ISSN 2334-9182 (Print)
ISSN 2334-9212 (Online)
COBISS.SR-ID 202381836
UDC 811.111:37

JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC & ACADEMIC PURPOSES

Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021

UNIVERSITY OF NIŠ

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Publication frequency – one volume, three issues per year.

Publisher:
University of Niš
Univerzitetski trg 2, 18000 Niš, Serbia
Phone: +381 18 257 095
Telefax: +381 18 257 950

Printed by
ATLANTIS DOO – Niš, Serbia

CIP - Каталогизација у публикацији
Народна библиотека Србије, Београд

811.111:37

JOURNAL of Teaching English for Specific & Academic Purposes / editor-in-chief Nadežda Stojković
. - Vol. 1, no. 1 (2013)- . - Niš : University of Niš, 2013-
(Niš : Atlantis). - 24 cm

Tri puta godišnje. - Drugo izdanje na drugom medijumu: The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes (Online) = ISSN 2334-9212
ISSN 2334-9182 = Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes
COBISS.SR-ID 202381836

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Editorial

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP) AND ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP): EFFECTIVE MULTIMODAL TEACHING STRATEGIES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

This special issue focuses on tracing the interactions between practice, scholarship and research across the ESP and EAP curricula, effective and engaging teaching strategies in ESP and EAP, contemporary approaches to teaching ESP and EAP, teaching strategies reinforcing the key role of theory in ESP and EAP practice and pointing the way to future directions.

This special issue synthesizes current practical topics written by active researchers and practitioners in their respective areas. It is comprehensive in dealing with issues that are changing perceptions of relevant topics in teaching ESP and EAP. Using contemporary research methods the authors offer insights into the ways in which the fields of ESP and EAP continuously change, evolve and rise to face constant challenges resulting from new instructional practices and current research investigations.

This special issue comprises a collection of 15 peer-reviewed papers and 5 book reviews written by scholars from around the globe who came together in their shared interest to offer new and innovative approaches to current topics in ESP and EAP. The issue offers new perspectives on topics such as digital teacher feedback, teaching academic writing through conceptual metaphors, innovative teaching methods in a culture integrated English language course, English for market research course design, teaching medical language with technology, a hybrid didactic ESP course, rhetorical analysis in business communication, move-step structure, citation practices, project-based learning and the impact of COVID-19 on higher education. The five book reviews in this issue offer an insight into current publications in ESP some of which have been published by renowned publishing houses such as Routledge and Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

The emphasis in this special issue is on promoting an understanding of and appreciation for the rich and varied current theory and practice surrounding ESP and EAP. Thus, the papers in this special issue offer a fresh outlook, and rigor and relevance in discussion of numerous aspects in scientific discourse and lexis. These illuminating articles highlight that contemporary scholars look upon these issues through a dynamic global prism and beyond any strict set of rules, which would otherwise lead them to ignore the ever-shifting changes in the fields of ESP and EAP that will stimulate intellectual curiosity of the diverse readership and further develop ideas for future research.

Nataša Bakić-Mirić
Special Issue Editor

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 561‒573

UDC: 811.111'276 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104561S

Original scientific paper

ENGLISH FOR MARKET RESEARCH REPORT WRITING: COURSE DESIGN

Hasan Shikoh

University of Birmingham, UK

Abstract. *At undergraduate and postgraduate levels in business schools, lecturers often provide students with a suggested structure for a market research report assignment. Thereafter, the students are left to independently master the appropriate register and the technique of writing for this genre. While many students may learn to be good at business studies, they might fall short in writing despite having to produce several reports at university level. One of the reasons for this shortfall may be that some of the students may lack the confidence to produce reports which meet academic or professional standards in the English language. A short English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course that addresses the technical writing needs of business students as an option or add-on course to undergraduate and postgraduate business curricula could provide the simple solution. It could even be formalised as a credit bearing course to motivate students to undertake it.*
With a view to the above, as a pilot ESP module, a 15-hour English for Market Research Report Writing Skills course was designed to try and meet the specific needs of undergraduate market research students at the Warwick Business School (WBS). It was intended to be taught under the auspices of the Warwick Skills Certificate Programme at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom (UK).

Key words*: business, report, writing, ESP*

1. Introduction: Target Needs, Students, Syllabus

Among undergraduate students across the UK, Marketing Analysis is the most popular marketing course followed by Marketing Communications. These courses require students to write several academic assignments in the form of reports. Personal interviews of final year students for whom English is a second language revealed that they would benefit more from a professional report writing course as it would likely address both their academic and professional needs.

Although the Warwick Presessional is an intensive course, which includes some training in a range of writing genres, it does not detail or focus on aspects that are specific to Market Research (MR) report writing. Thus, it was reported that some WBS students who had initially enrolled to learn about aspects of MR report writing, subsequently chose to drop out of the course altogether by the second session when they realised that the course was not going to meet their needs. Interviews of these students and their

Submitted August 1st, 2021, accepted for publication September 24th, 2021
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subsequent responses to the needs analysis questionnaire (see Appendix 1), revealed that although they had achieved respectable IELTS scores of 7.0 and above, they still faced problems in technical and professional writing.

In order to encourage autonomous and reflective learning, the University of Warwick introduced an optional course entitled the Warwick Skills Portfolio Award (WSPA). This invites students to set personal goals and review their targets with a coach in response to their personal needs. Where students are aware of what they need to focus on, this can be a very effective way to focus their attention on specific skills and areas. However, many students need an academic "diagnosis" by an expert. What follows is the results of research involving a small number of students who recognised the need to work on their professional business writing skills, and details of a course that was designed to meet their needs – and by extension, many other business students in a similar situation.

The four WBS students who showed an interest in MR report writing skills had opted for market research as part of their final year project and wanted professional guidance regarding the 'tight' (as one of them put it) and genre-specific language of market reports. Their other objective was to confidently mention in their future job applications that MR report writing was one of their strengths. Tables 1 and 2 below provide their demographic data and other needs, respectively, as per their responses to the needs analysis questionnaire:

Table 1 Demographic Data

Qs 1-7

Student	Nationality	First language	Age	Gender	English study level	IELTS
Abbas	Pakistani	Urdu	21-25	Male	Undergraduate	8.0
Sajid	Pakistani	Punjabi	"	"	"	7.0
Basheera	Indian	English	"	Female	"	7.5
Anahita	Indian	Gujarati	"	"	"	7.0

Table 2 Writing Competence – Self-Evaluation

Qs 9-11 and Qs 13-14

Student	Written reports before	Self rating	Overall problems	When offer course	Class length
Abbas	Yes	Good	Data interpretation; ok in business writing	Fourth year	1½
Sajid	"	Very Good	"	"	"
Basheera	"	Competent	Ok in data interpretation; not in business writing	"	2
Anahita	"	Competent	"	"	1½

Table 3 Specific Concerns in Writing

Q 12

Concerns	Abbas	Sajid	Basheera	Anahita
Assessing information relevance, fact and opinion	8	12		
Interpreting graphs and statistics	12	15	1	1
Describing graphs and statistics	12	9	4	4
Making comparisons and contrasts	10	12		
Impersonal reporting	12	8	3	3
Personal reporting	15	11	6	6
Active and Passive voice	13	10	2	1
Paraphrasing/Summarising	5	4	4	5
Complex multi-noun phrases	4	4	5	4
Verbs and tenses	12	8		
Paragraphing	5	5		6
Punctuation	8	11		
Selecting and organizing the material	15	10		
Linking findings, conclusions and recommendations	1	15		
Writing introductions	1	12		1
Writing conclusions and recommendations	1	12		1

Legend: 1 is most important, and 15 is least important

These responses were interesting. While the Pakistani students claimed that, overall, they found it difficult to interpret data, they also stated that they could write in business-appropriate language. Yet, in question 12, which asked for specific concerns, they stated almost the opposite. This contrasted with the two Indian students who stated that overall, they could interpret data but were unable to write in business-appropriate language. However, in response to question 12, they claimed that interpreting data was a problem.

The common needs of the students are highlighted in yellow in Table 3 (where 1 = least important, and 15 = most important): paraphrasing, summarising and using complex multi-noun phrases. Paragraphing is concerned with [comprehension of source text and] sentence structure. The unshaded scores suggest that these students did not consider them to be pertinent. The grey-highlighted concerns suggest a contrast in ratings. The Indians wanted to learn personal reporting, and how to differentiate between the active and passive voice; while the Pakistanis claimed to be well-versant in these areas, except Sajid in impersonal reporting. Two of the students stated that they needed to work on writing introductions, conclusions and recommendations, whereas one rated them to be quite unimportant. Yet another seemed not to even consider it an issue.

Owing to the fact that these learners hailed from neighbouring countries where English is both the official and second language, and that they had achieved a band 7.0 or above in IELTS, they were considered a homogeneous group herein, albeit with some heterogeneous wants in the specified genre.

In light of the contradictions in some of their responses, it was regarded as fair to construe that these students were not exactly sure of what their real needs or concerns were. Therefore, in designing a course to meet their needs and the needs of other students like them, it was necessary to:

- address the key language needs of each student
- set an exercise in which students wrote a mini report at the outset which would then be carefully analysed by the instructor
- to administer a reflective exercise immediately after the mini report writing task in which students identified the language problems they faced while writing
- design comprehensive exercises on paraphrasing, summarising, impersonal reporting, active and passive voice, and multi-noun phrases as these are most appropriate to learn for business writing, as also desired by companies
- give the fourth-year students tasks requiring them to calculate data
- provide regular feedback and set ongoing reflections on their learning progress (see last tasks in each Task Set in Materials Appendix 3)

The syllabus for this course is multi-dimensional, that is, it is product-based in that it covers grammatical, notional, functional, situational and genre-based areas; skill focused in that it covers professional and technical writing skills; and process-focused in that it is task-based, learning-centred and also self-directed. Thus, details of how the course was designed are as follows:

The English for Market Research Report Writing Skills is a 15-hour intensive course based on the needs analysis performed on fourth-year WBS undergraduate students who were writing their research project.

The course covers knowledge and skills development in assessing relevance, deciphering fact from opinion, interpreting and describing graphs and statistics, producing complex multi-noun phrases, employing personal and impersonal reporting styles, using the active and passive voice, paraphrasing and summarising, paragraphing, and writing introductions and conclusions. It also requires of students to conduct online research to gather data in the form of consumer opinion on various products and brands. Their Market Research reports are to be based on their findings.

Students will be informed at the outset that upon successful completion of the programme, they should be able to confidently write a compelling, professional-level Market Research report:

- according to the context and purpose of the research
- in a short, simple, structured format suited to the genre
- in a concise and coherent style
- with genre-appropriate diction
- with accurate use of grammatical and functional resources at sentence level

2. Literature Review

According to Boyd (1991) ESP learners' value courses focused on the language of target situations and their specific needs and wants. He says that Business English focuses on the development of communicative competence for business settings, that is, target situations or situated contexts in business. According to Richards (1989), it is concerned with the specific ability to sensitively address the context, which likely leads to success. Since this course was designed to address the professional needs of pre-job experience students, and in order to research language use and the 'what' and 'how' of it (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998), a needs analysis was conducted through interviews with WBS undergraduate teachers and students, plus responses taken from a needs analysis questionnaire completed by the learners. The Vice President of Wavemetrix, a UK multinational Market Research company, was also interviewed about what his company, which is an example of the target context, seeks in report writers.

A study of the Company's guidance notes and project documents for analysts was conducted (See Materials Appendix 3, Task Sets B and C) in order to establish what would be the business-appropriate language acceptable to the 'discourse community or genre' (Swales (1990); in the context of this course, these would be the consumer products and research companies. Determining the terminology and discourse features of the market research report writing genre is important because, according to Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993), it helps the course designer to understand differences in specific communicative purposes. For instance, the discourse features of market research reports are quite different to those of accounting and finance.

The needs analysis was performed according to the 'Three Stage Needs Analysis' pattern which records data in tabulated form to identify target language needs. Following this, interviews were conducted, and questionnaires were administered to establish learner perceptions of their communication needs and preferred learning styles.

The information gathered was used to design the framework and materials for the course. However, the needs analysis revealed conflicting and varying student needs and wants. One person's wants may be another's needs; therefore, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) further distinctions need to be made between what they categorise as necessities, lacks and wants: necessities are the objective or perceived needs determined by the target situation; lacks are the weaknesses of learners within what they already know; and wants are the learners' subjective or 'felt' needs. Although an accurate needs analysis may not be determined through such a formula as *NA = (Necessities – Lacks) + Wants* but it is likely to return a fair result. Perhaps student needs would be best arrived at through what Robinson (1991) suggests: conduct an ongoing needs analysis that can be built into the course as it progresses. Boyd (1991) also stresses that continued needs assessment is vital to design considerations.

Therefore, the needs analysis (lacks) of the students for this course can be performed by giving them a mini report to write at the beginning; through their oral feedback and suggestions as the course progresses; and by studying their Grids for Reflection that are included at the end of every Tasks Set. In this way, the on-going needs analysis will help to further fine-tune the course because, as Lawson (1979: 37) highlights, "[w]hat is finally established as a 'need' is a matter for agreement and judgment, not discovery."

Holliday (1995) states that stakeholders in an ESP program are not only those people, who will be trained, nor just the companies they are being trained for, but also those who have a stake in the way in which the training is to be implemented. This particular course was, therefore, designed in line with the portfolio assessment and evaluation criteria of the certificate-issuing department, that is, the WSC.

When research was being conducted for this project, the WBS professors also hinted at the need for an academic report-writing course. This profession-oriented pilot course designed for pre-job experience learners can be a possible add-on to the WBS (or any other similar institution for that matter) undergraduate fourth-year curriculum as a sequel to an academic report writing course designed and incorporated in the first-year curriculum.

In this way, it aligns with Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998) argument that in an academic setting, an EAP course needs both its general component and its specific one. One could improvise on this approach by stating that an academic report-writing course in the first year would be the general component serving the students' initial needs, whilst equally easing the professors' dilemma for the next four years. Furthermore, the market research report-writing course incorporated in the fourth year would serve as the specific component that meets students' (pre-) professional needs. Other specific report writing courses could also be designed as offshoots of this project to fulfil the needs of accounting, finance, management and IT students.

According to the learning-centred course design approach presented by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), course design is a negotiated and dynamic process in that it does not move linearly from initial analysis to completed course. For this reason, the syllabus referred to herein was structured to be able to meet the changing needs of the students as they progress. Hull (1996) in Graves (1996: 188) says that structural flexibility is essential to curriculum design because once the program's benchmarks have been established, it is important to implement those criteria in a way that allows for creativity and initiative while providing for quality control. The constant feedback channel in the form of student reflections will enable readjustments of the course in response to student progress. For instance, if the students feel that they are continuing to have problems with paraphrasing, simpler exercises with more practice and elaboration can be incorporated. Furthermore, the timetable may be adjusted by removing unnecessary language content.

This method-based syllabus emphasises process learning. To achieve this end, the task-oriented activities are designed to make students read and think about the content, structure and organisation, the language used to express the content and then apply that knowledge acquired to the skill of writing a full report.

For learners at pre-professional level courses such as this one, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest that a task-based problem-solving, deep-end approach is often more appropriate as it mirrors the required style and register, and students often learn experientially through involvement. According to Charles in Hewings and Dudley-Evans (1996) in a performance learning context, what is to be learnt should be exercised in a situation that has a direct public outcome. In other words, what is to be learnt should be performed, and not merely practised, at the actual time of learning. In light of this principle, a more deep-end approach starting from cognitive and fluency activities, progressing to specific language and skill work-based outcome, which then lead to further fluency practice has been adopted for the course. Settings and carrier content are incorporated from the learners' target business context; that is, reports of the company, Wavemetrix, were studied to determine the lexical items and syntactic features (language analysis) that students would need for the productive function (Munby, 1978) – in this case the market research report – because familiarity or lack thereof with these will certainly affect the way English is used (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993).

When students rearrange the jumbled introductions of the published market reports, they will gradually develop an increasing awareness of language and the structure of the writing genre, as predicted by Charles cited in Hewings and Dudley-Evans (1996). The activities have been designed to make students work on authentic data to paraphrase the information. This experience will necessitate not only paraphrasing skills, but also summarising, thereby equipping them with transferable skills for the professional target situation. The collection of paraphrased and scored information will then constitute a databank from which the students will draw up graphs and charts, followed by conclusions. Throughout the process, students will be provided with detailed feedback on their responses to the tasks to ensure a satisfactory outcome of the course in the form of suitable market research reports.

The PPP approach has been included in the course for some of the activities in which, according to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), the communicative event might be new to the learners. Hence, a prior decision was made by the course designer as to what language and skills would need to be focused upon.

In the needs analysis, students pointed to certain aspects of the language that they wanted to learn and left out some others altogether. In light of this, an attempt has been made to address the needs/wants of all the participants at the start, as being a facilitator is a key role of the ESP teacher and course designer. As the course progresses, through feedback from the students and by assessing their lacks through their work, it will be established which aspects should be covered in greater depth in the future sessions. This is because according to Charles in Hewings and Dudley-Evans:

> A […] consequence of the existence of a public outcome is that, in performance learning, all features necessary for the public carrying out of the task must be given the attention which will ensure at minimum an adequate performance. The performance learner in EAP cannot afford to focus on grammar, rather than organisation, or to concentrate on communicative quality, rather than punctuation. A course design appropriate for performance learners will build on the opportunity for complete coverage of all concerns, whether global or local, which contribute to the adequate public performance of each student. (1996: 58)

3. METHODOLOGY

The course employs a mix of deep-end and presentation-production-practice (PPP) strategies. It requires both teacher monitoring and teacher instruction (see Teacher's Notes in Appendix 4). Much of the learning is to be achieved through task-based activities including case studies, researching and report writing (project work). These are based on the communicative language learning principles, whereby students are required to ask the teacher and their peers questions, interact extensively with the text, give one another feedback and work individually as well as in pairs and groups. Dudley-Evans and St. John state:

> In considering which approach to take, it is most important to remember that there is no best way; all techniques and methods are a response to a particular situation. (1998: 187)

Therefore, to address the slightly heterogeneous needs of the homogeneous group, the course makes use of a mix of deep-end strategy and the PPP. The deep-end strategy will help learners to use their existing English competence and discover where it is (in)adequate. The PPP will work effectively in instances on the course where the communicative event may be new to the learners (Tasks Sets B and C, for example). Cognitive language and subject learning processes will be harnessed as Widdowson (1983) says that ESP courses ought to logically link with areas of activity that meet the learners' aspirations (Tasks Set A, for example).

There are eight sessions in total. The first seven involve training and practice sessions of two-hour durations each. The eighth is an hour-long collective feedback session on the students' assignments. The course materials will be provided in class. The sources used to create the course materials include:

- Online posts and threads in fora of consumer opinion on products such as LG VX9800, Samsung D600 and Motorola ROKR E1 mobile phones; Chrysler 300C automobile; Pro-Evolution Soccer and FIFA 06 video games *for paraphrasing and data collection tasks*

- Report Writer vacancy advertisement on Unitemps Recruitment Agency website *for awareness raising of what employers require from report writers*
- Wavemetrix, a market research company's:
  - Vice President's brief chat-based interview containing *information on market report writing*
  - Analyst Guidance Notes and Project Initiation Documents *for analysis and guidance on data collection*
  - Market research report *for reading, lexis, sentences, paragraphing, introductions and conclusions, and overall structure*
  - End-user opinion monthly reports *for reading, lexis, sentences, paragraphing, introductions and conclusions and overall structure*
  - Authentic feedback given to market research analysts *for the reinforcement of understanding of findings, scoring the same, and paraphrasing*
- Zloopy – an online discussion search engine (subsidiary of Wavemetrix, active at the time of creating this project) *for direct and quick access to online discussion forums*
- Oxford Talking Dictionary *for definitions, meanings and diction*
- *Report writing instructional texts*
- *Grids for reflection from* WSC and Woodford's Teacher Training Documents

The following language issues are covered:

	Reading and understanding	Tasks	Language practice	Writing
Tasks Set A Getting quick insights	Portfolio. Report organisation and style.	Reading advertisement, interview and report. Writing. Reflecting.	Familiarisation with informal style. 'Test-running' writing skills.	Writing an informal mini report. Reflections on needs and wants.
Tasks Set B Collecting information	Extracting main points. Assessing relevance, fact and opinion	Distinguishing fact from opinion.	Conciseness. Precision.	Paraphrasing and summarising.
Tasks Set C Collecting and processing information	Extracting main points. Assessing relevance, fact and opinion. Classifying the above.	Distinguishing fact from opinion. Analysing.	Conciseness. Precision.	Paraphrasing and summarising.

	Reading and understanding	Tasks	Language practice	Writing
Tasks Set D Presenting findings	Organisation. Style.	Ordering. Highlighting appealing words and phrases. Practice personal and impersonal styles.	Coherence. Sequencing. Active and passive.	Writing and sequencing sentences. Paragraphing. Using M R genre-specific words and phrases, and personal and impersonal style in sentences.
Tasks Set E Presenting findings	Conciseness. Style.	Practice personal and impersonal styles.	Multi-noun phrases. Personal and impersonal reporting.	Writing sentences using multi-noun phrases, personal and impersonal reporting.
Tasks Set F Using graphs and statistics	Assessing relevance, suitability. Interpreting graphs.	Transferring information from text to diagram.	Amount and difference. Quantity. Graph description.	Referencing illustrations. Representing numbers.
Tasks Set G Summarising. Concluding.	Extracting main points. Linking findings and conclusions.	Classifying information. Simplifying.	Degree. Probability.	Summaries. Conclusions.

Grid format adapted from Comfort, J. Revell, R. Stott, C. (1984) Business Reports in English

Timetable

Day	Tasks	Time
(Week 1) Monday	Tasks Set A - Getting quick insights	18.00-20.00
Tuesday	Tasks Set B - Collecting information	18.00-20.00
Wednesday	Tasks Set C - Collecting and processing information	18.00-20.00
Thursday	Tasks Set D - Presenting findings	18.00-20.00
Friday	Tasks Set E - Presenting findings	18.00-20.00
(Week 2) Monday	Tasks Set F - Using graphs and statistics	18.00-20.00
Tuesday	Tasks Set G - Summarising and concluding	18.00-20.00
(Week 3) Tuesday	Feedback session	18.00-20.00

Note: Provision of a 10-minute break is included after every hour of class time (that is, 50-minutes = 1 UK university-level teaching hour).

4. Student Assessment and Teaching Materials

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 148) "[s]hort intensive EOP[/ESP] courses are not usually concerned with testing learners' proficiency" because the class time is needed for input and practice and the real effect of that input is likely to show results at some point in the future. Furthermore, owing to the fact that business school students normally have a heavy workload of assignments and tests, this additional course designed for them only requires them to write an assignment in the form of a 1200-word market research report.

Formative assessment

Student progress will be monitored subjectively through their performance in the tasks set in class, through their written reflections and oral interaction. Examinations and tests are not deemed suitable for an intensive course of this nature.

Final project/assignment

Students will be assessed through the WSC standard portfolio-building criteria. The WSC's non-credit bearing courses are designed to develop students' competence, and confidence in a range of essential graduate-level skills. A wide range of modules are available so that students can enroll in a course(s) of their choice. Experienced tutors with an expertise in skills development, careers development and experiential learning are employed to deliver the classes.

The aim of the WSC portfolio is to provide students with an opportunity to present their work in such a way as to show how they have modified their approach in view of what has been learnt throughout the module. Later, the portfolio is also to be checked by an external examiner.

For their course portfolio, students will compile a Market Research report after searching data for findings on the internet forums of specific categories of products and services such as cars, mobile phones, video games, mobile phones service providers, and MBA schools. They will be required to list at least 250 findings on various brands of a particular product/service of their choice.

The assessment criteria for their writing are clearly delineated through the performance descriptors given in Appendix 5. Keeping in line with the WSC policy, only a "Pass" or "More Evidence Required" grade will be given.

4.1. Teaching materials

Authentic texts

Owing to access constraints, only one company market research report has been used in the intensive course. While this could be considered a disadvantage, it is not perceived to be one on this occasion because the students will fully familiarise themselves with the style and content of the report through thorough analysis, which is likely to help them to understand the requirements of this genre. In turn, they could exploit the experience to apply to other company-specific reports that they might study and/or produce in the future. This approach is in line with Dudley-Evans and St. Johns' (1998) opinion that to enhance learning, the materials used must invoke learner thinking about the language used and subsequently produced.

The activities need to simulate cognitive rather than mechanical processes. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (ibid) state that authentic texts are referred to as 'genuine' texts because they are originally written for purposes other than language teaching. They state that the genuineness of a text does not guarantee relevance and that it is only truly authentic if it is exploited in ways that reflect real world use. In other words, the authenticity of purpose is as important as the genuineness of the text. Thus, an attempt at drawing a careful balance between the multiple interpretations of 'authentic' has been made. The Tasks Sets devised took the form of a writing-centred case study for which an authentic advertisement, interview of a research company executive and published research reports were especially incorporated as course materials to maximize opportunities for learners to practice from.

McDonough and Shaw (1993) suggest that one of the common reasons for using authentic materials is to personalise them, which refers to the need to make materials more relevant to learners' interests and their professional needs. Earlier, Widdowson (1983) stated that authenticity lies in the nature of the interaction between the reader and the text. Students will be required to identify and examine stylistic variations such as informality, bias-free language and directness. Then they will practice on the stylistics of report writing by doing the exercises and producing their own report. Doing actual research wherein they would provide opinions on products and services on the internet would give them the opportunity to perform hands-on practice in 'field work'.

Any integrated tasks created from authentic materials will contribute to language learning because, as Orr (2002) highlights, these task types present language in a motivating manner. He further states that by exploring professional organizations and publications in the field, language instructors can get a sense of how the world of education intersects with the world of business and how business educates the members of its own community. To achieve these ends, the Analysts' Guidance Notes of Wavemetrix (Tasks Sets B and C) have been employed for the course created.

Appendix 3 details the teaching materials that have been created and/or may be utilised for this course.

4.1. Layout and pacing

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) for self-study or reference purposes materials need to be complete, well-laid out and self-explanatory. They further state that materials should allow "the explorer, who will follow through a train of thoughts; the browser, who will pick and choose at random; and the systematist, who will work through methodically" (1998: 172). This means that an important feature is the overall organization of the material. Hence the materials for this course have been designed with this in mind by placing scrolls before each Tasks Set that state what the learners will do in the set and each task clearly states what its aims and objectives are. The materials are presented in two columns in landscape format so that students would not have to keep flipping over the page in order to refer to the notes and then to the examples. For instance, in Tasks Set B, Task 1, the notes on the findings were placed parallel to the examples. In Tasks Set D, Task 1 and 2, the worksheet was placed on the next page because of page size constraints. The spaces for paragraphs were designed to make students write as short a sentence or phrase as possible.

In order to provide stimulation and motivation, the materials are challenging yet achievable, and it is planned that they would offer new ideas and information.

Sequencing of activities and revision

Right from the outset, tasks were designed in an integrated and sequentially progressive manner. The advertisement for report writers and the [needs analysis] chatinterview of the VP of Wavemterix are included in the materials to give the entire course a feel of progression as in reality – from the urge to work as report writer (Tasks Set A, Task 2) to the production of a professional market report (assignment) modelled on the published version. Furthermore, the VP's exact words have been used later on as well (Tasks Set A, Task 6; and Tasks Set B, instructions page) to remind students of professional requirements and expectations.

Analysts' Guidance Notes and posts from opinion threads have been arranged in order to make the paraphrasing tasks well-graded: the paraphrasing tasks in Tasks Sets B and C and the sentence and paragraph sequencing tasks in Tasks Set D are provided in ascending level of difficulty and are well-supported by exemplars, thereby catering to different student levels.

The materials offer a variety of micro skills that effectively feed into the macro skills. Tasks Set D, Tasks 1 and 2, for instance, give practice on the micro skills of sequencing sentences and paragraphs in order to learn the macro skill of writing introductions according to the model market research reports. The key notion is that the market report is reader-centred as the organization, format and style are governed by the target audience (Davidson in Orr, 2002).

Each Tasks Set ends with extension activities, which include studying Wavemetrix's Findings feedback.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) the only way to check whether the carrier content is appropriate and the real content matches the course objectives is by 'being a student' and doing the activities while thinking carefully about what is actually being done to complete them successfully.

7. Conclusion

While further work would be necessary in order to develop and refine the course referred to herein, a means of acquiring on-going feedback have been incorporated into its design to allow significant student input into its development. This provides a way of addressing students' needs through what Charles in Hewings and Dudley-Evans (1996) calls performance tasks for a future public outcome. As such, its multidimensional syllabus successfully offers the possibility of satisfying all stakeholders. Most importantly, ESP provides an opportunity to meet the requirements of prospective employers, which according to Hall in Graves (1996) is the most effective course and materials design.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 575−586
UDC: 811.111'255.4 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104575K

Original scientific paper

DIGITAL TEACHER FEEDBACK AS A TRANSLATION ASSESSMENT TOOL

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Abstract. *This paper analyses the opportunities of digital feedback delivery, its use in the translation classroom, and its application as the tool of active instruction and formative assessment at university level. A mixed research design involved 33 third-year students of Poltava University of Economics and Trade majoring in Translation. They participated in the study voluntarily in the spring term of 2019/2020 academic year. The effectiveness of the digital teacher feedback of different modality was estimated with the help of a questionnaire from two perspectives: students' behavioral engagement associated with feedback convenience in use for translation revisions and their affective engagement concerning emotional saturation of the suggested type of digital feedback. Students' preferences were collated with their results in leading sensory channel test and acquired translation competency level. According to the received data, overwhelming 69.7% of undergraduate translators appeared to be digitals as per their leading sensory channel, which had no statistically significant impact on the preferred feedback modality inversely to students' translation competency level. The observed correlation proved the viability of both suggested digital feedback modalities at different stages of the training process. It was concluded that digital teacher feedback promotes the development of the students' translation skills in particular and leverages formative assessment practices in the translation classroom in general.*

Key words*: digital teacher feedback, translation assessment, undergraduate translators, leading sensory channel*

1. INTRODUCTION

Information technologies have steadily proliferated in all the spheres of modern society over the last decade, and education is not an exception. Both teachers and students should be prepared to use varied general and application software in order to facilitate instruction process and improve their training and learning outcomes. That is why, progressive language and translation teachers keep searching for the efficient digital tools to enhance their teaching and assessment practices on the one hand, and diversify their students' expertise in information technologies, valuable from the viewpoint of their prospective professional activity on the other. An effective digital tool can spare teacher's time and efforts and provide an efficient approach to students' learning, especially in

Submitted March 23rd, 2021, accepted for publication August 1st, 2021
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terms of translation training. According to the provisions of social constructivist approach (Kiraly, 2005), it should be focused on the development of students' translation skills through and by doing due to the continuous interaction of all the participants involved into the translation process.

Feedback is considered one of indispensable components of translation performance. It naturally comes in the form of editor's or project manager's remarks in real professional world and teacher's or peer's comments and suggestions in educational setting. In case of professional translation, it tends to be delivered with the help of a digital note option, commonly available in different computer-aided translation tools, widely used in modern translation industry. This fact combined with the current trends in offline, online and/or blended university training urges translation teachers to master and employ digital feedback on translations performed by their students in order to convert it into a powerful tool of formative assessment.

Having specified feedback definition by Hattie and Timperley (2007) within our research, we view digital teacher feedback as any information supplied by a teacher to a student as to particular aspects of their translation performance generated with the help of any appropriate software and delivered in digital mode (written, audio- or video-recorded).

Compared to live oral or handwritten one, digital feedback features a number of obvious benefits: 1) it gives the opportunity to take into account individual needs of undergraduate translators with different learning styles and translation competency levels in terms of varied presentation modality; 2) it allows teachers to simulate real-life professional situations of interaction between different participants of a translation project; 3) it promotes timely comment delivery, its optimal storage and subsequent retrieval of its content if the need arises; 4) it enables teachers to provide more detailed, emotionally saturated and personalized comment on a particular translation product; 5) it spares teacher's time and efforts due to easy generation and delivery procedures. However, according to the conducted literature review (presented below) modern translation pedagogy lacks relevant research devoted to the opportunities of digital teacher feedback use at university level.

Therefore, the objectives of this study are: 1) to determine and analyze some accessible and practical modes of digital feedback delivery in the translation classroom; 2) to define undergraduate translators' attitudes to written and audio digital teacher feedback in contrast to the paper handwritten one; 3) to outline the application peculiarities of digital feedback of different modality for translation assessment from the viewpoint of students' leading sensory channels and their acquired translation competency levels.

2. Literature Review

In modern applied linguistics feedback utilization is examined extensively in terms of foreign language productive skills development (Lim and Phua, 2019; Tsagari, 2019; Zarei and Rezadoust, 2020), while its study in the translation classroom is rather scarce and limited to certain aspects only. For example, Južnič (2013) compared feedback perception by translation trainers and trainees at Slovenian universities. Alfayyadh (2016) contrasted the functions performed by translation feedback in different national educational environments. Neunzig and Tanqueiro (2005) summarized the distinguishing features of a translation feedback automatically generated by a computer. Washbourne (2014) considered written feedback on students' translation performance from the viewpoint of dialogic and iterative approaches. Pietrzak (2014) presented feedback circulation model within a group of translation students. Zheng, Zhong, Yu and Li (2020) examined the correlation between students' translation competency level and their engagement with the received teacher feedback. Finally yet importantly, Yu, Zhang, Zeng and Lin (2019) dealt with the teacher's strategies for written translation feedback generation and their impact upon students' revision.

As far as we can see, modern translation pedagogy completely lacks the studies directed to the investigation of digital feedback use, which have sprung recently in teaching foreign language writing and other creative activities. Their intensification is closely connected with the development and growing accessibility of a wide range of free computer software that allows teachers to generate multimodal digital feedback. To date available types of digital feedback include: 1) electronic written, both in-text (with the help of commenting and editing features of offline and online word processors such as Microsoft Word or Google Docs which provide the opportunity to track changes and corrections made by a teacher and add some text bubbles) and out-of-text (in the form of emails and other text messages as well as blog posts and online chats); 2) recorded audio (due to built-in features of Turnitin or Canvas online platforms and Google Docs plugins such as Kaizena or Chrome extensions, namely Read&Write and Mote); 3) recorded video (captured with the use of screencasting software including Screencastify, Screencast-o-matic, etc.).

According to McCarthy (2015), video feedback appeared to be more engaging and easier for students to comprehend and use compared to written and audio ones within summative assessment at university level. Similar results were received by Henderson and Phillips (2015), although some drawbacks of this feedback modality were distinguished, namely the difficulty of matching global video-comment to the particular faults of text-based assignments and students' anxiety about watching personalized video feedback. Some technical issues connected with operating system requirements, optimal volume or quality of the received video file and its sharing/storing arose as well.

Having analysed the studies, devoted to the investigation of the students' attitude to audio feedback recorded in the form of MP3 files within teaching and assessing different aspects of English writing (Cavanaugh and Song, 2014; Dalton, 2018), drama studies (Pearson, 2018) as well as bioscience written assignments (Voelkel and Mello, 2014) we have singled out some of its common benefits. Audio feedback appears to be clearer and less ambiguous to the students due to its length and abundance compared to the written one. It seems more comprehensive and accessible than the written one. This modality of feedback delivery ensures its emotional saturation. Audio feedback sounds supportive and motivating to its recipients. It appears to be individual and personalized. It leads to future strategizing and feed-forwarding. Audio feedback appeals to teachers, promoting their self-efficiency beliefs and converting assessment into mutually engaging process.

However, audio feedback research raised some kind of discrepancies and contradictions as well. Its generation and use can be technically challenging to both teachers and students. There is no evidence that it leads to students' higher performance and has impact that is more positive on their learning outcomes. Producing audio feedback teachers tend to comment on global issues of assignment performance rather than provide a detailed report of its strengths and weaknesses. A need for noting down teacher's corrections and suggestions can create additional obstacles to proper assignment revision by the students.

Anyway, the obvious functionality and growing accessibility of this type of digital feedback appears to be promising in the context of formative translation assessment and requires thorough examination at university level.

3. METHOD

A mixed research design has been adopted for this study. Its qualitative aspect was concentrated on the collection of two sets of data about: 1) the students' attitudes to digital feedbacks of different modalities from the perspectives of their behavioral and affective engagement; 2) the participants' leading sensory channel.

Students' behavioral engagement is connected with feedback functionality that provides sufficient readiness to revise their translations in line with the received teacher comments. While their affective engagement concerns individual emotional response and attitude to the suggested type of digital feedback and its emotional saturation (Zheng, Zhong, Yu and Li, 2020).

In its turn, research quantitative aspect dealt with the statistical analysis of the correlation of the students' preferred digital feedback modality with their leading sensory channel and acquired competency level. On this basis, the list of the criteria to select software for translation feedback generation was drafted and the ways to apply different modes of digital feedback were defined. They allowed us to personalize translation training and assessment to some extent.

The research was carried out in the spring term of 2019-2020 academic year at Poltava University of Economics and Trade. In total, 33 third-year students (25 women and 8 men), aged from 19 to 23, majoring in Translation, voluntarily participated in this survey. They have been taking Translation Practice course for a year, have acquired particular translation competency level and were used to receiving and utilizing handwritten teacher feedback on their full translation performance. For the sake of our survey, the students were subdivided into three groups of translation competency according to their course learning outcomes: high (14 students), medium (12 students) and low (7 students). Participants' demographic information is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 Research participants' demographic information

Gender				Age								Translation competency level					
Male		Female		19		20		21		23		High		Medium		Low	
8	24%	25	76%	13	39%	16	49%	3	9%	1	3%	14	43%	12	36%	7	21%
33		100%		33				100%				33			100%		

During the term, the third-year students had to perform and submit one full translation of English popular science article in Business Administration into Ukrainian per week. Their translations were assessed and reflected on by the teacher on a regular basis. Translations 1–8 were followed with the electronic written in-text feedback generated with the help of built-in Google Docs commenting and editing feature (see Fig. 1), while translations 9–16 received recorded audio feedback created with the use of Chrome extension Mote (see Fig. 2).

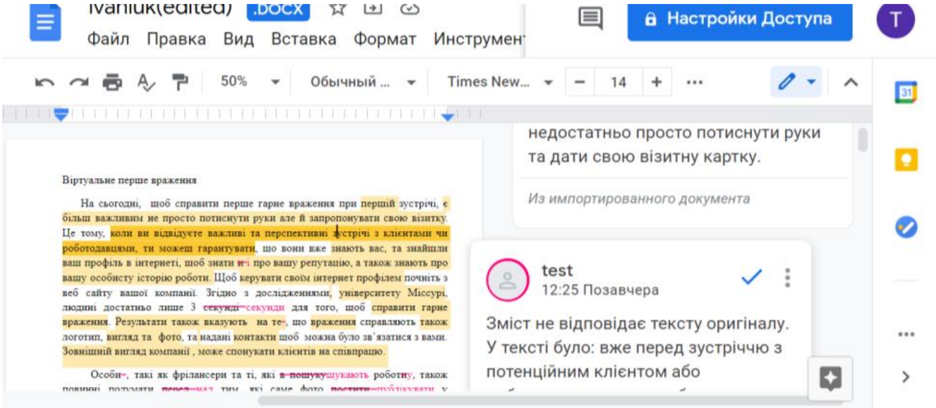

Fig. 1 Sample view of a translation with written digital feedback

In order to achieve a desired formative effect, the students were asked to revise and resubmit their translations, corrected according to the obtained feedback. The observation of their behavioral patterns connected with the feedback analysis and use was carried out. At the end of the term a questionnaire to study their opinion on feedback in general and its modality in particular was developed and applied. It contained 12 close-ended questions presented with the help of Google forms.

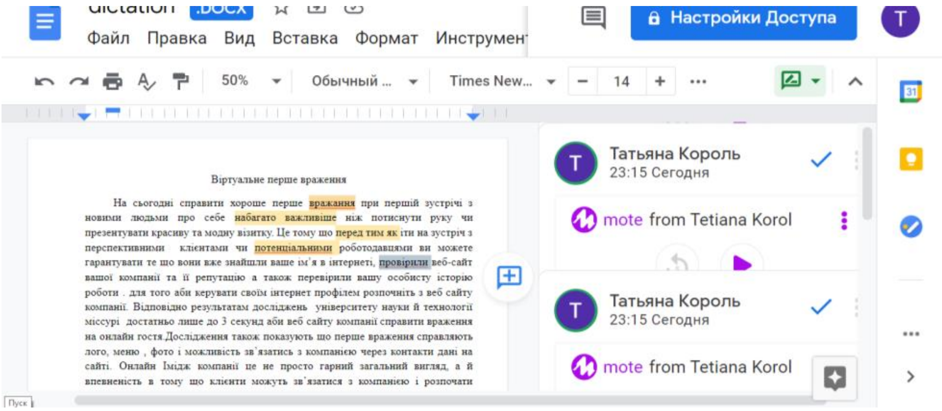

Fig. 2 Sample view of a translation with audio digital feedback

In average, it took about 9–12 minutes to complete the following survey online:

1. How do you evaluate the importance of feedback in efficient translation training?
   a) Extremely important
   b) Important
   c) Relatively important
   d) Not so important
   e) Not important at all
2. What type of feedback delivery do you consider more appropriate?
   a) Individual
   b) Group

3. Did you feel any difference between paper and digital feedback?
   a) Yes, and it was huge
   b) Yes, but it was slight
   c) No
4. Did you feel any difference between written and audio digital feedback?
   a) Yes, and it was huge
   b) Yes, but it was slight
   c) No
5. Which type of feedback delivery is more convenient for further translation revision and correction?
   a) Handwritten
   b) Written digital
   c) Audio digital
6. Which type of feedback delivery appeared to be more motivating and engaging to you?
   a) Handwritten
   b) Written digital
   c) Audio digital
7. What are the main disadvantages of a written digital feedback? More than one answer can be chosen.
   a) It is not easy to process and use
   b) It does not always provide sufficient information on the required /made corrections
   c) It does not help understand teacher's attitude to my translation
   d) It does not motivate me to improve my translation skills
   e) It does not appear to be personal and engaging enough
   f) It is too boring and monotonous to read and use
8. What are the main disadvantages of an audio digital feedback? More than one answer can be chosen.
   a) It is not easy to process and use
   b) It does not always provide sufficient information on the required /made corrections
   c) It does not help understand teacher's attitude to my translation
   d) It does not motivate me to improve my translation skills
   e) It does not appear to be personal and engaging enough
   f) It is too boring and monotonous to listen to and use
9. What are the main advantages of a written digital feedback? More than one answer can be chosen.
   a) It is fast to process and easy to use
   b) It provides extensive information on the required /made corrections
   c) It reflects teacher's attitude to my translation
   d) It motivates me to revise my translation and improve my translation skills
   e) It always appears to be personal and makes me feel connected
   f) It reproduces the emotional background of real-life interaction
10. What are the main advantages of audio digital feedback? More than one answer can be chosen.
   a) It is fast to process and easy to use
   b) It provides extensive information on the required /made corrections
   c) It reflects teacher's attitude to my translation
   d) It motivates me to improve my translation skills
   e) It always appears to be personal and makes me feel connected
   f) It reproduces the emotional background of real-life interaction

11. What makes an ideal digital feedback to you? More than one answer can be chosen.
    a) It should be fast to process and easy to use
    b) It should provide extensive information on the required /made corrections
    c) It should reflect teacher's attitude to my translation
    d) It should motivate me to revise my translation
    e) It should be personal and addressed to me only
    f) It should reproduce real-life interaction and communication with the teacher and be emotionally saturated
12. Does feedback delivery type influence the quality of your translation revision and correction?
    a) Yes, fully
    b) Yes, partially
    c) No

The received data were complemented with the results of psychological diagnostic test for leading sensory channel determination (Lobanov, 2004). This test contained 12 questions with 4 possible answers each. The students were asked to rate them from 1 to 4, where 1 denoted their least typical behavior pattern while 4 corresponded to the most typical one. Test results were interpreted according to the standardized key, which distinguished between the four sensory channels (auditory, visual, kinesthetic, and digital) and allowed us to determine the leading one for each survey participant. Finally, students' leading sensory channels, current translation competency levels and preferred feedback modality were collated, while their correlation was verified statistically.

4. RESULTS

The conducted survey of 33 third-year students majoring in Translation has revealed that the majority of them (87.88%) find feedback extremely important for the efficient translation training. Even more students (96.97%) consider individual feedback delivery more appropriate and viable, and only one participant feels completely satisfied with impersonal group feedback. It is worth noting here, that this student demonstrated low translation competency level at the end of the course.

All the respondents (100%) experienced either huge (87.88%), or slight (12.12%) difference between the paper (handwritten) and digital feedback. The students with high translation competency level (11 out of 14) tended to notice insufficient difference between the written and audio digital feedback, while most of the students with medium and low translation competency levels (11 out of 12 and 7 out of 7 respectively) felt a great difference between them.

Most of the students (51.52%) consider audio digital feedback delivery more convenient for further translation revision and correction. One third of the respondents (30.30%) preferred written digital feedback use for this purpose and only 18.18% of them insisted on handwritten feedback convenience. In all students' opinion (100%), audio digital feedback appeared to be more motivating and engaging compared to other modalities.

To the participants' mind, the leading drawbacks of written digital feedback include: 1) lack of some sufficient information on the required changes in the target text or corrections made (84.85%). It can be explained with time and space constraints encountered by any teacher in case of this type of feedback delivery; 2) no opportunity to decode real teacher's positive or negative attitude to the translation performed (72.73%) because of predominantly emotionally neutral written digital feedback and its main focus on the straightforward information presentation; 3) low motivational potential of such feedback type (69.7%) connected with the absence of real opportunity to encourage students explicitly; 4) its boring and monotonous presentation (60.6%) caused with the fact that any teacher tends to use typical structures and expressions to comment on common students' mistakes and errors, especially in case of brief texting. Overwhelming benefit of this feedback delivery acknowledged by the majority of the surveyed (100%) was simplicity in perception and processing as well as convenience in practical application.

As for audio digital feedback, more than a half of the students (54.55%) complained of the only problem connected with the inconvenience of its analysis and use. Indeed, audio feedback utilization can require recurrent listening and even note-taking to be viable and effective. However, this type of feedback delivery has plenty of obvious advantages according to the students. Firstly, it provides extensive information on what should be done to correct translation mistakes and avoid them in the future (69.7% of students). About 96.97% of the respondents was sure that it clearly reflected teacher's real attitude to their translation performance due to the opportunity to hear his/her voice and intonation. Almost 90.9% of the undergraduate translators admitted that it was rather motivating and promoted their translation revision and further translation skill improvement. Due to audio feedback delivery, 72.73% of the students felt engaged and treated teacher's comments as highly personal ones. Finally, 81.82% of the participants enjoyed the reproduced emotional aspect of real-life communication and interaction with their teacher provided by audio digital feedback.

