improve the understanding, study or storage of information. In addition, Cohen (1990, p. 4) have argued that *foreign language learning strategies* are a process of students' conscious choice of actions they take to make learning more effective or improve the use of a foreign language by means of storage, reproduction and application of the information about this language.

Thus, Faerch and Casper (1989) have emphasized that the learning strategy itself is an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence by means of the foreign

language, which is being studied. In the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2018), learning strategies refer to the intellectual tools that language learners use to mobilize and balance their resources, to enhance skills in order to meet their communication needs in a specific situation and to complete the task successfully in the most comprehensible and economical way depending on a specific purpose. The application of strategies can be considered as the implementation of cognitive principles of *planning, accomplishment, control and correction* in various types of communicative activities: *perception, interaction, production and mediation*.

Learning strategies are defined as self-regulatory tools aimed at achieving and developing communication skills. Unlike teaching methods, learning strategies are of a rather complex and complicated character. It is a great number of actions, which are taken to achieve a goal. The strategy is a gradual sampling of successive temporary goals, which are dedicated to a common target goal, and the means of its proper application. According to Ellis (1994), Oxford and Cohen (1992), learning is a short-term application of specific behaviors or devices, while learning strategies are long-term processes, and students use different strategies at different stages of the learning process. Students resort to different learning strategies when they encounter different problems in the process of learning a foreign language, so learning strategies are problem-oriented (Dmitrenko et al., 2020).

Learning strategies used in the language learning process are classified by many language learning professionals, among them there are Bialystok (1981), Bimmel and Rampillon (1999), Ellis (1994), Oxford (1990), O'Malley et al. (1985), Stern (1992), Willing (1988), and others. The classification of language learning strategies has helped to link strategies to different phases of cognition in language learning. At the same time, the researchers developed their own taxonomy of strategies as part of their research, using different data collection methods. It should be noted that most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies are relatively the same and do not contain noticeable differences (Zare, 2012, p. 164). Analysis of scientific literature suggests that scientists' understanding of classifications of foreign language learning strategies is based on different levels: more general and specific, in accordance with close and promising learning goals (Shi, 2017). Thus, the main strategies of autonomous professionally oriented English communication are: 1) strategies for overcoming speech difficulties in foreign language proficiency (direct strategies): memorization, cognitive, and compensatory strategies; 2) strategies for organizing autonomous learning of professionally oriented communication in a foreign language (indirect strategies): metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

The analysis of scientific literature on the researched problem has shown that various factors influence students' choice of foreign language learning strategies. For instance, Ellis (1994) has distinguished individual, social and situational factors that influence the students' choice of learning strategies. Chamot and Kupper (1989), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), Oxford et al. (1988) have identified factors that influence the choice of foreign language learning strategies: age, gender, learning style, cultural background, type of tasks, motivation, learning context, language skills, attitude and perception of the educator.

Many scientific studies (Anderson, 2005; Bruen, 2001; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rahimi et al., 2008) have dealt with the interaction between learning strategies and students' knowledge. Their results have shown that those students who regularly use different learning strategies make progress in language acquisition. It has been found out that the choice of strategies is also influenced by individual learning style (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). It is the individual learning styles of students that play

a crucial role in choosing language learning strategies. It is evident that a confluence of individual learning styles and language learning strategies is necessary. Due to this fusion, students will succeed in their foreign language communication, feel confident and calm (Oxford, 2003).

The analysis of scientific research has shown that among the above mentioned ways of mastering strategies, the most effective one is the last way – to integrate learning with the study of language strategy instructions into a foreign language lesson. Chamot and O'Malley (1987), Oxford and Leaver (1996) have indicated that compared to isolated (separate from practice) lectures and workshops, integrated learning strategies are much more effective. They can be incorporated into curricula to optimize learning, as it involves the use of authentic speech learning tasks and their long-term implementation (Lai, 2013).

Grenfell and Harris (1999), Oxford (1990) have noted that instructions for the application of learning strategies should be provided explicitly, integrating them into the practical course of learning a foreign language.

Unlike the implicit presentation of strategies, which does not provide students with special guidance on the purpose of learning (why to learn), explicit instructions cultivate a conscious attitude to the application of strategies, present the strategy, model its practical use, help assess its effectiveness. Thus, informing students about how, when and why strategies are used, enabling them to apply strategies in different learning tasks and transfer the implementation of strategies in new contexts and tasks, which is extremely important in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication for intending educators (Dmitrenko et al., 2020).

The scientific literature have presented various explicit models of mastering strategies based on instructions in the process of learning a foreign language, among which the most notable are: Pearson and Dole (1987), Oxford (1990), Chamot (2005), Cohen (2000), Grenfell and Harris (1999), and others. Explicit instructional strategies for learning English were found to be more widely and effectively used in the learning process than implicit models.

For the research, Oxford's Strategy Training Model (STL) has been chosen (Oxford, 1990), which belongs to explicit instructional strategies for learning English. The Strategy Training Model has a step-by-step application and is flexible in terms of procedure. It means that each step can be changed or done anew according to the tasks with different requirements and intentions. Implementation of the model consists of the following *steps*: 1) The student is asked to be deep in an authentic language task and do it without teacher's instructions and guidance on the learning strategy. 2) The teacher helps students evaluate the strategy that has been used. 3) The teacher suggests and demonstrates useful learning strategies, emphasizes the necessity of self-management and mentions the expected results. He / she also makes sure that students are aware of the rationality of the strategy, which is being used. 4) The teacher gives students some time for the practical application of new learning strategies doing language or speech tasks and shows how these strategies can be applied to other tasks. 5) The teacher provides the practice of using techniques with new tasks and allows students to make a choice of what learning strategies they will use to do language learning tasks. 6) The teacher helps students understand how to evaluate the success of their learning strategy and measure their progress as responsible and independent students.

3. METHODOLOGY

Implementing the Strategy Training Model, the repertoire of strategies for a foreign language acquisition is formed by each student individually and can remain unchanged or expand due to new strategies. While giving instructs to students on the learning strategies, it is necessary to follow the *basic rules*:

1) students should be explained the importance of learning strategies while learning and using a foreign language;

2) it is necessary to show the benefits of using learning strategies for improving learning efficiency;

3) each strategy should be named (it does not necessarily have to coincide with the official name used in the scientific and methodological literature, for example, 'selectivity of attention' can be reformulated as 'pay attention to the main'). It increases students' awareness of cognitive processes, helps to remind of the necessary strategy when the teacher assists;

4) students should be given the opportunity to practise appropriate learning strategies in doing various tasks;

5) it is important to teach students to evaluate the success of a particular learning strategy for the desired result. This process requires discussion and analysis of the strategies, which are used, at the same time, it is important to encourage students to transfer learned strategies to new tasks.

3.1. Instrument and Procedures

The main procedure ways for students to master learning strategies in the autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication were determined:

1. Detecting the level of learning strategies acquisition using the questionnaire "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" (Version 7.0) (Oxford, 1990).

2. Acquaintance with the repertoire of strategies based on the list of strategies "Language Strategy Use Survey" (Cohen, 2006) proposed by the teacher.

Due to this list students determine what learning strategies and to what extent they will apply in different types of speech activity.