From behavioral aspect, the ideal feedback delivery looks like this: 1) convenient to analyse and process, easy to use (100% of the respondents); 2) provides all the sufficient information on the required corrections (100% of the survey participants); 3) highly motivational, encourages to revise / correct the translation and to develop students' translation skills (90.9%). At the same time affective engagement appeared to be extremely important from the respondents' viewpoint as well. From this perspective, an ideal feedback should: 1) clearly reflect teacher's attitude to current translation performance (100% of the students); 2) be personalized and engaging (100% of the surveyed); 3) reproduce the emotional component of real-life interaction (72.73% of the participants). Based on the conducted survey, we can claim that both behavioral and affective aspects of feedback delivery matter to the undergraduate translators and influence their translation revision activity in particular and translation skills development in general. All the students agreed that feedback modality affected their revision efficiency either greatly (48.48%) or slightly (51.52%).

According to the results of psychological test aimed at the determination of the students' leading sensory channel (Lobanov, 2004), overwhelming majority of the testees (69.7%) belong to digitals. It means that they are able to perceive information instantly from diverse channels at a time and function efficiently within several modalities easily switching or combining them. The second most numerous category is kinesthetic students (21.21%). Emotions, attitudes and direct interaction are their main sources of information and knowledge acquisition. Visual students (6.06%) and auditory one (3.03%) are the least represented among the surveyed undergraduate translators.

The statistical verification of the correlation of the students' leading sensory channel, translation competency level and preferred feedback modality carried out with the help of

Gamma Coefficient in the software Statistica 10.0 showed: 1) statistically significant connection between the students' translation competency level and their preferred feedback modality (0.677966 at $p<0.05$); 2) no statistically significant relation between the students' leading sensory channel and their preferred feedback modality (-0.045752 at $p<0.05$). The students with low level of translation competency mostly went for handwritten feedback (4 students out of 7) and written digital one (3 out of 7). In most cases, the students with medium translation competency level chose digital feedback: audio (7 out of 12) and written (3 out of 12), although two of them still preferred handwritten one. Finally, the students with high competency level opted for digital feedback only: audio and written (10 and 4 participants respectively).

5. Discussion

The obtained data prove the importance of feedback, especially individual one in translation training at university level, and highlight digital feedback delivery potential in this respect. This fully complies with the positive opinion on digital feedback of different modality previously fixed by other researchers in varied areas (Cavanaugh and Song, 2014; Dalton, 2018; McCarthy, 2015; Pearson, 2018; Tsagari, 2019; Voelkel and Mello, 2014).

The analysis of the research experience and survey results allowed us to draft the following list of criteria to select optimal software for audio digital feedback generation and delivery in the translation assessment: 1) it should be easy and completely free to install; 2) it should provide absolutely user-friendly interface; 3) it should have minimum system requirements; 3) its output should be accessible from any device and run without obligatory software installation; 4) it should enable teachers to produce records long enough to deliver extensive in-text comments (up to 90 sec.); 5) it should contain built-in option of transcript creation in different languages to assist in parallel generation of bilingual written digital feedback; 6) it should contain refback option to promote real-life interaction; 7) it should keep track of students' views and responses.

Audio digital feedback created with the help of optimal software provides translator trainees' behavioral and affective engagement equally important for the efficient translation revision and correction as found by Zheng, Zhong, Yu and Li (2020). There is an assumption that teacher's feedback approach and strategies are also affected by its modality. As a result, audio feedback is more extensive and fluent, emotionally saturated, personalized and encouraging compared to a written digital one.

Finally, the fixed dominance of undergraduate translators with digital sensory channel supports general trends closely connected with upbringing peculiarities and lifestyle of current student generation in Ukraine. Synekop (2018) obtained similar results for more numerous population concerning leading sensory channels of future IT specialists. Kinesthetic students were the second-largest cohort in our research. These results can be partially caused by the prevalence of female participants or translator's occupational peculiarities and expectations. In the context of our study, this fact can also explain the equal significance of behavioral and affective aspects of feedback for the survey participants. At the same time, digital students' dominating number mitigated the modality impact on feedback viability in the translation classroom.

Strong correlation between the students' translation competency level and preferred feedback modality requires consecutive and situational involvement of handwritten,

written and audio digital feedbacks at different stages of instruction and assessment in the translation classroom following and monitoring the process of translation competency acquisition. There is an idea to start translators' training with a handwritten teacher feedback on the performed translations, since it often involves a lot of different explicit corrections and ready-made translation solutions suggested by a teacher. Such feedback type is straightforward enough to promote efficient revision procedures in particular and direct the training process in general. The next training stage should employ written digital feedback, which is more convenient from the viewpoint of its generation and further use for both teachers and students. However, it can be too typical and impersonal because of the temptation to copy and paste some standard clichés and patterns in its preparation and presentation by the teacher. This feedback modality corresponds to more implicit comments combined with hinting through highlighting, guiding how to correct and prevent such mistakes and errors in the future. It is worth noting that such feedback strategy is more productive at the intermediate training stages. Finally, audio digital feedback reproduces some kind of real-life discussion and interaction. It helps motivate and encourage, challenge and praise students' particular translation solutions. Due to its emotional saturation, it appears to be engaging and personal. The analysis of such type of feedback for students is exciting itself. In case of handwritten and written digital feedbacks, everything is clear from the first sight, while in case of audio digital feedback there is always some unexpected mystery, which creates some cognitive discrepancy to be solved and overcome. So audio digital feedback is suitable for more implicit corrections and comments with multiple suggestions and flexible solutions to be evaluated and interpreted by the student in the process of further translation revision. Such feedback content and presentation are efficient enough with the students who have already acquired some basic translation skills. As we can see, digital feedback of different modalities provides opportunity to adjust feedback delivery and use to students' needs according to the training stage.

6. Conclusion

Current trends in education and translation industry require the adoption and active application of digital teacher feedback practices in the translation classroom due to their obvious benefits. Digital teacher feedback as any information supplied by a teacher to a student concerning particular aspects of their translation performance is generated with the help of appropriate software and delivered in digital written, audio- or video-recorded mode. In the context of modern digital society, written and audio digital feedbacks look extremely promising. Moreover, they are more affordable and functional compared to video digital one, especially in the form of electronic written in-text comments produced with the help of editing built-in features of word processors MS Word and Google Docs as well as audio in-text comments recorded with the help of such Chrome extensions as Mote or Read&Write.

The conducted study provides the empirical evidence of digital teacher feedback efficiency in the translation classroom. According to the survey results, all the respondents experienced the difference between paper and digital feedbacks. More than 81% of the students preferred to receive a digital teacher feedback on their translations. All the survey participants stressed that digital feedback modality influenced their revision performance. In their opinion, the main advantage of a written digital feedback lies in the simplicity of its perception and processing as well as in its convenience and practicality. However, this type of digital feedback does not provide sufficient information on the required corrections and changes, does not reveal teacher's attitude to student's performance and, as a result, does not motivate, engage and involve them into revision process at all, being too monotonous and boring. In its turn, audio digital feedback mainly overcomes the above-mentioned drawbacks. However, it seems to be a bit less convenient in terms of its content analysis and further application and use. The received data allowed us to list the crucial features of a digital teacher feedback on students' translations. Survey results proved the equal value of behavioral and affective feedback aspects for translation competency acquisition by the students.

The statistical verification of the correlation of the participants' leading sensory channel (digital (69.7%), kinesthetic (21.21%), visual (6.06%) and auditory (3.03%)), translation competency level (high (43%), medium (36%) and low (21%)) and preferred feedback modality (paper handwritten (18.18%), written digital (30.30%) and audio digital (51.52%)) revealed reliable connection between the students' translation competency level and their preferred feedback modality. On the other hand, it fixed no relation between the participants' leading sensory channel and their preferred feedback modality. Thus, the choice of feedback modality in the translation classroom should depend on the training stage and needs rather than on the trainees' individual peculiarities.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 587−599
UDC: 811.111:37 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104587U

Original scientific paper

TEACHING ACADEMIC WRITING IN ENGLISH TO STUDENTS OF ECONOMICS THROUGH CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS

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Abstract. *The article addresses EFL students' academic writing competence by fostering and evaluating their writing practices through conceptual metaphors. The research dataset comprised 102 Russian students majoring in economics. The students received the instruction based on the framework of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory during their EAP, ESP and EMI courses in economics. Metaphor Identification Procedure VU University Amsterdam (MIPVU) and the method of metaphoric modeling were used to assess EFL writing competence in economic knowledge domains – knowledge of terms and specific concepts, represented as conceptual metaphors. The statistical analysis did not show significant changes in the writing competence level of students when their EAP and ESP writing was compared. However, statistical differences were revealed in the use of metaphors when the students progressed from their EAP to EMI course and from their ESP to EMI course. The qualitative analysis demonstrated main differences within the conceptual metaphor domains in ESP and EMI writing. On the whole, the results reported here suggest the dynamics of FL writing competence of the Russian students specializing in economics when attending an EAP course, an ESP course and an EMI course in economics at the university.*

Key words: *academic writing, subject-specific competence, conceptual metaphor*

1. INTRODUCTION

In international universities non-native speakers of English are required to demonstrate their mastery of disciplinary course content as well as academic writing competence by producing "texts that increasingly approximate the norms and conventions of their chosen disciplines, with this expectation peaking at the level of postgraduate study" (Coffin et al.2003, 2). These academic requirements have long been considered to pose a greater challenge to university students in non-English speaking countries when the instruction is delivered in English. That holds true for Russian universities where instructors and administrators strive to create learning opportunities appropriate for academic writing development in the contexts of diverse disciplines.

To focus on the development of writing competence by Russian learners of English in disciplinary settings is an important endeavor because current changes in higher education and academic community are resulting in a more rigorous competition among graduates for career

Submitted January 30th, 2021, accepted for publication August 1st, 2021
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positions in academic settings. This means that potential candidates are increasingly expected to provide evidence of their academic proficiency in the form of published peer-reviewed articles in a non-native language (e.g. English).

Academic writing has been the subject of much investigation which acknowledges the importance of knowledge of rhetorical conventions (Kaplan 1966, Matsuda 1997), linguistic knowledge, that is the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices (Pincas 1982), or both rhetorical features and linguistic features (Hinkel 2002), appropriate use of academic writing conventions for academic and publishing purposes (e.g. Langum and Sullivan 2017).

In the pedagogical contexts, academic writing has been investigated within two crucial dimensions: the learning-to-write dimension and the writing-to-learn dimension. In the learning-to-write perspective (e.g. Hyland 2011), foreign language (FL) writers learn to express themselves in writing, for example university students learn to write for professional or academic purposes. By contrast, in the writing-to-learn perspective, FL writers write to learn the language or the learning content (Harklau 2002, Manchón 2009).

In the educational programmes of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English-medium instruction (EMI), learners are exposed both to writing to learn the language and to writing to learn the learning content. The former approach implies developing writing skills as a means of developing foreign language proficiency. The latter suggests developing writing skills as a means of developing subject-specific vocabulary, including terms and subject-specific concepts. However, these programmes are not designed to provide any well-established writing course in the target language. Little is known what instruction methods are most effective for writers as non-native speakers of English in the disciplinary contexts. The studies of this question are rather fragmented or they have mostly addressed the contexts of English-speaking universities.

One important perspective to approach FL academic writing competence is by applying metaphor to language teaching. Using a metaphor-based teaching strategy is justified for several reasons. Firstly, since the introduction of a theoretical framework by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphor is no longer considered to be a stylistic device. Metaphor is a universal mechanism of thought and language development: "metaphor is the main mechanism through which we comprehend abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning" and "our metaphor system is central to our understanding of experience and to the way we act on that understanding" (Lakoff 1992, 39-40). According to the contemporary theory of metaphor, metaphors are representations of thinking processes, reflecting how people conceive of and conceptualize the world. Alekseeva and Mishlanova (2016) assumed that if learning is a way from knowledge to understanding, then metaphor is its ultimate objective and the main method to achieve learning outcomes. The authors concluded, that "training in professional activity should be conducted by means of the metaphorical competence, which is defined as a universal ability to provide integrity of speech communication and speech activity" (Alekseeva and Mishlanova 2016, 107).

Secondly, metaphor has been widely recognized as an integral part of FL proficiency, and "highly relevant to second language learning, teaching and testing, from the earliest to the most advanced stages of learning" (Littlemore and Low 2006, 270). Much evidence of the impact of the metaphor use on writing proficiency lies in the domain of English for General purposes and focuses on analyzing linguistic metaphors and their frequency and functions in the written text (e.g. Littlemore et al. 2012, Hashemian and Talebi Nezhad 2007, Kathpalia and Heah 2011). However, little is known about FL learners' conceptualization of their subject-specific knowledge, that is, the abstract relationships between concepts underlying metaphorical words used by FL writers.

Finally, most subject-specific language, in particular terms and concepts, is metaphorical by nature (e.g. Herrera and White 2000, McCloskey 1998). The non-literalness of the language of economics may cause some difficulties for FL learners of economics. Herrera and White (2000) called for learners not to be "shielded" from these difficulties and instructors to find pedagogical implications from different theoretical approaches to stimulate learners to look for underlying interpretations in metaphorical economic terms (Herrera and White 2000, 57).

Despite the vast majority of theoretical and empirical studies of how academic language is acquired and academic writing competence is developed, there are still debates about appropriate approaches to developing subject-specific writing competence in English. The present study set out to test the hypothesis that applying conceptual metaphors in teaching FL learners' subject-specific writing is a strategy that contributes to FL writing development in their EAP, ESP and EMI study of economics.

2. Materials and Methods

This study is a quantitative and qualitative research in nature. To achieve the aim of this research, 102 Russian learners of English as a foreign language at the Perm campus of the National Research University – Higher School of Economics (HSE) were chosen as the participants of the research. The dataset included: 1) 34 students enrolled for an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course; 2) 34 students enrolled for an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course; 3) 34 students enrolled for an English-medium instruction (EMI) course in economics. All the participants of this study majored in economics. All students were taught by the same instructor.

The study incorporated several steps. The first step was designing a conceptual metaphor-based instruction model in the EAP, ESP and EMI study of economics. The students were offered to attend three subsequent university courses, starting from the EAP course, followed by the ESP course, finishing with the EMI course in economics.

During the EAP course (144 academic hours) students were instructed to develop their writing skills as an aid to improve learners' communication skills. Specifically, they might be assigned to make notes for future reference; take down messages from dictation, etc (that is an integrated part of academic listening and reading activities) and write reports, discursive essays, etc.

The ESP study of economics (104 academic hours) was introduced to students with the aim to develop proficiency in foreign language learning and discipline-specific learning with the equal emphasis made on both elements of language and content. This course focused on developing subject-specific vocabulary, including economic terms and specific concepts, reading and listening skills for professional spoken and written communication. Language skills were taught systematically throughout the course. The main purpose of ESP students' essays or reports was to demonstrate learners' mastery of both academic writing skills and disciplinary course content.

The EMI course in economics (54 academic hours) was introduced to students majoring in economics in order to develop proficiency in discipline-specific learning with the emphasis made on content rather than on language. English was used as the language of instruction to teach the subject in the curriculum rather than the language. The ultimate aim of this course was to train students as members of professional/ academic communities. In this context, writing was applied as the assessment to check learners' knowledge of the subject.

All these three university courses incorporated metaphor-based instruction in order to develop and evaluate academic writing competence. Conceptual metaphor theory-based instruction was adopted as the framework for teaching disciplinary writing in the current research. Conceptual metaphor theory as a pedagogical approach has proved to encourage students' awareness of the motivated nature of language and foster their engagement and productivity (e.g. Boers and Lindstromberg 2006, Li 2009, Yasuda 2010).

The instruction took into account metaphoricity of economic academic discourse. The students chosen for the current study were consistently exposed to the study material, which is completely authentic with the recommended study books and articles written by native speakers of English. The students were assigned to acquire metaphorical economic terms through listening, reading, speaking and writing activities. For all the activities tasks were specially designed, and the students were guided to approach not-so-obvious concepts of economics through analyzing the interplay between the source and target domains of metaphors and use economic metaphors in the classroom. The students were offered the following tasks: choosing the economic terms from the study material, building up word lists of economic terms, establishing the associations between the metaphorical expression and its more concrete senses, discussing these associations in the classroom.

The second research step was to control and assess the learning process. At the end of their corresponding course, the students were exposed to the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Academic Module test and academic writing assignments.

The IELTS test was given to the students to identify their FL competence level. The purpose was to make sure that the groups were not of different language competence level. Their test consisted of four sections: Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking Tests, which reflect their four basic language skills. The test showed their overall performance reported as a single band score, ranging from 5.5 to 8. The IELTS 5.5-8 bands correspond to CEFR Level B2-Level C1. The average IELTS score ranges from 6.44 to 6.57, depending on the university course. Table 1 shows the sample composition by gender, age and language level.

Table 1 Gender, age and language level distribution of the sample

University course	Number of students	Age	IELTS scores	
			Range	Average
EAP	34 (24F, 10M)	19-20	5.5 - 8	6.44
ESP	34 (24F, 10M)	20-21	5.5 - 8	6.54
EMI	34 (24F, 10M)	21-22	5.5 - 8	6.57
Total	102 (72F, 30M)	19-22	5.5 - 8	6.52

Three weeks before the end of their corresponding course, the students were given a writing task. This time period was chosen for at least two reasons. The first reason is that it is more reasonable that language skills, which have been recently taught, are approached through ongoing or formative assessment with the main goal to gather information on the extent of learning. The other reason is that ongoing assessment seems to be less pressing for the students. The students were assigned to write a discursive essay presenting their personal opinion on economic and financial issues, with 250 – 300 word limit. The students were expected to produce their writing output at Level B2 and Level C1. According to the descriptions of language learners' abilities at Level B2 and Level C1, learners are able to produce argumentative and evaluative essays with "clear, well-structured expositions of complex subjects", with a clear focus on "the relevant salient issues", "with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples", and with the evaluation of different ideas (Council of Europe 2001, 62).

Afterwards, their written texts were collected and divided into three corpora, one representing EAP students' writing, one representing ESP students' writing, and one – EMI students' writing. In order to assess the learning outcome, conceptual metaphor analysis was conducted. The first step in this analysis involved identifying metaphorically used words, by using MIPVU methodology (Pragglejaz Group 2007, Steen 2009). How this method works is illustrated in the following sentence, which comes from our data, 'Perhaps, these programmes [governmental support] are created because most economists consider that small firms are the *backbone* of the economy', one of these lexical units has a more basic meaning than its contextual meaning – '*backbone*'. The noncontextual meaning of '*backbone*', which is the row of connected bones that go down the middle of the back, is more basic than its contextual meaning – the most important part of an economy. The meaning of '*backbone*' in this context can be understood in comparison with its more basic meaning. This lexical unit is marked as being metaphorically used. Following the findings obtained in the studies by Alejo (2010), Sinclair (1991) and Littlemore et al. (2012), we regarded a single word as a metaphorically used unit even if some uses may be recorded in the dictionary as making up a phraseological unit, which, however, may be treated by non-native speakers in a more compositional way, that is not as one unit. By applying this technique, 398 metaphorical units – economic terms and specific knowledge concepts in economics – were derived from the corpus of essays produced by the students in the EAP course, the ESP study of economics and the EMI study of economics.

At the second step of the conceptual metaphor analysis, the focus was on metaphorical units in the contexts, where the two concepts – target domains or specific knowledge concepts in economics and source domains – are represented based on comparison. Under this approach, the purpose was to reveal the implied conceptual metaphors and group all identified metaphors into basic domain and subdomain levels of conceptual configurations in metaphoric mappings. This may be illustrated by the example from the data. The conceptual metaphor ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING is a set of correspondences between the target domain of economy and the source domain of a human being. These correspondences refer to mappings, which represent certain elements of the source domain mapped onto the elements of the target domain. Then the subdomains or sub-metaphors of the conceptual metaphor - ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING - may be - STRUCTURE OF ECONOMIC SYSTEM IS STRUCTURE OF A PHYSICAL BODY or CHANGE IN ECONOMY IS MOVEMENT OF A HUMAN BEING. The essays and the contexts containing metaphors were independently assessed by two independent raters to ensure reliability and validity. The original quotes were benchmarked against the examples of the categories (e.g. Lakoff et al. 1991). In cases of disagreement, the contexts were re-analyzed by both raters.

Finally, the statistical analysis was applied to compute mean values and standard deviations and analyze the pairwise comparisons between the groups. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis were interpreted and discussed.

3. RESULTS

The research findings showed that the teaching approach adopted in the current study exerted a positive impact on students' use of disciplinary metaphors in their writing. The study identified both quantitative and qualitative differences in EAP, ESP and EMI students' writing in regard to the FL writers' subject-specific competence viewed through conceptual metaphors.

The research questioned the extent to which there is a significant difference in the level of academic writing competence in the EAP, ESP and EMI courses. To reach the research objective, one-way ANOVA was used. In all of the analyses, it was seen that the assumptions of homogeneity of variance were met. Table 2 includes the mean values and standard deviations of metaphor use in EAP, ESP and EMI writing. It was tested whether the metaphoric density, operationalized as the ratio of the number of metaphors to the total number of words used, was different in EAP, ESP and EMI writing. For better reference, the results in Table 2 are reported in raw scores.

Table 2 Mean values and standard deviations of metaphor use in EAP, ESP and EMI writing

Variables	Number of words	Number of metaphors	Mean values	SD	F	p
EAP writing	10273	106	0.010	0.007	18.883	0.000
ESP writing	11491	102	0.009	0.006		
EMI writing	11213	190	0.017	0.004		

Table 2 shows significant differences in the use of metaphors in EAP, ESP and EMI writing (the F value is 18.883 and its associated p level is less than 0.01). The results indicated there was a higher level of metaphor use in EMI writing, with ESP writing scoring the lowest level of metaphor use. The most remarkable aspect of the data is that the number of metaphors used by the FL writers increased with their subject-specific competence level when they progressed from the EAP to EMI study of economics.

Tables 3 and 4 present mean values and standard deviations of metaphor variables in EAP, ESP and EMI writing. The conceptual metaphor domains were taken from the metaphor analysis of the essays written by EAP, ESP and EMI students. Each group of students was measured on the same variable of metaphor use, having undergone the same writing task. The metaphor related words in the corpora of EAP, ESP and EMI students' writing were categorized according to different source domains they belong to, in particular, a human being (CM 1), water (CM 2), a plant (CM 3), a machine (CM 4), and a building (CM 5).

Significant differences were noted between the means of CM 1 (the F value is 7.865 and its associated p level is less than 0.01) and CM 2 (the F value is 5.815 and its associated p level is less than 0.01), independent of the writing variable, as determined by one-way ANOVA (Table 4). In general, the students in the EAP, ESP and EMI courses predominantly construed economic and financial concepts through a more physical domain of Human beings (CM 1).

Table 3 Mean values and standard deviations of metaphor variable in EAP, ESP and EMI writing

EAP writing		
Variables	M	SD
CM 1	0.785	0.318
CM 2	0.000	0.000
CM 3	0.048	0.126
CM 4	0.100	0.259
CM 5	0.067	0.205
ESP writing		
Variables	M	SD
CM 1	0.516	0.416
CM 2	0.029	0.171
CM 3	0.054	0.195
CM 4	0.233	0.379
CM 5	0.167	0.298
EMI writing		
Variables	M	SD
CM 1	0.496	0.253
CM 2	0.121	0.203
CM 3	0.104	0.133
CM 4	0.188	0.226
CM 5	0.089	0.129

Table 4 One-way ANOVA test of the metaphor variable

Variables	CM 1	CM 2	CM 3	CM 4	CM 5
EAP writing ESP writing EMI writing	F = 7.865, p = 0.000	F = 5.815, p = 0.004	F = 1.348, p = 0.264	F = 1.812, p = 0.169	F = 1.920, p = 0.152

Visual examination of the means (Table 3) suggests that the highest level of CM 1 was demonstrated by EAP students, and that the other two groups of students had lower average levels of using CM 1 than EAP students. With regard to CM 2, EMI students showed its highest level, whereas EAP students did not view the economy in terms of water. There were no statistically significant differences between the means of CM 3, CM 4 and CM 5 metaphors, independent of the writing variable (*p* level is more than 0.05).

Games-Howell post-hoc test was conducted to verify the results and clarify the differences between EAP, ESP and EMI writing in all metaphor types and specifically in CM 1 and CM 2 variables. See Table 5 for group comparisons based on Games-Howell post-hoc comparisons.

Table 5 Multiple comparison of means – Games-Howell post-hoc test

Variables	EAP-ESP writing Diff	ESP-EMI writing Diff	EAP-EMI writing Diff
All metaphors	0.001006, p=0.776	-0.00806, p=0.001	-0.00706, p=0.001
CM 1	0,269374, p=0,008	0,019678, p=0,9	0,289052, p=0,001
CM 2	-0,02941, p=0,572	-0,09216, p=0,108	-0,12157, p=0,002

Overall, the results from Games-Howell post-hoc test suggest that except EAP-ESP writing, all other pairwise comparisons indicate statistically significant differences. Regarding CM 1 variable, there were statistically significant differences between EAP and ESP writing and between EAP and EMI writing, with EAP writing showing a significantly higher average score in the pairwise comparison between EAP and EMI writing. As regards CM 2 variable, there was a statistically significant difference between the means of EAP and EMI writing, with EMI writing having a higher average score of metaphor use. There were no significant mean differences: 1) between ESP and EMI writing in the use of CM 1; 2) between EAP and ESP writing in the use of CM 2; 3) between ESP and EMI writing in the use of CM 2. It is possible that parts of the non-significant findings may be due to the small sample size.

The results of the qualitative analysis showed how students might conceptualize specific knowledge domain of economics and whether their conceptualization patterns would change from one writing level to another (Table 6).

Table 6 Conceptualization patterns in EAP, ESP and EMI writing

Conceptual metaphor	EAP writing	ESP writing	EMI writing
ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING (CM 1)	Structure of a physical body Movement Positive interpersonal relationships Health/disease	Structure of a physical body Movement Negative interpersonal relationship Health/disease	Structure of a physical body Movement Positive and negative interpersonal relationships Health/disease/treatment
ECONOMY IS WATER (CM 2)	-	Flow	Flow Move
ECONOMY IS A PLANT (CM 3)	Growth of a plant	Parts of a plant Growth of a plant	Growth of a plant
ECONOMY IS A MACHINE (CM 4)	Parts of a machine Functioning of a machine	Parts of a machine	Parts of a machine Maintaining a machine
ECONOMY IS A BUILDING (CM 5)	Structure of a building Stability of a building	Structure of a building Stability of a building	Structure of a building Stability of a building Maintaining a building

As shown in Table 6, there were both commonalities and differences in the way the EAP, ESP and EMI students chose conceptual metaphors when they discussed and expressed their opinions on economic issues in writing. The key differences within the conceptual metaphor domains were observed: 1) in CM 1 for ESP and EMI writing; 2) in CM 2 for EMI writing; 3) in CM 3 for ESP writing; 4) in CM 4 for EAP and EMI writing; 5) in CM 5 for EMI writing.

4. DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to develop and assess Russian students' writing competence in the EAP, ESP and EMI courses by applying conceptual metaphors. The research findings showed the correlation between the practice of using metaphors and metaphor production in subject-specific writing by students at their different courses.

The statistical analysis showed the extent to which the metaphor use differed in EAP, ESP, EMI writing and whether there were statistically significant changes in the level of writing quality when students proceeded from their EAP to ESP and EMI course in economics. The results indicated that the FL writers' metaphor use increased when they progressed from the EAP to EMI study of economics. Although the changes in metaphor production were not significant between EAP and ESP writing, the metaphor use increased from ESP writing to EMI writing and from EAP writing to EMI writing. These findings support the work of other studies in this area linking FL learners' competence levels in their specific knowledge domains and instructional approaches to teaching major disciplines in the target language (e.g. Tarnopolsky and Vysselko 2014). In particular, it was claimed that FL learners developed their subject-specific competence in English when they moved from their ESP course in the first two years to a more advanced ESP course in the subsequent years. The present results seem to be consistent with other researches that recognized the importance of metaphor in economic terminology (e.g. Langer 2015). It is stressed that students of economics could approach not-so-obvious concepts of economics through explicating the conceptual mappings of metaphors.

Although limited in scope, this study also revealed some interesting insights into EFL writing competence developed by students in their EFL studies of economics. First, the students in the EAP, ESP and EMI courses predominantly viewed economic and financial concepts through a more physical domain of Human beings. EAP and ESP writing and EAP and EMI significantly differed on the use of ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING metaphors, with EAP having a higher average score in both cases. This may be partly attributed to the EAP instruction, when students were expected to develop their communication skills in English for General and Academic Purposes rather than Specific Purposes. This may suggest that the EAP students made sense of economic phenomena in human terms on the basis of their own motivations, goals, activities and characteristics.

Second, there were no significant mean differences between ESP and EMI writing in the use of ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING. Besides, there were no significant mean differences between EAP and ESP writing and between ESP and EMI writing in the use of ECONOMY IS WATER. Furthermore, it is not surprising that the study did not yield any significant differences in EAP, ESP and EMI writing in the use of ECONOMY IS A PLANT, ECONOMY IS A MACHINE and ECONOMY IS A BUILDING. A possible explanation may be that the metaphor models appeared to be shared by the students throughout three courses only in cases when metaphors may have been linked to more universal experiential domains. This may be explained by the students' common EFL background. Another general observation is that the students' choice of metaphors could be attributed to the students' discipline-related experience that accords with the educational programme which offers fundamental training in the modern economic theory, a wide range of mathematical disciplines, the most recent data-processing technologies, statistics, econometrics, as well as work with advanced software packages (Educational Programme 2016).

Finally, in both quantitative and qualitative terms, the key differences within the conceptual metaphor domains were observed in ESP and EMI writing. As regards ESP writing, FL writers tend to avoid using metaphor for the reason that they have difficulty in acquiring the conceptual system of a foreign language (Hashemian and Talebi Nezhad, 2007, Kathpalia and Heah 2011). According to Hashemian and Talebi Nezhad (2007), FL learners wrote with the formal structures of the target language but in terms of their L1 conceptual system and showed "no sign of the conceptual system in English" (Hashemian and Talebi Nezhad 2007, 51), however, their command of the English conceptual metaphors could be improved considerably after their exposure to FL concepts during the process of FL teaching/learning. Another important finding of the current study was that the ESP students demonstrated a shift from a balanced distribution of the domains of PLANT, MACHINE and BUILDING toward a number of machine- and building-related terms. This way, the students facilitated their understanding of economic processes that could be managed by specialists in economics. Apart from this change, they started to see economic processes as part of the external world by referring to inanimate nature. At this stage of their studies, the students showed their subject-specific writing competence development by using a greater variety of subject-specific vocabulary involving metaphors. However, their metaphor production was still restricted to conventionalized metaphors, which can prove students' hesitations in acquiring the conceptual system of a second language simultaneously with subject-specific content.

When attending the English-medium instruction course in economics, the students appeared to be more competent in metaphor production. The texts produced by the EMI students demonstrated a sharp increase in the use of metaphors. The observed increase could be attributed to the fact that the EMI writers were exposed to writing performance based on example target texts and their specific aspects including text type, register, subject-specific and functional language. Another possible explanation for this may be that it is at this level of study that FL writers try to improve their subject-specific communication skills and understand the economy through metaphor. This may well coincide with the fact that this is the level where they make progress in their writing competence in the academic discourse which is characterized by high metaphoricity or metaphoric density (Steen et al. 2010). The distribution of the source domains of PLANT, MACHINE, BUILDING and WATER became more even. The students showed their more advanced competence by selecting certain preferred conceptual metaphors to describe the complexity of the economic system in more detail as well as by choosing metaphorical expressions, demonstrating a switch from conventionalized to creative ones.

Nevertheless, a number of limitations have to be acknowledged and further research would be essential to determine whether these constraints can be removed. In particular, a limitation of the study was a relatively small sample size and a small writing sample provided by each participant. For this reason, the findings cannot be generalized. Moreover, despite the explicit teaching of conceptual metaphors in each course, students' use of metaphor in writing may be influenced by other factors (e.g. cognitive style, L1 interference), whose further investigation may be beneficial. Last, it is beyond the scope of this study to examine the way EFL learners process metaphorical expressions in their EAP, ESP and EMI studies of economics.

5. Conclusion

Overall, this study explored the effects of using conceptual metaphor-based strategies in developing FL learners' academic writing competence in the EAP, ESP and EMI courses at a Russian university. Its results contributed to the findings obtained in the few studies that examined FL writing related to subject-specific competence (not language competence) in higher education. The findings reported here revealed the dynamics of FL writing competence of the Russian students specializing in economics when attending the EAP course, the ESP course and the EMI course in economics at the university.

The study identified both quantitative and qualitative differences in EAP, ESP and EMI students' writing in regard to the FL writers' subject-specific competence viewed through conceptual metaphors. The statistical analysis showed that there were statistically significant changes in the level of writing competence when students proceeded from their EAP to ESP and EMI course in economics. Although the changes in the metaphor use were not significant between EAP and ESP writing, the metaphor use increased from ESP writing to EMI writing and from EAP writing to EMI writing. The in-depth analysis showed that the use of metaphors within the conceptual metaphor domains exerted some influence on ESP and EMI writing. Despite the lack of the explicit English language and writing instruction in the EMI course in economics, the students demonstrated writing competence which approximated the academic writing in economics, with the distribution of metaphor models following the pattern of models in the English academic texts on economics (Utkina 2011).

Further research should be undertaken to investigate: whether EFL learners' writing competence improves from the EAP to ESP, to EMI course, when academic writing in the target language is explicitly taught; whether the knowledge of economics in students' native language influences EFL learners' writing competence in their EAP, ESP and EMI studies of economics.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 601−610
UDC: 811.111:378 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104601S

Original scientific paper

INVESTIGATING LEARNER AUTONOMY OF EFL AND ESP STUDENTS AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL: CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY

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Abstract. *Learner autonomy is a concept developed to reiterate the need for life-long learning that goes beyond the prescribed curriculum and institutional settings. In addition, learner-centered approach shifts the burden of responsibility from teachers to learners, as learners are now obliged to take charge of their learning. In that respect, students at the tertiary level of education are expected to know how to learn, inclusive of what to learn and where to learn. In other words, they should be trained to organize their own learning, control and monitor their progress, and evaluate the results, whereas the current educational settings should be given the task to contribute to the development of learner autonomy that paves the way for life-long education.*
The participants in the research are EFL students from the department of English Language and Literature at Faculty of Philosophy, University of Priština in Kosovska Mitrovica, and ESP students from the Academy of Technical and Pre-School Vocational Studies Niš, Department Vranje. A Learner Autonomy Questionnaire developed by Zhang and Li (2004) was administered to measure students' learner autonomy level. The aim of the paper is not only to outline the significance of taking control of one's learning, but also to use certain tools in the EFL classroom that contribute to the process of building learner autonomy, as its pedagogical implication, including language learning strategies, project-based tasks, reflective journals, etc.

Key words: *learner autonomy, lifelong-learning, EFL, ESP, pedagogical implications, tertiary education.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Since teaching and learning a foreign language in the 21st century requires development and adoption of contemporary methods, techniques, and approaches, learner-centered approach has taken over traditional teacher-centered approach, in which the teacher held a central, directive role, while the learners were passive recipients. The focus of attention is now being invested in learners and the ways they learn. Efficient means for language learning are explored, including language learning strategies as tools

Submitted August 1st, 2021, accepted for publication August 15st, 2021
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that could enhance and facilitate acquisition. It is determined that students differ substantially not only in terms of their language competence, but also in their aptitudes, beliefs, learning styles, motivation level, and that those differences should be considered and covered within institutional settings.

In learner-centered approach, the learner is actively involved in classroom activities, interacting and/or collaborating with the teacher and fellow students, while instruction is adapted to individual differences and/or preferences. In addition, language in use, i.e., language used in real-life situation is practiced within communicative approach to language learning. As a result, developing communicative competence has been promoted as an ultimate goal of English Language Teaching (ELT). Consequently, language learners are being prepared for the process of life-long learning, since it is acknowledged that language learning is a continuous process that takes place throughout life. In that sense, they are being prepared to assume the role of autonomous learners.

Learner autonomy, as a process that spreads beyond curricular activities, the concepts of self-directed language learning, self-regulation and metacognition, as an umbrella term for metacognitive strategies and metacognitive awareness, became a well-known concept in modern education. Accordingly, learner autonomy implies that students are expected to know how to learn and when to learn, and to take responsibility for their learning, while the role of a teacher is to foster autonomous learners. In that regard, Cotterall and Crabbe (1992, 11) reiterate that autonomous language learning offers important advantages over teacher-dominated language learning, being, “principally philosophical (learners’ ownership of the problem), pedagogic (the quality of learning during the course is improved and learners can continue learning independently after the course, and practical (teachers cannot hope to address individual needs without making the process more learner-centered)”.

2. LEARNER AUTONOMY

The concept of learner autonomy, as one of the concepts in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), in its broadest sense is associated with decision making process and the attitude of taking responsibility. Likewise, investigation of language learning strategies has a prominent role in the theory of SLA. Therefore, autonomous learners should be able to take charge of their learning, i.e., organize, regulate and plan it themselves. In addition, they should know how to learn, when to learn, and what to learn, while learning strategies emerge as one of the most prominent features of an autonomous learner.

Since it is a highly complex concept, several definitions emerged. In that sense, Little (1991, 3) defines autonomy as a universal capacity “for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action.” Ikonen (2013, 10–11) stresses that autonomy as a potential or an ability residing in the learner comprises several versions. The technical version, as a positivist approach to knowledge, entails technical skills, such as learning strategies and task implementation, needed in managing one’s own learning. Due to the technical nature of these skills, they can be taught, and presumably promoting the technical version of autonomy in education is rather simple. The psychological version of autonomy, which can be traced to constructivism, refers to learner autonomy as an innate capacity with cognitive aspects, such as attitudes and abilities affecting learning. As an innate capacity that necessitates opportunities to actualize, autonomy can either be suppressed or promoted in institutional education. The political version of autonomy, which originates in the critical approaches to language, emphasizes control over the processes and content of learning. It may include determining learning objectives, defining the content and progressions of learning, selecting methods and learning techniques, monitoring the acquisition (rhythm, time, place, etc.), and evaluating the progress (Oxford, 1990; Holec, 1981).

Oxford (1990, 219) notices that learner autonomy presupposes self-assessment, as learners are required to evaluate their own progress in order to plan their learning activities. They are entitled to discover and use assessment criteria. Furthermore, asserts learner self-direction differs from autonomy since it implies learning mode, situation, or techniques associated with the responsible attitude (Oxford, 1990, 238–239).

As autonomous learners determine the content of learning (Benson, 2001, 49), they not only decide when to learn and how to learn, but also what to learn, and where to learn, how they think about and manage their learning (Cotterall, 2008, 111). Hence, there are three levels of autonomous learning process: methodological, psychological, and content (political and social element) (Cotterall, 2008, 112).

Learner autonomy is fostered within learner-centered approach. In that regard, Ajideh (2009, 165) explains that learner-centeredness is one of the tendencies that support autonomous language, such as courses in which the students have some degree of control, e.g., giving students' freedom to choose materials or giving students some control over their learning process, puts some of the decision making and responsibility in their hands, builds independence and self-reliance.

3. Tools for Developing Learner Autonomy

While students' progress from interdependence to independence in language learning, language learning strategies, project-based learning (PBL), and reflective journals, as student-centered type of learning, are deemed as useful tools for developing learner autonomy.

PBL is an innovative approach that develops a multitude of strategies critical for success in the global world, creating technologically skilled and proficient communicators, and advanced problem solvers (Bell, 2010) Project-based work, as a part of PBL, is not classroom-based, because students work in relatively small, collaborative groups to achieve common objectives applicable to real-life situations. It challenges students to solve different interdisciplinary problems, helps them build their critical thinking and language competence. In that sense, Díaz Ramírez (2014) has investigated developing learner autonomy through an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) project work of Colombian environmental engineering undergraduates. The results showed that learner autonomy could be developed through cooperative work, in which the students achieved common interests by supporting each other, and displayed self-regulation in regard to facing failures through learning strategies utilized to meet a learning objective.

The term language learning strategies, a sub-category of general learning strategies, has been widely exploited since the seventies, primarily referring to second or foreign language learning. Language learning strategies are viewed as specific steps, behaviors, activities, or procedures students take in order to perform various learning tasks and solve problems they encounter. They can facilitate information transfer from short-term to long-term memory. Accordingly, Oxford (1994) explains that language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques students consciously utilize to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the second language (Oxford, 1990), as well as tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing second language communicative ability (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Namely, the studies in the seventies, produced the list of strategies presumed to be essential for "good L2 learners". They were based on the idea that the success in language learning stem from the deployment of different learning strategies, in addition to communicative competence.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990, 1) assert that strategies are special thoughts and actions people use for understanding, learning and memorizing new information, while Cohen (1998, 4) defines language learning strategies as processes consciously selected by learners, or actions taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language by means of storage, retention, recall and application of information about the language.

As research has shown that the conscious, tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency (Oxford, 1994). Students generally use language learning strategies in order to improve their communicative competence.

The most influential questionnaire for investigating language learning strategies is Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) created by Rebecca Oxford (1990). It encompasses the use of cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social and compensation strategies. While cognitive strategies refer to mental operations, metacognitive strategies help learners to plan, regulate, organize, monitor and assess the learning process. As a result, raising students' metacognitive awareness is crucial for their attainment.

Cotterall (2008, 119) stresses that the teacher should pay attention to individual learners, their unique motivations, experience, stories and attitudes, and the like, as an autonomy-fostering approach to language learning is "likely to focus first on individual learners' psychological relation to the language learning process, and only then on the strategies they adopt."

Almusharraf (2019) has explored EFL students' perceptions and applications of autonomous learning strategies for the purpose of English vocabulary development, and the findings showed that students believed that promoting learner autonomy could productively increase their vocabulary learning development and language learning. The results also showed that EFL learners are willing and capable of taking responsibility for their learning, but they are not necessarily encouraged by the teachers to do so. According to this author, the student-centered classroom, where students are posing questions, answering them, taking notes, and working individually and in groups can produce higher level of interaction and productivity. Moreover, Nematipour (2012) has revealed that visual and auditory learning styles positively correlate with learner autonomy in his study of 200 EFL Iranian learners.

In addition, developing pedagogy for autonomy, which has recently risen to prominence as a relevant ELT goal, can produce numerous benefits. In that respect, a 'weak version' of pedagogy for autonomy implies top-down strategy training, assuming that students lack autonomy, while A 'strong version' of pedagogy for autonomy entails recognizing, engaging with, exercising and developing students' existing autonomy (Smith, 2003).

Reflective journals (diaries, logs) could also serve as useful tools for fostering learner autonomy as they can help learners develop metacognitive awareness and self-regulation. They can be organized in a form of a notebook or pieces of paper where learners provide personal accounts of their educational experience, or write down about positive or negative learning experiences, and what they learnt from that experience, errors difficulties and past. It offers benefits for both students and teachers, who are, in turn, provided with adequate feedback information.

4. The Study

The aim of the study was to map the self-perceptions of the EFL and ESP students of their autonomy level as language learners. The subjects of the investigation were the EFL students of the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Philosophy (N=47) and the ESP students from various departments of the Academy of Technical and Pre-School Vocational Studies in Vranje (N=32). Their ages range from 19 to 25 years old; 48 were male and 31 were female. The convenience sampling technique was used to collect data due to the COVID-19 constraints. It means that this study took into account all those students who were easily available. The authors submit to the low generalizability of this technique.

For the purposes of this study, A Learner Autonomy Questionnaire developed by Zhang and Li (2004) was administered to the respondents in paper and electronic form (via Google Forms)[1]. The instrument is divided in three parts: a) demographic data on respondents' age, gender, and where they study; b) 11 statements to be marked on the five-point Likert scale intended to measure the frequency of certain actions which reflect learner autonomy; and c) nine multiple-choice statements aimed at further mapping the level of autonomy of the respondents. For the purposes of this paper, we acknowledge the internal consistency for the overall questionnaire (Cronbach' α .85) as reported by the author of the instrument (Zhang & Li, 2004). The collected responses were analyzed by means of the descriptive statistical analysis.

5. Discussion of Results

A description and analysis of the results are provided to identify the self-perceptions of the EFL and ESP students of their autonomy level as language learners. Based on the questionnaire administered, as shown in Table 1, regarding the median score of the participants' autonomy questionnaire, the mean score of the EFL learners is 67.5082 with a standard deviation of 6.32283, meanwhile their scores range from 54 to 81. The average score of the ESP students is 68.7403 with the standard deviation of 4.25867, and their scores vary from 64 to 73. Though, the ESP students exhibit a higher degree of autonomy, it is worth noting that the EFL group is larger by 30 percent and less coherent (min-max range is 54 to 81). Also, the dispersion of the data is higher in the EFL sample. However, the coefficient of variation is very low (CV=0.09366) so the distribution is more centered than expected.

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[1] The questionnaire is available here: https://forms.gle/Mb3FbEAUtfkzdiFM7

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics on Autonomy Scores Based on Language Learning Profile (EFL or ESP)

Autonomy	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
EFL	47	54.00	81.00	67.5082	6.32283
ESP	32	64.00	73.00	68.7403	4.25867

In order to take a deeper look into the different attitudes and behaviors that reflect learner autonomy, we broke down the responses to individual items in the two major parts of the questionnaire (B and C). For the purpose of presenting the results economically, the two highest/lowest values will be merged—the sum of the responses 'often' and 'always' / 'never' and 'rarely'. Chart 1 shows the data distribution for the 11 statements in Part B to be marked on the five-point Likert scale intended to measure the frequency of certain actions which indicate autonomy. Over 70 percent of the respondents believe they have the ability to learn English. The items exploring the time management skills show less coherence in responses (questions 2 and 4). Namely, most of the respondents believe that they make a good use of their spare time (0 responses on the lower end of the scale), though ten percent of them indicated that they have poor time management skills.

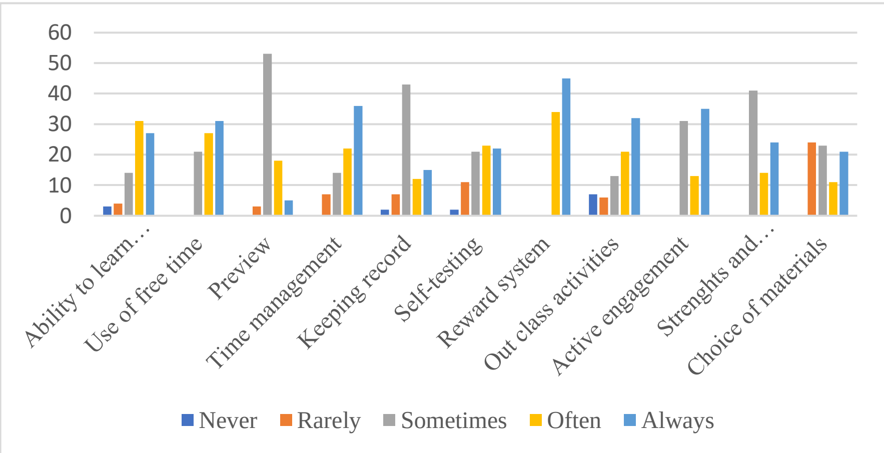

Chart 1. Part B of the Questionnaire

Another aspect of autonomy is keeping record and reward system for one's progress (questions 5 and 7). Only 50 percent of the respondents keeps track of their own progress, while everyone rewards themselves when they achieve success which is unlike what Nematipour (2012) reported. Results showed low autonomy in the aspects of preview, self-testing, and choice of the materials (questions 3, 6, and 11). Namely, over 50 percent of the respondents only sometimes preview the lessons, less than 40 percent self-test themselves or choose their own learning material. As much as 15 percent of the students reports no opportunity to practice language use outside of class while a great majority takes every opportunity in class for engagement (questions 8 and 9). Finally, most of the students are aware of their own strengths and weaknesses (question 11). Bearing all this in mind, the lack of self-discipline combined with poor time management might negatively affect that individual work time outside of class, and consequently hinder their learner autonomy, as found by Buendía Arias (2015).

The break-down of Part C of the questionnaire (Chart 2) provides a clearer insight into the level of learner autonomy of the respondents. The students believe that the teacher-student relationship (question 12) is that of a giver-receiver (32%) and director-explorer (54%) showing a degree of dependence on the teacher as authority and resource. Furthermore, this is reflected in the fact that as much as 40% of the respondents place their success or failure into the hands of the teacher (question 13). They also depend on their teachers to correct their mistakes (question 17) and select the learning materials (question 20), also reported by Almusharraf (2019).

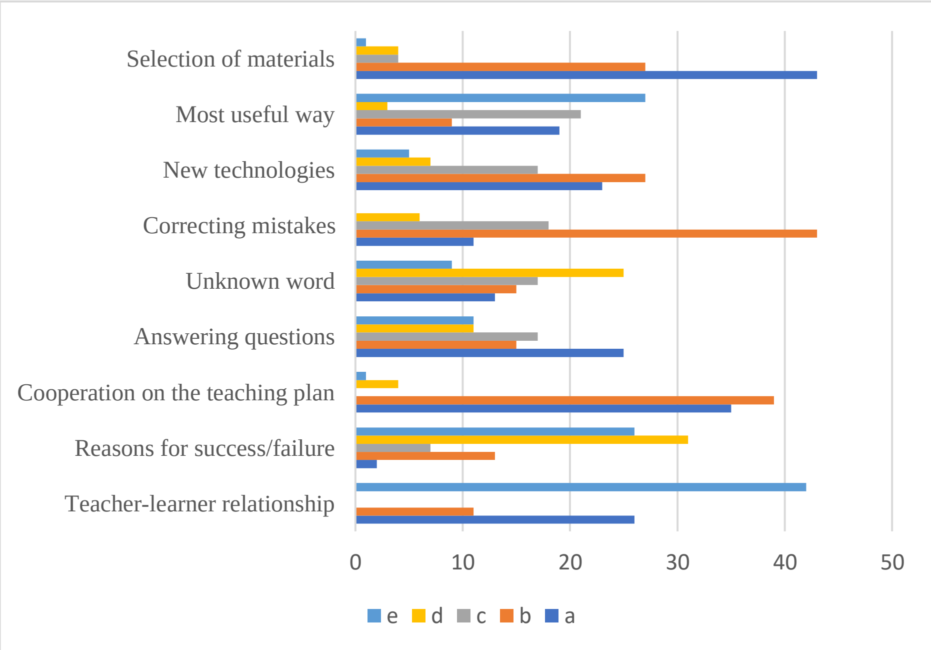

Chart 2. Part C of the Questionnaire

On the other hand, the respondents believe that the curriculum should be a matter of agreement between teachers and students (question 14). In alignment with Nematipour's findings (2012), they preferred pair and group work (question 19) and try to learn on their own or by example when presented with new technologies (question 18). Finally, when encountering a new word (questions 16) they use all resources at their disposal, but 30 percent of them tend to hide behind the rest of the class when a teacher asks a question (question 15).

In summary, this study aimed at a cross-sectional view of the self-perceived autonomy levels of the EFL and ESP students (total N=79). The overall mean value of 3.414 lends itself to the conclusion that most of the respondents exhibit moderate level of autonomy. However, the ESP students show a higher degree of autonomy, while the EFL group is less coherent with the higher dispersion of the data. Several limitations to this study need to be acknowledged. Firstly, the sampling technique seriously hinders the generalizability of the survey results. Secondly, the current research was not specifically designed to evaluate factors related to sample demographic or their academic achievement. Furthermore, it is recommended to correlate these findings to those of an earlier study (Stanojević Gocić & Janković, 2019) which investigated the prefered learning strategies on a similar sample. In that study, the participants completed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990). The structure of the sample was the same as that of the sample in this study in terms of age, gender ratio, field of study, and language learning profile (ESP or EFL) though not necessarily comprised of the same individual students. Finally, despite its exploratory nature, this study offers some practical implications as the results may be used to inform the revision of the instruction practice.

7. Conclusion and Practical Implications

Along with promotion of English as the language of global communication and information spreading, introducing the concept of learner-centeredness, learning styles and strategies, as well as the shift from grammar to communication activities that have vocabulary acquisition as their core element necessary for reading and listening comprehension, insistence on fluency other than accuracy, fostering autonomous learning is of utmost importance in the process of life-long education. In that respect, Ajideh (2009, 165) claims that better understanding of the theory would stimulate learners' interest and motivation to practice autonomous learning. Thus, consciousness raising is an important measure to implement this innovation.

In order to foster learner autonomy in EFL class, tools for its development should be integrated in instruction as widely implemented methods. Namely, the importance of project-based task for the development of learner autonomy shouldn't be neglected. Moreover, EFL teachers should incorporate more projects as extracurricular activities that can be implemented to maximize the development of students' language skills. In addition, project-based instruction can also be included in the curriculum.

Since students often use language learning strategies implicitly or subconsciously, strategic instruction, provided by an EFL teacher, would presumably be very useful and beneficial. Students could broaden their repertoire of language learning strategies, as crucial steps for building learner autonomy as research proved that learners who efficiently apply different strategies, such as vocabulary earning strategies, reading strategies, or writing strategies, achieved better results.

Although strategies can be taught both explicitly and implicitly, research show that explicit strategy training is more efficient (Chamot, 2004). Therefore, strategic training (Oxford, 1990), or strategies-based instruction (Cohen, 1998) should be integrated in language instruction. In that sense, students should get acquainted with efficient strategy use, i.e., effective application and combination of different strategies which are useful for the given task through awareness raising. Student would then broaden their repertoire of strategies, practice their implementation, and eventually evaluate the resulting effect within the given strategic model. In that respect, Pavičić Takač (2008, 149) insists that today "explicit vocabulary learning strategy training imposes itself as a necessity", inclusive of "raising the learners' awareness of their own strategies, introducing them to new ones, and giving them any opportunity to apply, analyze, and adopt new vocabulary learning strategies".

The results of this research could be utilized by the ELT teacher to promote and develop learner autonomy of ELT students, which is prioritized in contemporary methodology and didactics. Therefore, the teacher should introduce the concept of learner autonomy and lead the students towards independent and self-directed learning, development of metacognition and self-regulation, as a general ability to control one's learning.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 611–626
UDC: 811.111'276.6:371.3 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104611Y

Original scientific paper

INTERLANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF TURKISH SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH: EXPLORING ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES [a]

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Abstract. *Language learners employ communication strategies (CSs) to avoid communication breakdowns in times of difficulty, and such strategies develop within strategic competence thanks to exposure to a target language. This research is designed as a developmental study aiming to investigate the possible effects of exposure to English as a foreign language on the use of CSs in the interlanguage of Turkish speakers of English. To attain this aim, we chose 20 Turkish learners of English from the beginner level, and they designated the topics they would speak and write about. Their oral and written performances on the topics were tested at the beginning prior to instruction, in the middle, and at the end of the academic year to observe whether CS usage altered over time. The findings revealed that participants resorted to different types of CSs in their speaking and writing tasks. The comparison of CS employment in each test showed that learners' CS preferences, as well as L1 and L2-based CSs, changed over time in both speaking and writing. Therefore, it is concluded that exposure to the target language may have a significant effect on the preference of CSs. The results of this study are significant as they suggested that CSs in interlanguage evolves from L1-based to L2-based strategies. The findings of this study have important implications for teaching English as a foreign language in reference to the effects of language exposure on the use of CSs in both oral and written performances of L2 learners.*

Key words: *Interlanguage, communication strategy, language exposure, speaking, writing*

1. INTRODUCTION

Communicating in a first language (L1) is always more manageable, as it may not require frequent use of strategies to keep the communication going. However, communication in a second language (L2) is challenging and sometimes almost impossible due to linguistic inadequacies. Even though interlocutors want to keep the communication going smoothly in the L2 context, the limited knowledge of grammar, vocabulary or any other linguistic elements may force them to resort to certain strategies known as communication strategies (CSs) which generally emerge when a crisis occurs due to the speaker's inadequate control of

Submitted July 5th, 2021, accepted for publication July 22nd, 2021
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[a] This research is extracted from first author's MA thesis (Interlingual development of Turkish adult learners of English: L1 vs. L2-based communication strategy use) presented at Cukurova University Institute of Social Sciences

the language. Færch and Kasper (1983) define communication strategies as being "[…] potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal." (p. 36)

Using appropriate CSs is crucial as they help interlocutors keep the communication channel open. However, CSs may also cause communication breakdowns if they are not used appropriately. When a CS causes an idiosyncrasy, either overtly or covertly, sending the right message to the receiver can be rather difficult. Hence, choosing an appropriate CS for the situation requires competence in the language. Otherwise, the speaker would either stop communicating or employ L1-based strategies. Understanding the underlying reasons for different CS employment and the relationship between exposure to the L2 and the use of L1 and L2-based CSs will help teachers create a learning environment that may promote and encourage the use of L2 with utmost approximation to L1 speakers.

1.1. Studies related to communication strategies

Communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) and interlanguage (IL) (Selinker, 1972) can be regarded as milestones in second language acquisition (SLA) research, especially in CS-related research. Selinker (1972) emphasized the importance of fossilization processes while acquiring or learning a second language. Hymes (1972), on the other hand, informed us about communicative competence, which is also known as the ability to convey the message and communicate appropriately within a specific context or topic (Brown, 1994). Following Hymes, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) redefined communicative competence. The definition of communicative competence contains four main subcategories. They are grammatical competence, strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), and discourse competence (Canale, 1983).

Even though each subcategory explains one aspect of communicative competence, strategic competence is the key term that is directly related to CSs. According to Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence refers to "[…] verbal and non-verbal CSs that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (p. 30). Strategic competence is needed when linguistic resources are insufficient to convey the message (Tarone, 1983). In addition, Yule and Tarone (1990) and Brown (1994) highlight that CSs may all be considered the subcategories of strategic competence.

Gaining popularity with the introduction of IL and communicative competence, various researchers have studied different perspectives of CSs. The study areas of CSs include definitions and taxonomies of CSs, teachability of CSs, the effects of task types on the use of CSs, and the effects of proficiency level on the use of CSs. A quick review of the related literature reveals various definitions of CSs due to adopting different conceptualizing perspectives (for more discussion, see Rababah, 2002). Despite differences in the definition of CSs among the scholars, the majority of definitions seem to gather around two criteria: problem-orientedness and consciousness (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Rababah, 2002).

Similar to the definitions of CSs, a great variety of CS taxonomies are found in the related literature (for more discussion, see Yakut, 2013). Researchers develop their classification or taxonomy systems according to the approach they have adopted. For example, with the introduction of the interactional view, Tarone (1980) reformulated her taxonomy according to this view, while Færch and Kasper (1983) classified CSs according to views of psycholinguistic approach. In addition to these two approaches, taxonomies also differ due to linguistic or psychological approaches to defining and classifying CSs. As the researchers defend different perspectives while defining and classifying CSs, Rababah (2002) expresses that there is no clear consensus among the taxonomies of CSs, and utterances can be labeled under different subcategories across different taxonomies.

As different names for each CS may sometimes result in misunderstanding, Cook (1993) highlighted that there should be a standardized list of CSs; therefore, the subcategories would be similar to each other. However, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) claim that despite great differences among the taxonomies in terms of terminology, the core parts of the taxonomies are more or less the same. Similarly, Bialystok (1990) pointed out that taxonomies include similar concepts.

Some researchers have categorized CSs as L1 and L2-based strategies (Bada, 1993; Bialystok, 1983; Rababah, 2001). Even though they developed different taxonomy systems, these taxonomies reflect, by and large, similar concepts. L1-based CSs are generally known as CSs, which refer to transferring the data from the first language. However, L2-based CSs generally refer to overgeneralization. Since L1 and L2-based CSs constitute the basis of this study, it would be better to combine these classifications and see them in one list.

In addition to definitions and taxonomies of CSs, researchers have used different tasks to collect data for different purposes. As it has been proved by many researchers (DeKeyser, 1991; Dobao, 2001), task type affects the type and frequency of CSs employed by the speakers of L2. Therefore, the task type has been determined according to the aims of the study. According to Paramasiwam (2009), abstract tasks are more challenging and demanding in terms of communication abilities when compared to static and dynamic communication tasks. Therefore, the speakers talking on an abstract topic face more communication problems and breakdowns, resulting in more frequent CSs.

Although task type might have an impact on learner's language production, some scholars (Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987; Bongaerts et al., 1987; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Paribakht, 1985) support the idea of teaching the language, not the CSs, because it is assumed that if a learner knows more language, they can communicate more effectively in the L2. In addition, they speculate that interlocutors develop strategies in the L1, and they can be transferred to the L2 if the learners have the required competence in the L2.

For some, there is a relationship between language proficiency and the type and function of CSs employed while writing or speaking. Bialystok (1990) remarks that "What one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language" (p. 147). Hence, it is believed that if the learner knows more language, they can benefit from L2-based CSs.

Dobao (2001) carried out a study aiming to explore the relationship between CS use and the proficiency level of Galician learners of English. Elementary, intermediate, and advanced level students were compared in terms of their CS preferences. The overall results showed that elementary level students resorted to CSs more frequently than others did. However, she also pointed out that when the students' productions are compared in terms of communicative goals, lexical and structural complexity, and richness, advanced level students resorted to CSs more systematically and consciously. They seemed to know more about the communicative effectiveness of the strategies, and thus they used CSs more appropriately.

Wannaruk (2003) conducted a study that aimed to determine whether language level affects the use of CSs. The results showed that students with a low level of proficiency resorted to L1-based and avoidance strategies, while students with middle and high levels of proficiency utilized more L2-based CSs when compared to L1-based CSs.

Similarly, Kalebic (2007) also found that types of CSs are not equally distributed in learner IL and concluded that proficiency level in L2 directly affects the type of CSs. Tajeddin and Alemi (2010) found in their study that increased proficiency triggers the use of L2-based CSs and reduces the use of L1-based and avoidance strategies.

Even though there seems to be a negative correlation between language proficiency and the frequency of CS employment, it should be borne in mind that the relationship between proficiency and CS employment cannot be explained by only analyzing the total numbers of CSs used in different levels. Hence, we should consider the complexity and richness of the topic and the context and the types and functions of the CSs while exploring CS employment. Otherwise, the pure frequencies may mislead the results of the findings.

The dynamics of communication via writing are different from speaking. First of all, speaking requires immediate reaction to other interlocutor's questions, comments, or proposals, yet writing does not always require an immediate reply. Secondly, the interlocutors can spend more time planning the message in writing, and thus the intended meaning can be transmitted more accurately. Finally, interlocutors have to guess readers' expectations and reactions to the text because the writer may not be able to change, clarify or reinterpret the message again. Therefore, written communication requires more cautiousness. Despite the wide range of CS research in speaking, not many studies have been carried out explaining the use of CSs in writing.

Sionis (1995) explored how two generations of French scientists employed CSs in their academic writing papers. The participants were divided into two groups. The results showed that message reduction strategies were higher than other strategies in both groups. Paralinguistic strategies and switching to mathematical language halfway through sentence or paragraph followed message reduction. In addition to these strategies, participants employed semantic avoidance, paraphrasing, and topic avoidance in their academic papers.

Chimbganda (2000) analyzed how first-year biology students utilize CSs to write answers in a biology exam. The results revealed that risk-taking, semantic simplification, and risk avoidance were the most common strategies. However, the comparison of lower and higher-level students suggested that semantic simplification and risk avoidance strategies were more common among learners with lower language proficiency.

Aliakbari and Allvar (2009) explored whether language proficiency affects the use of CSs while writing on a designated topic. They grouped the students into low and high proficiency English learners and compared the results of their writing performance regarding CS employment. The results showed that the low proficiency learners of English resorted to CSs more frequently than the high proficiency ones, which indicated a relationship between CS employment and level of proficiency.

The research results in CS usage show that if interlocutors move in the direction of L2 mastery, they will use more L2-based rather than L1-based CSs (Chen, 1990; Kalebic, 2007). Although there have been various studies related to the effects of language proficiency on the use of CSs (Dobao, 2001; Wannaruk, 2003), to the best of our knowledge, there is no longitudinal study investigating the relationship between exposure to L2 and the use of CSs. Therefore, this study suggests that the potential effects of language exposure on the use of CSs in terms of CS usage, both in writing and speaking, needs to be analyzed to find out how students overcome communication breakdowns before and after L2 exposure.

Keeping this gap in mind, we aim to explore the potential contribution of a one-year instruction program of language education to the employment of communication strategy by English interlanguage speakers of Turkish university students. As the same group of students was observed three times during the academic year, the results might show how and why the students employ L1 and L2-based CSs. . In addition, the goal of this study is to observe what kinds of CSs learners use in written and spoken interactions with the research questions listed below:

- What kinds of communication strategies do Turkish EFL learners use in their oral communication tasks and writing tasks?
- What is the ratio of L1 and L2-based CSs used by Turkish EFL learners in their oral communication tasks and writing tasks?
- Does the amount of exposure to the target language affect the type and frequency of CSs employed by Turkish EFL learners? If so, how?

2. Methods

This study is designed as a developmental study aiming to determine the effects of L2 instruction on CS usage in learners' speaking and writing. In this study, the researchers have also compared CSs in these productive skills.

2.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 20 A1-level university students at one of the intensive language programs in Turkey. In this program, students take a placement test that determines their level of English proficiency according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) at the beginning of the academic year. Then they embark on a one-year language program of study at their designated levels. The researchers decided to work with those who started at the lowest level possible (A1). The aim of choosing A1 level students was to see how the quality of their communication evolves throughout their one-year study and how they employ different types of CSs in a communication setting.

2.2. Instrumentation

For this study, participants specified three different topics to talk about and write about. The researcher encouraged them to choose the one that they felt most comfortable with. Since they took the speaking and writing tests three times a year, the students were not allowed to change the topics to observe how they could improve their language skills and use them while communicating in a one-year language instruction period. By remaining consistent with the topics after the first test, we aimed to prevent the potential effects of different topics on language production and CS usage in different tests.

The participants were interviewed on the designated topics for the speaking tests, and the researchers recorded them. While collecting the data for the speaking part, the students started talking about their topics, and one of the researchers asked some more questions to create an authentic communicative atmosphere.

We collected the data for the writing part via free writing tasks covering the same topics as the speaking tasks. We gave an hour to students to write about their topics. They were not allowed to use a dictionary, and they could not ask questions to the instructor to explore how they could use their L2 repertoire while communicating in a written context.

2.3. Data Analysis

The oral and written products of the learners were transcribed and transferred to digital platforms for analysis. Qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis, and various CSs constituted the central theme of the study. The transcriptions were analyzed to find and tag each CS through a bottom-up approach.

Examining CSs and their types constituted the next step of the analysis. Strategies employed in speaking and writing were compared in terms of type and occurrence rates. Finally, statistical analyses of the tests were compared in terms of the frequency of L1&L2-based strategies. Descriptive statistics related to strategies were utilized through SPSS 16.0 software package.

2.4. Identification, Classification, and Analysis of CSs

Ever since Selinker (1972) introduced the term CS, a wide variety of research has been conducted to investigate different aspects of CSs. Among the various studies, some of them (Bada, 1993; Bialystok, 1983 and 1990; Corder, 1983; Dörnyei & Scott, 1995, 1997; Færch & Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Poulisse, 1993; Rababah, 2001; Tarone, 1977; Willems, 1987) mainly focused on identification and classification of the CSs. They developed different taxonomies of CSs and tagged them under different topics. However, when these taxonomies are closely examined, it can be recognized that they more or less reflect the same categories. In line with this view, after comparing the taxonomies of Bialystok (1983), Færch and Kasper (1983), Paribakht (1985) and Tarone (1977), Bialystok (1990) highlighted that taxonomies of CSs differ in terminology and general categorization, yet the main group of strategies across the taxonomies would be similar. However, this does not mean that all taxonomies are the same. From very early studies to the recent ones, it can be noticed that taxonomies have been evolving, and therefore, they have become more detailed.

In this study, we did not depend on specific taxonomies, but we used different taxonomies to analyze the data at hand. Dörnyei and Scott's (1995, 1997) "inventory of strategic devices" was used as a primary source because it compares and gives information about most taxonomies developed by other researchers. In addition to Dörnyei and Scott, we benefited from different taxonomies, especially while working on CS types. Taxonomies of Bada (1993), Bialystok (1983), and Rababah (2001) were used as main sources while classifying the strategies under L1 and L2-based strategies.

3. Results and Discussion

The results obtained from speaking and writing tests concerning CS employment were given in tabular forms. Individual strategies with their types, numbers of occurrences, and percentages in each speaking test were presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Communication strategies employed in speaking tests

TYPE	STRATEGY	TEST 1		TEST 2		TEST 3	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
L1-BASED	Code-switching	254	60,62	105	29,66	51	19,62
	Literal translation	8	1,91	20	5,65	13	5,00
L2-BASED	Approximation	7	1,67	8	2,26	4	1,54
	Asking for clarification	25	5,97	22	6,21	7	2,69
	Asking for repetition	0	0,00	7	1,98	0	0,00
	Expressing non-understanding	2	0,48	12	3,39	0	0,00
	Feigning understanding	0	0,00	15	4,24	11	4,23
	Message abandonment	4	0,95	0	0,00	1	0,38
	Other repetition	20	4,77	11	3,11	27	10,39
	Paraphrase	0	0,00	2	0,56	2	0,77
	Self-repetition	92	21,96	142	40,11	139	53,46
	Topic avoidance	2	0,48	2	0,56	0	0,00
	Use of all-purpose words	0	0,00	2	0,56	0	0,00
	Use of filler	1	0,24	0	0,00	4	1,54
	Use of similar sounding words	0	0,00	3	0,85	0	0,00
	Word coinage	4	0,95	3	0,85	1	0,38
TOTAL		419	100,00	354	100,00	260	100,00

According to Table 1, the participants used 1033 CSs in total. Out of 1033 CSs, 419 (40,56%) strategies were employed during the first speaking test. However, there was a decrease in CS employment in the second test as 354 (34,27%) CSs emerged. In addition, CSs were used 260 times in the last test, constituting 25,17% of the total strategy employment. The chi-square test result also showed a statistically significant difference in the use of CSs across the tests (p=,000). Therefore, it can be suggested that there might be a relationship between the exposure to the L2 and CS employment rate. Similarly, according to the findings of Hyde (1982) and Poulisse and Schils (1989), learners at lower levels resort to more CSs when compared to learners at higher levels. By referring to these findings, it can be deduced that if the language repertoire allows learners to express their intended message adequately, they resort to fewer CSs.

As shown in Table 1, 62,53% of CSs were L1-based, while only 37,47% were L2-based in the first test. According to the results, L2-based CSs (64,69%) were more frequently used compared to L1-based CSs (35,31%) in the second test. Furthermore, it was observed that the percentage of L1-based CSs in the last test was reduced to 24,62%, while L2-based CSs rose to 75,38%. Overall speaking, L2-based CSs were more common compared to L1-based CSs except Test 1. However, it was also observed that the numbers of both L1 and L2-based CSs were limited in the last test compared to the first two tests, and thus it can be deduced that participants in the last test needed fewer CSs to continue communicating. In addition to a significant difference in L1 and L2-based CS usage in each test, the Pearson chi-square test result reveals a statistically significant difference across tests (p=,000).

The overall findings suggest that types of CSs changed over time. Such a change can be attributable to the fact that the amount of exposure to the L2 significantly affected CS types. As the learners did not have sufficient L2 background to solve problems they encountered when they took the first test, they had to use their L1 repertoire. However, when they were exposed to L2 in their intensive language program, they apparently started to benefit more from their L2 repertoire to reach their communicative goals. Our results show similarities to Kalebic's (2007) findings, who conducted a study with Croatian participants regarding the effects of proficiency on the use of CSs. According to Kalebic's findings, learners at lower levels resorted to L1-based CSs more frequently while more proficient learners preferred L2-based CSs. Even though our study does not directly deal with proficiency, it is evident that proficiency can increase with the help of exposure to the L2.

In addition to overall CS usage and their types, we also found that individual CS usage changed or fluctuated across the tests, which can be attributable to the fact that exposure to the L2 can be accepted as one of the main reasons for the different CS employments in the tests. Even though most of the CSs differed in terms of frequency and percentage in each test, the rates of code-switching, literal translation, asking for clarification, and self-repetition might give more insight into the relationship between L2 exposure and CS preference.

Out of 11 different CSs employed in the first speaking test, code-switching was resorted to 254 (60,62%) times by the learners, and it was the most frequent CS. However, among 14 different CSs, code-switching was used 105 (29,66%) times during the second test. In the last test, however, participants resorted to 12 different kinds of CSs, and code-switching constituted only 19,62% of the total CS usage. Regarding the use of code-switching in each test, participants reduced code-switching usage over time due to exposure to English which was supported by the Chi-square test result (p=,000). Despite observing a statistically significant decrease over time in code-switching usage, we need to note that it was among the most common CS in all tests. Different functions of code-switching were illustrated in the extracts below.

[1] The his department international <foreign>ilişkiler</foreign>
[2] Because I like my university. My university is very good <foreign>işte</foreign> very nice university.
[3] S: Also, I have one brother and two sisters. My small brother is is a is a student in <foreign>in demeyelim tamam</foreign> primary school in the primary school.
[4] I: Okay. Very good. How about your father? What does he do?
S: My father is <foreign>ne yapar dediniz değil mi hocam</foreign>
I: Yes. What is his job?

The speaker in [1] tried to communicate in the L2 as much as possible. Nevertheless, she resorted to the Turkish equivalent of 'relations'. Similar to the findings of Yakut (2019), it has been recognized that learners employed code-switching consciously when they understood that they were not able to continue communicating in the L2. Contrary to code-switching employment because of linguistic inadequacies, it was also observed that learners sometimes used code-switching as a gap-filler automatically and sometimes unconsciously. The speaker in [2] was explaining why he likes his university, yet he used 'işte' which means 'that is' in order to keep the communication going. However, such usages did not affect the communication as they were not used to convey a message. The speaker in [3] was not sure whether she should use a preposition with 'primary school', and she talked to herself, saying, 'let's not use in', but her aim was not to communicate with the interlocutor by switching to L1. She only told what she was thinking. She might have uttered what she thought loudly either to illustrate that she reflected her cognitive processes or to keep the communication channel open by saying something. The last code-switching observed in our data is that the speaker resorts to code-switching to ask for confirmation (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995; 1997). According to Dörnyei and Scott (1995, 1997), Lafford (2004), and Nakatani (2005), confirmation check or asking for confirmation is a request, question, or repetition which is used to check whether the speaker himself has correctly understood the question or the utterance. Their examples of asking for confirmation are only given in L2. However, our data shows that asking for confirmation can also take place in L1. The speaker in [4] resorted to code-switching to clarify whether he understood the question correctly by saying, 'Sir, you asked his job, right?' and the instructor confirmed the message by paraphrasing the question he asked before.

Similarly, asking for clarification declined from the first to the last. As presented in Table 1, asking for clarification emerged 25 (5,97%) times in the first test while it was observed 22 (6,21%) times in the second test. Contrary to the first two tests, asking for clarification was only used 7 (2,69%) times in the last test. Although this strategy is not directly related to the participants' production, such a decrease indicates that the participants' ability to understand the message properly increased over time; thus, they did not request clarification from the instructor. In [5], the participant could not recall legend's meaning and resorted to asking for clarification to respond to the question.

[5] I: Okay. When I ask you this question, "who is the legend of Galatasaray?" what would you say?
S: Legend? What does it mean, legend?

In contrast to the CSs that decreased over time, it was observed that employment of literal translation and self-repetition increased. As can be seen in Table 1, literal translation was used eight times, constituting 1,91% of the total CS use in the first test. However, it was employed 20 (5,65%) times and 13 (5,00%) times in tests two and three, successively. Even though a decrease was observed between the last two tests, it is still evident that participants resorted to literal translation in the second and the last test more frequently than they did in the first test. While literal translation caused idiosyncrasies similar to code-switching, participants tried to express themselves in English despite being un/aware of using inappropriate words or structures.

[6] My father is honey sell.
[7] She put hard rules.
[8] I hope building engineer.

The utterance in [6] illustrates how learners transfer their L1 sentence structures to their L2 speech. Although the words are all in English in that example, the arrangements of the subject, object, and the verb represent the Turkish grammar system. Contrary to [6], the participants in [7] and [8] did not transfer the grammar of Turkish to English, yet they directly translated the Turkish words into English and made sentences that are not meaningful in the L2. In [7], the participant tried to say that her mother establishes harsh rules, yet she used words directly translated from her L1. On the other hand, the participant used 'building engineer' instead of 'civil engineer' in [8].

Another strategy whose employment increased over time was self-repetition. According to Table 1, self-repetition constituted 21,96% (92) of the total strategy usage in the first test. However, its percentage increased to 40,11% (142) in the second test and 53,46% (139) in the last test. Self-repetition was the second most frequently used CS in the first test, while it was the most common CS in the last two tests. In addition to descriptive analysis, the chi-square test result also showed a statistically significant difference in the use of self-repetition across the tests (p=,002). The extracts taken from learners' speech illustrate forms and functions of self-repetitions.

[9] And <u>he he</u> has transportation company.
[10] And <u>my big brother, my big brother</u> name is Yusuf.
[11] When you start the play, firstly you <trunc><u>mu</u></trunc> <u>you must create you must create</u> a avatar.
[12] There are <u>a lot of story, a lot of different stories</u>.

As shown in the examples, the participants repeated the words or phrases to either gain time or modify their utterances. According to the extracts, we can say that repetitions could occur at word and phrase-level confirming Bada's (2010) suggestions regarding the forms of repetitions. The first two examples indicate how learners purely repeated the exact words and phrases to gain time. However, the last two examples show that learners employed self-repetitions as self-repairs to correct their productions or add new information. In [11], the learner was not able to pronounce the word 'must' correctly on the first try, and thus, he truncated the word at first. However, he tried again and corrected his pronunciation on the second try. In [12], the speaker not only corrected his mistake but also added new information to his speech. As there is a modification (Bada, 2010), such repetitions are accepted as self-repair.

In sum, the distributions of both L1 and L2-based CSs and individual strategy employment in their speaking suggest that types and frequencies of CSs change over time as a result of the instruction received throughout the academic year.

Similar to the analysis we made in speaking tests, CS employment in learners' writings were also explored. The nature of writing is different from speaking; therefore, CSs employed during each writing test were given in isolation. Table 2 presented below shows the types of CSs and individual strategy usage in each test.

According to Table 2, L1-based strategies were preferred more frequently than L2-based CSs in all tests. The first test results showed that out of 69 strategy employment, L1-based CSs emerged 55 (79,71%) times while L2-based CSs occurred 14 (20,29%) times. However, in the second test, L1-based CSs occurred 35 (74,47%) times, and L2-based CSs emerged only 12 (25,53%) times. In the last test, participants lessened their L1-based CSs to 28, albeit accounting for 70,00% of the total strategy usage, while they employed L2-based CSs 12 (30,00%) times. Despite common usage of L1-based CSs in each test, learners decreased their L1-based CS usage by ten percent from the first to the last.

As shown in Table 2, participants resorted to eleven strategies during their writing tests. They employed nine different CS types in the first test, eight in the second, and seven in the last. Out of eleven kinds of CSs, three were categorized under L1-based strategies while the rest were L2-based CSs. 69 CSs were used in the first test while they were reduced to 47 in the second and 40 in the third. A cross-test chi-square analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in the dispersion of CS employment across the tests (p=,012).

Table 2. Communication strategies employed in writing tests

TYPE	STRATEGY	TEST 1		TEST 2		TEST 3	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
L1-BASED	Code-switching	11	15,94	5	10,64	5	12,50
	Foreignizing	3	4,35	2	4,26	3	7,50
	Literal translation	41	59,42	28	59,57	20	50,00
L2-BASED	Approximation	4	5,80	5	10,64	4	10,00
	Message abandonment	1	1,45	0	0,00	0	0,00
	Overgeneralization	3	4,35	0	0,00	5	12,50
	Paraphrase	0	0,00	0	0,00	1	2,50
	Repetition	1	1,45	1	2,13	0	0,00
	Use of all-purpose words	0	0,00	2	4,26	2	5,00
	Use of Filler	1	1,45	1	2,13	0	0,00
	Word Coinage	4	5,80	3	6,38	0	0,00
	TOTAL	69	100,00	47	100,00	40	100,00

Among the eleven different CSs identified in participants' writings, the literal translation is reported as the most frequently used CS in all tests. However, it is also observed that the use of literal translation decreased over time. While it emerged 41 (59,42%) times in the first test, this strategy occurred 28 (59,57%) times in the second and 20 (50,00%) times in the last. Code-switching has also played an essential role while struggling with communication problems in the writing tests. It was used 11 times, accounting for 15,94% of the total strategy employment in the first test. However, code-switching was employed only five times in the second (10,64%) and the third tests (12,50%).

[13] Messi is year 64 pounte earn.
[14] His girlfriend is Adriana Lima. But they are <foreign>hiç uyuşmuyorlar </foreign>.

In [13], the participant tried to say that 'Messi earns 64 pounds in a year', yet he only translated the words from Turkish to English without obeying the sentence structure of English. Therefore, the outcome consists of a list of English words causing idiosyncrasy and breakdowns in the participant's communication which might be because the participant did not know how to produce the sentence by applying the rules of the L2. Hence, he resorted to literal translation to keep the communication going.

In [14], the participant tried to say that 'they cannot get on well', yet his language repertoire did not allow him to utter it in L2; hence he switched to his L1 to complete the message. A mixture of Turkish and English in [14] clearly indicates that even though the participants were not forced to communicate in the L2 during the tests, they seemed to be aware that using their L1 while communicating in the L2 would not be appropriate. Therefore, they did not switch to their L1 as long as they could transmit the message in L2.

A decrease was also observed in word-coinage. Table 2 reveals that participants resorted to word-coinage four times in the first test and three times in the second, whereas they did not employ word-coinage in the last test. Word-coinage can be actualized by creating new words by adding prefixes or suffixes to an already existing English word, yet the native English speakers do not use the newly created words. Therefore, they caused idiosyncrasies in the participants' writing, and the receiver could not adequately understand the message. The results of word-coinage imply that participants realized that using a non-existing word in the L2 did not help them reach their communicative goal; thus, they gave up employing word-coinage. Instead of using word-coinage, participants resorted to overgeneralization five times (12,50%) in the last test to avoid communication breakdowns.

[15] He clothes sport.

As can be seen in [15], the learner tried to say 'he wears casual clothes' yet did not know or remember 'wear' that should have been used in order to convey the intended meaning. Therefore, he added –es at the end of 'cloth', which is a noun, and he created a new verb to compensate for his linguistic deficiency. As word coinage results in idiosyncrasy in his utterance, the sentence does not convey a clear, meaningful message.

Contrary to the CSs that decreased over time, we realized that the use of paraphrasing and all-purpose words increased. Even though they were employed infrequently, such strategies imply that instead of giving up or benefiting from the L1-based CSs, participants tried to communicate in the L2 despite not finding the exact word they needed to convey the original message. Finally, even though repetition and use of fillers contradict the nature of communicating through writing, such usages were identified only in the first two tests. However, the participants did not prefer these two CSs in the last test. This shows that participants were not aware of the fact that repetition and fillers cannot be used while communicating through writing. Nevertheless, as the results of the last test show, they noticed that the purpose of repetition and filler did not meet their needs in writing. Therefore they did not resort to them.

As the findings of writing tests reveal, participants resorted to different CSs to compensate for their linguistic inadequacies. Even though the literal translation was reported as the most frequently used CS among others, it was observed that most of the strategies, especially literal translation, were reduced to limited numbers over time. As the participants' L2 repertoire improved, they did not resort to L1-based CSs as frequently as they did previously. Furthermore, they also started choosing CSs more appropriately to overcome breakdowns. The overall results of the writing tests indicated that the use of CSs changed over time because of a better L2 repertoire which probably developed due to language exposure. Still, despite developing their L2 abilities over time, the learners used L1-based CSs more frequently than L2-based CSs in their writings. However, their reliance on their L1 decreased with the help of language instruction.

4. Discussion

By referring to the findings of the study which aimed to observe errors and compensatory strategies used in texts prepared by Norwegian learners of English, Olsen (1999) highlights "[T]he L1 of the learners plays an important role and is used for reference and assistance in most cases" (p. 201). As seen in this study, participants resorted to different types of CSs for different purposes in speaking and writing tests. The use of CSs in speaking is different from the ones we observed in writing which can be attributed to their distinctively different natures. However, another difference observed in our study was that CS preference also varies across the tests within each communication type. Therefore, the present study indicates that exposure to the L2 plays an essential role in selecting CSs.

The current study did not directly observe the relationship between proficiency and CS employment in the learners' speaking. Despite this, regarding the use of code-switching strategy, we observed some similarities between our study and other studies investigating the effects of proficiency level on the use of CSs. As Kalebic (2007) highlights, students at lower levels employ code-switching more frequently when compared to intermediate learners. Similarly, upper-intermediate learners do not resort to code-switching as frequently as intermediate learners do. In addition, Ting and Phan's (2008) results indicate that code-switching is not employed frequently by advanced-level learners while low-proficiency learners generally prefer it. In line with these studies, we also observed a similar tendency among our participants. Even though the distribution of code-switching in Kalebic (2007) and Ting and Phan (2008) showed similarities to the results of our tests, these scholars highlight that code-switching was used only to compensate for linguistic deficiencies. However, in addition to linguistic insecurity, code-switching was also employed as a gap-filler using empty words in their L1. According to Yakut's (2019) findings, the learners can use such switches consciously or unconsciously. Furthermore, we observed that participants sometimes resorted to code-switching to show that they were thinking about the utterance they were planning to produce. In addition, the participants in our study used code-switching to ask for confirmation.

From the total numbers of CSs perspective, we observed that numbers of total strategy employment in each test decreased over time due to improving L2 repertoire. Similarly, Poulisse and Schils's (1989) study with Dutch English learners indicated that advanced English learners resorted to fewer CSs than the less proficient ones did in their speaking performance. Therefore, even though the L1 backgrounds of learners in both Poulisse and Schils's and this study were different, we observed a positive correlation between the numbers of CSs being employed by Dutch and Turkish learners of English. Similar to Wannaruk's (2003) findings regarding L1 and L2-based CS employment, we found that the participants resorted to L1-based CSs more frequently than L2-based ones before the language instruction. However, due to gaining competence in the L2, participants preferred L2-based CSs more frequently and decreased L1-based CSs.

We observed that literal translation and code-switching were employed quite frequently compared to other strategies regarding the participants' writing performance. Yarmohammedi and Seif (1992) highlighted that the percentage of literal translation was significantly higher than the other strategies in the learners' writing. Similarly, we found that the percentage of literal translation was higher than the other CSs. As observed in both studies, learners resorted to literal translation quite frequently due to the nature of the writing task, which usually allows learners to spend more time thinking about the message they will produce.

Even though code-switching was observed to be the second most frequently used strategy in the learners' writing, its use was limited to 21 (13,58%) in this study. As Olsen (1999) emphasized, participants did not resort to code-switching as frequently as they did in speaking because of the nature of the task. This might be because participants perceived code-switching as the least effective or appropriate strategy that they could use in their writing.

Concerning total strategy employment in the writing of the participants in each test, similar to Aliakbari and Allvar (2009), we found a negative correlation between the frequency of CS employment and proficiency level. It was observed that participants decreased CS usage over time due to gaining more competence in the L2. Aliakbari and Allvar (2009) highlighted that more proficient learners resort to fewer CSs than less proficient (beginners) ones do in their writing. Despite finding similar results to our study in their study, they did not observe the same group of participants over a period of time. Thus participants' developmental stages of IL were not taken into consideration. Furthermore, they only compared low and high proficiency learners' writing performances while we observed our participants for one year to observe better the effects of language exposure on the use of CS employment. Nevertheless, there are still similarities between the two studies, probably due to the relationship between language exposure and level of proficiency.

Observing that the dynamics of both speaking and writing are different, this study can suggest that strategy employment was relatively specific to each of these skills. However, regarding overall frequency, we can state that exposure to the L2 has a great deal to contribute to the shift from L1 to L2-based strategies.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Our study highlights that despite not getting education of a specific CS usage, learners try to use either their L1 or L2 to compensate for linguistic deficiencies in speaking and writing. As the students improve their L2 capacity over time, they start using their L2 repertoire much more frequently when compared to their L1. Even though strategies may help them communicate with the interlocutors, most CSs (notably L1-based CSs) cause idiosyncrasies in speaking and writing; in other words, they decrease the efficiency and quality of communication. However, when the students start using their L2 effectively, they can transmit the message with more ease. It can be implied from this present study that learners of a specific language can cope with crises they encounter while communicating by resorting to strategies or solutions that they develop or transfer from their L1. In light of our study, it can be recommended that rather than direct exposure to strategy training, creating a learner-friendly environment aiming to expose the learners to the L2 as much as possible may help them improve their L2 skills and develop different and practical problem-solving strategies in L2 speaking and writing. So, the main focus of language teaching should be teaching the language itself rather than focusing on how to overcome specific problems by resorting to temporary solutions.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 627−642

UDC: 811.111'276.1:371.279.7 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104627S

Original scientific paper

STUDYING THE ESP NEEDS OF STUDENTS OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIO-POLITICAL STUDIES

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Abstract. *The article presents a study of the ESP needs of students of economics and socio-political studies aimed at course optimization. The research includes two stages with the pilot one having finished in June 2021 and involving the students at the University of National and World Economy (UNWE) in Bulgaria as well as the subject and ESP lecturers at UNWE. The second stage was conducted with students from universities with the profile of UNWE in Bulgaria and worldwide (April-October 2021). The results from the survey of students from the pilot stage are presented and analysed in detail along with a review of the ESP needs analysis studies.*

Key words: *ESP, needs analysis, ESP for economics, ESP for socio-political studies*

1. Introduction

English has been the lingua franca for decades owing to socio-political and economic reasons since the Second World War. Apart from using it for everyday communication, it was needed to do business in every sector of the economy worldwide. Specialists in international and international economic relations, the oil industry, manufacturing, tourism, aviation and medicine had to acquire the English language in order to be able to perform their duties and be competitive on the labour market. All these factors put an emphasis on the learning of English for specific purposes (ESP) and made most educational institutions include ESP courses in their curricula. Without the specialized language training involving the knowledge and skills for the language use in specific situations, without being familiar with the discourse and genre specifics or with the specialized vocabulary and texts of a particular professional context, a student or an expert in a given area of the social and economic life will not be able to develop their potential and achieve full realization.

Foreign language education and the study of ESP have long-standing traditions in Bulgaria with ESP courses included in secondary education and university curricula. These courses aim to equip learners with the knowledge and skills forming learners' functional communicative competence in an effective and efficient way. Curricula are regularly updated in line with the modern trends in teaching and learning as well as in education and

Submitted August 1st, 2021, accepted for publication August 15th, 2021
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employment. However, generations change, science and technology advance and new methods of teaching prove more appropriate to serve the needs of high-quality education.

Generations Z and the Millennials grow up with modern technology – computers, game consoles, mobiles, MP3 players, the Internet, social media and networks – which influence their perception, communication and learning compared to the previous generations of their parents and grandparents. They tend to spend more time in the virtual space rather than in physical reality unlike the Baby boomers and Generation X who are accustomed to face-to-face communication. On the other hand, human progress has reflected on the way all generations work and interact. A lot of business activities are performed via the Internet: conversations, company correspondence, negotiations, conferences and meetings. In addition, technical and scientific novelties have resulted in changes in learner needs and teaching. This means that examining these needs will facilitate the designing, improving and optimising of the ESP courses offered by academic institutions. What is more, because of the very few surveys of student needs, such research could provide valuable insights into the needs, wants and lacks of modern students and, ideally, contribute to ESP development in general.

2. ESP Needs Analysis: Research

In order to design an effective ESP course, educational experts have to be aware of learners' needs because, as Basturkmen notes, an ESP learner studies the language because it is the means to achieve certain academic or professional goals (Basturkmen 2010). Depending on the area of their professional and occupational context, ESP learners have different needs – air traffic controllers need to develop their specialised speaking skills, students of economics need to develop the specialised writing skills for business correspondence including the preparation of reports, proposals, presentations, inquiries and offers or the specialised speaking skills of giving presentations, negotiating and participating in meetings, for instance.

In his research "Communicative Syllabus Design" Munby (Munby 1978) suggested considering needs analysis in detail by applying a set of procedures aimed at establishing the target situation needs. The set includes questions related to the key communication variables – topic, participants, means – that could help identify the target language needs of any group of learners. According to Chambers (Chambers 1980), needs analysis deals with the establishing of the learners' needs and their satisfaction based on the analysis of the communication in the target situation. Alwright (Alwright 1982) pointed that needs are related to the learner necessity of certain knowledge and skills required for successful functioning in a professional context. The lack is the gap between the present and the desired functional communicative competence, while wishes are the most important needs within the limited time the learner has to meet their needs.

Hutchinson and Waters (Hutchinson and Waters 1987) distinguish *target needs* – what the learner should do in the target situation and *educational needs* – what the learner should do to learn. Target needs are classified into needs, lacks and wants. Needs are determined by the target situation and are what the learner needs to function successfully in the target situation. Lacks are the gap between what the learner has already acquired and what they still have not acquired but need in order to achieve the target functional communicative competence. Wants are associated with the subjective perceptions of the learner regarding their needs. Therefore, when analysing target needs, a researcher should study both the target situation and the attitudes of the participants in the learning process.