3. Implementation of the Strategy Training Model:
- demonstration of learning strategies application by the teacher with comments and taking into account the individual learning style;
- implementation of an explicit model of learning strategies on the basis of instructions and use of learning strategies by the student with common comments of the teacher and the student;
- independent implementation of learning strategies, further expansion of the repertoire of learning strategies;
- self-assessment and reflection by the student of the process and result, developing strategic prospects.

4. After completing the training with the use of the explicit Oxford's model to master learning strategies, the students were asked to re-take the questionnaire "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning", to determine the changes in the level of learning strategies acquisition in the process of learning a foreign language.

Simultaneously, the control test to determine the level of academic achievement was conducted at the beginning and end of experimental training.

3.2. Participants

The research was conducted with 58 first-year students (35 females and 23 males) of Vinnytsia Mykhailo Kotsiubynskyi State Pedagogical University, majoring in Mathematics, Computer science, Philology, Psychology, who study English for special purposes as a foreign language. The training was introduced during two terms in the 2018/2019 academic year and was carried out without special selection of students, in standard conditions of the usual educational process in subgroups of 14-15 students (4 subgroups). An introductory interview was held with the students of the experimental groups, during which the purpose and objectives of the experimental training were announced and it was explained that the results of the questionnaire would not affect the assessment of students' proficiency.

In the process of the experimental training, all students of the experimental groups worked with the same educational materials and control tests for listening, speaking, reading and writing. All students were assessed on the same criteria that meet the level of B1 language according to CEFR and the tests were conducted at the beginning and the end of the experimental training.

3.3. Data Analysis

The results of the adapted version 7.0 of Oxford's questionnaire "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" for foreigners who learn English (Oxford, 1990) were analysed in order to determine the levels of implementation of learning strategies in the process of language mastering.

Oxford's questionnaire "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" contains six categories of strategies, which include fifty questions on a five-point Likert scale (5 – always use, 4 – usually use, 3 – sometimes use, 2 – usually do not use, 1 – never use), among which: strategies of effective memorization (category A, questions 1-9), strategies of using all mental processes (category B, questions 10-23), compensatory strategies (category C, 24–29 questions), learning organization and assessment strategies (category D, 30–38 questions), emotion management strategies (category E, 39–44 questions), learning strategies of collaboration with others (category F, 45–50 questions). The answers to each question (from 1 to 5) in each category are added and divided by the total number of statements of the corresponding category to obtain mean values. According to the Oxford's questionnaire, *a high level* of strategies acquisition in language learning covers the mean values of 5.0-4.5 (always use) and 4.4-3.5 (usually use); *a moderate level* is in the range of 3.4-2.5 (sometimes use) and 2.4-1.5 (usually do not use); *a low level* has a mean value of 1.4-1.0 (never use).

In order to ascertain whether the difference in results obtained before and after the experimental training is significant statistically, *t*-value, *p*-value, and Pearson's correlation coefficient were applied.

4. RESULTS

The results of the questionnaire on the use of strategies in language learning at the beginning of the experimental training are shown in table 1.

Table 1 Mean values of the level of strategies acquisition before experimental learning

№	Category	N	M	Level of strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication
A	Strategies for effective memorization	58	2.94	moderate
B	Strategies for using all mental processes	58	2.92	moderate
C	Compensatory strategies	58	3.14	moderate
D	Learning organization and assessment strategies	58	3.05	moderate
E	Emotion management strategies	58	2.66	moderate
F	Learning strategies in collaboration with others	58	3.16	moderate
	Average value for all categories	58	2.97	moderate

Analyzing the individual indicators of 58 students, it should be noted that 11 first-year students have indicators of high average values over 3.5, but only four of them have the values close to 4 (4.0; 4.1; 4.1; 4.4). Thus, these students usually use language learning strategies, but not always. At the same time, 12 students hardly use language learning strategies, as the average values of their answers are lower than 2.4.

After the experimental study, a repeated survey of students was conducted, the results of which are presented in table 2.

Table 2 Mean values of the level of strategies acquisition after experimental learning

№	Category	N	M	Level of strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication
A	Strategies for effective memorization	58	3.84	high
B	Strategies for using all mental processes	58	3.89	high
C	Compensatory strategies	58	4.32	high
D	Learning organization and assessment strategies	58	4.01	high
E	Emotion management strategies	58	3.61	high
F	Learning strategies in collaboration with others	58	4.54	high
	Average value for all categories	58	4.04	high

Table 2 shows that at the end of the experimental training based on the explicit STL model, the level of strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication for intending educators in all categories of the questionnaire reached a high level. The increase in mean values by category (A, B, C, D, E, F) is presented in table 3.

Table 3 Comparison of mean values of strategies acquisition in learning English by
intending educators at the beginning and after experimental training

№	Category	N	M (before)	M (after)	Increase in Value
A	Strategies for effective memorization	58	2.94	3.84	+0.9
B	Strategies for using all mental processes	58	2.92	3.89	+0.97
C	Compensatory strategies	58	3.14	4.32	+1.18
D	Learning organization and assessment strategies	58	3.05	4.01	+0.96
E	Emotion management strategies	58	2.66	3.61	+0.95
F	Learning strategies in collaboration with others	58	3.16	4.54	+1.38
	Average value for all categories	58	2.97	4.04	+1.07

Thus, the increase in the level strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication for intending educators occurred in all categories, on average by +1.07. The highest increase is observed in the category "Learning strategies in collaboration with others" (+1.38).

At the same time, according to the results of the control test to determine the level of academic achievement, which was conducted at the beginning and end of experimental training of using learning strategies, the percentage of students with low English communicative proficiency decreased in all communication activities, namely: listening 31%, monologue 36%, dialogue 33%, reading 26%, and writing 41%.

In order to ascertain whether the difference in results obtained before and after the experimental training is significant statistically and how variables (scores on the English test and level of strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication for intending educators) are correlated, we applied Pearson's correlation coefficient: $r = 0.9876$. The positive correlation shows a strong relationship between the two variables. The t-value is -6,678 and the p-value is 0.000028 that signifies a significant correlation between the variables. The result is significant at $p < .05$. The results suggest that strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication for intending educators could be very helpful in the development of English communicative proficiency and academic achievements.

5. DISCUSSION

As can be seen from the results of the questionnaire, the strategies acquisition in learning English by intending educators at the beginning of the experimental training was developed at a moderate level. The ability to use emotion management strategies was the least developed. It is worth noting that only four students approached the mean value of 4 in this category, which indicates that the level of skills in this category is approaching the lower limit. Thus, the students do not know how or rarely use strategies for complacency, encouragement, introspection of their own behavior, do not seek advice from a teacher or another person about their own emotional state.

At the beginning of the experimental training, the highest mean values were recorded in the category of using strategies in cooperation with others. Among the answers to the statements of this category, the following ones are highlighted: in case something is unclear, try to ask the interlocutor to repeat what was said (slower); speech practice with

other students; trying to put questions in English; desire to learn about the cultures of native speakers. At the same time, high scores were given to the request for help and the desire to be corrected by the teacher if there were mistakes. That is, the students believe that if a problem arises, it is better for them to ask the teacher for help than to look for ways to solve it on their own, and they prefer the teacher's control or mutual control, rather than self-control and self-assessment.