Educational needs present the particular needs, potential and limitations of the learning situation.

West (West 1997) expands the concept of needs analysis by including in it the analysis of the target situation; discourse analysis; present situation analysis; learner factor analysis – motivation, learning style, perceptions of needs; learning environment analysis – the context of the ESP course .

Dudley-Evans and St John (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) see needs analysis as the analysis of information: professional information about the learner – target situation and objective needs; personal information – details that can affect the learning process; English language information about the learner – their current knowledge and skills; information about the professional communication in the learner's area – language, discourse and genre analysis; expectations about the ESP course and information regarding how the course will be run – means analysis.

Sysoyev (Sysoyev 2001) relates ESP needs analysis to cognitive development and Vygotsky's zone of proximal development. According to Vygotksy's concept, there are two stages in an individual's development: the first one including what the learner can do on their own and the second one including the individual's potential and what the individual can achieve assisted by someone more competent. The gap between the two stages is the zone of proximal development. In ESP, the more competent person is the teacher who is the mediator to help the individual (learner) meet their needs by moving from the first to the second stage (Vygotsky 1978).

According to Basturkmen, it is noteworthy that in ESP course syllabus is influenced by learners' needs which is why enhanced learner motivation can be expected if learners see the connection between the material taught and its application in the learners' educational and professional context (Basturkmen 2006)

3. ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS: SURVEYS

A number of surveys conducted worldwide reveal the needs of the learners – students and employees from the fields of engineering, textile, medicine, business, clothing, administration, commerce.

Ferris conducted a survey of over 700 students and 200 lecturers from US universities (Ferris 1998). The survey showed that the necessary skills vary depending on the institution's profile, level of language knowledge, number of students in the group and discipline. Furthermore, it became clear that there was a significant difference between students' and lecturers' answers. Basturkmen (Basturkmen 1998) studied the needs of the students at the faculty of engineering and oil industry of the University of Kuwait by interviewing both students and lecturers. Bacha and Bahous (Bacha and Bahous 2002) used a Likert scale to study the needs of the business students at the Lebanese American University. They examined student attitudes and perceptions regarding different skills by interviewing students and lecturers. Chia, Johnson, Chia and Olive (Chia, Johnson, Chia and Olive 1999) surveyed the ESP needs of the students of medicine in Taiwan and Sakr (Sakr 2001) did research on the needs of the workers in the textile industry and clothing in Cairo.

Li So-mui and Mead (Li So-mui and Mead 2000) analysed the needs of the students of commerce, textile and clothing in Hong Kong to establish what the most common kind of communication in their sphere was. They used questionnaire surveys, telephone interviews and business correspondence analysis, and found out that most often the communication was written with a lot of abbreviations with phone calls, faxes and emails being the preferred forms to communicate. Bolsher and Smalkoski (Bolsher and Smalkoski 2002) carried out a survey of the needs of the immigrant-students of nursing in the USA based on observations, interviews and questionnaires. Among the participants were not only the students, but their lecturers and the programme director as well. This research revealed the fact that the students had problems understanding their colleagues and patients and using the correct pronunciation and intonation. Therefore, the needs analysis helped find out that these students had difficulties functioning in their occupational context and contributed to the course optimisation and the implementation of appropriate measures to deal with student lacks and meet their needs.

In 2006, Kim examined the needs of the East-Asian students at US universities by using an online questionnaire and with a sample of 280 respondent students (Kim 2006). The questionnaire included questions regarding listening and speaking skills, student attitudes and impressions related to the learning difficulties as well as to the student opinion of the listening and speaking skills that seemed the most important in terms of student academic success. The studies carried out by Ferris and Kim led to the conclusions: that the needs of undergraduates and doctoral students related to speaking and having discussions vary; learners' and lecturers' perceptions differ; the key skills that learners need to acquire in order to achieve academic success and that seemed difficult for them in one way or another were given priority.

In 2016, a survey was conducted by Ching-Ling Lee with students at the National Taiwan University for Science and Technology to find out how the students perceive their ESP needs (Ching-Ling Lee 2016). The respondents included both students who studied ESP and students who did not. The results from both groups showed that the need to study ESP was important and crucial for students' careers. Some 80% of the respondents considered the ESP courses critical for their future professional realisation with writing skills perceived as the most important skills. A fact is noteworthy – the more fluent students found the high level of ESP more valuable.

In the same year, Mian and Sarwar studied the ESP needs of the receptionists in private hospitals in Lahore, Pakistan (Mian and Sarwar 2016). They used a questionnaire based on Likert scale and established the serious need these employees had of ESP training. Based on the survey findings, a syllabus was developed aimed at meeting these needs in an oprimised and effective way. A year later, in 2017, Alsamadani (Alsamadani 2017) carried out a study of the ESP needs of the students of engineering in Saudi Arabia. The study involved classwork observation, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview in which lecturers teaching the subject and ESP took part as well. The aim of the research was to find out the key needs and the most serious linguistic lacks of the students majoring in civil and industrial engineering. It was established that the focus of the ESP classes was the receptive skills of listening and reading, while the greatest needs were related to the skills for speaking followed by those for writing and reading. The results from the study made it possible to define the problematic linguistic areas in the field of engineering as well as to make recommendations for the improvement of the ESP courses.

All these studies reveal different approaches to learner needs: they examine the attitudes and perceptions of students and employees in a given trade, investigate the observations and opinions of lecturers, employers, executive academic staff and educational experts, contribute to the improvement and optimisation of ESP courses in terms of content, approaches, time and other parameters taking into account research results and establishing relations and correlations between: ESP course components and between ESP course components and learner motivation.

The empirical research shows that following human progress ESP syllabi change, different ESP course components are emphasised depending on learners' needs, institutional profile and professional context, and novelties in information and communication technologies are introduced.

4. English for a Successful Career: A Study of the Needs of the Students Majoring in Economics and Socio- Political Studies

4.1. Studying student ESP needs

The situation in the teaching and learning of ESP in Bulgaria and globally prompted the university research intended to study the ESP needs of the students majoring in economics and socio-political studies at the University of National and World Economy (UNWE), the largest economic university in South-Eastern Europe, and worldwide. Regardless of the positive student feedback, the project "English for a successful career: A study of the needs of the students majoring in economics and socio-political studies" was started in order to establish what the current ESP needs of the students of economics and socio-political studies are, and to recommend how to optimise the academic ESP courses offered by higher education institutions (HEIs) specialised in economics and socio-political studies and by UNWE, in particular. Research objectives include:

- the study of the ESP needs of the students of economics and socio-political studies (needs, lacks and wants)
- the study of student attitudes and motivation with regard to the academic courses in ESP for economics and socio-political studies (means)
- the definition of the main criteria to be applied in order to recommend how to update and optimize the academic ESP courses for economics and socio-political studies

To achieve research objectives, empirical data is to be gathered using an online personal structured survey. To this aim, a questionnaire of 28 questions including learner personal and language information – language experience and background, learner needs, lacks, wants, motivation and engagement, was developed. The survey has two stages. It was started in April and is intended to finish by 31st October 2021:

- stage 1: April – June 2021. This stage is the pilot one and focuses on the students at UNWE;
- stage 2 – April – October 2021. The second stage involves the study of the attitudes and perceptions of the students majoring in economics and socio-political studies at universities in Bulgaria and worldwide. So far, the stage has involved students from universities with the educational profile of UNWE from Bulgaria (Plovdiv University, D. A. Tsenov Academy of Economics, University of Economics-Varna, Sofia University, South-West University "Neofit Rilski", New Bulgarian University) and from Albania, Northern Macedonia, Serbia, Lithuania, Latvia, Brazil, China, Spain and Portugal.

To complement the data collected empirically, an online personal structured survey was carried out of the lecturers teaching subject and ESP at UNWE during the pilot stage. Lecturers' perceptions are expected to add valuable insights into the teaching and learning of

ESP nowadays that could help make more objective and thorough recommendations regarding ESP course effectiveness and optimisation.

If we refer to Dudley-Evans and St John's description of needs analysis it will be easier to illustrate how the research is being done and why (1988 p. 125):

"A. Professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for – *target situation analysis* and *objective needs*.

B. Personal information about the learners: Factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – *wants*, *means* and *subjective needs*.

C. English language information about the learners: What their current skills and language use are – *present situation analysis* – which allows us to assess (D).

D. The learners' lacks: The gap between (C) and (A) – *lacks*.

E. Language learning information: Effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) – *learning needs*.

F. Professional communication information about (A): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – *linguistic analysis*, *discourse analysis*, *genre analysis*.

G. What is wanted from the course.

H. Information about how the course will be run – *means analysis*".

In the case with UNWE and Bulgarian universities, **A (Professional information about the learners) and F (Professional communication information about (A))** are based on the academic criteria determined by using employer feedback – state educational standards taking into account the needs and requirements of employer organizations, public administration and private business as well as the world trends in education. Therefore, the situation analysis and objective needs are related to the students' realization in the sectors of the economy and areas of social life or the scientific work in organizations and institutes locally and globally. The graduates are expected to be competitive on the labour market and function successfully in an international, intercultural and globalized environment. Similarly, **G** and **H** are determined by social development and scientific advance, meaning that the academic ESP course is aimed to ensure the balanced development of student functional communicative competence applying modern teaching methods. The expected level of specialized language fluency is C1 for the first foreign language and B2 for the second foreign language, the study of two foreign languages being compulsory for some of the specialties. **C (English language information about the learners)** is known to a great extent because there are admission tests in English for the majority of the specialties with the option to apply with the matriculation result or by presenting an internationally recognized certificate of English such as the Cambridge ones FCE or CAE with a required level corresponding to B2 (of CEFR) for English studied as a first foreign language.

Thus, **D** is related to the acquisition of the ESP knowledge and skills involving all components of the student functional communicative competence providing for the successful career of the university graduates and **E** should be focused on meeting both student needs, objective and subjective, based on the current situation in the teaching of foreign languages and ESP in particular as well as on taking into consideration the specific features of the new generations of learners. In order to receive in-depth insights into the student viewpoint, perceptions and attitudes and find out how they see their subjective needs and to enhance their motivation, the survey included questions intended to collect data related to **B, C, D, G** and **H** – to learn more about student needs, wants, lacks, views of course optimization and effectiveness. The detailed questionnaire is aimed to provide information about the skills that students find most difficult to acquire, the skills that are most relevant in terms of students' future career and the possible ways to increase learner involvement and engagement that will result in improved performance and achievements. The research results are expected to facilitate the process of syllabi update and the introduction of novel teaching techniques that could contribute to the greater course effectiveness. In addition, it is expected to show whether there are considerable differences in student perceptions and attitudes country- and worldwide or between student and lecturer perceptions. The data analysis could be further exploited to point to course adjustments or conclusions of use to the improvement of the learning process and academic work.

4.2. Survey results: pilot stage

The sample from the pilot stage includes 567 students majoring in 14 specialties such as Law, Economics, Marketing and Strategic Planning, Political Studies, International Relations, International Economic Relations, Media and Journalism, Business Informatics and Communications, Economics of Infrastructure, Economics of Tourism, etc. at UNWE. The respondents are doing their bachelor's or master's degree with the majority being in their first to third year of study. They are asked about their mark in English at school and at their English matriculation exam. In Bulgaria, the excellent mark is 6 with 2 considered poor (failed). Some 3 students (0,5%) had not studied English at school; 1, (0,2%), had a satisfactory mark (3); 52 or 9,2 % had a good mark (4), 188 (33,2%) had a very good mark (5) and 321 or 56,6% were excellent (6). To the question about their matriculation result in English, the students answered as follows: 5 students or 0,9% - 3 (satisfactory), 50 students or 8,8% - 4 (good); 159 students or 28% - 5 (very good); 168 or 29,6 % - 6 (excellent). Some 179 or 31,6% had chosen another matriculation exam. The question about the matriculation exam and the result from it is asked for two reasons: first, because, as it was mentioned above, in most Bulgarian universities it is used as an admission test (result) and, second, because it provides objective information about student knowledge and skills in general English at the B2 level of CEFR (the Common European Framework of Reference for languages of the EU). The average student result in English from school was 5,48 and from the matriculation exam – 5,28, which shows a good command of the language.

When asked if they had been assessed objectively at school, the respondents answered positively with 49% strongly agreeing and 30,2% agreeing. This question aimed at providing personal information related to the study of English. Some 7,4 % of the students felt they had not been assessed objectively. This could mean that these learners would need more intense encouragement in order to feel more motivated for work. It could furthermore be concluded that for most of the cases there was an overlap of teacher and student perception of student achievements. One could, therefore, suggest the same at university level and expect a good teacher-student relationship, which is beneficial for the learning process. One more personal question was asked but the answers to it will be considered later with relation to the analysis of the answers to the questions about motivation.

The focus of ten questions was student needs and wants. The questions were formulated by using the word "expectations" for it was considered to comprise in itself needs and wants and at the same time it did not seem a distractor word. Not surprisingly, most of the answers revealed an interest in acquiring all knowledge and skills that the syllabi include and that form the goals of the ESP courses at the university. Two findings are worth noting.

The first one is that regardless of the fact that generally the students are fluent, an impressive number of them think that they need to improve their grammar and be more accurate in their professional communication. Even though lecturers find the teaching of specialized grammar meaningful, the lecturer team's observations in recent years has shown that due to the intense communication on the Internet and the social media, the majority of the young people nowadays think that their English grammar knowledge is sufficient. Therefore, having students who realize the need to expand their grammar knowledge and skills can facilitate the learning process and make it more effective if taken into consideration when a lecturer plans and organizes course work. However, this need can be considered an unexpected result given the very good command of general English the students have.

The second result is the one related to the student perception of the significance of style and register in business communication. Though high, the percentage of the respondents who have indicated their appreciation of this fact is not as high as supposed, especially compared to the response to the other questions. Modern generations seem to need more efforts to understand the importance of style and register in a world of fierce competition at all levels – individual, company, global, and socio-economic changes and repercussions. This could mean more work with the students to explain and convince and, respectively, an adjustment of course syllabi to obtain better results in this direction.

Table 1 Student expectations: needs and wants

Expectations (needs and wants) for the ESP course to help me:	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Neither agree, nor disagree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
acquire knowledge and skills for written communication I will need during my professional career	53,3	28,2	12,7	3,4	2,3
acquire knowledge and skills for listening comprehension of specialised texts I will need during my professional career	51,9	28,6	12,0	4,8	2,8
acquire knowledge and skills for speaking I will need during my professional career	60,1	20,3	13,1	3,7	2,8
acquire knowledge and skills for reading I will need during my professional career	54,0	27,2	13,2	3,7	1,9
acquire knowledge and skills for the translation of specialised texts I will need during my professional career	51,0	26,8	15,2	4,9	2,1

Expectations (needs and wants) for the ESP course to help me:	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Neither agree, nor disagree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
acquire knowledge of specialised vocabulary I will need during my professional career	55,6	26,1	12,5	4,1	1,8
acquire and improve my knowledge and skills in grammar I will need during my professional career	49,6	28,9	12,9	6,2	2,5
acquire knowledge and skills of the style and register typical of my professional field	48,9	28,6	14,6	5,3	2,6
acquire and improve my knowledge and skills in resolving communication-related problems in the foreign language so that I enjoy a successful career development in my professional field	54,3	25,9	12,2	5,6	1,9
acquire and improve my knowledge and skills in intercultural communica-tion so that I enjoy a suc-cessful career develop-ment in my professional field	52,6	25,2	15,2	4,6	2,3

Four of the questions in the survey are focused on student motivation and hence increased engagement in the ESP course. Student feedback has indicated that unlike their parents and grandparents, new generations require explanations in the way classwork is done or why a certain task is assigned. They prefer to discuss assessment more and to be provided with very detailed information about all assessment components. What is more, they show an interest in suggesting topics, activities and even approaches to doing something in class or for homework. This is the reason to include questions about interactive tasks, the Internet and social media, student involvement by suggesting topics or course adjustments. Over half of the respondents reacted really positively to participating in classwork more actively and by using the ways of perception, communicating and learning that they have been accustomed to. Compared to the first two questions, the responses to the last two ones do not seem that definite with an overall positive result of 71,1% and 70,7% of which 44,1% and 42,3% strongly agree. However, this definitely indicates that if taught their way and treated as partners and collaborators, students can improve their achievements considerably. The choice of the “agree” answer could be attributed to some students’ tentativeness or fear of demonstrating greater autonomy in the learning process.

Table 2 Student expectations: engagement and motivation

My expectations are that the academic course in English will:	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Neither agree, nor disagree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
include interactive tasks that will raise my interest and motivation for studying	50,1	25,7	16,0	4,9	3,2
include work on the Internet and on the social media platforms that will raise my interest and motivation for studying	47,1	25,7	17,5	5,8	3,9
provide the opportunity to **suggest** specialised topics that will raise my interest and motivation for studying	44,1	27,0	19,0	5,6	4,2
provide the opportunity to discuss with both the lecturer and my colleagues the opportunity to optimise the academic course that will raise my interest and motivation for studying	42,3	28,4	20,5	5,5	3,4

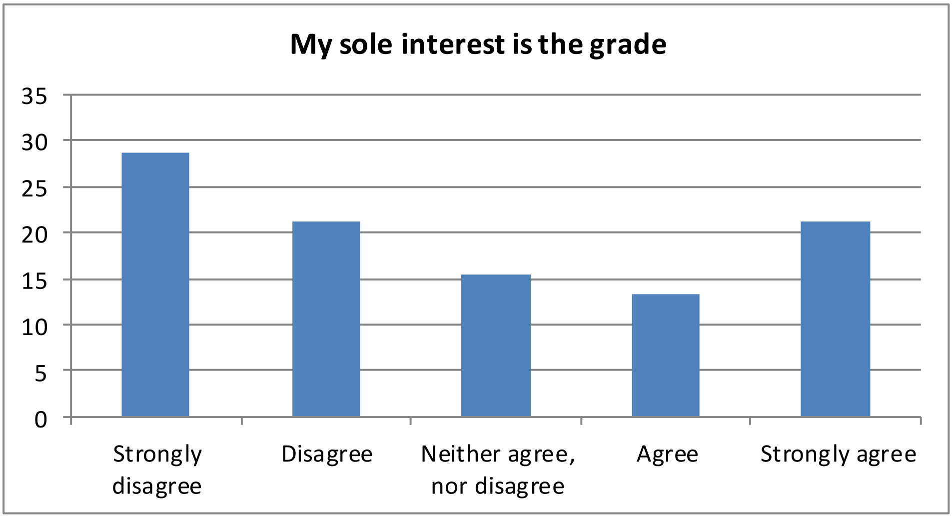

Fig. 1 “My sole interest is the grade”

Figure 1. presents the answers the respondents gave to the straightforward question about their motivation to study. The respondents were asked if their sole interest with regard to the academic course were the grade and whether they thought they could acquire knowledge and skills in ESP **through other means** (a course at a language school, private lessons, etc.). This is a challenging and provoking question related to the students' attitude to the subject taught as well as to their education since over the last decades it has become more popular to graduate for the sake of the higher education diploma. Altogether, 34,5% of the respondents are motivated by the grade only (21,3% - stronlgy agree and 13,2% - agree). This means that a third of the students who were surveyed study ESP only driven by the final grade regardless of the fact that in their answers to the rest of the questions they demonstrated their understanding of the importance of the ESP course. The students driven by obtaining grades, not knowledge, require another approach.

In terms of the skills that in the students' opinion are the most difficult to master, the respondents indicated speaking as the most difficult one (42% of the respondents), followed by writing (27,1%), listening (24,3%) and reading (8,5%). The ESP skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading were then included in questions by offering the students to choose from the specific skills for each activity. The acquisition of all these skills is part of the ESP course syllabi and the respondents can choose more than one answer which is why the total percentage exceeds 100%.

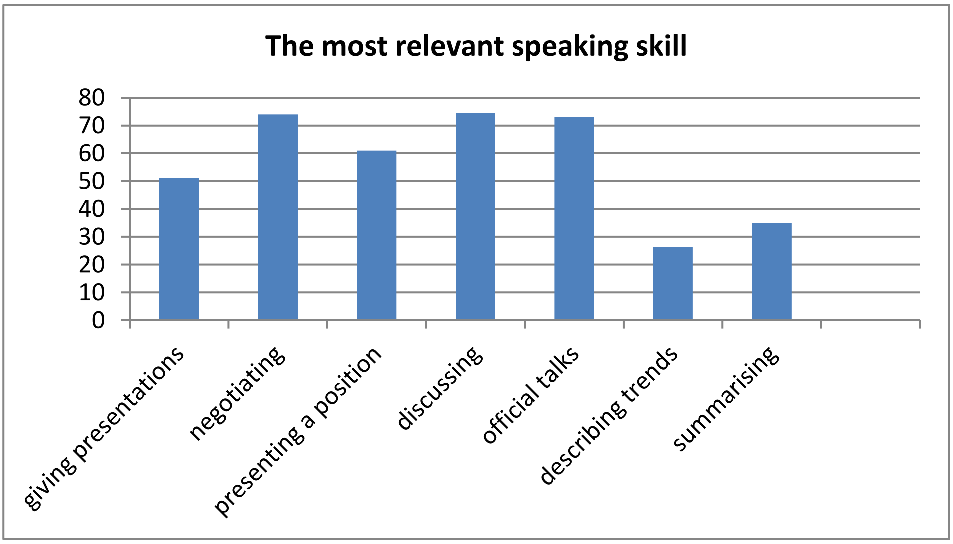

Fig. 2 The most relevant speaking skill

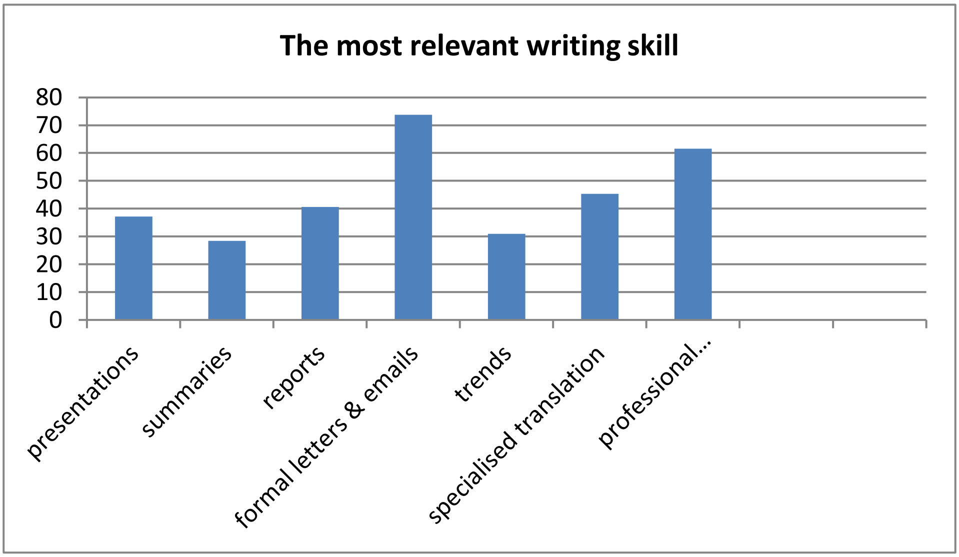

Fig. 3 The most relevant writing skill

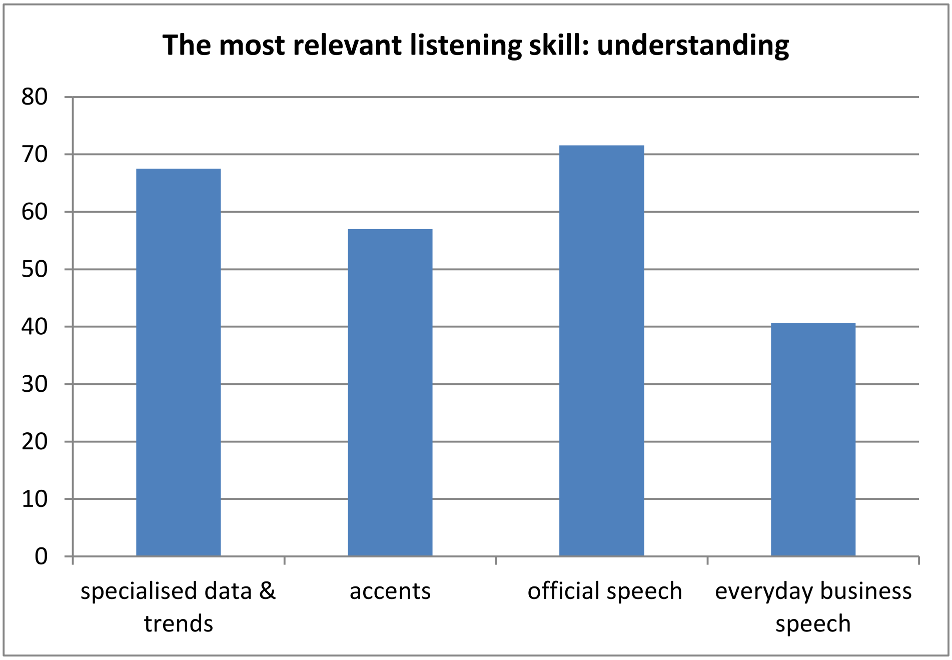

Fig. 4 The most relevant listening skill

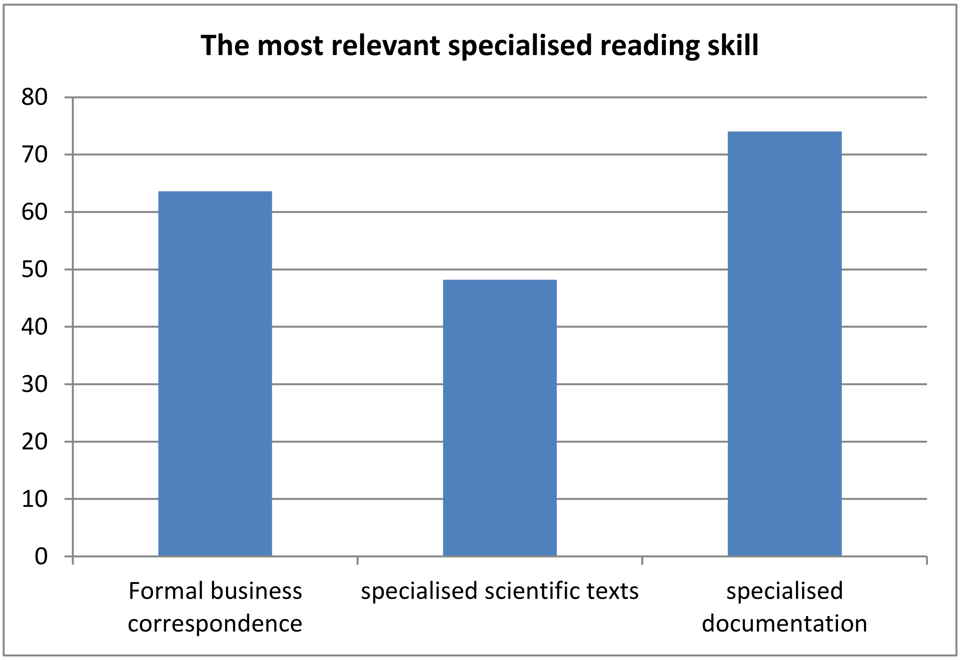

Fig. 5 The most relevant reading skill

Surprisingly, the speaking and writing skills for trend description seem underestimated by the respondents similarly to those for summarizing. At work, describing the development of a process or activity can be crucial, especially in the fields of financing, stock exchanges and international markets just as summarizing in order to give the team the essence of the official talks or negotiations with an important client can be of critical importance for the organization's future. Hence, the lecturer can make some efforts in this direction and draw students' attention to such facts and convince them in the significance of these skills acquisition by making a connection to real-life situations in students' professional context. Another suggestion could be the choice of a different method to teaching these skills.

As far as the results about listening and reading are concerned, it seems reasonable that young people, who are experienced in everyday communication in English with friends, connections and followers on social media and the Internet, find it useful and necessary to be able to deal with formal texts.

Due to Bulgaria's accession to the EU and the educational reforms related to this process, the number of hours for academic courses in foreign languages was radically reduced. For instance, our students who used to have a 480-hour 4-year course in ESP (English as a first foreign language) now have a 240-hour 2-year course. This change entailed a number of adjustments and reflected on the quality of the courses not only because of the reduction, but also because there were similar changes related to other subjects with the previous synergistic effect of studying certain subjects in certain years being minimized. The respondents are not aware of this fact, unlike us – their lecturers, so their answers were expected to provide an insight into their attitude. As Figure 6 shows, 51% of the students consider an increase in the number of hours meaningful.

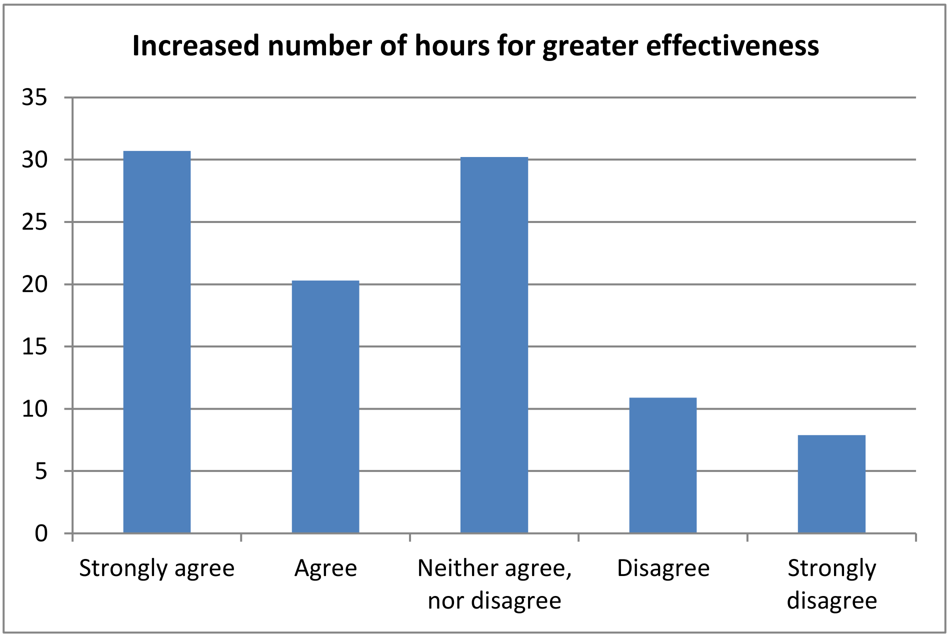

Fig. 6 Increased number of course hours

In addition, during the statistical processing of the data, a correlation was noticed between the increase in the number of course hours and student expectation to hone their ESP knowledge and skills. The need for more hours is presented in five groups (a Likert scale): strongly agree; agree; neither agree, nor disagree; disagree; strongly disagree. Similarly, students' expectations for knowledge and skills improvement are also presented in five groups (the same scale) and include the following: writing, speaking, listening, reading, specialized translation, specialized vocabulary, grammar, style and register, coping with communication problems, intercultural communication, interactive tasks, using the Internet and the social media, suggesting specialized topics, opportunity to participate in the course optimization. It is of research interest to see if there is a statistically significant difference in the respondents' expectations expressed by the five groups of willingness. Expectations are an ordinal scale, which allows to find a provisional mean for each expectation. Then, the null hypothesis will state that there is no difference in the average levels of expectation for the different groups, whereas the alternative hypothesis will state that there is a difference in the average levels of expectation for the different groups. Applying the Kruskal-Wallis test a check of the statistical hypothesis is done and the analysis confirms the alternative hypothesis for each expectation with a probability of 95%. Therefore, an increase in the number of course hours results in an increase in the expectation to improve a particular skill.

5. CONCLUSION

Having finished the analysis of the student data collected from the pilot stage of the research of the ESP needs of the students majoring in economics and socio-political studies, it is possible to make several conclusions. The results prompt the wider and more active introduction of interactive tasks and the use of the Internet and social media in the learning process in order to facilitate ESP acquisition as well as taking into account the specific features of the new generations who spend more time in the virtual reality rather than in real life. Involving students in the improvement of course parameters results in enhanced engagement and motivation. They, in turn, lead to greater course effectiveness and better student achievements.

Survey results provide valuable information about student perceptions of the different skills within each activity and point to the measures that could be taken to improve student awareness of the importance of the skills underestimated by them, but considered by employers as critical for a successful functioning in a professional environment. Satisfying the grammar needs of the learners needs the attention of the other stakeholders – university management and lecturers. What is more, the increase in the number of the ESP course hours is worth considering.

The empirical data from the survey of lecturers' perceptions and attitudes are being processed and the second stage has not finished yet, but it is expected that the information gathered will add to the findings from the pilot stage and will allow to make wide-ranging recommendations for course optimisation and greater effectiveness. The study is one of the very few Bulgarian studies focused on students' needs analysis and gives the ESP practitioner in the country as well as abroad the opportunity to use the research results to improve their courses, adjust their approach to the academic teaching of ESP or reflect on the respondents' responses.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: This work was supported by the UNWE Research Programme (Research grant № 6/2021).

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 643−654
UDC: 801.55:811.111 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104643E

Review research paper

INNOVATIVE TEACHING METHODS IN A CULTURE INTEGRATED ENGLISH LANGUAGE COURSE

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Abstract. *The relevance of the study is dictated by the demand of the state for training competitive specialists who are ready to maintain an intercultural dialogue in their professional field. The main goal of modern language education is the development of innovative integrated courses that enable students to enrich their subject knowledge and to master the ability to use this knowledge at the international level. This article considers Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to be promising ways of implementing the integrative approach into the education system. Many methodologists and linguists have proven the effectiveness of interconnected teaching foreign languages and cultures, resulting in the selection of a culture-based course designed in English as an object of the research. With a view to developing students' professional foreign language competence and enriching subject knowledge, the educational process includes using digital tools provided by museums around the world (the State Hermitage Museum, the Louvre Museum, the British Museum, the Rijksmuseum, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Uffizi Gallery, The Vatican Museums), as well as the tasks based on these authentic resources. The study reveals that digital archives, online art collections, 'Virtual Visit', audio and video resources are valuable sources of authentic materials that can be used in the process of professionally oriented English teaching.*

Key words*: integration, culture, English for Specific Purposes, Content and Language Integrated Learning, professional foreign language competence, learning effectiveness, digital tools*

1. INTRODUCTION

The Russian education system responds vividly to the development trends that characterize modern world society. The process of globalization, the increase in direct contacts in the field of professional communication, the expansion of opportunities for academic mobility and career growth in the international market (including the use of various digital tools and communication means) change the definition of the main goals and the objectives of the higher education.

The Russian system of legal regulation in the field of education emphasizes that university graduates should have "the ability to communicate in oral and written forms in Russian and foreign languages in order to solve problems of interpersonal and intercultural

Submitted March 4th, 2021, accepted for publication May 5th, 2021
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interaction" (FSES, 2015, p. 7). This idea is enshrined in the State educational standards for various subject areas.

Modern global trends are also reflected in a unique Russian project – 'Atlas of Emerging Jobs', developed by the Moscow School of Management SKOLKOVO and the Agency for Strategic Initiatives. A valuable feature of this project is not only a list of those jobs that will appear in the near future and will be relevant for the world economy, but also a list of cross-professional skills that will determine competitive and promising specialists. Among such universal skills we should note cross-industry communication skills, systems thinking, ability to manage projects and processes, multilingual and multicultural abilities (Atlas, 2020, p. 23-24). The last two abilities are of special importance in the modern system of language education, which is reflected in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Thus, the main task of researchers, methodologists, teachers and pedagogical designers is to develop innovative learning models. The main goal of such models is to train competitive and prospective professionals who have comprehensive knowledge in their subject area and the ability to share their experience with experts from other countries. The ability to maintain intercultural dialogue and achieve the desired results is one of the key factors that employers pay special attention to. That is why professionally oriented teaching foreign languages is a new direction in the development of the modern education system.

In an effort to rethink the actual functioning of the education system in accordance with the development trends of modern society and the demands of the state, many researchers pay attention to the possibility of interdisciplinary 'integration'. "The process of unification, synthesis or cooperation that occurs or is carried out in education regarding the objects of different nature" (Skvortsov, 2014, p. 42) can significantly increase the effectiveness of training future specialists, which is a viable response to the challenges of modern society.

2. Literature Review

After analyzing the works of modern researchers in the field of integration processes (Skvortsov V. N., Brazhnik E. I., Solomin V. P., etc.), the following characteristic prerequisites for the emergence of interdisciplinary courses were identified:

- the presence of two or more disciplines that were not previously considered as possible components of one integrated course;
- the presence of obvious conditions for the unification of these disciplines or their constituent parts;
- the possibility of creating a holistic, logical and systemic integrated course;
- the possibility of including the resulting integrated course in the educational process;
- the prospect of further development of the course to increase the effectiveness of training.

Interdisciplinary courses, developed within the framework of an integrative approach and meeting the demands of modern society, should involve a combination of three components, which Brazhnik E. I. identifies in her work:

- cultural (introduction of the cultural heritage of the native country and the country of the language being taught to students);
- linguistic (mastering the level of foreign language proficiency);
- communicative (formation of students' communicative skills through participation in different conferences, seminars, debates, competitions, etc.) (Brazhnik, 2005, p. 178).

The most effective and popular ways of implementing the integrative approach into the education system are methodological models of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), where a foreign language acts as "a means of forming professional knowledge and skills" (Almazova, Baranova, Khalyapina, 2017, p. 120), as well as "a means of systematic professional knowledge enrichment" (Matukhin, 2011, p. 124). For several decades, these approaches have been an integral part of technical and humanitarian programs both in Europe and in Russia. It should be noted that these models are applicable not only to the higher education system; integration trends are characteristic for different levels of education, including preschool, primary and secondary education.

In recent decades, many European and Russian researchers have been devoting their works to clarifying the definition of CLIL and ESP models, highlighting their key characteristics and confirming the effectiveness of their implementation in the educational process. One of the fundamental works in the area of ESP learning is "Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach" (1998) by Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John. The British linguists identify the following absolute and variable characteristics of ESP:

- absolute characteristics:
  - meeting the specific needs of students;
  - using of the methodology and activities characteristic of the discipline being taught;
  - focusing on language (grammatical and lexical units, register), skills and discourse appropriate to the discipline being taught.
- variable characteristics:
  - direct relationship with specific disciplines;
  - using a different methodology from that of general English, if required by a specific educational situation;
  - intended mainly for adult learners who are at the stage of higher or vocational education;
  - intended mainly for intermediate and advanced learners (Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 4-5).

Based on the above characteristics, the definition of the ESP model is formulated as follows: ESP is an approach characterized by the development of specialized language courses, the purpose of which is to use a foreign language to meet professionally oriented communicative needs of the students. Thus, ESP is distinguished by its personality-oriented nature, it provides an opportunity to master language skills and forms the ability to use subject knowledge in the context of intercultural communication.

As for the CLIL model, in this article we will adhere to the following definition: CLIL is an approach characterized by its dual nature, which implies "the simultaneous mastery of knowledge in the subject area and the ability to use this knowledge in a foreign language" (Tarnaeva, Baeva, 2019, p. 283). Within the framework of this approach, a foreign language becomes a kind of mediator in studying subject knowledge, while subject knowledge is a resource for mastering a foreign language. Integrated courses created according to the CLIL model are a balanced combination of both subject and linguistic components, and none of them largely prevails over the other.

One of the fundamental characteristics of the CLIL methodology is the concept of "four Cs" (the 4Cs Framework). It implies the interconnected use of such components as content, communication, cognition and culture within the framework of integrated courses. In other words, the CLIL model assumes the presence of subject knowledge, the ability to use linguistic means, the development of cognitive skills and the improvement of intercultural awareness (Coyle, 2006, p. 9). Moreover, the content component is system-forming; “it defines the subject of learning, goals, objectives and themes, i.e. a set of theoretical knowledge and skills that allow to express correct professional opinions and statements within the studied range of problems” (Almazova, Baranova, Khalyapina, 2017, p. 121).

At present, there are many varieties of ESP (English for physicians, for pilots, for lawyers, for engineers, for chemists, for managers, for financiers, etc.); there are also CLIL courses in different fields. However, it should be noted that the discipline ‘Foreign language’ and the disciplines of the humanities cycle can be integrated into a single course in the most natural and effective way. For many decades, the idea of a close relationship between language and culture has not ceased to interest linguists, philologists, philosophers, anthropologists and specialists in other humanitarian fields (Armstrong N., Hall E., Trager G., Samovar L., Porter R., McDaniel E., Elizarova G.V., Kabakchi V.V., Ter-Minasova S.G., etc.). That is why the interconnected teaching foreign languages and cultures will not lose its relevance and will be widespread in various higher educational institutions.

Today, one of the main goals of teaching foreign languages is teaching students the language of intercultural communication, namely English. Life and learning in the era of ‘neoglobalization’ give particular importance to the process of intercultural communication, which implies the ability of interlocutors to use the entire linguistic potential of a global language (English) to represent various national cultures on the world stage. In this regard, one cannot fail to note the historically formed prejudice and negative stereotypes of representatives of some nations towards others. Therefore, the mission of overcoming such stereotypes and presenting one’s own country and its culture to the outside world, using English in its current role as the world lingua franca becomes extremely important (Kabakchi, Beloglazova, 2017, p. 195).

Teaching foreign languages today is “impossible without cross-disciplinary approach, integration, which today act as the main methodological prerequisites for learning the surrounding reality” (Kostina, 2015, p. 92). In this context, we tested in practice the integrated course ‘St Petersburg History and Culture in English’, which became a successful addition to the educational process.

The course ‘St Petersburg History and Culture in English’ allowed students to master their skills in all aspects of the language (phonetics, vocabulary and grammar) and four types of speech activity (listening, reading, speaking and writing), as well as to acquire comprehensive knowledge about St Petersburg culture, determine its place within the framework of Russian and world cultures. Moreover, this course allowed students to understand “what to pay attention to, what to take for granted, in which cases it is possible to reduce differences to a minimum, how to integrate into a new cultural space, tactfully emphasizing their national and cultural identity” (Getmanskaya, 2014, p. 109).

However, this article aims to highlight the features of a culture integrated English-language course in general and to offer activities that are based on the use of authentic digital tools and that make a great contribution to the formation of professional foreign language competence of students.

3. Method

Taking into account the specificity of the research problem, we used theoretical methods that reflect the principle of a systematic approach to the analysis of the phenomena under study: analysis, comparison, synthesis, generalization. The methodological basis of this study includes publications in the field of interdisciplinary integration, the relationship between language and culture, teaching English for Specific Purposes, Content and Language Integrated Learning, using authentic materials and digital tools in the educational process.

4. Discussion

Many researchers note that interdisciplinary integration makes a great contribution to professionally oriented learning, and also allows to create “an innovative educational environment with the implementation of results-based mechanisms” (Kurmangulov, 2018, p. 37). Undoubtedly, this approach improves the students’ activity in the learning process, as well as their cognitive and creative potential (Shishmolina, 2020, p. 186).

Authenticity is one of the most important principles of innovative interdisciplinary courses aimed at implementing personality-oriented technologies. Authentic materials, the creation of which did not imply their use for educational purposes, contributes to “improving communicative competence of students” and “creating innovative, creative, collaborative, cooperative learning through facilitation of learning that is capable of generating critical thinking, supporting each other (sharing ideas), problem solving skills, the ability to negotiate (negotiating), provide service orientation, and have cognitive rigidity with a high level of critical thinking” (Ginaya et al, 2019, p. 1086). Meanwhile, authentic materials are not limited to written texts; today’s integrated courses make extensive use of various oral texts and activities that are close to real life.

The British educational resource ‘Career Paths’ could serve as a traditional basis for a culture-based course designed in English. This resource offers such teaching materials as ‘Career Paths: Museum Management & Curatorship’, ‘Career Paths: Art & Design’, ‘Career Paths: Tourism’, etc. An integrated culture-based course can also be based on Russian Student’s Books such as ‘English and World Culture. Lectures and Exercises. A manual on art history’ (Getmanskaya A. V.), ‘How to Speak about Art in English’ (Falkovich M. M., Lebedinskaya E. M., etc.), ‘English for art historians’ (Alaeva O. V.), etc.

Express Publishing Student’s Books are divided into three parts, which correspond to the three levels of language proficiency, according to CEFR – A1, A2 and B1. Each part of these Student’s Books includes 15 different topics, which offer tasks aimed at developing four language skills – reading, listening, speaking and writing. Particular attention is paid to increasing the students’ vocabulary, since teaching professionally oriented vocabulary is fundamental in any ESP course, in particular in the field of cultural studies. The educational resource ‘Career Paths’ also includes a Teacher’s Guide and a set of 2 Audio CDs for each Student’s Book.

Russian Student’s Books are designed for a wide range of learners who have an advanced level of English proficiency. Substantive and informative texts on the subject are the defining characteristics of these resources. The main purpose of the Student’s Books is to teach professionally oriented vocabulary, develop language skills (in particular, speaking and writing), and provide students with basic information about the world art and culture.

Various digital tools offered by museums around the world can be an additional authentic resource to both British and Russian Student's Books. It should be noted that a modern museum is an international communicative space that contributes to "the formation of a creative multicultural linguistic personality interested in mutual enrichment and mutual understanding of the world nations and in preserving the values of global culture as a whole" (Getmanskaya, 2019, p. 393).

Leading in the field of modern language education, the communicative approach is also characteristic of a modern museum industry. The concept of 'understanding museology' is becoming more and more popular; it implies a respectful attitude to the opinions of all participants in museum communication (creators, critics, experts, guides, visitors, etc.), "fostering tolerance for foreign cultures, awakening interest and respect for them, overcoming feelings of irritation from redundancy, insufficiency, or dissimilarity of other cultures" (Ter-Minasova, 2000, p. 8).

Consequently, a detailed analysis of existing digital tools and a selection of the best ones is becoming one of the main goals for the designers of modern culture-based courses in English. Such digital tools can be used as an effective authentic material in order to develop the foreign language professional communicative competence of students. They add to the educational process extra opportunities for organizing active and interactive classes, which keeps students motivated and stimulates their creative and research potential.

The analysis of different authentic digital tools revealed that the most valuable ones are located on the museum official websites, their accounts on social networks and various online platforms. Taking into consideration the principle of forming integrated language skills, which dominates the system of modern language education, we will analyze digital tools in accordance with the language skills that they form (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

Many museums around the world provide a variety of audio resources (audio guide tracks, podcasts, recordings of past lectures and conferences, audio descriptions of museum masterpieces, etc.) that can be used in the educational process to improve students' ***listening skills***. Such audio recordings are often accompanied by a brief written description or an image of a museum object, which act as an additional stimulus for oral comprehension.