The analysis of the questionnaire results indicates the feasibility of conducting the experimental training according to the explicit model of Oxford (STL) on the basis of instructions, in order to increase the level of language learning strategies acquisition to develop professionally oriented English communicative competence.

The results have shown that the level of mastery of strategies improved in all six groups of strategies presented in the survey. After the experimental training, students began to memorize better, use all their mental processes more effectively, developed the ability to compensate missing knowledge, organize and evaluate their learning more effectively, manage emotions and learn with others.

The best results were demonstrated in the application of strategies in cooperation / learning with other students. The results of the questionnaire show that students have learned to ask questions if they do not understand something, or to ask for help; ask to correct their mistake; practice English with other students and try to put questions in English. Students have become more interested in culture of the country whose language they are studying.

At the same time, the results of the control test to determine the level of language proficiency also have shown an increase in the level of language proficiency. Students who have shown the best results in the use of strategies, have shown the best results in the test of language competence as well.

The research has proved that successful students take a balanced approach to choosing strategies, depending on specific tasks, context or urgent needs. More successful foreign language learners are those who use various strategies appropriately, so, these strategies help to best perform the tasks which were confirmed by the study. Moreover, the training outcomes have shown that the students who successfully master a foreign language show more flexibility in choosing appropriate learning strategies.

The effectiveness of the applied instructional explicit Oxford's model in the process of learning a foreign language is also confirmed by several other researches. For instance, the positive impact of learning strategies on the process of teaching speaking and writing has been noted in the works of Chamot (2005), Cohen (2006), Lee (2003), Zare (2012). The effectiveness of strategies in EFL of listening, reading, and vocabulary is proved in studies of Naeimi and Foo (2015), Taghinezhad et al. (2015), Taghinezhad et al. (2016), Thomson and Mehring (2016), and others.

Thus, the results have shown that strategies help students to control their learning, form and develop language skills, strengthen confidence and motivation to learn a foreign language. As a result the implementation of proposed direct and indirect strategies has increased the level of English proficiency and helped students to take responsibility for their learning.

As the size of the sample is rather small, the survey results cannot be generalized as the sample (n=58) selected cannot exemplify the entire population at large. Rather, this study should be considered as an exploratory investigation that has the goal of identifying possible issues and trends for further research.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The study has revealed that strategies acquisition in autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication could be very helpful in the development of English communicative proficiency and academic achievements.

Active use of foreign language learning strategies helps students to control their own learning, develop language and speech skills, increase confidence and motivation to learn a language. Applying learning strategies increases autonomy and promotes students take responsibility for their learning. The more strategies students use the more confident, motivated and independent they feel. The priority task of the teacher is the selection of appropriate teaching methods and strategies for students and the formation of their ability to use these strategies properly to increase the level of their autonomy in learning.

The results have indicated that the main task in instructing students to apply learning strategies is to provide them with the tools to perform the necessary actions: self-diagnosis, identification of strengths and weaknesses in the educational process; awareness of what helps to learn a foreign language more effectively; formation of skills and abilities that contribute to the successful solution of problems; experimentation, i.e. the implementation of already known and new learning strategies; decision-making on the use of educational techniques to solve the problem; the need for self-control and constant monitoring of the educational activities; transfer of "successful" learning strategies to the new educational content.

It has been found that the repertoire of existing student learning strategies expands and his / her individual learning style becomes more mobile when joining new ways of perception and processing of educational materials to the available resources of the student's personality, which characterize his individual learning style.

Thus, the implementation of learning strategies facilitates and improves the process of autonomous learning of professionally oriented English communication. Mastering learning strategies helps students to organize independent learning of a foreign language, thereby forming its trajectory of autonomous learning. The ability to take responsibility for one's educational activities and the ability to learn are key components of autonomous learning. The development of these skills will ensure intending educators' ability to self-development and self-improvement throughout a life.

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DOCTORAL RESEARCH IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN INDIA: A STUDY OF UNIVERSITIES IN MAHARASHTRA STATE

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Abstract. *English Language Education (ELE) in India has a history of about two hundred years. There were some significant studies in ELE during the British rule. The research in ELE in India was mostly carried out in the second half of twentieth century. A cursory review of bibliographies reveals that ELE is one of the less researched sub-disciplines of English Studies in India. In the absence of a separate study on research in ELE in India, the present paper is a modest attempt to evaluate the doctoral research in different areas of ELE in the universities in Maharashtra State of India. The purpose of the present study is to know the less explored and over explored areas of ELE for doctoral research. This study would not only strengthen the research in ELE but also define the scope for further research in ELE in India. Besides, it may not only help the aspirant researchers but also will determine the path of ELE in twenty-first century India.*

Key words: *English Studies in India, Doctoral research, ELE, Maharashtra State*

1. INTRODUCTION

Research plays an important role in the development of language education. English Language Education (ELE) in India is a two hundred year old enterprise. Right from the colonial times, research in ELE in India has been globally recognized. The studies carried out by West (1926) and Prabhu (1987) are two examples to mention. The former focusses on the use of L1 in the teaching of L2 while the latter deals with task-based language teaching. There are some other studies dealing with research in the sub-disciplines of English Studies in India. These studies are reviewed here.

After studying seventy-nine PhDs in English Studies at Kakatiya University (KU), Warangal, Telangana, Damodar (1993) observed that the genre of fiction in American Literature (AL) and Indian English Literature (IEL) are the most researched areas of English Studies and the research in British Literature (BL) is relatively low. New Literatures (NL) and English Language Teaching (ELT) are the areas neglected for

research. There are two studies on ELT research at the English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU), Hyderabad. In the first study, Labade (2013) throws some light on the shifting emphasis in research areas in ELT at the EFLU and suggests new avenues like web-based language skills and employability skills. After surveying 240 PhD theses at the EFLU, during 1968-2011, Tasildar (2013) found out that 39% theses are in English language and 34% are in ELT whereas 17% of theses each in AL and IEL. In another survey of 116 PhD theses in English at Dr Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University (BAMU) during 1967-2008, Tasildar (2013) noticed that the most number of theses (31%) are in IEL. The study by Vyas and Joshi (2013) on researches in English in the universities of Western Region of India till 2012 reveals that fiction is the most popular area of research and there is lot of room for research in ELT, folk, tribal, comparative, nationalistic, diaspora and de-colonization. In her study of 438 PhD theses in English submitted during 1955 to 2014 to the seven state universities in Karnataka, Jyothi (2018) deals with the changing patterns of research areas in English Studies. She notes that the research in the universities in Karnataka focus more on literary studies and research in Applied Linguistics and ELT is sparingly done (194-195). Tasildar (2019) has examined the contribution of a research institute – Institute of Advanced Study in English affiliated to the Savitribai Phule Pune University (SPPU) – to the doctoral research in English Studies in India.

For the studies on research there is need to refer to bibliographies as well. Some of the bibliographies on research in English Studies in India are reviewed here. Kushwaha and Naseem (2000) have classified research in English Studies under nine categories. There were about 150 PhDs mentioned in the sub-disciplines of English Language, Linguistics and ELT put in a single category. The bibliography of ELT in Indian universities by Ganguly and Ramaiah (2000) deals with books, journal articles and M Phil and PhD research. It is divided into five main parts. The part II of this bibliography covers almost every aspect of ELT like Applied Linguistics, Bilingualism, Communicative Language Teaching, Contrastive Studies, Curriculum Planning/Syllabus/Course Materials' Design, Dictionaries, Error Analysis, ESP, Examinations, First Language Acquisition, Grammar, Interlanguage, Language Laboratory to Research Methods and Vocabulary studies.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The studies by Damodar (2013) and Jyothi (2018) and the bibliographies on English Studies in India by Kushwaha and Naseem (2000) and Ganguly and Ramaiah (2000) reveal that ELE is one of the less researched area in Indian universities. Furthermore, there is no separate study on doctoral research in ELE in India. On the lines of previous researches in English Studies, the present study aims to know the less explored and over explored areas of ELE for doctoral research. This study is based on a directory of research in ELE in Indian universities compiled by Padwad (2014). It is a comprehensive source for ELE research in Indian universities. It comprises of dissertations and theses submitted for M Ed, M Phil, M Litt. and PhD to the departments of English, linguistics and education in eighty-two Indian universities during the period between 1953 and 2014. There is no classification of ELE research just like Ganguly and Ramaiah (2000). Nevertheless, the Indexes at the end of the directory provide information on keywords, learners levels and regions of research. The researches mentioned in the directory are put

in more than one area of ELE. The present study considers the doctoral studies in the universities in Maharashtra recorded in Padwad (2014).

2.1 The Universities in Maharashtra

The Deccan College Postgraduate and Research Institute, Pune (Deccan College), the third oldest educational institution in India, was established in 1821. After independence, the college was affiliated to the Poona University. The Institute got deemed to be university status in 1990. The University of Mumbai (UoM) is the oldest university established in 1857. Shreemati Nathibai Damaodar Thackersey Women's University, Mumbai (SNDTWU) was established in 1916. Rashtrasant Tukdoji Maharaj Nagpur University (RTMUN) was established in 1923. SPPU was established in 1949. BAMU, Aurangabad was established in 1958. Shivaji University, Kolhapur (SUK) was established in 1962. Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University (SGBAU) was established in 1983. Yashwantrao Chavan Maharashtra Open University, Nashik (YCMOU) was established in 1989. Kavayitri Bahinabai Chaudhari North Maharashtra University, Jalgaon (KBCNMU) was established in 1990.

The number of doctoral studies considered for the present study is as follows.

Table 1 University-wise doctoral studies in the universities in Maharashtra

Deccan College	UoM	SNDTWU	RTMUN	SPPU	BAMU	SUK	SGBAU	YCMOU	KBCNMU	Total
02	08	11	06	37	26	12	05	03	02	112

The 112 PhDs in ELE submitted to the departments of English, linguistics and education in these ten state universities in Maharashtra have been reviewed in the present study.

3. ANALYSIS

The doctoral research in the universities in Maharashtra centre around the following major areas of ELE. In the following analysis, the name of the researcher is followed by the entry number, given in the bracket, from the directory by Padwad (2014).

3.1. The status of English and context of ELT

Some of the researchers - Jebamani (382) and Saisena (801) - have analysed the status of English at higher secondary level for their doctoral studies at SNDTWU and BAMU respectively. Sthapit (951) has comparatively studied English, Nepali and Newari for their pedagogic application (SPPU) while Shaikh (861) has studied English as a non-native phenomenon with reference to Saudi UG students (BAMU). Yeddi (1061) has studied ELT in Sudan (BAMU).

3.2. Attitude and motivation, language learning and language proficiency

The attitude and motivation for learning English language of Yemeni secondary school students and junior college students of Marathwada has been studied by Al-Sohbani (48) and by Kumthekar (497) at SPPU and BAMU respectively. Parikh (674)

has researched on the relationship between motivation and school performance of secondary school pupils studying through Gujarati and English mediums (UoM). In two more studies of comparison at SUK, Karekatti (424) has explored second language learning of child and adolescent Marathi learners and Kumbhar (496) has studied proficiency in English of English and Marathi medium school students in Kolhapur district.

3.3. Curriculum development and syllabus design

The researchers have tried to develop programmes to teach different aspects of ELT for different classes in the studies on spoken English [Kudchedkar (476) at the college level (SNDTWU) and Vhanbhatte (1032) for standard 8th (SUK)], writing skills [Gulvani (313) for standards IX and X (SUK), Harkare (328) for standard 8th (SNDTWU) and Waghmare (1053) for standard IX (SNDTWU)] and grammar [Katoch (428) for HSC (BAMU)].

In addition, More (588) has analysed language needs of Marathi society for syllabus designing of English (Deccan). Patil (693) has tried to develop instructional programme for developing functional competencies for pupils of Std. IX (SPPU) and Quaid (726) has investigated ELT curriculum in Republic of Yemen (BAMU).

There are three studies pertaining to the English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In a study carried out at SPPU, Abdulhameed (5) has analysed needs for business English in Yemen. The two other studies at SNDTWU are related to development of ESP courses for the students of Hotel Management and Catering Technology by Bhattacharya (139) and for some polytechnic departments of SNDTWU by Deshmukh (226).

3.4. Approaches, methods and classroom practices

The approaches and methods of teaching English is the most explored area of ELE research with as seventeen studies related to approaches, methods and classroom practices.

There are three studies in BAMU related to approaches - Deshpande (227) has studied oral approach of teaching English in Marathi medium schools in Osmanabad district. Nadaf (612) has investigated into the implementation of multi-skill approach and the effect of communicative approach in teaching English has been studied by Shivbhakt (894). The last study is on student-teachers. In one of the earlier studies on structural approach, Shastri (887) deals with the teaching of ESL in Bombay (UoM). Surwade (972) has studied the effectiveness of CLT programmes at the secondary level (KBCNMU). The two studies by Gaikwad (275) Patil (692), carried out at SUK and RTMUN respectively, compare the effectiveness of direct method and the bilingual method of teaching English.

There are also four studies in classroom practices. A study by Alnaqeeb (43) deal with Yemeni English teachers' classroom practices in secondary schools in Laboos (SPPU). Banatwala (106) has explored the relationship between classroom interaction and uptake in EFL teaching classes (SNDTWU) and Kharat (453) has studied classroom interaction techniques to develop language skills for business communication (BAMU). In a different research at SUK, Menon (560) has studied the relationship between language barriers emerging from student teachers in the classroom and acquisition of communication skills in English by VI standard students.

The impact of methods of teaching English in the secondary schools has been studied by Khalique (441) at BAMU and Lubde (520) at SPPU. Mohire (583) has analysed the methods of teaching English at the undergraduate level (SUK). Tahir (983) has studied translation and English language learning (SPPU). The two studies in developing

communicative competence carried out by Gandhi (279) and Marje (130), at Deccan College and SUK respectively, deal with the undergraduate and higher secondary levels.

3.5. Teaching of language skills, vocabulary and grammar

With regard to teaching of language skills, four studies pertain to listening skills, seven studies are related to reading and three studies are on development of writing skills. The studies in spoken English are in syllabus design and use of AV aids. Two studies on the teaching of listening skills carried out at SPPU are general in nature. Abdulkareem (6) and Mahmood (530) have researched on the teaching of listening skills in English. Aparaj (67) has worked on developing auditory abilities in English of students in secondary schools (SUK) and Ukhalkar (1005) has studied different ways adopted to develop listening skills in English language in students at secondary school (SGBAU).