A rich collection of audio recordings is offered by the British Museum – 'Audio Descriptive Guide', available on the online platform SoundCloud. More than 150 tracks provide detailed, professionally described information about the main milestones in human history and culture, as well as the British Museum masterpieces. These short tracks (2-3 minutes) can be used in class while studying such topics as Ancient Egypt, Ancient Greece, Africa, Asia, Early and Medieval Europe, Sculpture, Portrait, Applied Art, etc. Here is an example of an assignment aimed at improving listening skills, based on the digital tool 'Audio Descriptive Guide':

Task 1. Listen to an audio recording (Track 6) describing the Greek art. Decide whether the following statements are true or false. While listening, take notes to prove your choice with phrases from the audio.

a) The majority of the surviving Parthenon sculptures are displayed in the British Museum and the Louvre Museum in Paris.
b) The ancient Greeks were intensely interested in the human condition, exploring all aspects of the human mind and body.
c) By the end of the 1st century BC Rome governed the former Greek lands.
d) None of the sculptures, tools, ornaments, household items and architectural fragments are connected with religious practices and beliefs about the afterlife.

Another interesting digital tool for effective teaching listening skills is published on the official website of the State Museum of the Netherlands – Rijksmuseum. The museum staff has developed a unique project "One hundred masterpieces", which enables students to get acquainted with the world-famous masterpieces that are located in the Rijksmuseum. Short audio recordings detail the history of the creation of such paintings as 'The Jewish Bride', 'The Night Watch' and 'Self-portrait' by Rembrandt, 'The Milkmaid' and 'The Little Street' by Vermeer, 'Madonna of Humility' by Fra Angelico, 'Girl in Blue' by Verspronck, 'Self-portrait' by Van Gogh, 'Portrait of Don Ramón Satué' by Francisco de Goya, 'The Battle of Waterloo' by Pieneman and many others. The following is an example of a listening task that can be used in the process of teaching English in the field of cultural studies:

Task 2. Listen to the audio recording and complete the description 'The Night Watch' by Rembrandt. Use only one word for each gap:

Why is The Night Watch so world famous? After all, it's basically just a _______ of a group of civic guardsmen in the 17th century _______. Members of the civic guards defended the city and preserved public order. They are about to set off on a _______ march through the city. However, because the painting is so _______, people in the 19th century have it the title of 'Night Watch'. In other words, appearances are deceiving. Rembrandt often used dark _______ in his paintings. This enabled him to literally put his figures in the _______, so creating a dramatic effect.

Not only the _______ lighting, but the guardsmen's gestures and poses, too, capture our attention. Instead of following the _______ and portraying the men ranked in line, Rembrandt opted for this rather disorderly _______, suggesting they're about to advance. It's a group in action, and that's precisely what makes this painting so _______.

In addition to audio recordings, a lot of museums around the world publish on their websites various videos dedicated to the main masterpieces of the collection, past and upcoming exhibitions, cultural events, the history of the museum. 'The Elements of Art' on the Louvre Museum website, 'Curator's Corner' on the British Museum YouTube channel, 'Une œuvre, un regard' (season 1 in English) on the Musée d'Orsay YouTube channel could be taken as an example. Professional guides, art historians, curators and art critics act as storytellers in these videos. Various activities can be based on these authentic videos; they allow students to improve their listening skills, as well as to acquire valuable professional knowledge.

Teaching foreign monologue speech is often based on working with printed texts or using an authentic sample of oral monologue utterance. Thus, in the first case, the development of activities can be based on the use of the 'Virtual Visit' digital tool, which is available on the official websites of most museums in the world (the State Hermitage Museum, the State Russian Museum, the Louvre Museum, the British Museum, the Uffizi Gallery, etc.) This digital tool enables to make a real journey around the museum: to demonstrate its halls, to get acquainted with the museum collection, to visit permanent and temporary exhibitions. Moreover, this resource provides essential information about the interiors and the works of art located in the museum. Therefore, such a 'visit' can be used as a means of developing ***speaking skills*** (for example, conducting a guided tour, describing a hall or an art object).

The following is an example of a task aimed at improving the monologue speech skills, which is based on the 'Virtual Visit' digital tool published on the official website of the State Hermitage Museum:

Task 3. Imagine that you are to organize an art exhibition. First, choose a theme for your future exhibition, for example, 'Retrospective of paintings by a famous artist' or 'Presentation of one of the artistic movements'. Second, select the necessary information using the functionality of the 'Virtual Visit' of the State Hermitage Museum websit. Then, decide which works of art will be displayed at your exhibition. Finally, present the results of your mini-project to the group.

Another valuable digital tool that enables to improve students' monologue speech skills is located on the official website of the Louvre Museum. The 'Tales of the Museum' section offers a series of animated video stories that describe various works of art, secrets of their creation, discovery, acquisition, and restoration. The narrator of these videos is the first director of the Louvre Museum –Dominique-Vivant Denon. Activities developed on the basis of this authentic resource could be to watch these videos, and then voice them independently (with the sound of the video turned off):

Task 4. Watch a video about the masterpiece of Greek sculpture – Venus de Milo. While watching the video, take some notes. Then the teacher will mute the video and you will have to voice it. Use your notes and facts that you have memorized. Try to speak fluently to keep up with the plot of the video.

Official websites of different world famous museums can also be used as a means of improving students' dialogue speech skills. For example, students are to explore the website, the history of the museum collection, its permanent and temporary exhibitions, educational and cultural events that are held there. Then, students should discuss this information in class and make a plan to attract visitors to the museum. This task can be performed both in pairs and in groups. The main goal of this discussion is to come to a consensus and form a coherent and logical plan of the museum staff's actions.

Modern digital tools make it possible to find valuable authentic material for improving ***reading skills*** – scanning, skimming, reading for detailed comprehension, critical reading. Many museums around the world provide comprehensive information about the museum history, the museum masterpieces, and interesting facts about outstanding artists on the pages of their official websites. For example, the 'Collection & Louvre Palace' section of the Louvre Museum invites visitors to get acquainted with its collection through the digital project 'Curatorial Departments'. Thus, students can be involved in doing the following task to develop their reading skills for detailed comprehension:

Task 5. Read the passage and find words/phrases, which are synonymous to the words/phrases in the list below. Then make up sentences with them:

In the early nineteenth century, Venice was a favorite destination for artists. Made fashionable, particularly by Lord Byron, the city became the symbol of a disappearing world, and of the magnificent deliquescence so prized by the Romantics. Bonington made the trip in 1826 and painted many views of the city, both in oils and in watercolors. The swiftness of Bonington's brushwork was ideally suited to the changeable character of light on the lagoon.

Synonyms: popular, image, vagueness, rapidity, variable

Many museums are actively involved in research and publication work. Official museum websites often provide digital archives of publications; some museums regularly publish their own magazines. A bright example is the Metropolitan Museum of Art, which has been publishing the Metropolitan Museum Journal for over 50 years. The Journal provides different research and critical works, monographic reviews related to works of art and their cultural context, new information based on the latest researches, etc. These articles are particularly effective for improving scanning and skimming skills, they also serve as a rich resource for enriching students' professional vocabulary. However, it should be noted that this digital tool is suitable for learners with an advanced level of English proficiency. The task based on one of the Metropolitan Museum Journal articles is presented below:

Task 6. Briefly read the article 'Two "Etruscan" Vases and Edgar Allan Poe' by Nancy Hirschland Ramage and R. D. Cromey from Metropolitan Museum Journal v. 48 (2013), pp. 169-177. Then make a detailed plan of the article that clearly reflects its main points. The article is available in the section 'MetPublications' on the official website of the museum (use this link to find the article: https://www.metmuseum.org/art/metpublications).

Numerous digital tools can be used to improve students' ***writing skills*** within the setting of a culture-based course designed in English. Online art collections located on the websites of world museums are precious digital tools. This resource enables students to examine museum works of art in the smallest detail, as well as to find out additional information about its artist, time and place of creation, material, technique, size, and other descriptions (the main distinctive features, functional purpose, artistic style, events and persons associated with this work of art, symbolic meaning, possible interpretations, etc.). Obviously, in the process of teaching a culture-based course, this digital tool can serve as a high-quality visual accompaniment of the subject material. However, this article covers the value of digital collections only in terms of improving students' language skills, particularly writing. The following is an example of the task that is based on the Uffizi online collection 'Artworks':

Task 7. Write a review for the magazine dedicated to the world culture and art. The theme for your review is your impression of the exhibition you have just visited or the picture you have seen. Use a semi-formal style. The review should consist of an introduction (the main details), a main body (the details requested by the rubric) and a conclusion (a summary of a main body and your positive or negative opinion). Use the digital collection of the Uffizi Gallery to find interesting and quality information. For example, you can analyze Raphael's 'Self portrait', Botticelli's 'Birth of Venus', Michelangelo's 'Holy Family' and many other paintings.

It should not be forgotten that social networking is a new type of communication that occupies a special place in the modern world. It differs from other types of written communication (for example, by e-mail or on the forum). Its characteristic features are the brevity and density of messages, which are short in volume, but meaningful in sense. The use of emotionally colored vocabulary and syntactical expressive means also distinguishes social networking. That is why teaching this type of written communication becomes another goal of any English course.

Let us take up the example of the official museum accounts on the Instagram social network, which is one of the most popular nowadays. This digital tool offers its users many opportunities – to post their photos and videos, to supplement them with descriptions, to make Stories, and to participate in live broadcasts. It is interesting to note that many museums around the world run their Instagram accounts in two languages simultaneously – in the national language (where the museum is located) and in English. This feature enables students to improve their multilingual competence, the importance of which was noted above. An example of a task that is based on the posts published in the account of the Vatican Museum is presented below:

Task 8. Imagine that you are in charge of running the Instagram account of a famous museum. You need to write a post that grabs the attention of your readers. Take a close look at how colleagues at the Vatican Museum do it. Choose your favorite piece of art and create a similar description based on this example:

🌎 *Wednesday is #SistineunSeen! Today we return to the Ceiling where through nine scenes the "bereshit", that is the absolute "beginning" of being is evoked.*

☀ *The creation of the sun and the moon is one of the most intense and expressive frescoes in the #SistineChapel. The figure of God is extraordinarily powerful and imperious: in the frown and severe gaze, in the beautiful virile face and in the peremptory gesture of the hands that give life to the incandescent disk of the sun and the icy disk of the moon.*

👉 *Michelangelo incorporates the iconographic tradition of God to be old and with a white beard, but gives him a tempestuous and terrible strength. His face is struck by a beam of light that makes it even more expressive, while the hand pointing towards the solar disk has an extraordinary naturalness.*

The use of the abovementioned digital tools when completing different activities makes a significant contribution to improving the professionally oriented foreign language competence of students. A creative and critical approach to solving a given problem, the desire to achieve a practically meaningful result and present their work in front of an audience motivates students in the process of learning a foreign language.

5. CONCLUSION

Modern language education is aimed at keeping up with global trends; therefore, it makes extensive use of various digital tools. Culture-based courses in English, taught in higher educational institutions, are no exception. The official websites of museums around the world provide many unique opportunities such as digital archives, online art collections, audio and video resources, 'Virtual Visit', etc. Social media accounts of museums, in particular, Instagram, as well as various online platforms are valuable sources of authentic material that can be used in the process of professionally oriented teaching foreign languages.

The digital tools analyzed in this article make a significant contribution to the formation of professionally oriented foreign language competence of students: they improve all language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), and are a rich source of professional vocabulary. Moreover, such authentic resources maintain a keen interest of students in the subject under study, contribute to the development of their creative and research capacity, and prepare them to participate in intercultural interaction at a professional level.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 655−666

UDC: (004.738.5:37.018):378.147 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104655J

Original scientific paper

READING AND CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

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Abstract. *This paper will show the results of quantitative analysis conducted in September 2020, based on a 113-respondent sample unit of adult readers in English (100 Slovak and 13 international respondents). Researchers analysed respondents' abilities to evaluate a text critically; i.e. to identify its assumed author, genre, organization of the text, and the importance of the text for the reader and his or her community. Research outcomes proved that university undergraduates in Slovakia do not possess a good command of critical reading skills for academic reading in four out of five items. International students outscored Slovak students in two items; the research proves the need to intensify preparation of undergraduates in critical thinking in order to fit the needs of a changing society and reading load.*

Key words: *critical thinking, reading comprehension, reading performance, motivation, micro-skills, macro-skills*

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the advent of the Internet in the 1990s, the intensified focus on reading has placed new demands on the quality of reading and the level of reflection on the information gathered. However, until the last three decades, literacy, reading comprehension and critical thinking were treated as nearly independent disciplines, examined by different branches of science. Reading comprehension was the subject of linguistic methodology, general literacy was analysed by educational and even political research, and critical thinking had, since the ancient Greek philosophers, been reserved for political science and philosophy, along with its subdisciplines, e.g. logic. Over the past thirty years, however, the nature and amount of reading done by amateur as well as professional readers[1] (including translators, interpreters, book reviewers, educators and students) has changed dramatically. Intensification of reading and the abundance of texts requires a new complex of sub-skills for effective reading comprehension and, more importantly, critical thinking, which contributes to an individual's wellbeing. In everyday life, these abilities help readers to understand and evaluate private and public texts, distinguish fake news,

Submitted July 13th, 2021, accepted for publication August 15th, 2021
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[1] The term "professional reader" was analysed in the study *Motivation to Read: Facts and Myths* (2018).

and make informed political and purchasing decisions, not to mention the feeling of intellectual independence they inspire (Browne and Keeley, 1981, Štefániková, 2019, 8–9). In professional and academic life, advanced reading and critical thinking skills enable readers (both students and instructors) to find quality sources of information and arrange them in a hierarchy, identify plagiarism and corroborate authors' authority, among other things. Taking as a starting point the direct correlation between effective reading and critical thinking (Browne and Keeley, 1981, 8), the objective of this study was a quantitative analysis of reading and critical thinking skills of Slovak undergraduate students and possible methods for their improvement. Specifically, the aim of the presented research was to determine whether Slovak university undergraduate students have a good command of critical thinking skills when reading a new academic text. The research verified hypothesis H_0 in four out of five tested items (D1, D2, D3 and D5):

> H_0: 81.56%[2] of first-year undergraduates do not have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

The alternative hypothesis was proved in only one item (D4):

> H_1: 81.56% of first-year undergraduates have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

Compared to the national and international sample unit, international respondents exceeded the correct answer ratio in two items (D1, D3).

2. Literature Review

According to the analytical-synthetic definition popular in the past, reading was understood as a process of decoding letters, sounds, utterances, blocks of text and finally entire texts, which was thought to lead the reader to a semantic understanding of the texts (Zápotočná 2001, 1). Many scholars have recently challenged this definition and pointed out the importance of integration of the social-psychological definition of reading, which understands reading as a complex, hierarchical, multi-layered, multicomponent and dynamically changing set of psychological processes (Zápotočná, 2001, 1). The most recent studies (Cameron 2001; Grabe and Stoller 2011; Lojová and Straková 2012 and Šipošová 2017) understand reading as a fusion of analytical-synthetic and social-psychological definitions, a complex process that goes beyond the mere recognition of words and sentences and employs a set of cognitive and linguistic processes at several levels—from the lowest level (recognizing letters, combining them into words, decoding the meaning of words, understanding how they form relationships in sentences and larger units) to the highest level—understanding the meaning of the broader whole—text and context. Research done since the 1980s has further revised behaviourist definitions of reading and integrated psychological aspects of the process and the personality of the reader. Oxford (1990) and Veverková (2020) explore cognitive (text-related) and meta-cognitive (reader-related) reading strategies.

The latest understanding of reading also integrates its social aspects. Scholes (1991), Alderson (2005) and Gavora (2012) emphasize the complex social nature of reading and its connection to the life of the reader. Effective reading is not limited to a specific act of reading a text; reading can only truly be considered effective when the text's content is

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[2] The number indicates the course retention percentage and is further explained in sub-chapter 3.2.

absorbed by the reader and transformed into his or her actions and thoughts. Integration of previous knowledge, skills and experience is also of key importance, especially in EFL reading, when readers often use skills acquired in their mother tongue (Straková and Cimermanová 2005, 21). Alderson calls this phenomenon a "language threshold" (Alderson, 2005) and expands the above-mentioned definitions of reading even further, stating that reading also implies understanding the broad meaning of the text, the explicit and implicit intentions of the writer, identification of the assumed writer (if not stated), and also determining the text's significance to the individual and his or her community. A structure of the complex process of reading and reading comprehension is illustrated in Fig. 1:

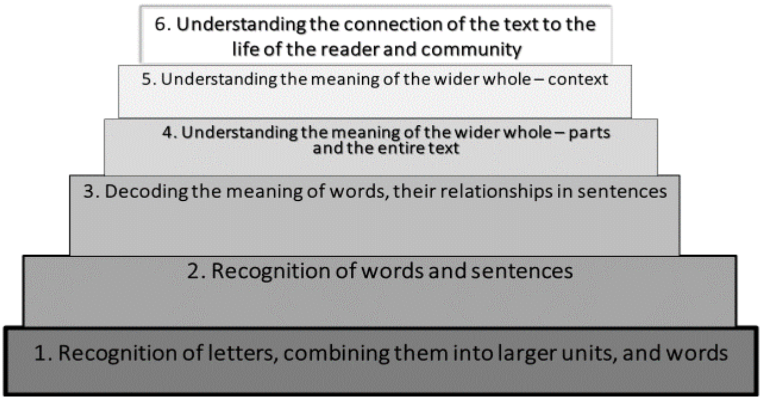

Fig. 1 Phases of reading and reading comprehension as a number of processes; Source: J. Javorčíková.

To sum up, Scholes, Gavora, and Alderson's understanding of effective reading as a fusion of physiological and mental processes that go beyond the text and relate to the reader's life and community inevitably involves methods of critical thinking.

Critical thinking is now a popular catchphrase, as well as a term examined by many disciplines. Popular sources generally define critical thinking as the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking [which requires the readers] to use [their] ability to reason. The reader, thus, should be an active learner, not just a passive recipient of information. Critical thinkers rigorously question ideas and assumptions rather than accepting them at face value; [they] do not merely accumulate facts and knowledge or something that one can learn once and then use in that form forever. They will always seek to determine whether the ideas, arguments and findings represent the entire picture and are open to finding that they do not. In order to think critically, readers need a complex of skills, including observation, analysis, interpretation, reflection, evaluation, inference, explanation, problem solving, and decision making (Skills You Need, 2019).

World-leading researchers in the field of critical thinking further expanded the thought: "…critical thinking is reasonable and reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Ennis 2011, 1). Cottrell holds that "…critical thinking is really a process that begins the moment […] students start writing and reading, the moment they start making choices and decisions about the meaning they attach to what they read and the meanings they try to employ when they are writing" (Cottrell 2005, 77). Paul understands critical thinking as a lifestyle: "…critical thinking is the art of thinking about thinking in an intellectually disciplined manner… [Critical thinkers] *analyse* thinking, they *assess* thinking, and they *improve* thinking" (Paul 2005, emphasis in original). Paul in his theory of critical thinking highlights two components: the elements of reasoning and intellectual standards. Students, in order to become strong thinkers who can grasp and navigate the challenges of university education and prepare for their future career and civic life, must understand eight elements of thought: (1) purpose, (2) key questions, (3) information, (4) concepts, assumptions, (5) implications and consequence, (6) point of view, (7) interpretation and (8) conclusion (Elder and Paul 1996).

The Paulian framework of critical thinking further encompasses intellectual standards which serve as guidelines when critical thinkers assess their own thinking; these standards are of the greatest importance for both teachers and students. They include thirty-five aspects or instructional strategies (affective strategies from S-1 to S-9, cognitive strategies—macroabilities from S-10 to S-26, and cognitive strategies—micro-skills from S-27 to S-35), including the following: thinking independently (S-1), developing insights into egocentricity or sociocentricity (S-2), developing confidence in reason (S-9), clarifying and analysing the meaning of words or phrases (S-14), reading critically: clarifying or critiquing texts (S-21), listening critically: the art of silent dialogue (S-22), making interdisciplinary connections (S-23), practicing Socratic discussion: clarifying and questioning beliefs, theories, or perspectives (S-24), thinking precisely about thinking: using critical thinking vocabulary (S28) and terms such as assume, infer, conclude, criterion, point of view, relevance, issue, elaborate, ambiguous, objection, bias, contradiction, distinguish, etc. (Elder and Paul 1977; Paul 1995, 2013; Paul and Elder, 2006).

The strategies are divided into affective strategies, macro-abilities and micro-skills as elementary skills of critical thinking; they are intertwined in order to highlight "individual moves as part of one integrated activity: the attempt to make sense of, to follow what we are reading" (Paul and Binker 1995, 5). When reading, students may start with elementary skills, for example with the implication (S35) of the book and the evaluation of assumptions (S30), shifting forward to reading precisely using critical thinking vocabulary (S28), through the macro abilities of clarifying and analysing the meaning of words and phrases (S14), issues, conclusions, or beliefs (S13), comparing analogous situations: transferring insights into new contexts (S11) in order to develop confidence in reason (S9) and intellectual good faith or integrity (S7) until they reach the point of independent thinking (S1), the highest skill of critical thinking (Paul and Binker 1995).

Incorporating these standards into the educational process requires what scholars call "metacognition" (Piršl, Popovska and Stojković 2017; Hanesová, 2014), i.e. readers'/ thinkers' focus on the immediate activity comprising the aforementioned strategies: "…consciousness is the first step; you cannot effectively determine what you need to know until you understand and try to critically evaluate, together with your teacher and peers, what you do know and what is expected of you as a student to know" (Piršl, Popovska and Stojković 2017, 603).

To sum up, modern theories of reading comprehension and writing naturally encompass methods and techniques of critical thinking. A modern effective reader is not a mere "consumer" of the text; rather, he or she is a "co-creator" of its connotative and denotative meaning(s), as well as ethical, cultural, social, political and many other implications. He or she is also a "decision-maker" and "authority", determining its significance for the life of the reader and their community.

3. Material and Methods

3.1. Sample Unit Description

After adjusting the pilot-testing research tool[3], a quantitative study was conducted via a controlled experiment in September 2020. 179 reading tests were administered to first-year students (159 Slovak and 20 international students), studying English teaching and translation studies at Matej Bel University, Slovakia. 66 tests were discarded (on the basis of incomplete information, respondents with reading or uncorrected vision impairment, etc.). After this, the selected sample unit consisted of 113 valid tests (100 Slovak and 13 international respondents). Quota sampling was applied for Slovak students, voluntary sampling for international students (due to the low number of international respondents).

No Slovak or international respondent had participated in speed-reading courses and none had read the text before. All respondents had passed the minimum B1 English Maturita exam[4] or an acceptable alternative. Table 1 shows Slovak and international sample unit descriptors:

Table 1. Slovak and international sample unit description

Descriptors: programme, CEFR English level	No. of Slovak respondents	No. of international respondents	Total no. of respondents (Slovak & international)
Sample unit no.	100	13	113
Teaching studies students	50	6	56
Translation studies students	50	7	57
CEFR level of English achieved: B2 (optimal level)	64	7	71
B1	20	2	22
C1	15	2	17
C2	0	1	1
Other (Maturity exam in other language – Spanish)	1	1	2

Source: J. Javorčíková

The average age of the Slovak sample unit was 19.96 years, the average time of studying English was 11.71 years. The average age of the international sample unit was 20.15 years, the average time of studying English was 12.62 years. The mother tongues of the international respondents were Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian and Italian. One student was bilingual (Slovak and Italian). As a result of the internationalisation of Slovak university education, these international students were regular full-time students; therefore, they were included in the sample corpus; they were analysed separately, as well as a part of the entire research corpus.

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[3] The pilot-testing was conducted at Matej Bel University, Department of English and American Studies in December 2019; 20 respondents.

[4] The Maturita is a standardized form of assessment at high schools in Slovakia, usually held in the 4th year of high school studies. Maturita tests four integrated skills including reading and reading comprehension. A minimum CEFR level required is B1.

3.2. Research Tools (Text and Comprehension Questions), Methodology and Procedure

An extract from a quasi-academic English text entitled *Children, Teenagers, and E-books: Young People and the New Technology* was used to determine the respondents' ability to read and comprehend a text and evaluate it critically. The text was adopted from the TEFL coursebook *English File, Upper-intermediate* (Oxenden, Latham-Koenig and Seligson 2001; CEFR B2 level); however, the researchers adapted minor details for research purposes. The text was accompanied by 15 questions; 10 questions were focused on identification of reading skills, 5 questions were critical thinking identifiers (these 5 questions will be the subject of this study). Table 2 displays the descriptive parameters of the text:

Table 2. Descriptive parameters of the text

Genre/ style	CEFR level	No. of words[5]	No. of para-graphs	No. of lines	Sentence structure: no. of statements	Sentence structure: no. of interrogatives	Specialized vocabulary B2[6]
Article/ Academic	B2	509	5	33	25	1	e-books, smartphones, computer

Source: J. Javorčíková and S. Kováč.

The researchers analysed various texts typically used at the respondents' affiliated university (e.g. seminar readings, coursebooks, web pages, etc.) and determined the selected text to be representative of English texts used during the first year of university studies.[7] In terms of size and tasks, the selected text was similar to the Maturita and PISA reading tests; which the respondents were generally aware of. The researchers decided against the use of authentic texts, as some of the field-related terminology (e.g. *morpheme*, *derivation*, etc.) categorized them as C1 - a level that the respondents were to achieve during their master's studies. The topic of the text (reading and book-purchasing habits of various age groups and their preferred media) was chosen because it was common to all the students of humanities (both future teachers and translators/interpreters); however, it was not a specific study focus of any respondent, and thus none had the advantage of possessing a significantly greater mastery of the topic. In terms of research methodology, based on recent research, including the PISA 2018 results, we formulated two research questions:

1. Do Slovak first-year undergraduates have a good command of critical thinking skills for academic reading?
2. What is the definition of a "good command" of critical thinking skills for academic reading for university undergraduates?

Prior to the research, it was essential to define a "good command of critical thinking skills for academic reading", a question many scholars find unanswerable (Alderson, 2005). One way of defining this phenomenon is the Gaussian curve and the method of normal distribution

[5] Data generated by the Microsoft Word programme.
[6] Checked by Text-inspector programme.
[7] The text was confirmed by the Text-inspector programme to be B2 level.

of reading results. However, given the small sample unit of international respondents, we decided to use the Introduction to Linguistics and Literature course[8] retention ratio, which in 2020 was 149:179 (179 students enrolled in the course; 149 students (81.56%) passed; the course retention percentage is 81.56%). Thus our research assumption was: 81.56% of the entire sample unit (i.e. students who will continue in their studies) should have a command of the critical reading skills necessary for academic reading. On the basis of the research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H_0: 81.56% of first-year undergraduates do not have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

H_1: 81.56% of first-year undergraduates have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

4. Total Research Results

Table 3 shows the research results separately for Slovak and international students as well as cumulative results for the entire research sample unit:

Table 3 Total research results—Slovak vs. international respondents

Descriptors (D) 1-5	No. of Slovak Res-pondents - correct answers (max. 100)	Slovak Res-pondents (%)	No. of Internat. Res-pondents- correct answers (max. 13)	Intern. Res-pon-dents (%)	Entire corpus- Total no. of correct answers (max. 113)	Entire corpus - Total correct answers (%)	Compa-red with the bench-mark 81, 56%
D1 (Q14) Interest in the topic: interested	74	74	12	92.31	86	**76.11**	– 5.54
D2 (Q9) No. of references	74	74	10	76.92	84	**74.34**	– 7.22
D3 (Q11) Assumed author	62	62	11	84.62	73	**64.60**	– 16.96
D4 (Q15) Genre	83	83	10	76.92	97	**85.84**	+ 4.28
D5 (Q12) The importance of the text	15	15	3	23.07	18	**15.93**	– 65.63

Source: J. Javorčíková

[8] This course is one of the most important compulsory course all undergraduates are obliged to take as a starting point to their univeristy studies at the Department of English and American Studies at Matej Bel University.

Entire sample unit: In D1 (Q14), we draw a correlation between interest and motivation, as the topic is directly connected to respondents' future professions. Table 3 shows that in the sample unit as a whole (113 respondents), 86 respondents (76.11%) were motivated to read a text related to their field of studies and future profession and found it "important" for themselves and their lives. However, almost a quarter of the sample unit (23.89%) found the topic uninteresting and unimportant.

In order to identify respondents' ability to read the text critically, we were also interested in their general ability to understand how an academic text works. All the respondents had already taken the course Introduction to Linguistics, so they were acquainted with basic styles of writing and their attributes. Moreover, they had been exposed to a variety academic texts during the first term of their initial academic year. Thus, they were expected to identify basic academic text attributes, such as academic vocabulary, precise facts and figures, referencing system, complex grammar structures and cautious/tentative language (Mistrík 1997; Gura 2005). In the text, two surveys referred to were explicitly mentioned in line 32 (*Surveys like these…*) and summatively in line 33 (*the two surveys…*). In D2 (Q9), 74.34% of the entire corpus were able to correctly identify the number of sources; however, 29 students (25.66%) failed to do so in spite of numerous references.

Critical thinking also requires the ability to gather (deduce, anticipate, decode) a great deal of meta-information about the text and its discourse (Hanesová 2014; Piršl, Popovska and Stojković 2017), including identification of the assumed author or authors (if not stated) and his or her intentions (e.g. to inform, persuade, compare, synthetize, etc.) reflected in the genre of the text. In D3 (Q11), 73 students (64.60%) correctly identified the assumed author. In D4 (Q15), 97 students (85.83%) could identify the genre of a research article.

D 5 (Q12) was a synthetic type of question. Respondents were to critically evaluate the importance of the text for themselves and their community. Students were given the options of adding their own comments to the pre-selected options, selecting multiple options or none, if they felt that the options did not reflect the true value of the text. Quite surprisingly, only one student indicated more than one option and no student commented on the answers provided. That could indicate that the respondents submitted to the authority of the test; they did not dare to question the options even when encouraged to. In D5 (Q12), as few as 18 students (15.93%) could grasp the importance of the text.

With regards to the null and alternative hypotheses, the benchmark for "necessary critical thinking skills" was established as 81.56% correct answers. Table 3 shows that the entire corpus only exceeded 81.56% correct answers in D4—Identification of the genre (85.84%). In all the other questions, the ratio of correct answers was below 81.56%. In D5—Importance of the text for the individual, the ratio of correct answers was only 15.93%.

Slovak respondents: The Slovak sample unit consisted of 100 respondents. 74% Slovak students were motivated enough to read the article. 74% identified the correct number of references, 62% the assumed author and as many as 83% the correct genre of the article. However, only 15% could grasp the importance of the text for themselves and their community. With regards to the benchmark of 81.56% correct answers, the Slovak corpus achieved results similar to the entire corpus; only D4—Identification of the genre exceeded the benchmark (83%).

International respondents: Comparatively, international students were more motivated than Slovak students (by 18.31%), better prepared to identify the assumed author (by 22.62%) and number of references (by 2.92%), and better prepared to verbalize the overall importance of the text for themselves and their community (by

8.07%). The international respondents were only outscored by the Slovak respondents in genre identification (by 7.92%). In terms of the pre-set benchmark of 81.56%, the international respondents exceeded it in items D1 and D3.

The aim of the presented research was to determine whether Slovak university undergraduate students who continue in their studies (81.56%) have a good command of critical thinking skills when reading a new academic text. The research verified hypothesis H_0 in four out of five tested items (D1, D2, D3 and D5):

> H_0: 81.56% of first-year undergraduates do not have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

The alternative hypothesis was confirmed in only one item (D4):

> H_1: 81.56% of first-year undergraduates have the necessary critical thinking skills for academic reading.

If we compare the national and international corpus, the international respondents exceeded the correct answer ratio in two items (D1, D3).

4. Results

The research showed that:

- 23.89% of the entire corpus of first-year undergraduates lacked adequate interest in the topic of their future career (–5.54% in comparison with the benchmark 81.56%)
- 25.66% could not identify the accurate number of references (–7.22% / 81.56%)
- 35.40% could not identify the assumed author (–16.96% / 81.56%)
- an alarming 84.07% could not grasp the importance of the text for themselves and their community (–65.63% / 81.56%)

A positive result was that the respondents, having taken the course in Introduction to Linguistics and been in contact with academic texts, could identify the genre of the text above the correct answer ratio (+ 4. 28).

Potential reasons for this may be manifold; underachieving respondents need more guidance (perhaps a course in fundamental academic skills) in academic reading, evaluation and critical thinking. They also need a course in academic English in order to distinguish between terms such as *survey*, *literacy*, *research*, etc.

On the other hand, as Larson pointed out in *Critical Thinking in Slovakia after Socialism* (2013), the reasons may also lie more deeply in the history of the Slovak educational system, rooted in the traditional pragmatic approach to education. If we want to follow innovative trends in specialized didactics (Židová 2018), such as a student-centred approach and an adequate educational policy (Rošteková 2019; Kolečáni-Lenčová, 2020), and foster students' critical thinking, we need to focus on the essential characteristics and conditions that will allow for their implementation. Lipman summarises the importance of the fusion of teaching and leading out critical thinking: "Our contemporary conception of education as inquiry combines two aims—the transmission of knowledge and the cultivation of wisdom. […] The line of inquiry we are taking shows wisdom to be the characteristic outcome of good judgement and good judgement to be the characteristic of critical thinking" (Lipman 1988, 38).

As indicated by Browne and Keely as early as 1981 (1981, 8) and proved by the recent development in research of reading (Alderson 2005, Gavora 2012), reading comprehension and critical and independent thinking have become more integrated over the years: "…independent thinkers (S-1 strategy) strive to incorporate all known relevant knowledge (and the knowledge gathered via reading) and insight into their thought and behaviour. They strive to determine for themselves when information is relevant, when to apply a concept, or when to make use of a skill. They are self-monitoring: they catch their own mistakes; they do not need to be told what to do every step of the way" (Paul 1995). Moreover, they integrate their cultural awareness into the overall evaluation of the text and its meaning (Höhn, 2020) for themselves and their well-being. Thus the critical thinking framework which is based on the best theories and practices in this field and is suitable for any discipline (including reading comprehension training) and remains crucial to all students studying in academic courses, and to university teachers as well (Badinská and Bathgate 2016).

5. CONCLUSION

The present study analysed the reading comprehension and critical thinking skills of 113 first-year university undergraduates in humanities at Matej Bel University, Slovakia. Quite alarmingly, the entire sample unit reached the retention benchmark of 81, 56% in only one analysed item (D4-genre; 85.84%). They also seriously lacked the abilities needed to grasp the importance of the text (15.93% correct answers).

This research draws attention to a serious academic inconsistency—81.56% students who continue in their studies (i.e. professional readers) lack the academic skills to read professionally. Moreover, only 76.11% students are motivated to read about topics related to their studies and future professions, and even those lack abilities for effective reading: 35.40% were not able to identify the assumed author of the text, 14.16% could not identify the number of references and an alarming 84.07% could not identify the importance of the text, either by selection from the pre-set options or by using their own wording. As no similar research has been conducted in Slovakia, no comparable data are available; another setback of the research might lie in the limited number of questions testing critical reading sub-skills; in subsequent research, we also intend to verify quantitative results by interviews with respondents.

Our analysis of the sample unit's reading results suggests that Slovak students need more instruction and guidance in order to read effectively and think critically. A placement test of their initial skills upon entering academia as well as a customised course reflecting their real skills and potential to improve would help them to become more independent readers and to read more effectively and critically, which will eventually translate into their academic and professional success.

This article is the outcome of the project VEGA 1/0437/19 (Cultural and Educational Agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport or the Slovak Republic) entitled The importance of internationalization of university education for the construction of the EU identity and for the increase of competition in the European space.

This article is the outcome of the project VEGA 1/0118/20 (Cultural and Educational Agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport or the Slovak Republic) entitled Dyslexia as a linguistic-cognitive disorder and its symptoms in developing reading literacy in mother and foreign (English) Tongue.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 667−674
UDC: (378.147+8):61 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104667M

Original scientific paper

TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR MEDICAL PURPOSES WITH TECHNOLOGY: WHAT TO TAKE TO THE DIGITAL CLASSROOM

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Abstract. *The article focuses on the experience of online language learning in the time of the COVID-19 pandemic at Sechenov University (Moscow, Russia). Due to the differences in accepted professional communication practices in medical sphere in Russia and abroad there is a need of commenting, propagation and constant focusing on the part of the instructor. The aim of this research was to obtain a clear and a detailed picture of medical students' attitude towards the change in the mode of delivery in teaching languages for medical purposes, which occurred during the lockdown and triggered a sudden shift in the roles. We analyzed the technologies used, the alterations to the academic content, modes of delivery, and the student's attitude towards ESP/EMP employing mainly a quantitative methodology of gathering and analyzing data. The survey of the students showed that, though there is a strong preference in favor of technology use and more independent learning, they fully understand the role of the instructor in the process.*

Key words*: ESP/EMP, technology, online learning, communication skills*

1. INTRODUCTION

The foreign language, due to its meta-disciplinarity, is a unique subject where methods of teaching and the selection of academic content are largely governed by the age of the students, their needs and previous competences. When it comes to English for medical purposes in Russia, it means that at the basic level the students need the skills enabling them to understand the professional text properly and retract necessary information from it (Марковина, Ширинян 2012): listen to a lecture, read a textbook or an article, take notes, identify, understand and express the main idea, supporting details, comparison and contrast, stance, arguments, references, cause and effect. These skills are provided for all first-year medical students within a compulsory language course. In senior years, they need the skills which would support participating in clinical and research conferences: applying for participation in a research conference, writing and submitting research articles, reading and summarizing articles in a foreign language, understanding and completing hospital charts, understanding and writing letters of reference, discharge letters, taking a history,

Submitted June 8th, 2021, accepted for publication July 10th, 2021
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examining the patient, discussing diagnosis, explaining investigations, treatment, effects of medication, etc. These routine jobs involved in professional communication are entangled by the difference in accepted communication practices in Russia and abroad, which require commenting, propagation and constant focusing on the part of the instructor.

The COVID-19 pandemic and the following lockdown led universities all over the world to rethink modes of delivery for a number of subjects, including the foreign language, in terms of use of technologies which allow for continuing of learning in isolation. While the issue of the influence on the pandemic on the modes of delivery in foreign language teaching required further investigation, there is already some feedback on the use of technology in language teaching ranging from reviews of online training courses on teaching English online (Codreanu 2020) to the use of technologies by ESP practitioners in specific countries (Constantinou, Papadima-Sophocleous 2020), suggestions for professional development (Constantinou, Papadima-Sophocleous 2020), challenges of online language learning (Krishnan et al. 2020), the effect of developed blended learning model on learning outcomes (Syahri et al 2020), motivation for online language learning (Prasangani 2020), and the attitude of the students to online language learning (Tamayo-Maggi 2020).

The papers mentioned here show a spectrum of attitudes to online teaching and learning varying across the nations and probably from university to university but the authors generally agree that online methodology and resources should be well integrated with the traditional classroom learning to fit the students' needs.

Thus, the aim of this research is to obtain a clear and a detailed picture of medical students' attitude towards the change in the mode of delivery in teaching languages for medical purposes, which occurred during the lockdown. The transfer to online classes occurred overnight revealing sensitive gaps in the students' readiness to study all the subjects of university curriculum online.

2. Materials and Methods

The study mainly employed a quantitative methodology of gathering and analyzing data. The tool used for the data collection was an online questionnaire administered using Google Forms for students. The questionnaire contained 11 open-ended questions that were compiled based on literature review, and interviews with the students and the faculty members (see Appendix 1).

The respondents were the students of the program "Translation for medical purposes". The questionnaire was completed in Russian. By January 30, 2021 there were 100 completed questionnaires returned.

The questions were centered around the novel practice of online learning including the software used for online classes, digital tools, the advantages and limitations of online language classes, the suitability of online classes for the acquisition of communication skills, The proportion of oral and written activities, the changes of the students' attitude to learning the language, the conclusions about the feasibility of online learning the language, and the preferred course structure and mode of communication. The respondents were offered several options to choose and could also leave their comments.

3. RESULTS

The absolute leader among the applications used for communication by 100% students and teachers was ZOOM. As optional applications tried a single time, students mentioned Google Meet and Skype (6% each), Yandex Telemost (3%), Google Hangouts and Google Classroom (1% each) (Table 1).

As for digital tools used at an online lesson, students selected screensharing function (92%), chatroom 70%, Google Classroom 68%, listening to recordings during the conference 67%, watching video during the conference 62 %, breakout rooms 56%, using whiteboard 44%, Google Documents 38% (Table 2).

When asked about the changes in the amount of face-to-face online learning, more than a half of the students believed that the number of oral (63%) and written (57%) assignments done in class remained unchanged as compared to offline leaning (Table 3).

Much in the same way, more than a half of the students reported no changes in the scope of oral or written homework (57% and 56%, respectively) (Table 4).

The skills more easily acquired online were ranged by the students the following way: first came active listening (36%), then writing (34%), speaking (23%), and reading (7%) (Table 5).

The changes in the attitude towards learning after the online experience were described by the students in the following way: 64% admitted they could better manage their time while learning online, 46% started feeling more responsible as the result depended entirely on themselves, 27% felt less responsible as there was no immediate contact with the teacher, only 6% believed that online classes were keeping them from managing their time properly (Table 6). The students also commented that learning became more comfortable as they could join the class from any spot with internet connection, their attendance had improved, they had less fear of speaking the foreign language. There was also an alarming comment that "some teachers started to be less responsible about marking the students' papers".

The most important advantage of learning/teaching the foreign language online was seen by the students as an opportunity of making a screenshot of the assignment and using it while preparing for the next lesson (78%). The next valuable option, in the students' opinion was seeing the corrections in their papers immediately on the screen (46%), 43% saw as an advantage the opportunity to compare their own papers and the papers of other students, 39% marked the opportunity to simultaneously edit the same document and see the alterations at once, 35% saw as an advantage the opportunity to record a part of a lesson or the whole lesson, 34% the opportunity to learn the language with a native speaker, 19% valued the opportunity of marking out the text for reading right on the screen, and 5% admitted that they have never done anything of the above (Table 7).

The students commented on the advantages of online learning the following way: "I don't have to waste time commuting", "I can quickly make a summary of the lecture on my computer", "I can join the class at any time whereas when I had to come to the lecture room, I was always late and often missed classes".

As for the limitations of online learning and teaching, the students believed that the principal one was bad connection (42%) closely followed by inability to concentrate when learning at home (37%) and having to concentrate more on the technical side of preparation (35%), 26% pointed out that it was rather difficult to ask the teacher questions or ask for explanation, 15% chose as a limitation the inability of their counterparts to use digital tools properly, 5.1% expressed an opinion that foreign language cannot be learned online (Table

8). Among the comments, there were regrets that some teachers used free ZOOM accounts, which did not allow for full functionality, but the majority of comments were that the shortcomings were easy to overcome.

When asked to select true or false statements about learning the foreign language online, 61% of students chose “learning the language online is a logical result of the development of technology”, 55% “learning the foreign language online gives a lot of new exciting opportunities”, 35% “it is more difficult to learn the foreign language online than offline”, almost equal number (33%) believed that “it is easier to learn the foreign language online than offline”, and only 5% considered that “the foreign language cannot be learnt online” (Table 9).

As the preferred mode of learning the foreign language 27% of the students chose MOOC + doing assignments in Google Classroom + learning online with a teacher, 22% preferred MOOC + doing assignments in Google Classroom + learning offline with a teacher, 20% preferred Google Classroom + learning online with a teacher, and 13.1% (13) - Google Classroom + learning offline with a teacher. Learning the language offline with a teacher, learning the language online with a teacher, MOOC + learning the language online with a teacher each was preferred by 5% of students each (Table 10).

5. Discussion

Blended language learning experience at Sechenov university was not a deliberate choice but rather the effect of the pandemic. Although there had been efforts to integrate a LMOOC into the course in the framework of “flipped classroom” the idea of face-to-face communication with the students through an online service, let alone fully online learning, had never been put forward.

Currently existing delivery models for online language learning - formal online language courses; virtual worlds; LMOOCs (Language Massive Open Online Courses); online language learning communities; and mobile apps for language learning (Hockly 2015) – though undoubtedly cost-effective, have a number of limitations.

Its heavy reliance on tests in progress assessment (formal online language courses, LMOOCs, mobile apps), or lack of assessment (virtual worlds, online language learning communities). In the ideal world, the former would lead to the acquisition of “standardized” speech patterns applicable in a limited number of situations, which definitely will not promote free communication, the latter – to picking up speech patterns from counterparts in communication which may be understandable but incorrect or running counter social and professional conventions.

From the student’s perspective, online learning demands clear motivation, good time management skills and responsibility. In the medical student’s busy routine, motivation can easily be inhibited by more pressing challenges, as for responsibility and time management skills, the survey showed that the students do not consider them to be their strong points: 46% of students admit feeling more responsible after the experience of online learning as the result depends entirely on themselves, but 27% (about 1/3) feel less responsible as there is no immediate contact with the teacher; 64% of students admit they can better manage their time, 6% say they cannot manage their time, for 30% of students the situation has not changed.

With this in mind, the course looked very much like “old wine in new bottles” (Bates 2015), face-to face communication was held as a ZOOM conference (the choice of both the instructors and the students) supplemented by doing written assignments in Google Classroom. Zoom was chosen due to its wide functionality and user-friendly interface. Both media allowed for effective communication but excluded immediate contact between the people taking part in the process. Unfortunately, sometimes it was impossible to make the most of the all-important tools: only 70% of students had an experience of using breakout rooms (indispensable when roleplaying, or performing any individual task in small groups online).

On the part of the students, there is an expectation of multi-component (blended) learning with a strong preference (57%) of ZOOM face-to-face classes.

6. Conclusion

Integration of learning with technology is definitely subject-specific and goal-specific. Learning a foreign language independently is acceptable if there is no need for certification and the only goal the student is planning to achieve is communication limited to speech understanding. Since learning a foreign language for medical purposes implies not only understandable and grammatically correct speech but also sticking to certain social and professional conventions it demands continuous participation of an instructor whose role is permanent assessment of the students' activities, explaining mistakes and making them another useful tool of learning.

As online teaching seems to have become an integral part of university educational process, we find the data obtained in this survey both important and useful. Based on the data obtained in this paper, we have started to design professional development programs for the faculty that focus on particular digital skills mentioned by the survey participants. This will help to bridge the gaps, which hinder online activities at language classes. Another idea is that some of the subjects of medical translation program will be digitalized as the students find this form of learning more efficient, which is a positive outcome of the changes brought by the current COVID-19 pandemic.