Out of the seven studies on the teaching of **reading** skills, two studies are related to Yemeni undergraduate students. Ahmed (22) has studied monitoring strategies of reading comprehension by Yemeni English major undergraduates (BAMU) while Almontasser (41) has studied development of reading strategies among Yemeni undergraduates (SPPU). In a literature-based research, Kamala (414) has studied children's fiction in English written by Indian authors from the point of view of contribution to increase proficiency in reading (SNDTWU). In another research, Mahpareh (531) has studied the role of scaffolding instruction in accelerating reading comprehension in EFL for Iranian undergraduates (SPPU). The next three studies on reading carried at BAMU represent different levels of education. Ishakali (353) has researched on the reading efficiency in English of students of Standard XI in Aurangabad city. The teaching and evaluation of reading comprehension at higher secondary level was studied by Shaikh (860). Sonkamble (934) has studied reading interest in English of first year degree students in the colleges affiliated to BAMU.

Out of the three studies in **writing**, one was carried out at BAMU and two were at SPPU. The study at BAMU by Al-Harazy (36) focuses on learner strategies used by Yemeni college students for written communication in English. Among the researches at SPPU, Khodabandehlou (457) has studied the impact of context-based vs. sentence based grammar exercise on EFL and ESL learners' writing proficiency and Kulkarni (479) has suggested ways and means to improve written expression in English.

 All the three studies on the teaching of **vocabulary** were carried out at the SPPU. The process of teaching and learning English vocabulary was studied by Ahmed (18). Hebsur (334) has measured perception of English idioms at the junior and undergraduate college levels and Yarahmadi (1060) has worked on the effect of text-generation on incidental vocabulary learning in EFL and ESL contexts.

There are six studies in the teaching of different aspects of **grammar**. These deal with cohesive devices by Al-Raymi (45), syntactic rules by Apte (68), directives by D'Souza (244), adpositions by Mohammad (570), articles and prepositions by Patil (690) and use of tenses by Yannawar (1059). Among these studies second, fifth and sixth were carried out at BAMU, first and fourth at SPPU and third at the UoM.

3.6. Materials Development and use of Audio-Visual Aids

Both the studies in materials development were conducted in the first decade of twenty-first century. Karwande (423) has studied the course-books of English for Std, I to IV and the present status of teaching –learning of English in Aurangabad district at the

primary stage (BAMU). Patil (689) has worked on development of self-learning material for engineering students to improve their written communication skills in English (YCMOU).

In a thesis in Marathi language, Gawande (286) investigates the utility of English language laboratory in the teaching-learning of English for Std. I to IV (SGBAU). In the other two studies at SPPU, Hadap (323) has studied the effect of teacher made multi-media programme package on pronunciation skills of secondary-student teachers of English and Paigaonkar (661) has studied the use of mass media with reference to radio and television.

3.7. Error analysis and contrastive analysis

Error analysis (EA) is one of the popular (12 studies) areas of study among the researchers in almost all the universities in Maharashtra whereas there are only two studies in contrastive analysis. The only study on teachers' and learners' perception of oral correction of error in the ESL classroom was carried out by Adhav (14) at SNDTWU. Most of the studies [Aziza (88), Borse (154), Deshmukh (225), Joshi (404), Patel (682) Patrikar (695) and Pawar (699)] are related to the errors in written English committed by learners at almost all the levels of education with different subjects and areas. In the two studies at SPPU, the errors committed by Yemeni students are studied by Aziza (88) and common syntactic errors made by English teacher trainees in the college of education in Yemen are studied by Al-Kadasi (39). Indapurkar (346) has studied errors in English of middle schools pupils of Chandrapur (Chanda) district of Northeast Maharashtra (SPPU). Pawar (699) considers errors in composition by VII standard students (SUK). Borse (154) deals with grammatical mistakes of students of standard X (SGBAU) and Deshmukh (225) deals with errors related to the use of modal auxiliaries by standard IX students. The studies by Deshmukh (225) and Patel (682) at BAMU are restricted to the students in Aurangabad district. D'Souza (242) has analyzed errors by junior college students (SPPU) and Patil (687) and Patrikar (695) have researched on the errors by undergraduate students. Patil (687) has studied the errors of North Maharashtra University (KBCNMU) and Patrikar (695) has analysed the errors of the students of B.A. classes of the colleges in urban centres of Vidarbha (RTMUN).

Both the studies in contrastive analysis (CA) were carried out at the SPPU. Behari (117) has studied Bhojpuri and English with specific reference to the teaching of English and the influence of Hindi on Bhojpuri speakers (SPPU). Pratap (721) has studied grammatical structures of English and Marathi to suggest a curricular programme in English grammar for Marathi medium secondary schools in Maharashtra (SPPU).

3.8. Teaching of literature

All the studies on literature are related to the teaching of poetry. Ganorkar (282) has researched on the British and Indian nursery rhymes for the pre-school curriculum (RTMUN). Jawale (376) has studied comprehension of poetry in the first language (Marathi) and second language (English) of the undergraduate students (SPPU). Syeda (979) has studied difficulties in comprehending English poetry in the junior colleges of Aurangabad district (BAMU).

3.9. Testing

The eight studies in testing cover all the levels of education - primary, secondary and undergraduate levels. The first research in ELE was carried out in testing at the UoM in the sixties by Ahuja (25) in 1967. Ahuja (25) has studied construction and standardization of a group test in English for the age group 3 to 17 years (UoM). Kanran (418) has studied effect of blank length manipulation on the reliability and validity of cloze tests (SPPU). Khan (450) has studied construction and standardization of diagnostic test in English for Standard VII with regards to structures (RTMNU). Lukmani (522) has worked on the rationale for proficiency testing in English for college entrance (UoM). Mascarenhas (547) has studied examination reforms undertaken by Maharashtra State Board of Secondary Education with special reference to the question papers in English and Geography (SPPU).

Mitra (569) has studied the achievement in English as first language of students of Std. XI in relation to context and input variables (SNDTWU). Patil (688) has studied English language achievement of Shivaji University Arts graduates (SUK). Paradkar (670) has researched on the cause of poor results in Mathematics, Science and English at SSC examination in 15 municipal secondary schools of greater Bombay (UoM).

3.10. Problems of teaching and learning English

Most of the researchers being practising teachers are interested in studying various problems in the teaching and learning of English. The two researchers Bhadange (119) and Kamble (415) at BAMU have studied problems of learning and teaching English. The former has restricted the study to Zilla Parishad high schools of Aurangabad District (BAMU). In another study, Poothongoen (707) has considered problems in higher secondary schools in Yangtalat district of Kalasin province, Thailand (SPPU).

There are five studies separately dealing with the problems in the teaching of English. Asmimana (83) has studied linguistic difficulties in teaching English to Thai speakers (SPPU). Ramnavmiwale (757) has analysed problems of communicative skills in English language with regard to first year degree students (YCMOU). Among the remaining three studies on problems faced by the teachers of English at the primary level of education, two studies [Dahake (196) and Salunke (804)] are in Marathi language. Dahake (196) has studied problems faced by the primary school teachers of Amravati division (SGBAU). Salunke (804) has studied the effectiveness of a manual to solve the problems noticed by teachers teaching communicative approach at the upper primary level (YCMOU). The study by Gaikwad (276) investigates problems of primary teachers of English in schools of Aurangabad District (BAMU).

In the studies related to problems of learning, Mowaji (590) has investigated educational and vocational problems of junior college students of Greater Bombay (UoM). Samran (807) has studied the problems faced by first year Thai students in acquiring English (SPPU). In a unique study carried out at RTMNU, Sangole (812) has studied the phonetic problems of the hearing impaired children and speech therapy.

3.11. General

The studies put under this heading are those which cannot be accommodated under above areas. Here studies related to teachers' competencies, teacher training, junior college and English medium schools are considered. Some studies related to teacher education,

junior colleges and English medium schools have been already discussed in the major areas of ELE.

Two researchers have studied teachers' competencies. Chaudhary (181) has studied teaching competencies of teachers teaching English at the secondary school level (SNDTWU) and Chougule (190) has studied relationship between teachers' competencies and fourth standard students' attainment of English communication skills (SUK). In the lone separate research of its kind, Saraf (819) has studied training of teachers of English in Maharashtra (UoM). Two studies by Pradhan (711) and Parnandiwar (676) focussing specifically on the teaching of English at junior college level have been carried out at the SPPU and RTMNU respectively. The researchers are also interested in studying the teaching of English in English medium schools. Among the two studies carried out at the SPPU in the 1980s, Subrahmaniam (953) has studied English language skills attained in the English medium schools in India and Sukumaran (959) has studied the status of English medium schools in Maharashtra. The third study at SPPU was on raising achievement level of children in an English medium primary school in Pune by Ananthakrishnan (59). In another study of teaching English to minorities, Khan (443) has studied English medium schools with reference to Muslim community (SGBAU).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. The development of ELE in the universities in Maharashtra

The doctoral research in ELE in Maharashtra started with studies on testing, EA and CA in the 1960s. The topics of research in the 1970s were structural approach, teacher training, students' motivation, use of AV aids, the status of English and English medium schools and the teaching of reading and writing skills. In the 1980s, studies were in the teaching of spoken English and poetry, problems of students, methods of teaching and teaching competencies. The teaching of listening skills and ESP were the topics in the 1990s. Studies in all these major areas of ELE were undertaken in the first and second decade of twenty-first century.

4.2. The contribution of the universities to the development of ELE

The UoM, one of the oldest universities in India, has the credit of initiating doctoral studies in testing by Ahuja (25) in 1967, structural approach by Shastri (887) in 1973, teacher training by Saraf (819) in 1975, students' motivation and English medium schools by Parikh (674) in 1976 and problems of students in junior colleges by Mowaji, (590) in 1983. The research in the one of the popular areas – EA – was first carried out at SPPU by Indapurkar (346) in 1968. The university, with the most number of doctoral studies in ELE in Maharashtra, also has the credit of initiating research in the use of AV aids by Paigaonkar (661) in 1978, the status of English by Sthapit (951) in 1979, teaching of writing by Kulkarni (479) in 1980, teaching of poetry by Jawale (376) in 1981 and teaching of grammar by Mohammad in 1985.

The university with second most number of doctoral studies in ELE in Maharashtra, BAMU, has initiated a study in reading skills by Ishakali (353) in 1980. The development of a course in spoken English by Kudchedkar (476) in 1981 was the first doctoral study in syllabus design in Maharashtra carried out at SNDTWU. The university also initiated

studies in teaching competencies by Chaudhary (181) in 1984 and ESP by Deshmukh (226) in 1996. The SUK initiated studies in direct method and the bilingual method by Gaikwad (275) in 1982 and listening skills by Aparaj (67) in 1991.

It is to be noted that the initiative taken by a university for research in an ELE area is generally continued with the maximum number of studies in the same area. The following examples can suffice this. The first study on testing was at the UoM. There are three studies on testing at the university. The first doctoral research at SPPU was in EA and there are five studies in EA at the university. Similarly, BAMU initiated the research in reading skills and the university has four studies in reading.

We may have a look at the contribution of the universities in Maharashtra to the research in different areas of ELE. In addition to three studies in syllabus design, there are two studies in ESP at SNDTWU. There are seven studies in the teaching of language skills and three on vocabulary at SPPU. Similarly, there are five studies in teaching methods and three in the teaching of grammar at BAMU. The doctoral studies in ELE are mostly undertaken at the older universities in Maharashtra. Newly established universities are yet to make their mark in doctoral research in ELE. Thus, there is a remarkable contribution of the universities in Maharashtra in the development of ELE India.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The researchers have mostly employed survey method and experimental method for their doctoral research in ELE. Thus, ELE may be one of the less researched sub-disciplines of English studies due to the empirical nature of doctoral research.

It is remarkable to note that the first doctoral research in ELE in the universities in Maharashtra was in construction of a group test by Ahuja (25) in 1967 at the UoM. It has also initiated research related to English medium schools and junior colleges in the 1970s. However, after 1987 there are no doctoral studies in ELE at the UoM. There are no studies on vocabulary at universities other than SPPU. Similarly, no researcher has explored teaching of literature at secondary level. The relevance of contrastive studies seemed to have ceased three decades ago.

The doctoral studies surveyed here consider methods of teaching and testing at all the levels of education – pre-school, primary, secondary, higher secondary (junior college) and undergraduate. These studies are not only related to India, but also deal with ELE in countries like Iran, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Thailand and Yemen, to name a few.

Methods of teaching English and EA are among the popular areas of ELE research in the universities in Maharashtra. With the highest number of location specific (mostly district-wise) doctoral studies on problems of teaching and learning English and EA, it is high time to review these studies for their implications in the current teaching-learning scenario.

In future the ELE research in the universities in Maharashtra can focus on areas like language acquisition and language learning, the teaching of study skills and reference skills, use of dictionaries, methods of teaching spoken English, teaching of literature, materials development and use of advanced teaching aids and techniques like computer assisted language learning (CALL), mobile assisted language learning (MALL) and various other web-based teaching tools and teacher training.

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Review research paper

INNOVATIVE PEDAGOGY WITH COMPUTER-SUPPORTED COLLABORATIVE LEARNING IN TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract. *Today's society is technology motivated and the educational institutions call for new pedagogical ideas. An education process over hauling is needed in all aspects of education like curriculum improvement, teaching learning aspect, assessment, evaluation procedures, etc. One of the basic requirements for education in the future is to prepare learners for participation in a network, information society in which knowledge will be the most critical resource for social and economic development. Computer - Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) is one of the most promising innovations to improve teaching and learning with the help of modern Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Research on collaborative learning and the use of information and communication technologies has been integrated in the research area called Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL). Collaborative technology refers to specific technological support for collaboration built into computer networks. Such collaborative technology in connection with corresponding pedagogical practices is usually called CSCL environment. Collaborative learning is very important in achieving critical thinking. Individuals are able to achieve higher levels of learning and retain more information when they work in group rather than individually. The knowledge of English has become a prime factor for a nation's development as well as an individual's development. The present paper highlights the distinction made between the collaborative use of technology and collaborative technology for teaching English to undergraduate students.*

Key words: *Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Computer - Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL), Innovative Pedagogy, Teaching English Language.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Education is considered to be the driving force for economic and social development in any country. Quality enhancement of education is an important parameter in the assessment and accreditation of any institution. In order to achieve improvement in teaching and learning, innovation helps in rethinking and redesigning of the processes. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) is an emerging field that plays an important role in augmenting the facilities in teaching and learning progress. ICT in education has made many

innovations in the field of teaching which brought a revolutionary change from the old paradigm of teaching and learning to technology enhanced learning. Innovative pedagogy is the study of being an innovative educator or the processes of innovative education teaching. Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) is one of the most promising innovations to improve teaching and learning with the help of modern ICT. According to Lipponen (2001), Collaborative Technology refers to scientific technological support for collaboration built into computer networks. Such collaborative technology in connection with corresponding pedagogical practices is usually called a CSCL environment. Different studies have revealed that CSCL environments can facilitate higher - level cognitive achievements such as critical reasoning, explaining, generating own research questions, setting up and improving one's own intuitive theories, and searching for scientific information.