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APPENDIX 1

Table 1. Which applications, web-services or web-based platforms were you using during the pandemic to learn the foreign language?

Choice options	Students' choice
ZOOM	100%
Google Meet	6%
Skype	6%
Yandex Telemost	3%
Google Hangouts	1%
Google Classroom	1%

Table 2. Which digital tools were you using to learn the foreign language?

Choice options	Students' choice
Screensharing	56%
Chatroom	70%
Google Classroom	68%
Listening to recordings during the conference	67%
Watching video during the conference	62%
Breakout rooms	56%
Whiteboard	44%
Google Documents	38%

Table 3. How did the scope of face-to-face work change after going online?

Choice options	Students' choice
No changes in the scope of written assignments	63%
No changes in the scope of oral assignments	57%
More oral assignments	27%
More written assignments	20%

Table 4. How did the scope of homework assignments changed after going online?

Choice options	Students' choice
No changes in the scope of written homework	57%
No changes in the scope of oral homework	56%
More written homework	36%
More oral homework	15%

Table 5. Which skills are more easily acquired online?

Choice options	Students' choice
Active listening	36%
Writing	34%
Speaking	23%
Reading	7%

Table 6. How did your attitude towards learning change after the online experience?

Choice options	Students' choice
I can better manage my time	64%
I started feeling more responsible as the result depends entirely on me	46%
I feel less responsible without immediate contact with the teacher	27%
I cannot manage my time	6%

Table 7. What are the advantages of learning a foreign language online?

Choice options	Students' choice
I can make a screenshot of the assignment and using it while preparing for the next lesson	78%
I can see immediately on the screen the corrections in my papers	46%
I can compare my papers and the papers of other students	43%
We can simultaneously edit the same document and see the alterations at once	39%
I can record a part of the lesson or the whole lesson	35%
I can learn the language with a native speaker based abroad	34%
The teacher can mark out the text for reading right on the screen	19%
I have never done anything of the abovementioned	5%

Table 8. What are the limitations of learning a foreign language online?

Choice options	Students' choice
Bad connection	42%
I cannot concentrate when learning at home	37%
I have to concentrate more on the technical side of preparation	35%
It is more difficult to ask the teacher questions or ask for explanation	26%
Other participants have difficulty using digital tools	15%
Foreign language cannot be learned online	5.1%

Table 9. Which statements about learning a foreign language online are true?

Choice options	Students' choice
Learning the language online is a logical result of the development of technology	61%
Learning the foreign language online gives a lot of new exciting opportunities	55%
It is more difficult to learn the foreign language online than offline	35%
It is easier to learn the foreign language online than offline	33%
Foreign language cannot be learnt online	5%

Table 10. In which mode would you prefer to learn the foreign language?

Choice options	Students' choice
MOOC + doing assignments in Google Classroom + learning online with a teacher	27%
MOOC + doing assignments in Google Classroom + learning offline with a teacher	22%
Google Classroom + learning online with a teacher	20%
Google Classroom + learning offline with a teacher	13%
MOOC + learning the language online with a teacher	5%
Learning the language offline with a teacher	5%
Learning the language online with a teacher	5%

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 675−692
UDC: 811.111’255 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104675M

Original scientific paper

DEVELOPING A HYBRID DIDACTIC COURSE IN ESP

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Abstract. *This paper proposes a hybrid didactic ESP course, which comprises Blended Learning, Flipped Classroom and Project Based Learning with adequate activities. The paper shows that most of the proposed activities stipulate a high fulfilment indicator, and a correlation between a proper selection of didactic materials and the degree of students´ achievement and satisfaction at the end of each course.*

Key words: *English for Specific Purposes, Blended learning, Flipped Classroom, Project Based Learning*

1. INTRODUCTION

This research comes from the intention to improve the current training offer of English language at the National Reference Centre for Chemistry of Cartagena (Spain) and adapt it to new realities and needs. In order to do that, an analysis of the situation of the sub-sectors of Chemistry regarding their training offer in English was implemented. Starting from that, several steps were followed:

- Determination of those sub-sectors in which there are important needs of English language.
- Evaluation of the current training offered and if there is an external and certified evaluation.
- Analysis of the present and future situation concerning demand of the English language in the occupations of Chemical industry.

To determine aforementioned sub-sectors, we analysed all the universe subject to scrutiny. Once we had all companies and associations we prepared a questionnaire which we placed in a web page to be able to collect data from the questions. This questionnaire was posted to mentioned companies. This questionnaire included questions on identifying characteristics of the company, questions on the use of the English language and on training. From gathered data we obtained indexes of dispersion / centrality according to answers, by applying simple statistical criteria, giving rise to statistical indexes such as median, standard deviation and relative standard deviation. From that study we achieved some relevant information concerning on the English language profile of the workers, sub-sectors in which English language was a demanding feature, those linguistic

Submitted March 29th, 2021, accepted for publication May 10th, 2021
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competences requested by the jobs and significant areas of usage, quality of the training offer, and obviously some keys to improve training on the English language.

Then, a hybrid approach in the teaching-learning process was prepared, including a complete revision of the offer of ESP courses at the National Centre resulting in this proposal, which was tested in the implementation of five courses.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Blended learning is a pedagogical hybrid approach defined by a series of varied processes. Graham (2013) defines blended learning as face-to-face teaching (or synchronous) with online teaching being (asynchronous). Research developed on this has reinforced the idea of students' improvement (Dziuban and Moskal 2011; Dziuban, Hartman, Cavanagh, and Moskal, 2011; Means, Toyama, Murphy, and Baki, 2013). It is important to stress that there have been five meta-analysis studies in the last decade on the impact of blended learning related to its efficiency (Zhao, Yan, Lai, & Tan, 2005; Sitzmann, Kraiger, Stewart, and Wisher, 2006; Bernard, Abrami, Borokhovski, Wade, Tamim, Surkes, and Bethel 2009; Means, Toyama, Murphy, Kaia, and Jones 2010; Bernard, Borokhovski, Schmid, Tamim, and Abrami 2014), having results favouring the introduction of blended learning in contrast to face-to-face teaching.

Margulieux, McCracken and Catrambone (2016) define blended learning courses using the following categories:

- Location: the specific place in which it is developed.
- Distribution media.
- Learning system: traditional, active, etc.
- Synchrony: simultaneous activities developed at the same time.

The implementation of teaching using this methodological approach boosts the self-regulated learning process, following Whiteside, Dikkers and Lewis' (2016) considerations. The introduction of this type of learning methodology gives rise to the usage of new elements and technological tools (Sife, Lwoga and Sanga, 2007). In this didactic intervention, the following have been introduced:

- A system of learning management.
- Tools of virtual communication, such as electronic mails and forums.
- Documents and manuals to be downloaded.
- Flipped classroom.
- Project based learning.

In this hybrid experience, the flipped classroom has been introduced. Olaizola (2014, p.1) states that «the flipped classroom is a specific way of blended learning, a model integrating face-to-face and on-line learning». Walvoord and Johnson Anderson (1998), proposed a model of a flipped classroom in which students, before going to class, have a first approach with contents, and it is in the classroom where the comprehension of the content is achieved (synthesize, analyze and resolve problems). Lage, Platt and Treglia (2000) applied a methodology of flipped classroom to a university course on economy. These authors prepared some didactic materials to be worked on before going to class. Time in class was devoted to explaining activities, debates and discussions in which economic principles were analysed and applied. Crouch and Mazur (2001) proposed a methodology in which the materials are worked on by students before actually going to class, and class is devoted to mini-lessons and conceptual questions on the materials. Bergmann and Sams (2012), together with Fornons and Palau (2016) also applied the flipped classroom, achieving an evident improvement regarding students' participation as well as their attitude, favouring a positive working atmosphere. Marlow (2012) implemented a didactic experience with university students, noticing an important decrease in the students' stress levels. On the other hand, Flumerfelt and Green (2013) applied this technique to secondary students with learning difficulties, resulting in an increase of online participatory processes out of the classroom. Roach (2014) and Elliott (2014) obtained positive results when applying this methodology, observing a rise in activities outside the classroom. It is also important to stress O'Flaherty and Phillips' work (2015) exposing multiple synchronous and asynchronous activities. The results of this experience demonstrated the great motivation developed by students, as well as an increase in students' learning efficiency. Cieliebak and Frei (2016) and also Jonsson (2015), evaluated non-technical competences in Engineering students using a flipped classroom, observing better results compared to those obtained using traditional methods. Perdomo (2016) stated that the application of the flipped classroom develops assertive communication, significant learning and students' motivation.

PBL is one of the resources mentioned for blended learning. In this model, students plan, implement and assess projects applied to different environments beyond the classroom (Blank, 1997, Dickinson, et al, 1998, Harwell, 1997). Currently, we are attending to the development of teaching methodologies focused in students' learning and showing a greater involvement of the students in the teaching and learning process (Vega et al., 2014). With this we are introducing active methodologies and, among them, PBL. In this methodology, students play the main role in the educational process; the teacher being a mediator (Vizcarro et al., 2008). It is worth mentioning that this method has been widely used in university teachers' training (Benítez et al, 2013). PBL encourages students to learn, as well as working in a collaborative way in groups searching for solutions to a problem posed by teachers. It is also an extraordinary help in the acquisition of self-paced learning (Saverv, 2006) with students being able to learn autonomously and reaching far better results (Thomas et al., 1999). PBL can be a key tool to develop some competencies, such as working in a collaborative way, using social networks, motivation, creating and problem solving. Students working in PBL environments are able to express a major problem-solving capacity (Finkelstein et al., 2010).

In accordance with the present experiment on the use of Blended learning in ESP courses, including flipped classroom and PBL, bearing in mind the previous research on the sub-sectors in which a training need in English language is needed, the following research question is formulated: can this hybrid approach improve the students' results in terms of the European Framework of Reference for Languages?

3. Methodology

3.1. Analysis of the current situation of the sub-sectors in which training in English language is needed

The methodology used to carry out this analysis was a descriptive analysis with a qualitative approach. To have precise knowledge of the situation (Montalbán, 2019), a questionnaire was created on a web page, with the aim of collecting data. This questionnaire was posted to companies and associations belonging to FEIQUE (Federación Empresarial de la Industria Química Española), in September 2012. In accordance with its web page, FEIQUE represents the majority of the chemical sector, «a strategic sector for the Spanish economy, comprising 3,300 companies, with an annual invoicing of 65,647 million Euros, generating 13.4% of the Gross National Income, and 670,000 jobs in Spain. The chemical sector is the second major exporter of the Spanish economy, and the first industrial investor of R+D and environmental protection». In addition, the aforementioned questionnaire was also posted to companies, business partnerships and technological institutes, not belonging to FEIQUE.

An analysis of the questions on training states that only 12% of the companies have a specific offer on English language training and 58% of those companies consider the implementation of training courses on English language to be urgent, as the training offer of 32.56% is insufficient. It is worth mentioning that almost 100% of the answers express the conviction that the labour horizon in the chemical sector is directly dependent on the knowledge of the English language. Regarding the external certification of the English language, the vast majority of companies rely on the Official School of Languages. Nevertheless, Cambridge ESOL Examinations and Trinity College London are also used. We could also infer from the study the following results:

- The main workers who need the English language belong to the following departments: Purchase, Sale, Administration and R+D, representing 41%. Analysis and Control is 36%, and Production and Training 23% (Fig. 1).
- The subsectors of Pharma chemistry and Basic Chemical Products are the most demanding concerning the English language.
- The average needed level is «independent» with 50%, representing the «basic» and «proficient» 25% each one (Fig. 2).
- The quantity of business in English language is 85-95%.
- From all answers, only 4.5% have an external accreditation (Fig. 3).
- Writing business documents in English (Report, Invoices, Budgets, emails, etc., are 33% (Fig. 4).
- Speaking English in personal interviews and phone contacts is 50%.
- 70% of the companies have a web page in English.
- The following factors should be improved: Communication and oral expression (60%), Development of specific texts (29%), Lexis and Grammar knowledge (8%) and Motivation (3%) (Fig. 4).

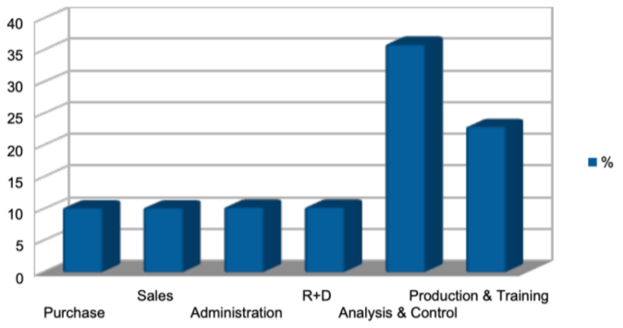

Fig. 1. Distribution of workers using English in departments

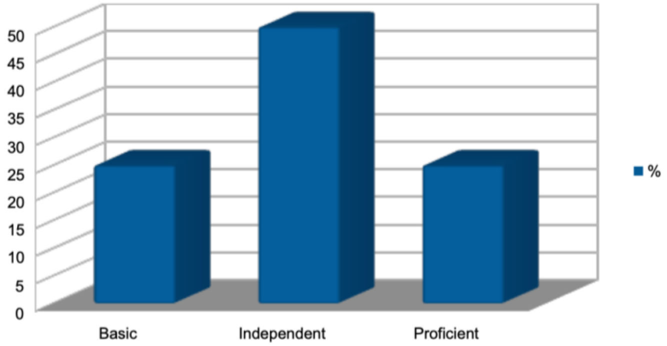

Fig. 2. Most demanded levels of English

Fig. 3. External certification of the English level

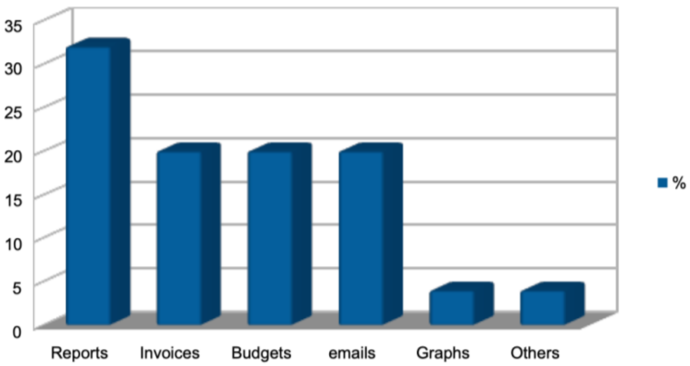

Fig. 4. Documents written in English

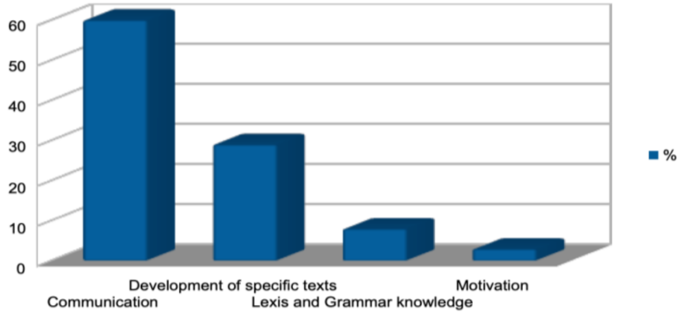

Fig. 5. Factors to be improved

3.2. Contextualization

To implement this didactic experience, five two-hundred-hour courses with 15 students in each one were used. These courses were implemented at the National Reference Centre for Chemistry of Cartagena (Murcia, Spain) from 2013-2018 and were on the following subjects:

- English for Quality Control (developed three times)
- Technical English for the Chemical Industry
- Technical English for the Chemical Laboratory

These students were attending a course on non-destructive testing in Spanish at the same time, and some of them hold a university degree in engineering or chemistry. They also took a placement test including the four skills (speaking, writing, listening and reading) at the beginning of the course to know their levels in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Bearing in mind the importance of interactive teaching and obviously the need to promote that interaction, and that learners' attitudes towards the subject content of the texts should be taken into consideration, the teacher prepared some materials. The contents of this course were decided after discussions with the teachers who developed this course in Spanish, and always bearing in mind the contents previously studied. These contents were as follows:

Table 1. Contents of the course

English for Quality Control CONTENTS	
What is NDT?	NDT Certification Levels
What is NDE?	Certification Requirements
Some NDT/NDE Technologies	Certification Examinations
Ten Good Reasons to Consider a Career in NDT	Glossary of Terms for PT
What Do NDTers Do?	Glossary of Terms for MT
Where do people in the NDT industry work?	Glossary of Terms for UT
What do people in NDT do?	Glossary of Terms for RT
NDT Certification	Glossary of Terms for ET
Technician versus Engineer	Glossary of Terms for VT
The Science of Nondestructive Testing	General Nondestructive Resource Books and links
What to Study in Preparation for an NDT Career	N.D.T. Bilingual Dictionary
NDT Methods	

3.3. Design and development of the didactic experience

This project consisted of five stages:

- Initial evaluation to assess students' knowledge of English language using the European Framework of Reference for Languages.
- Implementation of synchronous and asynchronous activities.
- Final evaluation to assess students' knowledge on English language using the European Framework of Reference for Languages and to observe students' improvement.
- External evaluation with Trinity GCSE Examination.
- Final questionnaire on the whole course.

3.2.1. Initial evaluation

To properly assess students' initial stage on English language in the four competences, the receptive ones (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing), students took a placement test calibrated between A1 and C2.

3.2.2. Implementation of synchronous and asynchronous activities

To develop the above courses, a series of sequenced activities orientated to a final project were implemented. Those materials were introduced in the tool MALTED and consisted of:

- Audios.
- Videos.
- Specialized texts.
- Web pages' links.
- Associated exercises to the materials (crosswords, writings with different typologies such as summaries, descriptions, reports, grammar exercises, etc.).

For this work, some didactic materials have been elaborated with the computer tool, Multimedia Authoring for Language Tutors and Educational Development (MALTED Project). This tool, developed specifically for teaching languages, allows students to do practices outside the classroom using TIC's. MALTED is the result of a project by an Educational Multimedia Task Force, supported by the European Union within the framework of Telematics Applications programmes, Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci, within the framework in the learning of languages assisted by computers. It is important to stress that this tool has involved the participation of qualified experts in multimedia programming and education in the U.K, France, Ireland and Spain. In MALTED there are two integrated working environments, the Editor MALTED (DVE) and the Browser MALTED (RTS). The Editor MALTED is really a visual developer for the exercises, as well as work units automatically generated by the XML code. It presents multiple templates that generate exercises for the teaching of languages, as well as text, images, graphs, audio and video, to record the voice by means of an external microphone. In addition, this browsing environment allows students to visualize and complete the exercises and it also offers marks. MALTED received technical support from the Ministry of Education, which managed its maintenance. MALTED provides students with the following advantages:

- It supplies a simple, intuitive and attractive learning environment.
- It does not have a cultural orientation and it is open to multiple didactic approaches.
- It has the necessary flexibility to adapt multimedia materials in different formats.
- It is easy to use.

In addition, Google sites were created with the following options:

- Documents and assignments, with relevant information for the development of the course (texts and a daily program including tasks with deadlines).
- Videos, podcasts and multimedia, with associated videos and audios.
- References, with links to online dictionaries, related pages, etc.
- Forum, in which permanent discussions were organized around the basic contents of the subject, with questions which triggering students' debates.

It is important to highlight that, to implement this didactic experience, some written didactic resources in English coming from an educational web page (NDT Resource Center) were introduced. To analyze the characteristics of this ESP and take that into account in students' written and oral productions, a tool called Coh-Metrix was used. In accordance with its web page, Coh-Metrix is a tool which produces indexes in linguistic and discourse representations in a text. An important point to comment on is that these indexes are used in different ways to study cohesion of a text and coherence in the mental representation. In the following tables we can see the most important indexes of Coh-Metrix.

Table 2. Indexes of Coh-Metrix

Number	Label	Document
13	PCNARp	3,75
15	PCSYNp	94,95
17	PCCNCp	27,09
19	PCREFp	5,26
21	PCDCp	52,79
23	PCVERBp	1,5
25	PCCONNp	3,14
27	PCTEMPp	86,86
104	RDFRE	32,939
105	RDFKGL	10,622
106	RDL2	17,848

In the following table, each index is explained:

Table 3. Explanation on the indexes of Coh-Metrix

Number	Label	Document
13	PCNARp	Narrativity expressed in percentage. It advises us on how familiar words used in English are.
15	PCSYNp	Syntactic simplicity in percentage. It is saying how small are the nominal phrases.
17	PCCNCp	Precision in percentage. It offers the incidence of common words, to avoid abstract terms.
19	PCREFp	Referential cohesion in percentage. It says in which way the same idea is referred in two close sentences.
21	PCDCp	Deep cohesion in percentage. It expresses the incidence of use of intentional connective or causal phases.
23	PCVERBp	Referential cohesion in percentage. It is informing in which way the same verb is referred to in two close sentences.

Number	Label	Document
25	PCCONNp	Connectivity in percentage. It expresses the incidence of connectors which communicate sentences in an adversative, additive or comparative way.
27	PCTEMPp	Temporality in percentage. It informs on the incidence of temporal connective phrases.
104	RDFRE	Flesch Reading Ease. Easability of reading in English in percentage.
105	RDFKGL	Flesch kincaid. Technical grade of academic difficulty in English.
106	RDL2	Readability for non-native speakers.

From the analysis of the above Tables 2 and 3, the following conclusions can be reached. The didactic resource has sentences with a high simplicity, a large number of scientific terms of a very high level, which is observed in the low narrativity. Nevertheless, the concepts used do not have a significant concreteness because there are many abstract terms. Moreover, it can be observed that there are not many causal connective sentences, and as there is no reference to concepts (neither nouns nor verbs), it means that it is not characterized by its argumentations. Another feature that should be highlighted is that there is a significant number of temporal connective sentences, in line with texts showing procedures. As referential cohesion of verbs is not stressed over the referential cohesion in general, the didactic materials corresponds with a glossary of terms.

In accordance with the theoretical framework developed before, the characteristics of the ESP to be studied in the didactic materials, the didactic guides of the aforementioned courses (English for Quality Control, Technical English for the Chemical Industry and Technical English for the Chemical Laboratory) were improved and updated. The following series of tasks were developed in all courses:

- Group discussion. Teacher starts interaction by asking students about the importance of NDT, the role played by technicians and engineers in society, and their areas of special expertise and interest in NDT. This task facilitates interaction among all members of the group and content generation.
- The following task is comprehensive reading. Students read a text and learn vocabulary related to NDT.
- After that, students watch a video during which they take notes around the different NDT methods and their importance in industry.
- The next task improves the development of language, allowing students to become familiar with the meaning of specific words, link words with their meanings, use words in sentences and develop a bilingual dictionary (English-Spanish) on NDT.
- Then students prepare a report, organizing ideas with this outline: Aim, Equipment, Procedure and Conclusions. At this stage, students simulate a real situation in which they have to deliver a report to the chemical industry they are working for.
- Now, the class is divided into pairs, starting with an interaction between an NDT technician and a worker, to whom precise instructions should be given on how to proceed when a bridge is damaged. In this situation, vocabulary learned in class is practised. This activity is particularly interesting for students since it is a link with the real world.
- Finally, preparation for Trinity GESE Examination, considered as a final project, triggers interaction among candidates and the examiner.

Table 4. Series of tasks in all courses

Tasks	Type of interaction
1) Group Discussion	Group Work
2) Reading Comprehension	Individual Work
3) Watching – Listening Comprehension	Individual Work
4) Language Development Activities: a. Matching words with meanings b. Using words in sentences c. Creating a bilingual dictionary on NDT d. Writing a Report	Pair/Group work
5) Roleplay	Pair/Group work
6) Final Project: Preparation for Trinity GESE Examination	Individual and Group work

3.2.3. Final evaluation to assess students' knowledge on English language using the European Framework of Reference for Languages and observe students' improvement

To assess students' level of English, the same placement test was taken a second time.

3.2.4. External evaluation with Trinity GESE Examination

Following Trinity College https://www.trinitycollege.com/ web page, «Graded Examinations in Spoken English (GESE) are individual exams, face to face with the examiner, evaluating speaking and listening abilities». This exam comprises the following points:

- Conversation: it is a real opportunity to exchange information.
- Defence of the topic: previous to the exam, candidates prepare a topic to be defended.
- Interactive phase: the examiner starts the interaction with the candidate by making a suggestion.
- Listening: so that the candidate demonstrates predictive, deductive and inference skills.

3.2.5. Final questionnaire on the whole course

A Likert or psychometric scale was used at the end of the course with a questionnaire of twenty-three questions by means of Google forms, divided into four sections: conclusions of the analysis of the current situation of English language in the chemical sector and included in the ESP course (questions from 1-17), flipped classroom (questions from 18-20), PBL (questions from 21-22) and external certification (question 23. Students responded from 1 to 5, where:

- 1 is never.
- 2 is sometimes.
- 3 is often.
- 4 is usually.
- 5 is always.

Table 5. Final questionnaire

Section 1	Does the course meet the demands of the department of Analysis and Control? Does the course meet the demands of the department of Production and Training? Does the course meet the demands of the department of Administration and R+D? Does the course meet the demands of the department of Purchase and Sale? Have you acquired the level of English you desired, from your initial level? Do you prefer the official school of languages as a certification body? Do you prefer Cambridge ESOL Examinations as a certification body? Do you prefer Trinity College Examinations as a certification body? Were your practices good on reports? Were your practices good on invoices? Were your practices good on budgets? Were your practices good on emails? Were your practices good on Graphs, Tables, Images, etc.? Have you improved your abilities on Communication? Have you improved your abilities on the development of specific texts? Have you improved your abilities on lexis and grammar? Have you improved your abilities on motivation?
Section 2	Was your experience good in the flipped classroom? Was your experience good on the tool MALTED? Was the combination of asynchronous and synchronous activities and the direct incidence on your learning process positive?
Section 3	Was working in a collaborative way in groups searching for solutions to a problem posed by the teacher positive for your learning process? Was the final project regarding your learning process good?
Section 4	Do you consider positive your external certification with a Trinity GESE Examination and the direct incidence on your learning process?

4. RESULTS

4.1. Initial evaluation

The evaluation starts with a placement test including the four skills (oral examination, listening test, written test and reading comprehension activity), to be able to know students' initial level in accordance with the European Framework of Reference for Languages. The results are as follows:

- A1.1: 73%.
- A2.1: 20%.
- A2.2: 7%.

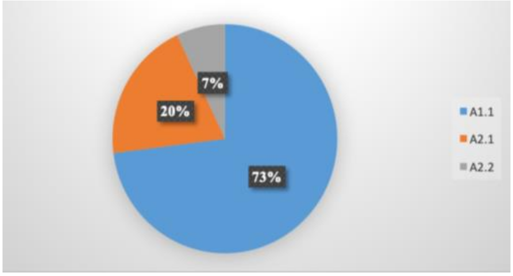

Fig. 6. Results of the placement test

4.2. Final evaluation

In this evaluation, students took the same initial evaluation and the results were as follows:

- A2.2: 80%.
- B1.1: 7%.
- B2.2: 13%.

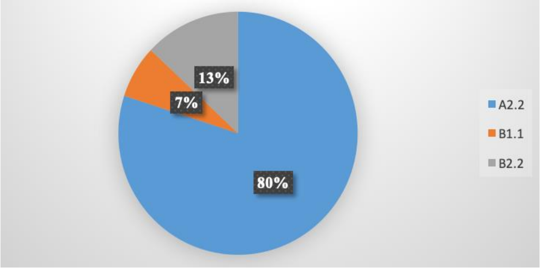

Fig. 7 Results of the final evaluation

4.3. External evaluation

With this Trinity examination, students achieved the following results:

- Grades 3/4 (A2): 47%.
- Grades 5/6 (B1): 53%.

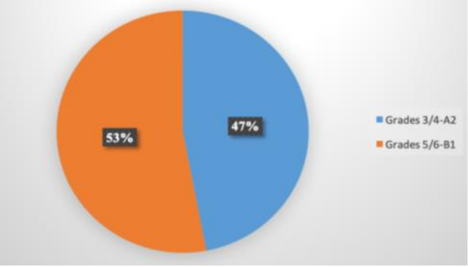

Fig. 8 Results of the external evaluation

4.4. Final questionnaire on the whole course

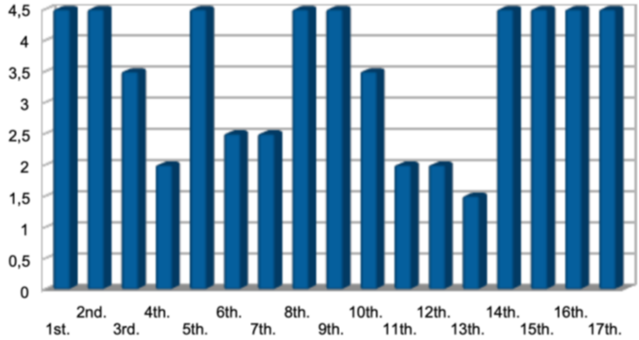

Fig. 9 Questions on the conclusions of the analysis of the current situation of English language in the chemical sector

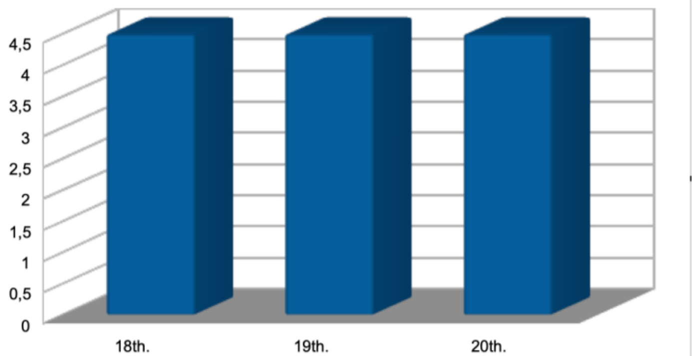

Fig. 10 Questions on the flipped classroom

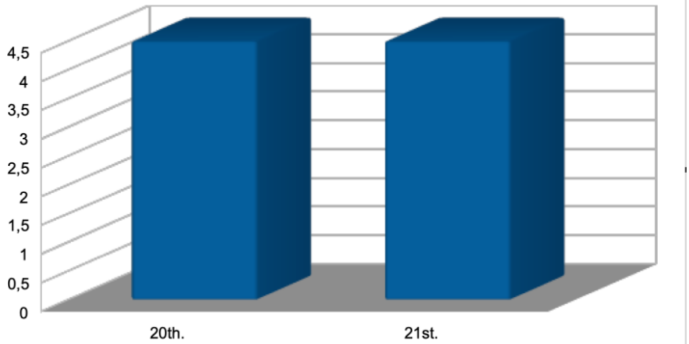

Fig. 11 Question on the PBL

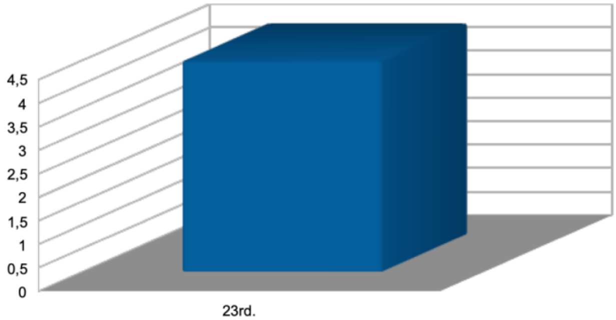

Fig. 12 Question on the external evaluation

4. Discussion

From the above results, the following considerations should be highlighted:

There has been a considerable improvement starting from the initial evaluation in which there was a result of A1 73% and A2 27%, continuing the final evaluation with A2 80%, B1 7% and B2 13%, and ending with the external evaluation of Trinity GESE Examination (A2 47% and B1 53%). Below, there is a Figure explaining this positive evolution in which 1 is the initial evaluation, 2 is the final evaluation and 3 is the external evaluation:

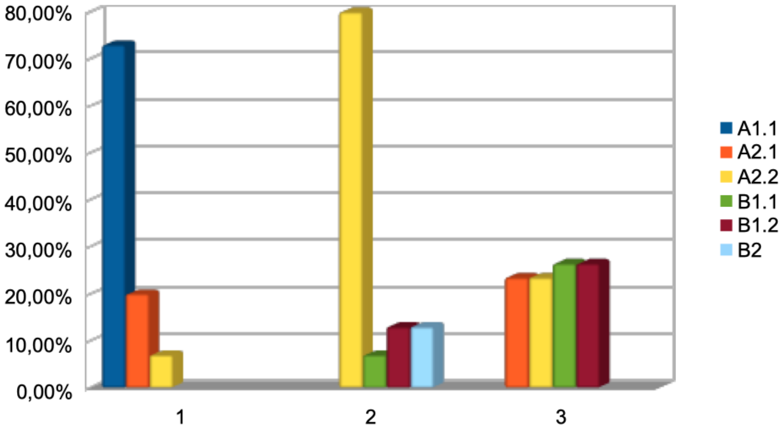

Fig. 13. Students' improvement in the three evaluations

Referring to the final questionnaire based on a Likert scale from 1-5, fifteen questions achieved 4.5, two questions 3.5, two questions 2.5, three questions 2 and 1 question 1.5.

Consequently, most questions achieved an excellent result, except for questions 13 (1.5), questions 11, 12 and 4 (2) and questions 6 and 7 (2.5). Question 13 referred to practices with graphs, figures, etc. Budgets and emails are other aspects which were probably not dealt with in enough depth. Another aspect which does not have definitive or clear results is that of the certifications bodies preferred by students.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Introducing this hybrid proposal combining blended learning, flipped classroom, PBL, as well as the use of MALTED and a selection of materials, has proved to be a positive and enriching one, in accordance with the results discussed above. Moreover, the series of tasks implemented in all courses with the combination of synchronous and asynchronous activities has resulted in more dynamic classes (outside and inside the classroom). The final project is a bridge to the real world by offering students the possibility to apply everything they have learned in a task (GESE Trinity Exam) involving conversation, defence of a topic, interaction and listening.

It is worth mentioning the possibility of introducing blogging, which has resulted in improvements based upon empirical research (Yakut and Aydin, 2017; Sauro and Sundmark, 2018; Fithriani, Rafida and Siahaan, 2019; Montaner-Villalba, 2019) at tertiary level, and Montalbán (2019), who explored blogging in the teaching of ESP, in a learning framework based upon projects (PBL) done with university students, resulting in positive results.

In answer to the research question on whether this hybrid approach improved the students' results in terms of the European Framework of Reference for Languages; from the data obtained, a significant improvement in results can be observed. Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the hybrid approach explained above is worth considering when choosing didactic proposals for ESO courses.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 693−702
UDC: 811.111:7 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104693B

Original scientific paper

RHETORICAL ANALYSIS IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASSES: GENDER-BASED DIFFERENCES IN STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE SPEAKER

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Abstract. *The paper points out the benefits of rhetorical analysis and rhetorical criticism in developing business communication skills. At Zagreb School of Economics and Management, both the American and the European approaches to business communication have been combined, with LSP courses taught in the first year and business communication and rhetoric courses taught in the second year. An experiment was conducted on a sample of 99 students, including 57 female and 42 male participants, who were asked to assess the teenage activist Greta Thunberg and her speech at the UN Climate Action Summit in 2019. The research focused on the role of gender in perception of quality, the attractiveness of the speech, the use of ethos, pathos and logos, persuasiveness and the influence potential. The results showed that male students gave lower grades to Greta and her speech, unlike the female students, who would also be more willing to change their behavior as a result of listening to Greta's speech. Nevertheless, these differences were statistically significant only for a limited number of questions. The potential gender bias should be addressed in the rhetoric and business communication course design. Exposing students to a diverse set of speakers increases their critical thinking skills, ensuring higher objectivity and bias-free assessment of speakers including their peers.*

Key words*: business communication, rhetorical analysis, rhetorical criticism, gender bias, student assessment*

1. INTRODUCTION

Since its foundation in 2002, Zagreb School of Economics and Management (ZSEM) has had a different approach to language and communication studies compared to long-established Croatian business and economics faculties. This approach could be described as a mixture between the American and the European tradition in business communication teaching and research as outlined in Mautner and Rainer (2017) and Bargiela-Chiappini (2009). The European business discourse research and teaching stem from applied linguistics methodologies, focusing on text analysis, LSP phraseology and terminology, and enhancing basic language skills in business-related contexts, including languages other than English (Nickerson and Planten, 2009). Courses offered by Croatian faculties reflect that approach both in the names of the courses (Business English, Business German) and the type of

Submitted July 6th, 2021, accepted for publication August 13th, 2021
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textbooks (e.g. English for Business Studies by Ian Mackenzie). On the other hand, American universities have been teaching business communication, as a sub-discipline of business administration, since the beginning of the 20th century, focusing on teaching business communication skills to native speakers. Initially, the discipline heavily relied on rhetoric only to become increasingly interdisciplinary, drawing from methodologies and theories in closely related disciplines such as organizational behavior, management, marketing, cultural studies, literary analysis, and so on (Andrews, 2009).

At ZSEM, in the first year, students take English for Economist and Business English courses, where mandatory literature includes textbooks such as English for Business Studies (Ian Mackenzie, Cambridge University Press) and Market Leader (Cotton, Falvey and Kent, Pearson). In the second year, there are mandatory Rhetoric and Business Communication courses. Mandatory literature for the latter includes Business Communication Today by Bovée and Thill (Pearson), which starts with primary concepts such as the basic communication model and continues with effective communication, intercultural skills, communication planning, communication media, types of business messages, business reports and presentations, employment correspondence and so on. The Rhetoric course covers topics such as audience profiling, speech composition, argumentation, listening, fallacies, debate, speech performance, etc. Mandatory literature for the course is The Art of Public Speaking by Stephen Lucas (McGraw-Hill Education).

The research presented in this paper stands at the intersection of the courses mentioned above, relying on the knowledge and skills that students acquire therein such as critical listening, context analysis, message structuring, argumentation, and public performance. A sample of ZSEM students were asked to listen and assess a speech of the teenage activist Greta Thunberg at the UN's Climate Action Summit in 2019. Since one of the aspects the rhetorical analysis focuses on is the gender-based difference in the perception of speakers, which is further explained in the Literature Review section of this paper, we wanted to find out whether such differences exist in our sample. Our research confirmed the existence of such a difference; therefore, in the final section of our paper we discuss the implications this might have on the content of communication courses.

2. Literature Review

The first part of the following section provides an overview of the role of rhetoric and public speaking in business communication. Audience analysis and rhetorical criticism can be valuable tools in teaching communication skills: rhetorical criticism enhances students' listening and critical-thinking skills, while a good analysis of the audience is a prerequisite for proper preparation of the speech including rhetorical devices and communication channels. The second part of this section focuses on possible gender-based differences in the perception of speakers. As the presented literature suggests, female and male listeners may perceive and evaluate speakers differently depending on their gender, which may have implications on the content of rhetoric and business communication courses so that students become aware and know how to avoid this bias.

2.1. Rhetoric and Business Communication

Business discourse can be considered a "social action that takes place in different contexts as a means of completing a set of work-based tasks" (Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson, and Planken, 2013 in Ilie, Nickerson, and Planken, 2019: 4). Therefore, teaching business communication should be focused on helping students to use oral and written communication effectively in their workplace (Ilie, Nickerson, and Planken, 2019). The context of the workplace is very important for business communication teaching, as well as the notion of the audience (which, in its broadest sense, includes both internal and external audiences). That is why rhetoric is an important element of most business communication courses, with context and audience being studied in detail within the field of rhetoric. Zanola (2016) gives an overview of public speaking content in business communication manuals from the beginning of the twentieth century and concludes that the majority have devoted more pages to rhetoric than to business writing, which underlines the importance of public speaking skills in a business context. On the other hand, Lee (2019: 3) points out how "numerous studies address rhetorical theory and practice in business communication, but relatively few works focus on rhetorical criticism". The author proposes that rhetorical criticism be incorporated in business communication courses through analysis of public speeches of business leaders. "Integrating rhetorical criticism into business communication expands and strengthens its research efforts and enlarges the pedagogical domain'' (Lee, 2019: 7). Furthermore, rhetorical criticism can be incorporated through listening and critical thinking exercises by analyzing speeches and learning more about good and fallacious arguments. This is important since the current job market rewards people who are capable of communicating clearly and effectively (Ortiz, Region-Sebest, and MacDermott, 2016). Research also shows that listening skills are among the most understudied and untrained ones but are very important in the workplace (Sullivan, 2011).

Zanola (2016) points out that business communication and public speaking courses should be adapted to the audience (i.e. business students) especially when choosing examples of speeches for analysis, her suggestion being to use examples from the business context. Crosling and Ward (2002) emphasize that both informal and formal contexts of oral communication are important for the future workplace - in other words, it is not enough to teach students only formal oral forms such as presentations. Based on the above, it can be concluded that there is room for improvement in teaching public speaking whether it is taught separately or as a part of business communication courses. Students should be introduced to different oral forms used in the business context while relying on rhetorical analysis and criticism.

2.2. Gender-based differences in perception of speakers

Bias in the perception and evaluation of the speaker is very important - both in the higher education context but also in the business world. Yet, not a lot of research has been done on how, on the one hand, the gender of the speaker influences evaluation scores, and how the evaluator's/listener's gender influences the perception of the speaker on the other. The reason for that may be that it is especially difficult to exclude all the different variables that may influence the perception or the evaluation results, such as the content, cultural background, experience of the listeners, etc. One complex variable is definitely the gender itself. Namely, when analyzing gender differences, one has to be careful and not look at gender as just biological sex, but rather as a social construct (Wodak and Benke, 1998). Nevertheless, some research has been done on gender differences in the evaluation of speakers, mostly with student-student evaluations, or student-professor evaluations, as such data is widely available due to the evaluation requirements in the higher-education system. The following literature overview shows that results presented in the examined studies are not coherent, even though there are several similar conclusions about gender bias in speaker perception.

Feldstein, Dohm, and Crown (2001) explored the correlation between gender and speech rate in the perception of competence and social attractiveness. Their results showed that the listeners' gender did not influence their perception of social attractiveness, but the speaker's gender did. Male and female listeners perceived the male speakers as more socially attractive than the female ones (Feldstein, Dohm, and Crown, 2001). Somewhat similar to this are the results by Langan et al. (2005). Their study showed that male listeners tended to grade male speakers a bit higher than female speakers, whereas female listeners did not show gender bias while grading the speakers. Since the goal of the study was to examine the validity of the peer assessment that is subject to potential gender bias, Langan et al. (2005) conclude that naive evaluators may be gender-biased, but the overall effect of the peer assessment is still a positive learning experience for those involved. In contrast, Sellnow and Treinen (2004) found no significant differences between the overall ratings of the male and the female speakers. They also conclude that "these results are encouraging in that student peer critiques apparently can function as equitable pedagogical tools, as long as students are properly inoculated" (Sellnow and Treinen, 2004: 294). However, they did find the difference in open-ended comments. While a majority of students reported that they had been persuaded to accept the position of the speakers they heard, a significantly greater majority was persuaded by the male speaker than by the female speaker. This is in line with the previous findings by Aries (1996) and Bradley (1981) about the gender bias in favor of the male speakers (Sellnow and Treinen, 2004: 294).

In addition, some recent studies, done on large amounts of data, show gender bias in the evaluation of lecturers by the students, with female lecturers being awarded statistically significant lower grades than the male ones (Fan, Shepherd, Slavich, Waters, Stone, Abel, et al., 2019; Friederike, Sauermann, and Zölitz, 2019), even when the content is the same (MacNell, Driscoll, and Hunt, 2015). Based on the above, it can be concluded that male speakers are often assessed as more socially attractive and more persuasive than female speakers.

In Zanola's opinion, "future research needs to address how social factors such as gender, age, etc. may influence the outcomes of studies conducted on public speaking" (Zanola, 2016: 334). Therefore, for this paper, gender bias in the perception of the speaker will be tested among students of the business communication and rhetoric courses at the Zagreb School of Economics and Management. The results may help further improvement of the peer evaluation of student presentations, but also better understanding of the students' perception of the speaker.

3. Methodology

In this part, we firstly present the research questions and hypotheses and then move on to the composition of the sample, which is quite specific due to the international orientation of ZSEM. Finally, we present the research methods and the procedure.

3.1. Research questions and hypotheses

The goal of this paper was to examine differences between male and female students regarding their ecological awareness, attitudes, and perception of the famous environmental activist Greta Thunberg as a speaker at the UN summit. Taking into account the literature presented above, two research questions were posed:

1. To what extent do female and male students differ in their attitudes to Greta and her speech? Is this difference statistically significant?
2. For which questions are those differences more profound?

Based on these research questions, two hypotheses were proposed. The first hypothesis takes into consideration previous studies, especially the one by Langan et al. (2005), who found out that the male listeners were biased in favor of the male speakers. Our experiment involves only one female speaker, thus:

H1: Male students will assign Greta and her speech lower grades on the Likert scale.

H2: There will be a statistically significant difference between the female and male students regarding their attitudes towards Greta Thunberg.

3.2. Sample

The sample was made up of a total of 99 students; of which 57 were female and 42 male. The questionnaire was administered during the first-year English for Economists and second-year Business Communication and Rhetoric classes. Students studying in Croatian completed the questionnaire in the Croatian language, while students studying in English and international students completed the questionnaire in the English language (Table 1). At ZSEM, the economics and management study program is executed both in Croatian and English languages, which includes the above-mentioned courses.

Table 1 Gender distribution per language of the questionnaire

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td>Female</td><td>Male</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Questionnaire in Croatian</td><td>17</td><td>18</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Questionnaire in English</td><td>ZSEM students</td><td>26</td><td>18</td></tr>
<tr><td>Exchange students</td><td>14</td><td>6</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Total</td><td>57</td><td>42</td></tr>
</table>

Some of the international students were regular ZSEM students, while others were exchange students from all around the world. While the international ZSEM students were mostly first- and second-year students, the exchange students (20% of the sample) were second-, third-, fourth-, and even fifth-year students. Table 2 shows the distribution of students by gender and by academic year for both the Croatian- and English-language programs.

Table 2. Gender distribution per study year

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td>Female</td><td>Male</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Study year</td><td>First</td><td>24</td><td>24</td></tr>
<tr><td>Second</td><td>24</td><td>14</td></tr>
<tr><td>Third</td><td>5</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Fourth</td><td>3</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Fifth</td><td>1</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Total</td><td>57</td><td>42</td></tr>
</table>

It is important to point out that second-year ZSEM students at the time of the survey had almost completed their Rhetoric course. They represent around 38% of our sample, where the approximation is due to the unknown number of the exchange students in the sample who have taken the Rhetoric course at ZSEM or their home institutions.