2. COMPUTER-SUPPORTED COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Lunenberg (1998) believes that value of collaborative learning is in the opportunity for learners to elaborate on their ideas as well as those of their peers. Collaborative Learning is rooted in Lev Vygotsky's concept of learning called zone of proximal development. Typically, there are tasks that learners can and cannot accomplish. Between these two areas is the zone of proximal development, which is a category of things that a leaner can learn but with the help of guidance. The zone of proximal development gives guidance as to what set of skills a learner has that are in the process of maturation. In Vygotsky's definition of zone of proximal development, he highlighted the importance of learning through communications and interactions with others rather than just through independent work. This has made way for the ideas of group learning, one of which is Collaborative Learning. It is very important in achieving critical thinking. Collaborative Learning activities can include collaborative writing, group projects, joint problem solving, debates, study teams, and other activities.

In this sense, collaborative learning offers many possibilities to language teachers, as fluent communication is one of the challenges of collaborative activities. The main advantage of using technology for language learning are a greater exposure to authentic language, access to a wide range of sources of information and to different varieties of language; opportunities for interaction and communication and more intensive learner participation. The activities intend to simulate real – life situations in which students of undergraduate are required to collaborate on projects. Students had to refine their communication skills in English language in order to collaborate successfully in the assignment.

3. ROLE OF TEACHER

Structuring collaboration is essential in CSCL environment. *Scaffolds* as used in Knowledge Forum are an attempt to structure collaboration in CSCL environment. Graphical augmentation tools can support collaboration by providing a shared context for students to discuss. These objects are intended to structure, externalize, and coordinate student's ideas in shared communication. Teacher's role in structuring collaborative learning in teaching drama are:

- One way is to redesign predefined scripts into CSCL environments.
- To motivate students to form groups, to interact and to collaborate and enable them to solve the problem.

- To engage students to participate equally in collaboration, one can utilize cognitive diversity by making use of interdependency and by giving students different learning materials or by assigning students different roles.
- To integrate individual, cooperative and collaborative activities in script understanding as well as computer – mediated activities.
- To group students taking into consideration language level.
- To give clear, lucid and simple instructions to the group.
- To encourage active participation among the students engaged in collaborative activity.
- To encourage work in close collaboration. The role of teacher is equally important in creating a collaborative learning environment.

4. ABOUT THIS STUDY

The significance of teaching English language with ICT has been with us for many years and it continues to grow rapidly with the use of Internet. Since there are more and more English learners in India, different teaching methods have been implemented to test the effectiveness of the teaching process. One method involves Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning in English language teaching in order to create English contexts. The purpose of this study is to develop a Collaborative Learning environment for teaching English language to upper graduate students in Nirmala College, Ujjain. The present study being an experimental study with variables like Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning and ICT. The study involves pre-test and post- test design with treatment in between. Research evidence indicates that Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning and ICT can improve English Language and provide immediate feedback to the learner on his/her progress. Thus, the study assumes its significance and relevance in the above context.

4.1. Objectives of the Study

1. To find out the significant difference in achievement mean score between the pretest of control group and the pretest of experimental group.
2. To find out the significant difference in achievement mean score between the post test of control group and the post test of experimental group.

4.2. Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were framed for the study:
1. There is no significant difference in achievement mean score between the pre-test of control group and pre-test of experimental group.
2. There is no significant difference in achievement mean score between the post-test of control group and post-test of experimental group.

4.3. Methodology

Parallel group experimental method was adopted in the study. The true experimental design employs randomization to groups. The pre-test post-test equivalent groups design was used.

4.4. Population and Sample

The study was confined to 210 upper graduate students of Nirmala College, Ujjain. 105 students were considered as controlled group and another 105 students were considered as a tool for study. The control group was not allowed to get any exposure on the subject matter than the traditional classroom teaching but the experimental group students were given treatment with Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning for teaching English language.

4.5. Tools

1. Achievement test in English language constructed and validated by the investigators.
2. The achievement test consisted of objective type questions which carried one mark for each question and contained 20 marks.

4.6. Statistical technique employed

The data was collected and analyzed keeping the objectives in view and the design of the study. Descriptive statistics such as Mean and Standard deviation were worked out to describe the nature of data. In order to find the perceived influence of Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning in teaching English language to upper graduate students, t-test was employed. The controlled group was taught by the Lecture method for a week. But the experimental group was taught using Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning environment in improving English language for a week. Thus, the effectiveness of Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning was determined.

4.7. Data Analysis

The table below shows the pre-test results of control and experimental group of upper graduate students in teaching English Language.

Table 1 Comparison of the difference between the means of pre-test scores of experimental and control groups of upper graduate students in learning English Language

Groups	N	df	Mean	SD	Critical Ratio
Control	105	104	8.95	1.72	1.90
Experimental	105		9.29	1.85	

The table below shows the post-test scores of control group and experimental group of upper graduate students in teaching English Language.

Table 2 Comparison of the difference between the means of post-test scores of experimental group and control group of upper graduate students in learning English language

Groups	N	df	Mean	SD	Critical Ratio
Control	105	104	12.73	3.93	7.97**
Experimental	105		16.27	2.65	

In pretest, the obtained value of critical ratio for the experimental and control group was 1.90. The obtained value is not significant at .05 level, (C.R. = 1.90, df = 104). From

this it is clear that the students of the two groups do not differ significantly in their initial achievement before experiment. In post - test, the obtained value of critical ratio for the experimental and control groups is 7.97. The obtained value is significant at .01 level, (C.R. = 7.97, df = 104). From this it is clear that the students of the two groups differ significantly in English Language after experiment. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected.

5. FINDINGS

Maria Luisa Cairo Pastor and David Perry (2010) observed that the interdependence and mutual respect among the components of collaborative learning is essential to obtain a coherent proposal. Students and teachers should become a coherent group that dialogues and negotiates in dynamic class. Collaborative language learning is based on the premise that cooperation is more effective for positive learning outcomes. In the opinion of Roschelle and Teasley (1995) collaboration is mutual engagement of participants in a coordinated effort to solve the problem together. The sole aim of the collaboration is to solve problem and that is the whole essence of language and education. Any education that cannot solve problems is not effective. According to Nunan (1993) teachers, learners, researchers, and curriculum specialists can collaborate for purpose of the following:

- Experimentation on alternative ways of organizing teaching and learning.
- Promoting philosophy of cooperation.
- Creating environment in an equitable way for learners and teachers.
- In cooperation of principles of learner centeredness.