Up to that moment of the semester in the Rhetoric course, second-year ZSEM students have already analyzed several speeches both in the form of a video recording and text. These were speeches by contemporary speakers, politicians, business leaders, and actors, such as Jacinda Ardern, Barack Obama, Donald Trump, Elon Musk, Steve Jobs, and Leonardo DiCaprio as well as famous historical speeches by Socrates, Aristotle, Demosthenes, Winston Churchill, Emma Golden, Martin Luther King, etc. Students have learned about persuasion, rhetorical devices (ethos, pathos, and logos), and adaptation of the speech to the audience mostly in the Rhetoric course, but also in the Business Communication course.

3.3. Research methods

In December 2019, when the experiment was conducted, Greta Thunberg was already a well-known person among Croatian and international students studying at ZSEM. Since her first „School Strike for Climate" in front of the Swedish parliament in August 2018, she managed to attract hundreds of thousands of students to organize and participate in climate strikes all around the world (School strike, n.d.). She held a dozen of speeches at the highest international fora (Cerovski, 2020), including the U.N.'s Climate Action Summit in New York City on September 23, 2019, which was assessed by ZSEM students. Both the topic of climate change, which affects (inter)national economic policies, and the contexts she appeared in as a speaker (U.N., European Parliament, World Economic Forum, etc.) make Greta Thunberg a legitimate case to be studied in the business communication courses.

The experiment was conducted during English for Economists, Rhetoric, and Business Communication classes. After the initial discussion about Greta Thunberg and school strikes for climate, students were shown the video of the above-mentioned speech, after which they filled out the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered via Google Forms, in English or Croatian, depending on the language of instruction for a particular group of students. It was made up of 15 questions distributed across three different categories: demographic questions, attitudes towards environmental issues, and evaluation of Greta Thunberg's speech. While many of the questions were subjective and measured students' attitudes and perceptions, there were also questions where students had to show their knowledge of argumentation strategies, audience profiling, and presentation structuring. Most of the responses were measured against the Likert scale and there were also several yes/no questions.

3.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using Microsoft Excel in order to check whether there is a statistically significant difference in the answers of female and male students. For the purpose of testing differences between the population mean, a t-test for unknown population variances was performed. An F-test was done to determine the equality of population variances. This is a t-test where population variances are unknown but are assumed to be equal. The F-test showed that there is no difference between population variances regarding all the questions from the survey. The t-test was used to test the differences between the responses of the male and female students for each question.

4. Results and Discussion

The goal of this study was to examine if there is any gender bias among students in their assessment of Greta Thunberg and her speech and if there is any, in which questions it can be found. As many students have already gained speech analysis experience in their Rhetoric class, they weren't completely naive evaluators. The results of their answers to the survey are in the tables below.

Table 3 Student assessment against a 5-point Likert scale

Question	Female mean	Male mean	p-value
Assess your ecological awareness on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (fully)?	3.24	3.38	0.376
Assess the persuasiveness of Greta's message on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (completely)?	**3.24**	**2.76**	**0.073**
How did you like her speech on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (excellent)?	**2.94**	**2.5**	**0.087**
To what degree is her speech adapted to the audience on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (fully)?	3.38	3.14	0.342
To what degree was the speaker interesting on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (fully)?	**3.45**	**2.83**	**0.014**
To what degree was the speech emotional on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (fully)?	4.03	3.80	0.365
To what degree was the speech logical on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (fully)?	**3.35**	**2.78**	**0.021**

Table 4 Student assessment using yes/no questions

Question	Female		Male		p-value
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Does Greta Thunberg have credibility as a speaker at the UN summit?	36.36%	63.64%	33.33%	66.67%	0.730
Was the speech supported by convincing arguments?	61.40%	38.60%	54.76%	45.24%	0.507
Would you change your behavior as a result of listening to her speech?	**31.31%**	**68.69%**	**16.67%**	**83,33%**	**0.073**

As can be seen from Tables 3 and 4 above, female students awarded Greta a higher average grade for each question in the survey in comparison to male students. The only difference is for the first question, where they were supposed to assess their ecological awareness. Male students on average assessed themselves as more ecologically aware than female ones in this study (3.38 vs. 3.24). In comparison to their female peers, it seems that male students are more critical of the female speaker but less critical of themselves. As can be seen from the data in Table 3, the average grade for all the questions rarely goes above 3 for male students, while it is closer to 3.5 for female students.

However, the statistical analysis showed that the difference between the male and female students is statistically significant only for two questions: how interesting the speaker was (p=0.014) and how logical the speech was (p=0.021). The difference was marginally significant for three questions: assessment of Greta's persuasiveness (0.073), of how they liked the speech (0.087), and whether they would change their behavior as a result of her speech (p=0.073).

Furthermore, the questions in which male and female students show statistically significant differences are particularly interesting. The questions regarding the speech and the speaker can be divided into two groups: one group of questions concerns rhetorical appeals (ethos, pathos, and logos) and adaptation of the speech to the audience, while the other group questions their attitude to the speech and the speaker (whether they liked it, whether it was interesting, whether they would change their behavior because of it). Most ZSEM students of the second year involved in the survey learned about rhetorical appeals in detail in the Rhetoric class and had to analyze other speeches applying the knowledge they had about them. The same cannot be said about the first-year ZSEM students, and some exchange students participating in this study, which makes this sample limited. If all participants in the study were second-year ZSEM students, it could be expected that their answers to questions involving the knowledge of rhetoric would show no statistically significant difference. Nevertheless, female students across our sample found Greta and her speech more logical as well as more persuasive than male ones and this difference was statistically significant. In addition, female students awarded Greta on average higher grades for credibility (ethos), logic (logos) and emotion (pathos), and, consequently, found her more persuasive.

The other set of questions, regarding their attitudes towards the speaker and the speech, also manifested some significant differences between the two groups. Female students found the speech more interesting than male ones, they liked it more and would change their behavior as an effect of it. This again may be due to gender bias, since the speaker and female listeners are of the same gender. Also, these questions aren't directly connected with the rhetorical knowledge or analysis, but more with the preference of the listener and the effect the speech and the speaker have on him or her.

Previous studies by Sellnow and Treinen (2004) and Langan et al. (2005) showed that there seems to be a bias in favor of the male speakers. Since in our study there was no male speaker to compare with, we can only infer that there is a negative bias by male students towards the female speaker. These results need to be interpreted with caution since the sample of the listeners and especially of the speaker(s) is limited.

In conclusion, we can say that the first hypothesis was supported, and the second one was only partially supported. Male students did assign Greta and her speech on average lower grades compared to their female peers, but the difference in assessment was statistically significant only for a limited number of questions.

This conclusion, however, cannot be generalized, as both the speech and the sample were quite peculiar. Greta Thunberg was an atypical speaker: a teenage activist who gave a very emotional speech at an international political forum. On the other hand, our sample of listeners was made up of students from different study years, which means they did not have the same knowledge base. Furthermore, a fifth of our sample were exchange students, whose background and cultural experience differs from that of the Croatian students and as such may affect their attitude and perception of a teenage activist and her speech (see Rajh and Biočina, 2021).

5. CONCLUSION

Despite its limitations, the study resulted in ideas for innovation of the communication courses curricula. Historically, great orators were men, which is reflected in the traditional rhetoric courses. The ZSEM rhetoric course already contains examples of strong female speakers, such as the prime minister of New Zealand Jacinda Ardern, but it needs to include more women, especially female business leaders, to achieve a better gender balance. Since there is a general trend in the society to embrace diversity as well as to increase the number of women in managerial positions in the business world, it is only logical to expose students to as many different speakers as possible. It was already pointed out that rhetorical criticism exercises sharpen students' listening and critical thinking skills. Therefore, it could be expected that, once they have acquired rhetorical knowledge from good examples, their assessment of various speakers, including their peers, would be more objective and free of different types of bias.

Finally, in the globalized business world, it is important to speak English as a global *lingua franca*, but it is even more important to be able to influence and persuade the increasingly diversified audience. In order to achieve this, students should receive solid and more politically correct rhetorical and business communication knowledge and exercise their public speaking and presentation skills for various contexts throughout their university education.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 703−713
UDC: 811.111:141.2 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104703I

Original scientific paper

IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC ON HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF THE REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

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Abstract. *Pandemic was a serious test for higher education institutions that showed the extent to which professors and students have adopted and used all the advantages of new technology in teaching. This is exactly what this research aims for - assessment and comparison of the performance of students who attended traditional classes before the pandemic, and online and combined during the pandemic. This research will show whether the way of teaching affects class attendance and activity of students. Data were collected from traditional classes (March - July 2019), online classes (March - July 2020) and combined classes (March - July 2021). The main research question in this study is whether there was a difference in the success of students who attended classes in the traditional way, online or by combining these two models. To obtain the results, a t-test of independent samples was used with the calculation of the mean and standard deviation. This relevant research shows which approaches and methods of teaching English for students gives the best results, given the specifics of its implementation and the need for interactivity during teaching.*

Key words: *students' success, Covid 19 pandemic, traditional teaching, online teaching, combined teaching*

1. INTRODUCTION

Covid-19 pandemic has changed the field of education forever. The invisible enemy forced all instructors, especially those who were technologically illiterate, to start using computers overnight in order to continue teaching their students. Professors and students alike had to adapt to new methods of teaching and learning and find different approaches that were suitable to online teaching (Đurović 2021). Suddenly it became clear how important and significant this new teaching mode is in the time of crisis (Halilović 2020).

Many countries have imposed dramatic policy changes to enforce their rules and regulations, seeking to protect their communities from becoming victims of this pandemic and to ensure continued high levels of productivity and performance (Stawicki, et al. 2020).

The main role of the education is to adapt and direct behavior of the groups and individuals in order to contribute development of the society, interpersonal toleration and maximal development and usage of the skills and knowledge that improve economy and

Submitted July 5th, 2021, accepted for publication September 15th, 2021
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economic growth (Zovko 2014) (Dušanić - Gačić and Agić 2021). According to the definition, faculties are in the process of educating independent scientific-educational institutions that have a triple function: they educate highly professional staff for various areas of social life and productive work, organize and improve the appropriate scientific field and form scientific staff (Trnavac and Đorđević 2013).

Pandemic was a serious test for higher education institutions as key institutions of higher education. COVID-19 tested the extent to which professors and students are willing to adopt and use new technologies, by switching to online teaching, which has emerged as the only solution in a situation where the virus has spread unstoppably. It is undeniable that information and communication applications enhanced by Internet technologies have proven to be powerful tools and have played a significant role in the rapid development of online learning (Kurilovas and Kubilinskiene 2020).

The World Health Organization (WHO) declared the outbreak of COVID-19 a global pandemic on March 11, 2020. The term "pandemic" is defined as "an epidemic that occurs worldwide or in a very wide area, crossing international borders and usually affecting large numbers of people" (Doshi 2011).

The virus was first discovered in December 2019 in Wuhan, China, and caused a lasting pandemic (Hui, et al. 2020). The first case was discovered on November 17, 2019 in Hubei, China (Ma 2020). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the first case of coronavirus was reported in Republic Srpska entity[1], March 5, 2020. As early as March 10, the Government of the Republic Srpska issued a proclamation that all schools and higher education institutions were to be closed for twenty-one days. As of March 30, a ban and restriction on movement and work, as well as all types of public gatherings, are introduced, and this measure remained in force until April 13. The Republic Headquarters for Emergency Situations only extends the adopted measures, until November 2, when it returns elementary and high school students to school, without limiting the way of teaching at higher education institutions. Most of the faculties and colleges have opted for combined teaching, which is a combination of traditional and online teaching. Online teaching was the solution and the new "normality" of the educational process. New communicative models emerge and become a new normal state of mind (Babić, Muhić and Tica 2021). It has proven to be the best method for students and teachers, especially during the long locking phases (Yusuf 2020). Public and private higher education institutions have realized that online education is the only way to continuously provide quality educational services by minimizing contact to a minimum. What has not been sufficiently researched are the effects of online teaching in the educational process of students and this research is just an attempt to obtain this data, comparative indicators that can serve to improve work with students, regardless of which method we are talking about.

2. Literature Review

In developed countries, online teaching was conducted at some colleges and universities even before the pandemic. Studies conducted before the pandemic are available in the literature, comparing the successes of students who followed traditional classroom instruction with the successes of students who followed online instruction. The results of most surveys show that

[1] Bosna and Herzegovina is a state constituted of two entities: Republic of Srpska and Federation. Education is the sole responsibility of the entity governments.

there are no significant differences in learning satisfaction and academic success of these groups of students (Soesmanto and Bonner 2019) (Lorenzo-Alvarez, et al. 2019). Some authors suggest that university teachers, with appropriate training and technology support, conduct both traditional and online teaching, with the same efficiency and measurement scales for student scoring and assessment (Tan, et al. 2019). There is an opinion in the literature that the level of academic success in the final exam will be reduced among students who followed online classes due to lack of communication with teachers when they face difficulties in understanding the material (Sintema 2020). This attitude was confirmed in the conducted research, and the results show that the rapidly created methods of online teaching had the effect of reducing student performance compared to the results achieved by following traditional teaching (Nyer 2019). Some authors believe that the primary influence on individual grades in subjects has the average grade of students. Accordingly, students with a higher grade point average performed better in online classes, while students with lower average grades performed better in traditional classes (Cavanaugh and Jacquemin 2015).

The sudden transition to online teaching, after the proclamation of the Covid-19 pandemic, opened a series of questions about the advantages and disadvantages of this way of learning and teaching, about the problems and successes of students that they achieved by following online teaching. Short time and lack of learning resources stand out as key obstacles to the transition to online teaching (Hjelsvold, Bahmani and Loras 2020). However, the results of the research show that there is no statistically significant difference between the success of students who followed traditional and online classes (Said 2021). Students and teachers pointed out the lack of sufficient practice in online teaching, but both quickly adapted and showed a positive attitude towards change (Hjelsvold, Bahmani and Loras 2020). The available research identifies key issues that have arisen due to disruption of traditional education during the pandemic, and they are: inequality and digital divide that emerged during the pandemic, the need for additional assessment and evaluation of methods and the need to switch to formal assessment through harmonized and uncoordinated means and monitoring and control of exams conducted online (Bozkurt, et al. 2020). The challenges of online teaching have also been identified, and they are: availability, accessibility, flexibility, learning pedagogy, lifelong learning and educational policy (Murgatrotd 2020).

It is too early to assess how online teaching during the pandemic will affect education systems around the world, but there are indications that it will have an impact on the introduction of innovation in education. Most of the previously mentioned studies are related to the comparison of traditional and online teaching and cover a short period of time. The authors believe that the results would be more reliable if student success were monitored over a longer period of time. Therefore, this research was conducted using the data of three semesters during which traditional, online and combined classes were conducted.

3. Data and Methodology

On the global level, COVID-19 pandemic has caused discontinuation of the education for 1.6 billion children and youth all over the world (United Nations, 2020). Higher education institutions on the Western Balkans were closed, and teaching was suddenly transferred online for more than 600.000 students (World Bank Group, 2020). According to the before mentioned, a study which aim was estimation and comparison of the success of the students who participated to traditional education prior to pandemic, and then online and combined education during the pandemic. Besides that, the aim of this research is to determine whether the presence and the activity of the students during teaching process depend on the way of conducting the teaching process.

The research is based on the general hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the successes of students who follow traditional, online or combined classes. Due to the complexity of the research problem, two specific claims will be examined in the paper. According to the first, there is no significant difference between the presence of students in lectures and exercises that accompany traditional, online and combined teaching. According to the second, there is no significant difference between the activities of students who follow traditional, online or combined classes.

A total of seven variables were included in the research: gender of the student (Sex), study direction (Direction), class activity, class attendance (Attendance), total number of points (Total grades), final grade (Grade) and class attendance period (Period).

When assessing the differences in the success of students who attended traditional, online and combined classes, the dependent variable is the total number of points (Total grades), while the remaining variables are independent. When assessing the differences between student attendance and activity during traditional, online, and combined teaching, the dependent variables are Attendance and Class activity, respectively, and the remaining six variables are independent.

The comparison was made on the same subject, which was performed in three different ways (traditional, online and combined) at a private higher education institution in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The authors chose an obligatory subject, English, which is taken by all students, regardless of the field of study. Traditional classes were held in the spring of 2019, online classes in the spring of 2020 (lectures and exercises in the form of meetings on the Microsoft Teams platform, and all materials were available on the mentioned platform and on Moodle), and combined classes in the spring of 2021 (lectures and exercises were held in the classroom and in the form of meetings on the Microsoft Teams platform, and materials were given to students in class and were available on Microsoft Teams and Moodle). It is important to emphasize that the same materials (textbooks, power point presentations, case studies) were used in the lectures and that the tests were approximately at the same level. Regardless of the way of teaching, students had the opportunity to attend two hours of lectures and three hours of exercises per week, or 30 hours of lectures and 45 hours of exercises during the semester. Classes were taught by the same professors.

Student grading was identical in all three cases. The total number of points on the course is 100, and it represents the sum of points on the final exam (50 points) and points that the student achieved during the semester (50 points). During the semester, students attended lectures and exercises (up to 5 points), participated in class discussions (up to 5 points) and took two colloquia (20 points each, up to 40 points in total). Depending on the total number of points that students had, the subject professors formed the final grade (grade 6: 51-60 points, grade 7: 61-70 points, grade 8: 71 to 8 points, grade 9: 81 to 90 points and grade 10: 91-100 points). If the student had 50 or less points, it is considered that one did not pass the exam that is the student did not pass the exam.

The data necessary for the research were collected by the subject teachers, and the higher education institution gave its consent for anonymous data analysis and publication of results for academic purposes. Data were collected from traditional classes (March - July 2019), online classes (March - July 2020) and combined classes (March - July 2021). Data were processed using a statistical program *IBM SPSS Statistics Version 26*.

The main research question in this study is whether there was a difference in the success of students who attended classes in the traditional way, online or by combining these two models. To obtain the results, a t-test of independent samples was performed with the calculation of the mean value and standard deviation. Furthermore, the Chi-square test method was used to compare the distribution of students' grades for all ways of teaching. The research was conducted as follows: first, a comparison of the success of students who attended traditional and online classes, then a comparison of the success of students who attended online and combined classes, and finally a comparison of students who followed traditional and combined classes. Accordingly, the results of the research are presented.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to get the answer whether there is the difference in the results in students' success that participated different models of classes T-test of independent samples was used. The data were gathered on the success of 505 students, out of which 160 participated traditional classes in classrooms (31.7% of the total sample), 155 online classes (30.7% of the total sample), and 190 combined classes, both online and in classroom (37.6% of the total sample). The largest number of students is on the department Economy (204 students, that is 40.4%), followed by the students of the department Informatics (153 students, that is 30.3%) and Graphic Design (117 students, that is 23.2%), while the least number of students attend Media and Communication (31 students, that is 6.1%). Additionally 236 students are male (46.7%), while 269 students are female (53.3%). Data of the sample are gathered using descriptive statistics.

Authors analyzed the points that students collected during the semester and their final grades in order to determine whether the presence and activity on the classes, as well as their success are determined by the form of conducting classes. Correlation of the success is condemned using T-test, and comparison of grade distribution in observed groups is conducted using Chi-square test. The results are given in the following part of the study.

4.1. Results of the comparison traditional and online education

During the spring of 2019, students attended only traditional classes in the classroom (160 students), and the average grade they achieved was 8.89, with a standard deviation of 1,562. A year later, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, students followed only online classes (155 students) and achieved an average grade of 8.43, with a standard deviation of 1,910. The comparison of these two groups of students was performed using the T-test, and the results are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of student success in traditional and online teaching

Assessment items	Traditional education			Online education			Difference mean	t-Test value	p value
	Mean	St. dev.	N	Mean	St. dev.	N			
Attendance	3,77	1,209	160	3,49	1,434	155	0,278	1,860	0,064
Class activity	3,83	0,781	160	3,79	1,000	155	0,038	0,376	0,708
Total grades	82,01	14,924	160	75,77	21,590	155	6,232	2,971	0,003

The T-test of independent samples compared the points that students received for attending traditional and online classes. The results show that there was no significant difference in the number of points in traditional (Mean = 3.77, St. dev. = 1.209) and online (Mean = 3.49, St. dev. = 1.434) teaching. Further, a comparison was made of the number of points students received for activity in traditional teaching (Mean = 3.83, St. dev. = 0.781) and in online teaching (Mean = 3.79, St. dev. = 1,000). The obtained result shows that there was no statistically significant difference (p value = 0.064).

Using the T-test, the total number of points that students achieved during the two observed semesters was compared. The results show that students averaged 82.01 points when they attended classes in the classroom, with a standard deviation of 14,924. In addition, the results show that students scored an average of 75.77 points during online classes, with a standard deviation of 21,590. Here it can be noticed that there is a statistically significant difference between the number of total points that students achieved during traditional classes and the number of points that they achieved during online classes. Given the fact that a statistically significant difference was found, the magnitude of the impact was determined using the eta square, which represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (Total grades) explained by the independent grouping variable, and whose value can be from 0 to 1. In this case, the eta square is 0.0274 and indicates a small impact, that is, it shows that the teaching model affects the success of students in a very small percentage of 2.74%.

Further, the Chi-square test method was used to compare the distribution of scores for both groups and to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the distribution of grades. Table 2 provides an overview of the distribution of grades among students who attended traditional and online classes.

Table 2. An overview of the distribution of grades in traditional and online teaching

Period		Grade							
		5	6	7	8	9	10	Success	Fall
Traditional education	Count	8	13	8	22	18	91	152	8
	%	5,0%	8,1%	5,0%	13,7%	11,3%	56,9%	95%	5,0%
Online education	Count	16	26	8	10	15	80	139	16
	%	10,3%	16,8%	5,2%	6,4%	9,7%	51,6%	89,7%	10,3%

The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the grades obtained by students who followed traditional classes and students who followed online classes (N = 315, Chi-Square = 12,404, df = 5, p = 0,030). However, the correlation coefficient (Phi coefficient = 0.198) indicates a small impact, that is, a weak correlation between students' grades and the way they attended classes. Based on the data presented in Table 2, it can be concluded that students achieved better results in traditional teaching.

4.2. Results of the comparison online and combined education

Comparing the success of students who attended online classes (155 students) and the success of students who attended combined classes (190 students), it can be concluded that the average grade during online classes is 8.43 (St. dev. 1,910), while the average grade in students who attended combined classes was up to 8.58 (St. dev. 1,681). The results of the comparison are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of student success in traditional and online teaching

Assessment items	Online education			Combined education			Difference mean	t-Test value	p value
	Mean	St. dev.	N	Mean	St. dev.	N			
Attendance	3,49	1,434	155	3,65	1,375	190	0,066	0,602	0,194
Class activity	3,79	1,000	155	3,72	1,024	190	-2,015	-0,935	0,107
Total grades	75,77	21,590	155	77,79	18,429	190	- 0,162	-1,070	0,466

The obtained results show that there is no significant difference in the number of points that students received for attending online (Mean = 3.49, St. dev. = 1,434) and combined classes (Mean = 3.65, St. dev. = 1,375). Furthermore, the points that students received for activity during online classes (Mean = 3.79, St. dev. = 1,000) and combined classes (Mean = 3.72, St. dev. = 1,024) were compared, but also, in this case there is no statistically significant difference. Based on the data from the table, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the total points in students who attended online classes (Mean = 75.77, St. dev. = 21,590) and the number of points in students who attended combined classes (Mean = 77.79, St. dev. = 18.429).

Using the chi-square test, a comparison of the distribution of grades of students who attended online and combined classes was performed, and the results are given in Table 4.

Table 4. An overview of the distribution of grades in online and combined teaching

Period		Grade							
		5	6	7	8	9	10	Success	Fall
Online education	Count	16	26	8	10	15	80	139	16
	%	10,3%	16,8%	5,2%	6,4%	9,7%	51,6%	89,7%	10,3%
Combined education	Count	12	21	17	27	21	92	178	12
	%	6,3%	11,1%	8,9%	14,2%	11,1%	48,4%	93,7%	6,3%

The results of the chi-square test also show that there is no statistically significant difference between the grades obtained by students who followed online classes and students who followed combined classes (N = 345, Chi-Square = 10,549, df = 5, p = 0.061). Based on the above mentioned, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the success of students who attended online classes and the success of students who attended combined classes.

4.3. Results of the comparison traditional and combined education

Finally, the success of students who attended traditional classes (160 students) and the success of students who attended combined classes (190 students) were compared, and the results are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Comparison of student success in traditional and combined teaching

Assessment items	Traditional education			Combined education			Difference mean	t-Test value	p value
	Mean	St. dev.	N	Mean	St. dev.	N			
Attendance	3,77	1,209	160	3,65	1,375	190	0,116	0,841	0,401
Class activity	3,83	0,781	160	3,72	1,024	190	0,104	1,076	0,283
Total grades	82,01	14,924	160	77,79	18,429	190	4,217	2,365	0,019

The obtained results show that there is no statistically significant difference in the number of points that students received for attendance and activity in traditional and combined classes (p value <0.05). However, statistical significance was determined when comparing the total number of points that students achieved by following traditional classes and the number of points that they achieved by following combined classes (p value = 0.019). The magnitude of the impact was determined using the eta square (eta square = 0.015) and the obtained result shows that the way of teaching has a small effect on student success.

Using the chi-square test, a comparison of the distribution of grades of students who attended traditional and combined classes was performed, and the results are given in Table 6.

Table 6. An overview of the distribution of grades in traditional and combined teaching

Period		Grade							
		5	6	7	8	9	10	Success	Fall
Traditional education	Count %	8 5,0%	13 8,1%	8 5,0%	22 13,7%	18 11,3%	91 56,9%	152 95%	8 5,0%
Combined education	Count %	12 6,3%	21 11,1%	17 8,9%	27 14,2%	21 11,1%	92 48,4%	178 93,7%	12 6,3%

Based on the results of the chi-square test, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the grades of students who attended traditional and combined classes (N = 350, Chi-Square = 4.128, df = 5, p = 0.021). The correlation coefficient (Phi coefficient = 0.109) indicates a small impact, that is a weak correlation between students' grades and the way they attended classes. Based on the presented data, it can be concluded that better success was achieved by students who participated traditional classes.

After conducting the overall analysis, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the success of students who attended traditional and online classes, and the success of students who attended traditional and combined classes. The best results were achieved by students who attended traditional classes in the classroom. In the following period, it is necessary to use digital technologies and the Internet as powerful tools to improve foreign language teaching, and in order for students to reach the same level of knowledge achieved in traditional teaching (Živković and Stojković 2013). The obtained result was confirmed in previously conducted research which shows that students who participated traditional classes had better results in the final exam (Nyer 2019) (Sintema 2020). On the other hand, the results of most of the conducted research show that the success of students does not depend on the way of teaching (Soesmanto and Bonner 2019) (Lorenzo-Alvarez, et al. 2019) (Said 2021).

5. Conclusion

Evaluation and comparison of the performance of students who attended traditional classes before the pandemic, online and combined during the pandemic, which was the main goal of the research; showed that students achieved the best success in traditional classes. This is shown by the results of the research, where it is noticeable that the performance of students is better in traditional teaching compared to online and combined teaching, and this can certainly be explained by the fact that the students are accustomed to this approach and method of work. The fact is that the real reasons for the obtained result could be explained by additional qualitative empirical research, which is why students who were born and raised in the digital environment, unlike professors who arrived in the digital world in the later years of their lives (Išaretović 2017) traditional way of teaching in classrooms is closer and why they achieve better results working in classrooms "face to face" with professors. Some previous researches show that students are not interested in online learning (e-learning) because it is less enjoyable than traditional learning (Hasan and Bao 2020).

This research should serve as an initial capsule for other private and public faculties in the country and the surrounding area, whose future research would contribute to obtaining short-term and long-term implications of different teaching methods. The integration of online learning in the Education Development Strategy of the Republic of Srpska 2021-2025, would greatly help to position online learning as an equal way of teaching, with a number of adjustments that are implied. Here it is primarily referred to the design of attractive curricula for online teaching. Classes should not be conducted according to the curriculum of traditional teaching (Lee, Lim and Kim 2016) (Chung and Cheon 2020). Higher education institutions must increase the speed of the Internet connection and constantly update purchased applications for conducting online classes. A special segment of the story is the strengthening of digital literacy among students, and especially among professors, through continuous courses and education so that professors can make the most of all the benefits of online interaction with students. Also, it is the responsibility of professors to instruct students very clearly and specifically in assignments, colloquia and exams during online classes.

Based on the conducted research, some of the recommendations are: curriculum renewal, new curricula, clear and concrete tasks for students, fast and stable internet connection, constant updating of applications and platforms through which online teaching is performed, daily assistance by experts (services) to students and professors during the application process for transferring applications academic content, developing and strengthening of digital literacy among professors and students.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 715−724
UDC: 811.111'243 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104715S

Original scientific paper

ENGLISH FOR OTHER LANGUAGES: A NEEDS ANALYSIS OF FUTURE POLYGLOTS AT A FRENCH UNIVERSITY

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Abstract. *This paper presents the results of a needs analysis of second year undergraduates, majoring in various foreign languages (except for English) at the Institut National des Langues et Civilisations Orientales in Paris, France. As part of their studies, students can take one semester of English during their second or third year. While needs analyses are an integral part of ESP research, the needs of students in certain disciplines, particularly the Liberal Arts, are not often referenced. Using questionnaires and interviews with current students, past students, and discipline instructors, this study attempts to partially fill that gap. Results show that while current students mostly use oral and written comprehension skills presently, they feel expression skills will become important in the future. Responses from former students and discipline instructors seem to support these results, with some key distinctions. Implications for teaching and future research are discussed.*

Key words: *English for Specific Purposes, Needs Analyses, Language Teaching*

1. INTRODUCTION

Needs analyses (NAs) are a defining element of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, necessary for ensuring the quality and effectiveness of specialized language courses (Kaur and Alla Baksh 2010, 3; Strevens 1978). They allow the instructor to better understand the learning context, the needs of the learners, and the demands of other stakeholders. Research on learner needs has direct pedagogical implications, allowing language teachers to create lessons based on authentic tasks, thereby increasing learner motivation, and improving learning gains (Chostelidou 2011, 407; Mohseni-Far, 2008, 4-7).

In the past, learner needs were based largely on the language teacher's intuition (Flowerdew, 2013). Such an approach has, however, proven problematic, as teachers and students may not have the same ideas about learner needs. In her research on an ESP Humanities course at Dhaka University, Chaudhury (2011, 70-71) found, for instance, that students did not consider listening and speaking to be very important in their university, where Bangla was the language of instruction. Teachers, on the other hand, reported listening and speaking skills to be as important as other language skills.

Submitted April 15th, 2021, accepted for publication May 16th, 2021
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To be fully representative, a NA also needs to look outside of academia. In an Iranian university, Mahdavi Zafarghandi et al (2014, 10-12) found that, though professors and undergraduate Business majors valued academic journal articles and anglophone press in their ESP courses, business professionals indicated that they used written English mostly for the interpretation and preparation of contracts. Moreover, the business professionals surveyed said that conducting telephone calls was greatly important, though very few students thought so. Such a finding reinforces Long's (2005, 20) point that even students may not be the best source of information regarding their own needs.

To add to this ever-growing body of practical research, this study presents the results of a first round NA conducted for an English course offered to undergraduate students majoring in foreign languages (other than English) in a French university. The needs of foreign language majors have received relatively little attention in ESP research. Nevertheless, as the blog Transpanish (2014) points out "[in] the 21st century, thanks to the economic and business-related effects of globalization, knowing how to speak, read, listen and write in just two languages is simply not enough." It is therefore assumed that, even if a French student majors in Japanese Studies, he/she will benefit from English skills to complement his/her mastery of French and Japanese.

It is in this context that the present study was devised. Guided by research in needs analyses, this paper seeks to address the following two research questions:

1) What are the current and future English needs for foreign language majors? How can these needs be implemented in an ESP course?

2) How do the expressed needs differ between current students, alumni, and subject professors?

2. Methodology

This study was carried out at the *Institut National des Langues et Civilisations Orientales* (INALCO) in Paris, France. Undergraduate students major in one of over a hundred foreign languages and complete three years of course work in the language, culture, and literature of the chosen specialty.

Participants in this study have opted not to complete a professional track (such as Business or International Relations) and instead dedicated their studies to their chosen language. As an elective, students can select a one-semester, 19.5-hour English course, in which students of all language majors and English proficiency levels are mixed. No specific guidelines for this course exist, though some department brochures refer to it as "English as a working language" (*anglais langue de travail*).

The focus of the English course was "Careers in Foreign Languages;" it was divided into six 2-week units during which different jobs requiring language skills were discussed (teaching, tourism, publishing, translating, diplomacy, journalism). In the first week of the unit, they practiced a professional skill, like writing a CV. In the second week, students did simulations in which they assumed the role of a person doing that week's featured job.

To collect data on student needs, this study follows Long's (2005) recommendations, and uses both questionnaires and interviews to allow for triangulation and increase the validity of results. These two instruments are described below:

a) Questionnaires. Three different questionnaires were used[1].
   i) A questionnaire was sent to current students in May 2020, just after the English course had ended. Of the 85 students contacted, 29 responded. These students were largely from the Japanese Studies department (12/29), though others were represented (Chinese, Russian, Korean, Arabic, Modern Greek).
   ii) A questionnaire was sent to past students in November 2020, roughly 6 months after they had completed their undergraduate studies. Of the 44 students contacted, 18 responded. Again, Japanese Studies majors made up the largest group of participants (11/18), though 4 departments were represented (with Russian, Korean, Kurdish).
   iii) A questionnaire was sent to subject professors, asking for comments on the importance of English in their respective departments. Professors also described what students do after graduation and the value of English in those fields. The questionnaire was sent in February 2021 to the 43 professors whose departments listed the English elective in their brochure; 6 responded.

b) Interviews. Interviews were conducted with 17 current students on a volunteer basis. The interviews helped to delve deeper into the topics covered in the questionnaire, asking students more specifically about current and future uses for English. Interviews were transcribed and coded, following the recommendations of DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall & McCulloch (2011).[2]

3. Results

This section presents frequency data from the questionnaires along with information from the interviews to respond to the two research questions. Tables 1 & 2 present current students' responses concerning their current and future uses for English. In Tables 3 & 4, past students described their current situation and responsibilities as well as their current and supposed future uses for English. Lastly, six subject professors described the value of English in their respective departments (departments of Arabic, Urdu, Japanese, Mongolian, Burmese, and Chinese).

Table 1. How often do you use these English skills? (Out of 29 participants)

Skill	Often	Somewhat often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Listening	18	9	1	1	0
Reading[3*]	17	4	6	1	0
Speaking[*]	3	8	8	7	2
Writing[*]	5	8	10	5	0

[1]Questionnaire sent to current students: https://forms.gle/p3cfLJKijLhP5csm6
Questionnaire sent to former students: https://forms.gle/J61rgiJiodGkZF5Y9
Questionnaire sent to subject professors: https://forms.gle/iKKbrBUKNXCH3r5u9
Works consulted in the creation of the questionnaires: Labetoulle 2019; Mahdavi Zafarghandi et al 2014; Taillefer 2004; Vougiouklidou 2013
[2] Interview coding guide: https://docs.google.com/document/d/1WZ7jbrabwjL9XMRPhRamPn1wSKRdgl-olNsdy4hpsFc/edit?usp=sharing
[3] [*]Only the 28 legible responses were counted

Table 2. How important is English for your studies? //
How important is English for your future profession? (Out of 29 participants)

	Very important	Somewhat important	Minimally important
Listening	23 // 27	4 // 2	2 // 0
Reading[4*]	24 // 25	5 // 3	0 // 0
Speaking*	21 // 27	5 // 2	2 // 0
Writing*	21 // 26	5 // 3	1 // 0

Table 1 shows that reading and listening comprehension skills were used with some frequency by nearly all students. Open-ended questions and the interviews revealed that these skills were mostly for leisure activities; students watch films and series in English, listen to music, use social media platforms, and follow international news. This trend perhaps explains the written expression tendencies; seven students described writing in English to respond to English posts they saw online. Additionally, three students also reported having to read in English for their studies. Oral expression, though used less frequently, was reportedly useful for 11 students, for work and family reasons.

Although Table 2 confirms that English is considered necessary, participants were not always sure of how. The interviews gave participants the chance to reflect on the type of tasks they would be asked to do in English in the future. Again, their ideas were rather unclear with many referencing simply that an internationally oriented career requires English. Three notable exceptions were one student who considered becoming an English teacher, another who mentioned having to sell products to foreign clients, and another who wanted to be a tour guide for anglophone tourists in Paris; still, joining the workforce directly after the foreign language degree was an immediate goal for only one student. For future studies, responses were similar; of the 14 students who planned to continue their studies, seven did not know what field they would pursue. Some referenced the general importance of English, though three described that mastering English would be useful for studying texts that are not available in French.

Table 3. How often do you use these English skills? (Out of 14 participants)

	Often	Somewhat often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Listening	9	2	0	0	3
Reading[5]	7	3	3	0	0
Speaking	2	5	2	2	3
Writing	4	3	3	3	1

Table 4 How important is English for your future profession? (Out of 14 participants)

	Very important	Somewhat important	Minimally important
Listening	11	2	1
Reading	13	1	0
Speaking	13	1	0
Writing	11	3	0

[4] *28 responses were counted for Reading Comprehension/future profession & Oral Expression/studies. 27 responses were counted for Written Expression/studies.

[5] *Only the 13 legible responses were counted

Past students reported rather frequent use of comprehension skills, as shown in Table 3. This tendency is perhaps explained by the high number of students completing further education (9/14); open-ended questions revealed that two students take courses conducted in English while four students need to regularly consult resources in English. One student reported not using English at all, five continue to use English in their leisure activities and two use it in jobs (one as a Japanese teacher and one as a barista).

Table 4 shows that most learners feel that English will be highly important in their futures. Four of these students plan to do graduate studies, of which two note that English will be useful for academic research. Eight others have somewhat vague professional objectives, with a desire to work in international fields (business, the arts, translation). Of the remaining two, one wishes to move abroad and the other simply wishes to find a job.

The final group to participate in the study was subject professors. In the end, instructors from six departments responded to a questionnaire concerning the use of English in their respective departments. Members of the Burmese, Chinese, and Urdu programs stated that their students rarely or never had to complete tasks in English as part of their undergraduate studies, or that they were unsure if it was used. The Arabic professor claimed that his/her students were occasionally asked to navigate websites in English. Professors from the Japanese and Mongolian programs said that students had to read academic articles in English fairly often. Additionally, the Mongolian Studies students occasionally had to listen to audio files, attend conferences, and navigate websites in English and frequently had to translate documents into/from English. Japanese Studies students frequently had to consult websites in English and sometimes listen to audio files or attend conferences.

Regarding future academic uses, four of these departments offer study abroad opportunities that require English proficiency. Professionally, instructors from the Chinese and Burmese departments noted that English would not be useful to their students in the future; Chinese Studies majors often do teaching certificates, while Burmese Studies students do not have a clear professional track. Students from Mongolian studies are often simultaneously completing other academic programs, geared towards international careers or research, so English is reported to be useful. For Japanese Studies students, 40% complete graduate studies in Japanese Studies, while others go in numerous directions, where English is thought to be useful. Arabic Studies students often continue into an Arabic Studies graduate program, where English is not often used. Lastly, in the Urdu Studies program, English can be useful for future translators, given all the documents produced in English from Urdu-speaking societies.

4. Discussion

NAs are crucial for ensuring that a course is learner-centered and capable of helping to bridge the gap between what students know and what they need to know (Eslami 2010, 7). The above results, however, show that conducting an NA does not necessarily provide clear answers that would allow for sweeping generalizations. Still, these preliminary findings show at least three trends that can help inform course design, as summarized in Figure 1 below.

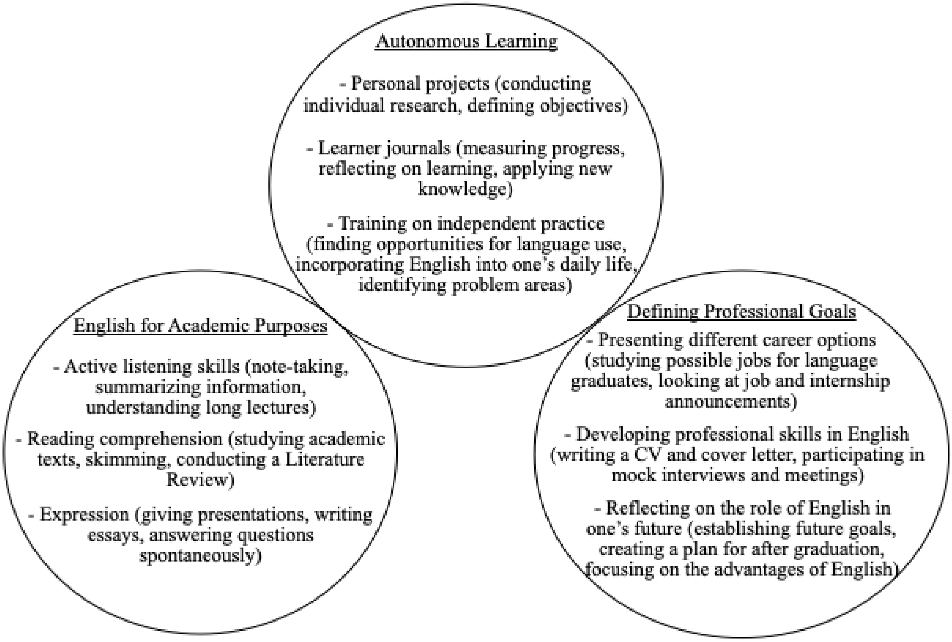

Figure 1. Proposal for an ESP course for Foreign Language Majors

First, as shown in Figure 1, the data highlight the need for academic English. Many undergraduates continue to graduate school where English is important for research and attending lectures. Future versions of this course could focus more specifically on activities such as note-taking while listening to mini-lectures, giving presentations, and reading academic texts, which have a long history in ESP contexts (Fortune 1977; Kaur and Alla Baksh 2010, 14; Preece 1994).

The value of such activities is firmly grounded in research on language teaching. As the participants in the study are students with limited work experience, their primary needs relate to the classroom. Given the immediate relevance of academic skills, EAP tasks provide the authenticity that is so crucial in language courses (Guariento and Morley 2001, 352). Furthermore, developing academic skills could activate learner motivation, according to the L2 Present Self concept described by Schug (2019, 284); students are likely to be more motivated by tasks that relate to their current lives rather than vague ideas they have for their futures.

Nevertheless, instructors must be careful when focusing on EAP tasks. Although taking notes and listening to lectures may constitute authentic tasks based on urgent needs, such exercises may not be powerful motivators (Hutchinson and Waters 1987). Additional research is needed to measure the impact of EAP exercises on engagement and student enjoyment, but teachers should balance them with group activities that take advantage of the social element of language learning (Dörnyei 1997).

The second point in Graph 1 underlines a need to train students in autonomous learning. Even for those attending graduate school, their chosen fields are highly diverse, ranging from International Business to Foreign Languages, and various others. In such situations, it is rare to see specialized content or elements of ESP in an English class (Van der Yeught 2014, in Terrier and Maury 2015, 78). Autonomous learning activities, such as learner diaries and personal projects, give a more personalized learning experience and allow students to reflect on their own learning while developing skills that are valuable to them (Daloiso 2007; Labetoulle 2017, 42; Woodfield and Lazarus 1998).

The results show that most learners are already regularly using English in their daily lives, for entertainment, socializing and, in some cases, for work and study. Future versions of this course will need to help students take advantage of these learning opportunities and guide them in identifying more. Terrier and Maury (2015, 80-82) show the importance of this guidance for university students, who may not know how to be independent learners. As Yan (2007, 63) shows, even if students have positive attitudes towards independent study, they do not necessarily report frequent use of independent learning strategies. Future research will need to analyze different strategies for tracking guided, autonomous learning.

Lastly, it is important to note that numerous past and current students have unclear ideas concerning their future professional paths. Thus, it can be hard to precisely identify tasks students will need to accomplish in English. This finding echoes Long's (2005, 20) assertion that students are not always the most reliable source of information concerning their needs. Moreover, it is true that students in liberal arts fields tend to have a higher dropout rate (MESR 2013 in Terrier and Maury 2015, 80), which is potentially connected to the lack of clear goals.

While these data may initially complicate ESP course development, they also give the English instructor the opportunity to guide students in creating future projects that include English. Dörnyei (2009, 33-38) offers advice for course design that helps students define their future goals. Teachers can present role models to assist students in adding detail to their future goals, help them define an action plan, and maintain enthusiasm. Such practices are rooted in research on learner motivation and possible selves (Markus 2006, in Dörnyei 2009, 17). Additional studies could experiment with strategies for helping learners visualize their future selves.

5. Conclusion

The present study aims to shed some light on the English needs of students majoring in other languages, a group not often represented in ESP research. Two research questions guided this small-scale study.

The first question concerned the current and future English needs of students majoring in other foreign languages. Interviews and questionnaires showed a huge variety of uses for English. Nearly all current undergraduates and several alumni use English for leisure, including watching films and interacting on social media. These needs, however, evolve. The most common plan was to pursue graduate studies, for which English gives access to a wider variety of academic resources and lectures. Subject professors support this trend, with three occasionally using English resources with their undergraduates and two noting that it will be useful in future graduate studies. Professionally, most students plan to work in positions requiring foreign language knowledge; while their specific goals are not always clear, it is widely agreed that English is needed in the professional world.

The second question aims to compare the needs expressed by the 3 different participant groups. The preliminary results presented above show few differences between the different groups. Both student groups show that English is frequently used for leisure activities. Undergraduates feel that English will be needed in graduate studies and alumni in graduate programs seem to confirm this. Professionally, again, both groups describe similar ideas; they recognize that English will be used in some way for their future jobs. Subject professors echo this opinion, as three note that English will generally be useful in the various fields their students tend to gravitate towards. Only two professors suggest that English would not be useful after graduation.