6. INNOVATIVE METHODOLOGIES

The knowledge of English has become a prime factor for nation's development as well as individual's development.

Visualization – Bring dull academic concepts to life with visual and practical learning experiences. Examples include smart board and internet.

Co – operative Learning – Encourage students of mixed abilities to work together by promoting small group or whole class activities.

Inquiry based – Instruction - Pose thought - provoking questions which inspire your students to think for themselves and become more independent learners.

Technology in the classroom – Incorporating technology into the teaching process is a great way to actively engage the students, especially as digital media surrounds students in the 21st century.

7. CONCLUSION

Students in the experimental group had a positive attitude toward CSCL, perceived its utility for helping them learn English Language and had a strong intention to use it in future. Good teaching has always focused on the needs of individual students. The availability of high-quality resources and all kinds of computing devices are making it possible, with teachers to teach their students in such a way that can help them in achieving the greatest success in life.

8. SUGGESTIONS

In face to face interaction, the basic nature of collaborative knowledge construction in the computer- mediated interaction is engaging in the process of constructing and maintaining shared knowledge or understanding it. This is what has been missing when it comes to studying collaboration mediated through computers. Only a few attempts have been made to reveal what goes on between participants in computer -mediated interaction. There is a need to structure student's activities in computer networks through collaborative technology. The fundamental question of what collaborative learning is remains dynamic and guides our choices as researchers, designers, and educators in the field of CSCL.

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Book review

INTRODUCING TRANSLATION
AS INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION
by
Nataša Bakić-Mirić

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This book is about finding simplicity in relating culture, translation and intercultural communication. It offers a useful, concise and accessible discussion of translation as intercultural communication that will help readers to develop an understanding of culture and intercultural communication and how these concepts relate to translation.

The book is written in comprehensible English and it includes the most important features of culture, translation and intercultural communication that are necessary to provide the readers with an understanding of depth and breadth of these concepts in a unique and interesting way.

The author does not clutter the pages with unnecessary information. Instead, she tries to breathe life into what is considered by many to be a dull subject and enable the readers to develop their understanding of how translation, culture and intercultural communication are relatable and intertwined.

The book consists of five chapters and an appendix. In Chapter 1 the author defines culture, discusses Muoa's understanding of cultures, levels of culture, cultural patterns and Hall's and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Chapter 2 defines intercultural communication and its impact on comunication with people who come from different cultures, intercultural communication skills, factors that impact intercultural comunication, barriers to intercultural communication and intercultural effectiveness scale. Chapter 3 discusses history of translation, the modern day translation industry, specialized types of translation, the five-step translation process, methods, levels and quality of translation, common challenges in translation, measuring success in translation as well as the future of translation. In Chapter 4 the author relates intercultural communication and translation. The author also discusses the role of culture in translation, the impact of cultural differences in translation, cultural translation and frequently used translation procedures. Chapter 5 discusses the translator as a mediator not only between two languages but also between two cultures. In the Appendix the author shows examples of cultural differences in translation of American popular literature into Serbian language.

Finally, the author hopes that this book will contribute to the continued development of translation studies by encouraging readers to pursue their interest in this dynamic discipline.

Conference review

CURRENT TRENDS IN TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR MEDICINE AND RESEARCH
An overview of the international conference *Languages in Medical Education*, 15/12/2020, Voronezh, Russia

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English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has given rise to a number of independent branches of English in professional domains, which have become well-established areas of teaching and research. English for Medical Purposes is definitely one of such areas and the recent international conference Languages in Medical Education has clearly demonstrated a worldwide interest of ESP practitioners to teaching English for healthcare and research[i].

The key reports of the conference indicated three vast areas of research and practice concerning languages and medicine: humanitarian issues in medical education, linguistic aspects of current healthcare discourse and pedagogical approaches to clinical communication teaching in non-Anglophone settings. John Skelton, the University of Birmingham, the UK, in his talk "Medical Humanities: Teaching Students to Think", thoroughly discussed the role of humanity courses in medical schools' curriculum. Professor Skelton argued that medical education can significantly benefit from medical humanities which have enough pedagogical capabilities for developing empathy in medical students, for making them thinking independently rather than looking for the 'correct answer'. Liberal arts including languages prepare medical students for coping with ambiguity of the real world – the world of their future patients – and develop 'ambiguity tolerance' which implies the ability to understand sophisticated feelings and motives often left unspoken.

Tanya Linaker, King's College London, UK, brought up the issues of multilingual crisis communication. Her talk "Language challenges of COVID-19" explored the markers of the racist discourse, generated and perpetuated by the current coronavirus pandemic. The references to the new virus as to 'Chinese' is one of the most obvious illustrations of racist discourse being now followed by the 'British mutation' or 'British variant of coronavirus.' The speaker pointed out that while healthcare vocabulary quickly became part of global media discourse and everyday communication, "a combination of language barriers and low levels of trust in official communications have made minority populations particularly vulnerable to misinformation and fake news".

The third pedagogical area of the conference agenda was represented by Michael Guest, University of Miyazaki, Japan. In his talk "How can studying clinical English discourse be beneficial to medical students not living in Anglophone settings?" about teaching English to medical students in Japan, the speaker gave a thorough review of

modern approaches that ESP teachers use in medical educations. According to Mike Guest, they include 'retrieval approach' based on the concept that medical English can be used in multicultural professional encounters; 'taxonomy approach' with the focus on medical vocabulary and terminology; 'academic skills approach', 'humanist focus' approach and 'cognitive washback approach' which the speaker advocates for. 'Cognitive washback approach' involves, as Mike Guest puts it, 'higher order features' of professional discourse or 'forms and processes' of certain clinical speech events such as clinical case reports or history taking. The speaker believes that this approach makes learners more aware of clinical discourse and develops communicative skills essential for professional discourse management.

The headlining talks indicated the most urgent points for discussion which then were explored and developed in section reports. Conference participants – modern languages educators, researchers and practitioners – raised the issues of traditions and innovations of teaching Latin and medical terminology to students of medicine, benefits and challenges of using English as medium of instruction in a medical classroom and many other subjects.

Naturally, the current pandemic impact on higher education was also discussed. Conference participants shared best practices in dealing with challenges of distance learning. Language instructors from North-Western State Medical University, St. Petersburg, Russia, delivered a speech representing their 'model' for 'language training in force-majeure' combining online and offline technologies in language learning. The speakers empathized that e-learning is not merely a technological transformation of language activities into a virtual classroom but a conceptual move into a novel paradigm of methodological approaches in language teaching and learning. This fundamental problem which language instructors, applied linguistic and humanities academics now face has yet to be solved in the near future.

The international conference "Languages in Medical Education" has also demonstrated a significant contribution of professional societies and associations of language teachers to medical education. Along with influential and multidisciplinary IATEFL, TESOL, and other international and national associations, the European Association of Language Teachers for Healthcare (EALTHY) has taken a leading position in promoting the fundamental importance of effective communication in healthcare since 2013.

While the basic academic results of "Languages in Medical Education" are published in the collection of conference proceedings, the feelings of inspiration, motivation and creativity aroused by the conference will be a valuable and longstanding support in daily practice of language-for-medical-purposes instructors.

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[i] You may find conference videos at https://medicine-and-lang-vsmu.jimdofree.com/