The limitations of this study are those typical of small-scale research. Given the limited number of participants and low-response rate, it is hard to generalize and apply findings to other contexts. Furthermore, the vague and diverse responses may be difficult to translate into concrete teaching objectives. Still, certain trends were noticed, such as a need for academic skills and a tendency to aim for careers in translation or international business. Thus, larger scale studies could follow Long's (2005, 33) recommendations and conduct observations of various professional environments to better understand how English is used in those contexts. Additionally, many past and current students have rather vague professional objectives; it is hoped that this report will inspire researchers to analyze strategies for developing the learner's self-concept, a topic not often seen in research (Dörnyei 2009, 34). For teachers, Figure 1 offers some pedagogical implications that may be useful to those working with a similar student profile.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 725−739

UDC: 811.111'376.625.19 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104725G

Original scientific paper

MOVE-STEP STRUCTURE OF THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION SECTION OF ELECTRONIC ENGINEERING RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY CHINESE AND THAI RESEARCHERS

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Abstract. *This study explored the move-step structure of the results and discussion (RD) section of electronic engineering research articles (EERAs) written by Chinese and Thai researchers. Two corpora, with each containing 12 RD sections, were compiled for analysis with reference to the three frameworks of Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2015) and Maswana et al. (2015). In addition, variations in terms of move-step structure between the two corpora were examined. Findings firstly demonstrated a newly proposed framework of 3 moves and 12 steps. What's more, all of the three moves were found obligatory, and the variations between the two corpora mainly existed in the steps under each move category. Findings of the present study could provide insights into EERA composition for novice writers. Moreover, generic variations that are acceptable within the discipline might expand research article genre knowledge for both EE researchers and genre practitioners.*

Key words: *move-step structure, electronic engineering research article, results and discussion section, contrastive analysis*

1. Introduction and Literature Review

Research Article (RA), one of the most important genres for producing and disseminating knowledge, has attracted extensive attention from genre scholars. Studies on RA genre generally fall into two categories: move or move-step analysis of RA structure and linguistic features that characterize the move structure. Studies of the former kind were concerned with the moves or move-step structure of RAs in a variety of fields in which move and step are the under-examined rhetorical factors contributing to the communicative purpose of a RA. A move, according to Biber et al. (2007), refers to a section of a text that performs a specific communicative function. Each move not only has its own purpose but also contributes to the overall communicative purposes of the genre. Steps are the multiple elements that together, or in some combination, realize the move (Biber et al., 2007). The studies concerning the moves or move-step structure in RA genre examined either individual sections (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Stoller & Robinson, 2013; Graves et al., 2014) or the entire RA (Lin & Evans, 2012; Kanoksilapatham, 2015; Tessuto, 2015; Kwan, 2017). On the other hand, studies of the latter

Submitted June 5th, 2021, accepted for publication August 5th, 2021
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kind examined such linguistic features as lexical bundles (Lu & Deng, 2019), phraseology (Le & Harrington, 2015), and hedging (Li & Pramoolsook, 2015). In addition, a variety of academic disciplines such as dentistry (Basturkmen, 2012), sociology (Brett, 1994), management (Lim, 2006), mathematics (Moghaddasi & Graves, 2017), chemistry (Stoller & Robinson, 2013), and law (Tessuto, 2015), etc. have been included in RA move and linguistic feature analyses.

The Results and the Discussion in RAs were two individual sections in most previous genre studies. As stated in Salager-Meyer (1994), the Results section is quite a straightforward unfolding of findings as it presents a clear description of the results, describes the process of manipulating the data obtained during the experimental stage, and makes limited claims about the statistical tests. Rhetorically, results convey new knowledge through presentation, explanation and interpretation of data, thus constituting the core of RA. In other words, the Results section plays a key role in demonstrating results or findings yielded from hypothesis proposed in the Introduction and the methodology employed in the Methods. It represents a carefully constructed discourse to convince readers of the validity of the scientific facts that form the basis of specific knowledge claims (Hyland, 1998).

Yang and Allison (2013) investigated the move-step structure of both the Results and the Discussion sections. Mainly investigating organizational patterning of applied linguistic empirical RAs, they found that the Results section tended to comment on results briefly and to be highly cyclical. The Discussion section, on the other hand, provided a deeper understanding of the results found, which is the unique communicative purpose of this section. The major differences in terms of communicative purposes of both the sections motivated applied linguistics researchers to use different section headings. Other studies exploring RA Results section include Brett (1994), Williams (1999), and Lim (2010). Lim (2010) adopted a mixed-method genre-based study to explore the comments in the Results section in RAs in applied linguistics and education. The study revealed disciplinary variations in terms of the four commentary steps (i) ‘explaining the finding/s’, (ii) ‘evaluating the findings’, (iii) ‘comparing findings with literature’, and (iv) ‘making recommendations for future research’. The first three steps were prevalent in applied linguistic RAs; while 53% of educational RAs were stripped of comments, which resembled Williams’ (1999) findings concerning medical research reports.

Move-step analysis of the Discussion section has drawn more attention than the Results section (e.g. Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Basturkmen, 2012; Dujsik, 2013). The first two studies focused on investigating disciplinary variations of move structures. Holmes (1997) revealed that history texts were particularly distinctive compared with political science and sociology. Peacock’s (2002) study across seven disciplines revealed interdisciplinary and NS/NNS variations in terms of the type and the number of moves and move cycles. NNS writers tended to use recognizably different discourse patterns, suggesting it challenging for NNS conforming to genre conventions that differed from those of their L1. Basturkmen (2012) examined move-step structure in dentistry research reports and revealed two patterns of argumentation in commenting moves: one centered on explanations and the other centered on comparisons and evaluations. Dujsik (2013) adopted Peacock’s (2002) revised model in analyzing move-step structure of applied linguistic RAs and suggested intra-disciplinary variations within this field. Kanoksilapatham (2015) and Maswana et al. (2015) are two related studies dealing with subdisciplinary variations in terms of rhetorical structure of engineering RAs. The former found that the variations across three engineering subdisciplines could be interpreted in accordance with the authors' goals and the nature of the studies within the subdisciplines. The latter revealed that no common move patterns throughout the RAs were identified across the five subdisciplines due to the differences in the nature of research in each field.

In the present study, the RAs in the discipline of electronic engineering (EE) is under investigation. Electronic engineering is "a science about the devices and processes that use electromagnetic energy conversion to transfer, process, and store energy, signals and data in energy, control, and computer systems (Vodovozov, 2010, p. 8)". This cutting-edge discipline has evolved to cover many aspects of the society and is crucial for economic growth in many countries. The technologies generated from EE discipline such as the wireless communication system and video conferencing system, etc., bring magnificent benefits to people's life. However, electronic engineering research article (EERA), a key venue for engineers or engineering researchers to conduct academic communication and publish their findings, receives scant attention in genre studies. Thus, EERA becomes the focus of the present study for the purpose of revealing the move-step structures as well as the variations of EERA Results and Discussion section composed by Chinese and Thai researchers. Therefore, the present study addresses the following research questions:

1) What are the moves, steps, and move-step structures of the Results and Discussion (RD) section in electronic engineering research articles (EERAs) by Chinese (CH) and Thai (TH) writers?
2) What are the variations of the moves, steps, and move-step structures of the Results and Discussion (RD) section in EERAs between the two groups of writers?

2. Methodology

To address the research questions of the current study, move-step structure of the EERAs was analyzed and compared. Being a part of a larger project that analyzes the whole EERAs, the current study focuses only on the Results and Discussion section of 24 EERAs, with 12 RD sections in both the Chinese corpus (CH) and the Thai corpus (TH). The selection of the journals and RAs were based on four criteria: 1) The RAs were written by Chinese and Thai authors, 2) The RAs were empirical studies in electronic engineering discipline, 3) The RAs were included in the journals indexed by SCOPUS, and 4) The RAs were published between 2019 and 2020. A disciplinary expert was invited for recommendation of the journals. For ensuring the authors' L1 status, the researchers referred to their biography, affiliations, and their bachelor degree institutions (Wood, 2001). One point worth mentioning here is that the structure of the RAs was not confined solely to the ones with clear headings of "Introduction", "Methods", "Results", and "Discussion"; namely, IMRD in short, since there were many non-IMRD RAs in the target discipline. Therefore, gathering RAs that solely conformed to the IMRD structure would certainly sabotage genuineness of data collection and limit the scope of data analysis.

Both of the two corpora were under examination for move-step structure analysis. Firstly, three frameworks (Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Kanoksilapatham, 2015; and Maswana et al., 2015) were used as references for developing a proposed coding protocol appropriate for the move-step structure of the RD sections in EERAs in the two corpora, a process that involved the researchers and an invited disciplinary expert examining 15% of the whole corpus (2 EERAs in each corpus). However, the coding protocol was subjected to subtle modifications in the subsequent and main coding process aiming at generating a more suitable move-step structure framework. Secondly, inter-rater reliability involving two coders working together, one being one of the researchers of the present study and the other being an invited disciplinary expert, was employed to guarantee a higher reliability of the study. Finally, this study adopted the cut-off frequency in Maswana et al. (2015), i.e., 50%, for classifying conventional and optional moves and steps. Additionally, 80% was set as the cut-off frequency for distinguishing obligatory and conventional moves and steps. In other words, if the occurrence of one move or step is ranged from 80% to 100%, it is regarded as obligatory; if in the range of 50%-79%, it is considered as conventional. The moves and steps whose frequency of occurrence is less than 50% fall into the category of optional. The reason for setting 50% and 80% as the cut-off points for reference was that the number of EERAs in each corpus was relatively small.

Before conducting analysis, the researchers of the present study briefly examined the RD section of all the 24 EERAs in the two corpora. It was found that the majority of EERAs in the two corpora, i.e., 8 in the CH corpus and 7 in the TH corpus, maintained the conventional section heading "Results and Discussion". A few cases were with alternative functional headings (e.g., Results, Discussion, Experimental Validations, Implementation and Experimental Results, Experimental Results and Discussion). In addition, there was also one case arranging Results and Discussion as two separate sections (i.e., CH12). Despite the heading differences, the sections share the common characteristics of the RD section, which were reporting results and commenting on results. Therefore, all these sections were categorized as *Results and Discussion* (RD) in the present study for analysis.

3. Results and Discussion

In this section, moves and steps were identified firstly to form a newly proposed framework for the EERA RD section. Then, descriptions of all of the moves and steps were provided. The status of each move and step was obtained from their frequency of occurrence. Finally, comparison of the move-step structure of the two corpora was discussed.

From the analysis, it was found that there were three moves in the RD section in the EERAs in both of the two corpora, *Move 1: Preparatory information*, *Move 2: Reporting results*, and *Move 3: Commenting on results*. Except for *Move 2*, both *Move 1* and *Move 3* contain six steps. The proposed framework for the RD section is shown in Table 1. The integers, 1, 2, and 3, represent the moves, and the decimals such as 1.1, 1.2, and 3.4 represent the steps of each move.

Table 1. The proposed framework for the RD section in EERA

Section	Move and Step	%	Status
Results and Discussion (N=24)	1. Preparatory information	91.7	Obl
	1.1 Introducing the section	8.3	Opt
	1.2 Specifying equipment or site	8.3	Opt
	1.3 Explaining principles	16.7	Opt
	1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology	66.7	Con
	1.5 Summarizing procedures	58.3	Con
	1.6 Defining terms	8.3	Opt
	2. Reporting results	100	Obl
	3. Commenting on results	100	Obl
	3.1 Interpreting results	100	Obl
	3.2 Comparing results	16.7	Opt
	3.3 Relating to theories and previous studies	8.3	Opt
	3.4 Summarizing results	46	Opt
	3.5 Indicating research implications	8.3	Opt
	3.6 Suggesting further research	8.3	Opt

Note: Con=conventional; Obl=obligatory; Opt=optional

3.1. Description of moves and steps in the Results and Discussion section

Move 1: Preparatory information provides background information such as principle and/or methodology of the research being reported in order to prepare for presenting the results. Functioning as a transition after the Methods section in the RD section, this move assists in presenting the results in a less abrupt way. There are six steps in this move: *Introducing the section*, *Specifying equipment or environment*, *Explaining principles*, *Justifying procedures or methodology*, *Summarizing procedures*, and *Defining terms*. *Move 1* can be accomplished when there is at least one of the six steps occurring in this section. According to the cut-off occurrence rate in this study (⩾80%: obligatory; 50%-79%: conventional; ＜50%: optional), *Move 1 Preparatory information* is an obligatory move in the two corpora.

Step 1.1: Introducing the section is present at the very beginning of the section. By providing an overview of the section through reemphasizing the purposes or methods, it functions as a brief introduction to the section. Only 2 EERAs in the TH corpus employed this step, suggesting that it is optional. An example of *Step 1.1* is provided below.

(1) *In this section, the result of the DTTV–SFN propagation with the proposed measurement model will be discussed. The measured results will be evaluated by power delay profile, path loss, the comparison between spectrum variation and delay, CNR and delay, modulation error ratio and delay, and noise margin and delay.* (TH12)

Step 1.2: Specifying equipment or site occurs when writers need to give specific details about the devices, apparatuses, or equipment involved in the experiment and the site or environment in which the research or experiment took place. This is a step employed especially in studies that stress the role of the equipment, device, or site, since they are part of methodology that have a certain impact on the results or findings of the study. The low frequency of occurrence of this step indicated that this optional step occurred in a few EERAs in the two corpora. Example 2 below demonstrates *Step 1.2*.

(2) *In order to verify the communication performances of the designed RFID sensor, this paper adopts a special RFID tester of VISN-R1200 from JX Instrumentation, China. The test environment is shown in Fig. 7. The Bosch VCL4003 climate box is used to test the temperature and humidity performances of the proposed wireless sensor. The RFID sensor tag designed in this paper is fabricated with discrete components. The base material of the sensor is FR4 and it covers the area of 12 × 8 cm2.* (CH3)

Step 1.3: Explaining principles is another optional step of *Move 1*. The laws, rules or theories that the research is based on would be illustrated or explained before reporting the relevant results, a process that lays foundation and convinces the readers of reasonableness of the experimental methodology and the validity of the results. The occurrence of this step was only 12 in the whole corpus. To illustrate the function of *Step 1.3*, one excerpt is chosen as an example below.

(3) *The inline successive pumping scheme operates when a fraction of the power is coupled into the panda ring resonator. The E_{in} value of the panda ring arises from that fraction of the power and circulates in the optical system. Ultimately the resonant output is achieved at the throughput port, at the inline MZI.* (TH3)

Step 1.4: Justifying procedures or methodology occurs much more frequently in the two corpora than the three previous steps. This step is achieved through demonstrating to the readers the rationale of selecting a certain experimental method or the reason of conducting the research by adopting a series of processes. In addition, researchers in this discipline tend to adopt mathematical algorithm such as equations to prove their rationality of relevant process. The total occurrence of *Step 1.4* was 84, the second highest step among all the steps of *Move 1*. Twenty-six EERAs demonstrated this step. Example 4 below illustrates *Step 1.4*.

(4) *Several tower waveguide structures are printed with different dimensions to determine the optimum parameters needed to ensurethehighestconfinementwithin theguidingregion.* (TH2)

Step 1.5: Summarizing procedures is another frequent step in the EERAs in the two corpora. In this step, writers describe a process or a series of actions involved in a particular work or an experiment intending to achieve a result. This step sometimes follows *Step 1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology*. In this case, the process seems more appropriate and convincing to the reviewers and readers when there are sounding reasons provided. Example 5 is for the demonstration of *Step 1.5*.

(5) *In this case, the transmitter was placed in front of the second car and kept 3 m from the train door. The receiver was moved inside the train along the corridor of the first two cars. Then the operator moved outside and acquired the reference power level near the door and then re-entered the train. These measurements were repeated at both 2.4 GHz and 5.7 GHz.* (CH8)

Step 1.6: Defining terms is one of the optional steps in *Move 1*. It has the least frequency of occurrence in the two corpora. It provides the definition of technical terms that the writers assume necessary and worthy of explanation. To illustrate the function of *Step 1.6*, Example 6 is given below.

(6) *The return loss characteristic (S_{11}) refers to the intensity of electromagnetic wave reflected when the electromagnetic wave is transmitted through the antenna.* (CH3)

Move 2: Reporting results is the dominant move, with 100% occurrence frequency, in the RD section in the two corpora. This move is to demonstrate or depict results and findings, usually in the form of statistics. In the EERAs of the whole corpus, the obligatory status of *Move 2* is based on the results and findings of every stage of the testing of a model or an experiment, thus maintaining the second dominant position among all the moves and steps. Example 7 demonstrates *Move 2* as shown below.

(7) *In Table 2, the comparison of delay characteristic in each positions are presented. The received signal time delay from station 1 are ranging from 20.23 to 54.52 μs and the average time delay is 38.94 μs.* (TH12)

The purpose of ***Move 3: Commenting on results*** has the purpose to provide or establish the meaning from the statistical results reported and the examples demonstrated in *Move 2*. This move includes information and interpretations that go beyond the "objective" results (Yang & Allison, 2003). This may engage the various ways to interpret the results in the context of the study, to illustrate the contribution of the findings to the field (usually in comparison with relevant literature), the potential or underlying causes of the results, or comments on the strength, limitations of the results (Yang & Allison, 2003). Specifically, this move could be realized through the following steps: *Step 3.1 Interpreting results, Step 3.2 Comparing results, Step 3.3 Relating to theories and previous studies, Step 3.4 Summarizing results, Step 3.5 Indicating research implications* and *Step 3.6 Suggesting further research.*

Step 3.1: Interpreting results is the most frequent step that appears within *Move 3 Commenting on results*. All the 36 EERAs in the two corpora contain this step owing to the fact that electronic engineering researchers tend to provide reasons and explanations for the results yielded in each stage of the study. This is different from Yang and Allison's (2003) findings on the Results section. They found that *Interpreting results*, which was *Step 1* of *Move 3 Commenting on results*, ranked the second after *Step 2 Comparing results with literature*. Disciplinary disparity might be one of the reasons that contribute to the difference of the finding. Example 8 below illustrates the function of *Step 3.1*.

(8) *The sensing signal increased almost 13 times using our proposed antenna array for lactose detection. These results showed that the sensing performance of this structure working at reflection mode was even better than that at transmission mode. This was mainly due to the fact that the resonance in reflection mode had a higher quality factor and larger local field enhancement.* (CH1)

Step 3.2: Comparing results is another form of commenting on results. The current results and findings are compared with those in the previous studies in the literature, which also shows the writer's own understanding of the connection between the previous and current research. Usually, the phrases such as "*comparing…with…*", "*compared with…*", "*be consistent with…*" are the obvious linguistic clues for this step. In addition, in-text citation might also suggest this step. The relatively low frequency of occurrence suggests that this step is optional. Example 9 below illustrates the function of *Step 3.2*.

(9) *Comparing the probe performance with the previous works, the calibration factor of a LTTC probe is about 60 dBS/m which is higher than the proposed probe since the LTTC magnetic pick- up area is smaller but the smaller pick-up area has better magnetic field spatial resolution.* (TH9)

Step 3.3: Relating to theories and previous studies is a step where the writers introduce previous relevant studies in terms of their methodology, results, and findings, which would be commented on or adopted for the current research. The reason for EE researchers using this step is that they might need theories, methods, or results of the previous studies to back up their current study by either indicating their strengths or drawbacks. Thus, the persuasion seems more convincing to the reviewers and readers. In-text citation is an apparent indication for this step. Example 10 is an illustration of this step.

(10) *Traditional soil sampling method (Hedayati-Dezfooli and Leong, 2019) shows high accuracy performance, but it is time-consuming and laborious, and is not suitable for real-time monitoring. The soil environmental monitoring system based on wired communication (Zhang et al., 2015) exhibits the advantages of huge data transmission and fast transmission speed, but its deployment process is complex and maintenance cost is high.* (CH3)

Step 3.4: Summarizing results provides a short statement regarding the main points of the results and findings. It functions as a small conclusion of the present research or part of research. This step usually appears at the end of the RD section. Example 11 below is the illustration for *Step 3.4*.

(11) *With these characteristics, the proposed antenna is acceptable for use in indoor base stations with triple-frequency bands, directional radiation patterns, high gain, and high power handling.* (TH7)

Step 3.5: Indicating research implications offers possible effect or practicability deducted from the results or findings of the research being reported. Electronic engineering is a discipline that has close relation with people's daily lives, therefore, some EE researchers apply this step to indicate that their proposed model or method is beneficial for resolving certain problems existing in the field or in people's lives. Example 12 is the illustration for *Step 3.5*.

(12) *An especially LiFi network is most beneficial for radiology room. The ad hoc accessed network can also be linked to the long-haul transmission via the internet of thing (IoT) for more required applications.* (TH11)

Step 3.6: Suggesting further research is a step for researchers to recommend a theme or a direction for future research relevant to current study. It is regarded as optional since only one EERA was found to have this step. Example 13 below illustrates this step.

(13) *The extra loss due to the windows may be different for different trains and different environments in which the train is operated, hence inducing a different amount of wave reentering. However, these are topics for future research.* (CH8)

3.2. Comparison of the move-step structures

3.2.1. Move and step

Tables 2-3 summarize similarities and variations between the CH and the TH corpora in the frequency of occurrence of *Moves 1-3*. *Move 1: Preparatory information* occurred in 100% of the EEERAs in the CH (Average occurrence: 4.25 per section) and in 83.3% of the EERAs in the TH (Average occurrence: 2.58 per section). *Move 2: Reporting results* occurred 100% in both of the two corpora, but with the average occurrence per section of 5.83 and 3.33 in the CH and the TH, respectively. *Move 3: Commenting on results,* similar to *Move 2*, also occurred in all of the EERAs in both the CH and the TH, with the average occurrence per section of 5.92 and 3.33, respectively. Since *Moves 1, 2* and *3* occurred in more than 80% of the both corpora, they were all obligatory. The apparent variations were found in the two steps under *Move 1* and *Move 3*, which were *Step 1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology*, and *Step 3.4 Summarizing results*. *Step 1.4* was regarded as an obligatory step in the CH corpus; while it was a conventional step in the TH corpus. *Step 3.4 Summarizing results* in the CH was viewed as an optional step; however, it was considered conventional in the TH. The other steps under *Move 1* and *Move 3* in the two corpora demonstrated similarities rather than variations. That is, the same step fell into the same category in the two corpora.

Table 2. The number of EERAs in which move or step occurs in the CH and the TH

Move/Step	CH (RA=12)		TH (RA=12)		Whole corpus (RA=24)	
	No. of RAs	%	No. of RAs	%	No. of RAs	%
1. Preparatory information	12	100.0	10	83.3	22	91.7
1.1 Introducing the section	0	0.0	1	8.3	1	8.3
1.2 Specifying equipment or environment	1	8.3	0	0.0	1	8.3
1.3 Explaining principles	3	25.0	1	8.3	4	16.7
1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology	10	83.3	6	50.0	16	66.7
1.5 Summarizing procedures	7	58.3	7	58.3	14	58.3
1.6 Defining terms	1	8.3	0	0.0	1	8.3
2. Reporting results	12	100.0	12	100.0	24	100.0
3. Commenting on results	12	100.0	12	100.0	24	100.0
3.1 Interpreting results	12	100.0	12	100.0	24	100.0.
3.2 Comparing results	1	8.3	3	25.0	4	16.7
3.3 Relating to theories and previous studies	1	8.3	1	8.3	2	8.3
3.4 Summarizing results	5	41.7	6	50.0	11	46.0
3.5 Indicating research implications	0	0.0	1	8.3	1	8.3
3.6 Suggesting further research	1	8.3	0	0.0	1	8.3

Table 3. The occurrence of move or step in the CH and the TH

	CH (RA=12)		TH (RA=12)	
Move/Step	Occurrence	Average Occurrence per section	Occurrence	Average Occurrence per section
1. Preparatory information	51	4.25	31	2.58
1.1 Introducing the section	0	0.00	1	0.08
1.2 Specifying equipment or environment	2	0.17	0	0.00
1.3 Explaining principles	4	0.33	1	0.08
1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology	38	3.17	16	1.33
1.5 Summarizing procedures	16	1.33	18	1.50
1.6 Defining terms	4	0.33	0	0.00
2. Reporting results	70	5.83	40	3.33
3. Commenting on results	71	5.92	40	3.33
3.1 Interpreting results	69	5.75	34	2.83
3.2 Comparing results	1	0.08	3	0.25
3.3 Relating to theories and previous studies	1	0.08	1	0.08
3.4 Summarizing results	5	0.42	7	0.58
3.5 Indicating research implications	0	0.00	1	0.08
3.6 Suggesting further research	1	0.08	0	0.00
Total	333		193	

The variations identified among the two corpora were *Step 1.4 Justifying procedures* and *Step 3.4 Summarizing results* based on Table 4. Only half of the corpus i.e. 6 EERAs employed this step in the TH corpus. Usually, this step in the two corpora was accompanied by *Step 1.5 Summarizing procedures*. The writers in EE discipline tended to firstly provide rationales or reasons for the following procedures so that they could sound reasonable. This is one characteristic of this discipline that every step of the experiment process should be based on some reasons such as mathematical algorithm or well-founded setup for testing or experiment. Ten EERAs in the CH corpus demonstrated this step. According to Table 3, the total number of moves and steps in the TH corpus differed significantly from that of CH corpus. That explained, to a certain degree, the reason for *Step 1.4* missing in some EERAs in the TH. Firstly, it was the length of the whole RAs that influences the adoption of certain moves and steps. Secondly, *Step 1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology* appearing less frequently than *Step 1.5 Summarizing procedures* in the RD section in the TH could be attributed to the reason that it had already appeared in the Methods section. Thus, considering redundancy for the RD section, this step could be omitted.

Step 3.4 Summarizing results appeared in 5 and 6 EERAs in the CH and the TH, respectively, which did not show great difference. However, according to the cut-off point, this step in the CH was considered optional, while it was regarded as conventional in the TH. In the CH, this step occurred more frequently than the other optional steps, suggesting that a summary or short statements for the results and findings discovered could serve as a more prevalent step. It was observed that there were many results yielded from different steps of one experiment or even different experiments or tests in EERAs, which indicated that this step was necessary for those researchers who synthesized the results. Other differences were not noticeable between the two corpora.

Table 4 The differences of obligatory, conventional and optional moves and steps between the CH and the TH

Move/Step	CH	TH
Obligatory (⩾80%)	1. Preparatory information 1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology 2. Reporting results 3. Commenting on results 3.1 Interpreting results	1. Preparatory information 2. Reporting results 3. Commenting on results 3.1 Interpreting results
Conventional (50%-79%)		1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology 3.4 Summarizing results
Optional (＜50%)	3.4 Summarizing results	

3.2.2. Move cycle

As indicated by the frequency of the moves and steps, the RD section is highly cyclical, one of the common characteristics of all EERAs in the two corpora. As can be seen from Tables 5-6, in total, 83 move cycles falling into 9 types were identified in the two corpora. The average number of move cycles per article was 4.5 in the CH, and 2.4 in the TH. Not all the 9 types of move cycles appeared in both the corpora. That is, 8 and 7 types of move cycles were found in the CH and the TH, respectively.

Move cycles including *2-3.1* (*2 Reporting Results-3.1 Interpreting results*) and *1.4-2-3.1* (*1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology-2 Reporting Results-3.1 Interpreting results*) demonstrated similarity between the two corpora for being the top 2 cycles in each corpus. The *move cycle 2-3.1* was the most dominant one, which occurred in all the 12 RAs, accounting for 46.3 % of all the move cycles in the CH. Even though this cycle occurred in fewer RAs in the TH than those in the CH, it remained in the highest number of the RAs in the TH. The occurrence percentage of move cycle *2-3.1* in the TH corpus accounted for 55.2% of all the nine move cycles, even higher than that in the CH. The high percentage and occurrence indicated that this move cycle was conventional in both of the two corpora. The *move cycle 1.4-2-3.1* was another frequent cycle in the two corpora, indicating that *Step 1.4* was the most frequent step happening before the *move cycle 2-3.1*. Move cycles occurring less frequently in the two corpora were *1.5-3.1*, *3.1-3.4*, *1.5-2-3.1*, *2-3.1-3.4* and *1.4-1.5*, with the occurrence in less than 2 RAs per corpus. It was found that the move cycles in the RD section appeared to be complex since each cycle often comprised a combination of moves and steps. One move cycle could appear twice or more in one paragraph.

Table 5. The number of EERAs in which move cycles occur in the CH and the TH

Move cycle	CH (RA=12)		TH (RA=12)	
	No. of RAs	%	No. of RAs	%
2-3.1	12	100.0	8	66.7
1.4-2-3.1	5	41.7	3	25.0
3.1-3.4	2	16.7	2	16.7
1.5-2-3.1	1	8.3	2	16.7
1.4-1.5	1	8.3	2	16.7
2-3.1-2-3.1	4	33.3	1	8.3
1.4-3.1	4	33.3	0	0.0
1.5-3.1	2	16.7	0	0.0
2-3.1-3.4	0	0.0	2	16.7

Table 6 The occurrence of move cycles in the CH and the TH

Move cycle	CH (RA=12)		TH (RA=12)		Whole corpus (RA=24)	
	Occurrence	%	Occurrence	%	Occurrence	%
2-3.1	25	46.3	16	55.2	41	49.4
1.4-2-3.1	10	18.5	4	13.8	14	16.9
3.1-3.4	2	3.7	2	6.9	4	4.8
1.5-2-3.1	2	3.7	2	6.9	4	4.8
1.4-1.5	2	3.7	2	6.9	4	4.8
2-3.1-2-3.1	6	11.1	1	3.5	7	8.4
1.4-3.1	5	9.3	0	0.0	5	6.0
1.5-3.1	2	3.7	0	0.0	2	2.4
2-3.1-3.4	0	0.0	2	6.9	2	2.4
Total	54	100.0	29	100.0	83	100.0
Average	4.5		2.4		3.5	

The obvious difference of move cycle between the two corpora was the total number of move cycles identified and the number of occurrence of certain move cycles. EERAs in the CH demonstrated 54 occurrence of move cycle and 29 were identified in the TH. Chinese researchers tended to employ more move cycles than Thai researchers, and this might be due to their research methodology requiring more results to be reported and commented on. A delicate difference was the occurrence of the *move cycles 2-3.1-2-3.1* and *1.4-3.1*. They both appeared in 4 RAs in the CH. However, the *move cycle 2-3.1-2-3.1* occurred in one RA in the TH. The *move cycle 1.4-3.1* did not occur at all in the TH. The reason why *1.4-3.1* occurred in 4 RAs, i.e., 5 times in the CH, could be that EE researchers referred to the results by pointing to the visuals inserted in the RAs, making possible that *Move 3* is directly followed by *Move 1*. For instance:

(24) *Since 12 measuring electrodes are arranged on the cutterhead, according to the measuring method described in Section 2.1, 11 voltage data can be obtained by supplying power to one measuring electrode at a time, and 132 voltage data can be obtained by supplying power to these 12 measuring electrodes in turn.* **(Step 1.4)** *As can be seen from Figures 5 and 6, when the same amount of current is supplied to the exciting electrode and the guard electrode, the farther away the low resistivity anomalous body is from the cutterhead, the greater the voltage measured by each measuring electrode*. **(Step 3.1)** (CH4)

The findings suggested the *move cycle 2-3.1* was the core in both of the two corpora since most move cycles identified revolved around it such as the *move cycles 1.4-2-3.1, 1.5-2-3.1* and *2-3.1-2-3.1*. The findings also revealed that the most frequent step that happened before the *move cycle 2-3.1* was *Step 1.4*, while the most common step appearing after it was *Step 3.4* and the move cycle itself: *2-3.1*. This is consistent with Yang and Allison (2003) in that the sequence of moves and steps in each cycle follows the order shown in their proposed framework, that is, if *Move 1* is absent, then *Move 2* is the initial element in a cycle, followed by *Move 3*.

4. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study suggest a move-step structure framework containing 3 moves and 12 steps for electronic engineering research articles. All the three moves were categorized as obligatory. The variations between the two groups were mainly demonstrated by steps within each move. For instance, *Step 1.4 Justifying procedures or methodology* was considered as obligatory in the CH, while it was optional in the TH. In addition, Move cycles *2-3.1* and *1.4-2-3.1,* with the highest occurrence, demonstrated similarity rather than variation between the two corpora. The obvious difference in terms of move cycle was the total number of move cycles identified and the frequency of occurrence of certain move cycles. The probable reasons for Chinese researchers employing more move cycles attributed to the research purposes, scope, and methodology. For example, the methodology they adopted consisted of more than one procedures, and each procedure yielded different results that influenced the following procedure. Thus, these different procedures might be identified as different move cycles.

Since the present study is a part of a major project, which aims to investigate the move-step structure for the whole EERAs, it could firstly contribute to addressing the research questions and building an overall and a comprehensive move-step structure of EERA. Secondly, the findings of the present study could provide a writing guideline for electronic engineering researchers and students in composing the RD section of their RAs. Thirdly, the variations in terms of the moves, steps, and move cycles between these two writer groups, given that all the EERAs were successfully published, could serve as two references for ESP or EAP instructors to design academic writing courses, syllabus, and teaching materials.

However, the limitations of the present study also exist, which mainly lie in the data collection process since a few factors, including the number of words of each EERA, the unequal number of each journal that the EERAs come from, the impact factor and the Quartile in Category of the journals, were left out of concern. First, the researchers of the present study were aware of the fact that the word count of each EERA might have certain impact on the move-step structure, but they might not be the determining factors influencing the features under examination. The second limitation was the unequal number of each journal that the EERAs came from. Previously the researchers decided to collect an equal number of EERA from an equal number of the same journals. Nevertheless, this seemed an impossible mission due to the scope of the study covering two different groups of writers, which resulted in tiny intersection or overlap that was interpreted as a failed attempt experienced by the invited disciplinary insider and the researchers during data collection. Finally, the Impact Factor and the Quartile in Category of target journals were not included as the criteria of selection of journals because SCOPUS is a database famous for its trustworthiness of journal quality. Since both factors were capable of enhancing validity of the study, it is suggested that both or either one of them could be taken into consideration in further research in the future.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 741−751

UDC: 811.111'276.6 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104741S

Original scientific paper

CITATION PRACTICES IN RESEARCH ARTICLES IN INDONESIA-BASED JOURNALS AND INTERNATIONAL JOURNALS

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Abstract. *This paper examines the similarities and differences in the use of rhetorical citations in research articles in two journal publication contexts in the field of Applied Linguistics, namely Indonesian Journals aimed at a local audience, and International Journals aimed at a global audience. Fifty Discussion Sections from published research articles were taken from the two publication contexts. Results of the analysis indicate a dominant use of integral citations especially verb-controlling type in the Indonesian local corpus. It is suggested that this citation type requires less demand on synthesising various sources cited while Discussion Sections in the International corpus make greater use of non-integral citations which indicates a succinct synthesis of various sources. In terms of function, referring to literature is the most salient function in Indonesian local corpus while attribution is the most dominant function found in the International corpus. Accompanying the textual analysis of citation practices in these journals, Indonesian academics as part of the community of the discipline were interviewed. Their perspectives indicate urgency for results of genre analysis studies to be transformed into teaching materials to assist especially novice writers in the field of Applied Linguistics in understanding English research article writing conventions better.*

Key words: *Citations practice, Indonesian-based journals, International journals, applied linguistics.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Research articles have been used as an essential channel of scientific communication among scholars (Pho and Tran, 2016) and as a venue to build up a vast body of 'parceled knowledge' (Hyland, 2016: 58). It is also 'the central genre of new knowledge production' (Yang and Allison, 2002: 365) which places making references to the literature (Thompson and Tribble, 2001) as essential. In this context, citations in research articles are used by the writers to situate their research amongst existing literature and to support knowledge construction in the field (e.g. Samraj, 2013; Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005; Swales, 1986, 1990). The significant role that citations play in academic writing is well-documented across natural and social science disciplines; in Applied Linguistics (e.g. Swales, 1986, 1990; Hyland, 1999;

Submitted August 1st, 2021, accepted for publication September 1st, 2021
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Thompson, 2000); Sociology of Science (e.g. Bazerman, 1988; Becher, 1989; Myers, 1990); and Information Science (White, 2004). The practice of citations in research article writing exists in order to make references to existing relevant sources and demonstrate critical engagement with current knowledge. Citations are used to signal what is already known about the subject of study, to align with a particular perspective, or indeed to point out the weaknesses in others' arguments (Swales and Feak, 2004; Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011).

Informed by the aforementioned studies, this study seeks to examine types and functions of citations in Indonesian local English journals and International journals in the area of Applied Linguistics. Variations in the use of citations by paying attention to the potential impact of the broad knowledge categorisation concept (hard vs soft sciences) is also applied in the analysis of the findings from the two corpora of 'soft' discipline' called Applied Linguistics (Hyland, 2009a). These study focus especially on citation practices as 'the heart of academic writing' (Hyland, 2005, p. 15) in two different publishing contexts Indonesia-based Journals and International Journals publishing in the field of Applied Linguistics. To complement the textual analysis, a small qualitative social scientific interview with three Indonesian academics that have had experiences in writing for publication either for local English journals and international reputed journals in the area of Applied Linguistics was conducted. Two research questions were proposed in this research:

(i) What are the similarities and differences between the two corpora of Discussions in the use of citations?
(ii) What are Indonesian academics' perceptions of citations in research article writing for publication?

2. METHOD

To identify similarities and differences in the use of citations in two journal publication contexts in the field of Applied Linguistics a total of 50 research articles were selected from 10 journals in the area of Applied Linguistics. Five of the journals are peer-reviewed Indonesian local English journals (International journal of language education, International Journal of Language Education and Culture Review, International Journal of Education, International Journal of Education, The Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics) and other five are international journals in the area of Applied Linguistics (Applied Linguistics, TESOL Quarterly, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, The Journal of Second Language Writing, Language Learning Journal). The selected research articles from the ten journals were restricted to empirical studies (e.g. qualitative, quantitative and mixed method studies). Theoretical articles and articles published in special issues were excluded because the overall organisation (i.e. rhetorical structure) of an article may vary in accordance with its type (Cheng and Unsworth, 2016). The Discussion Sections of each article were identified and extracted in order to compile to form two corpora of RA Discussions from a single discipline of Applied Linguistics as there is a possibility that any observed differences may be due to differences in the discipline of the texts (Cominos, 2011).

In this study, the citations analysis that we conducted independently and manually, due to the small size of corpora analysed (Lee et al., 2018; Flowerdew, 2000), focused both on citation type and function. Using Swales' (1990) citation typologies of integral and non-integral citations, the analysis was conducted by referring to the syntactic position of the names of authors cited (Swales, 1990; Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011). Further analysis on integral citations was made identifying whether they were verb controlling or naming

(Thompson and Tribble, 2001). The number of citations per 1,000 words was computed for comparison across the two sub-corpora (Samraj, 2013). A numeric format in the form of figures in square brackets was applied where citations of both the integral and non-integral type were used by writers. To determine the number of citations, all brackets which included both single or multiple numbers were identified and counted. As suggested by Bloch and Chi (1995), multiple non-integral citations were counted as a single citation, as shown in '(Hampl, 2011; Ammar and Spada, 2011) [[3]]' from the above sample. In other words, the number of citations in this study corresponds to the frequency of occurrences of citations, regardless of them being single- or multiple-reference citations. All occurrences were then counted and categorised into different types and functions.

Functions of citations are determined by considering not only the sentence in which citations appear, but also the surrounding sentences (Samraj, 2013; Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011). Harwood (2009) argues that, to a certain degree, authors' real intentions in using citations in their texts may not be accurately determined by simply considering the sentences surrounding the citations. However, he notes that it is possible to identify the rhetorical functions of citations by considering the discourse within which those citations appear. Thus, in order to identify the function of citations in research article Discussions in both corpora, texts were read and analysed several times and a list of possible functions of citations in both corpora produced. The list was revised as more texts were analysed in order to capture the range of functions, and to distinguish more effectively one function from another.

To complement the above textual analysis, three Indonesian academics with experience of writing for publishing were interviewed regarding their views on writing for international publication in general and citations use in English research articles in particular. Each interview lasted around 50 to 60 minutes and was tape-recorded and transcribed. As mentioned earlier, these qualitative semi-structured interviews focused both on general issues related to writing for publication purposes and more specific issues such as the roles of citations in Discussion Sections of research articles. However, data from these interviews were used as complementary element for the current study.

3. Results

3.1 Comparing Citation Types in Both Corpora of RA Discussions

The results of the analysis indicated that both integral (IG) and non-integral (NIG) citations are used in research article Discussions in both Indonesian local corpus (ILC) and international corpus (IC), as can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Total Types of Citations found in ILC and IC

Types	ILC		IC	
	Raw Number	Percentage	Raw Number	Percentage
Integral	92	57.5	72	29
Non-integral	68	42.5	177	71
Total	160	100	249	100

The above table shows that in the Indonesian Local Corpus, there were a total of 160 citations; 57.5 % were integral citations; 42.5% were non-integral types. In the International Corpus 249 citations were identified, with a greater percentage of these being non-integral types (71%). Integral citations, on the other hand, comprise only 72 instances, a percentage of 29%. This suggests that Discussions Sections in the Indonesian local corpus are constructed with more emphasis on the cited authors' aims, mostly indicating support of previous researchers to claims made for acceptance by community members (Kafes, 2017). The apparent preference for use of non-integral citations over integral citations in the IC suggests Discussions are constructed with more emphasis on the message than on the cited authors, and this eventually keeps the flow of the arguments uninterrupted (Hewings et al. 2010), constructing a piece of text that is more likely to be objective and scientific (Thompson, 2005a; Hyland, 1999). Examples of integral and non-integral types of citations drawn from each corpus are presented below.

Example 4
'Integral Citation'

A similar finding was demonstrated by Crossley et al. (2010), who found that the use of more frequent words over time by learners correlated with the use of more polysemous words, suggesting that the more frequent words may have had more senses. **(Itl-Text5)**

Restu, Atmowardoyo, and Akil (2018) states that by having good communication skills, the teacher can develop good and close relationship with the students. **(Indo-Text5)**

Example 5
'Non-Integral Citation'

A more general interpretation is that there is a form expressed as 'Person +BE + Affect + Preposition + Entity' or 'Person +BE + Affect + clause' which matches the meaning of 'reaction to target', comprising a single construction. These interpretations are not inconsistent but suggest that constructions exist at various levels of delicacy **(Halliday 1985; Wible and Tsao 2017) (Itl-Text4)**

By applying PMI strategy, students are able to develop their thinking ability and easy to find solution of the problem **(Streeter, 2004 as quoted in Mirawati and Amri, 2013) (Indo-Text2)**

3.2. Citation Functions in Both Corpora of RA Discussions (ILC and IC)

In the ILC, six functions of citations are identified: 'attribution', 'exemplification', 'further reference', 'application', 'evaluation' and 'comparison with other sources'. From these six functions (160 instances in total), 'comparison with other sources' is the most prevalent, with 74 instances, a percentage of 46.3%. The second most frequent function found in this corpus is 'attribution' (59, or 36.8% of the total instances). The remaining functions occur less frequently, such as 'evaluation' (8.2%), 'exemplification' (2.5%) and 'further reference' (2.5%). The other two functions identified in Petriç's (2007) framework of citation 'statement of use' and 'establishing links between sources', were not found in this corpus. In the IC, all eight functions, as outlined in Petriç's (2007) framework of citation, are identified with 'attribution' as the most prevalent function (78 instances, or 32.4% of the total citation functions identified). 'Comparison with other sources' and 'application' are the second and third most prevalent functions of citation found in the IC, with 76 (31.5%) and 25 (10.3%) respectively. The rest of the functions are used less frequently with each occurring in fewer than 10% of instances. These include 'evaluation' (8.7%), 'exemplification' (8.3%), 'further reference' (6.6%), 'statement of use' (1.3 %), and 'establishing links between sources' (0.82%). Further explanation of each citation function identified in both corpora of RA Discussions is provided below.

'Attribution' in ILC and IC

The first function of citation found in each corpus is 'attribution', which is used to attribute information or activity to sources. 'Attribution' is the most dominant citation function in the IC (32.4 %) and is the second highest in the Indonesian local corpus (36.8%).

Example 8

Studies that have examined L2 lexical proficiency using computational methods have traditionally investigated features related to frequency, imageability, concreteness, meaningfulness, and **range (Morris and Cobb 2004; Crossley et al. 2010; Crossley et al. 2011; Kyle and Crossley 2015).** These studies have found that L2 learners exhibit growth in lexical proficiency in terms of the production of less frequent words, greater lexical diversity, and the use of less imageable, concrete, and meaningful language **(Ellis and Beaton 1993; Crossley et al. 2010; Salsbury et al. 2011; Crossley et al. 2013) (Itl-Text5)**

Example 9

Concerning with the use of podcast in EFL teaching, Szendeffy (2005) **stated that** podcast provide students and teachers with great full access and integration of material than tape recorders or videocassettes. **(Indo-Text4)**

'Exemplification' in ILC and IC

The second function of citation found in both Indonesian local corpus and international corpus is '*exemplification'*– 2.5% of the Indonesian local corpus and 8.3% of the International corpus. This citation function is used to illustrate the writer's statement through source(s), usually preceded by *for example* or *e.g.*, as can be seen in Examples 7 and 8 below.

Example 10

The Spanish teacher in Elola and Oskoz (2016), **for example**, used the two modalities to focus on form in her Word comments, and on content and style in the screencast. **(Itl-Text3)**

Example 11

The statistically significant relation between gender and the 16-year old adolescents' attitudes towards learning a foreign language as found in this study correlates with previous studies reporting that gender is one of many factors that has relation with one's attitudes towards learning a foreign language (**e.g**. Kobayashi, 2002; Clark &Trafford, 1995; Ellis, 1994; Bacon & Finnemann, 1992; Powell & Batters, 1985). **(Indo-Text2)**

'Further Reference' in ILC and IC

The third function of 'further reference' is used in 2.5% in the Indonesian local corpus and 6.6% in the international corpus. This function is employed to refer to source(s) providing further information on an issue, usually in brackets/footnotes and preceded by *see*, as illustrated in the following examples.

Example 12

The present findings also contribute to reformulating how timescales are applied to track voice development—and more broadly, L2 development. In the CDST context (and on studies of L2 development in general—**see**, e.g. Leki et al. 2008). **(Itl-Text1)**

Example 13

Previous studies reported that more exposure of English promotes English language learners' English development (**see** Gamez, 2015; Dewi, 2017). **(Indo-Text5)**

'Statement of Use' in ILC and IC

The fourth function found is 'statement of use'. While no use of this function is found in the ILC, 1.3% appears in the international corpus. This function is used to state source(s) and purposes of source(s) used as in Example 14 drawn from the IC.

Example 14

To explore our findings, **we will look to** the MOGUL framework of Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2014a, 2014b), which assumes that acquired and learned knowledge depend on active processing **(Itl-Text2)**

'Application' in ILC and IC

The fifth function of citation found in both corpora is 'application', used in 3.7% of the ILC and 10.3% of the IC. This function is used in both corpora to make connections between source(s) and writer's work for writer's own purpose, as can be seen in Examples 15 and 16.

Example 15

In the individual interview, agency is constructed as emerging from '**processes of confrontation with voices of others'** (Dufva and Aro 2014: 274). (Itl-Text2)

Example 16

The dominant use of expansive resources, especially 'entertain', in the students' texts in this study is similar to the Engagement patterns of medical research articles, which have been characterized as being **"cautious, modest, or lacking assertion"** (Fryer, 2013, p. 198). **(Indo- Text6)**

'Evaluation' in ILC and IC

The next citation function identified in both corpora is 'evaluation', used to evaluate source(s) using evaluative language. This function is employed in 8.2% of the ILC and 8.7% in the IC, as shown in the following Examples 17 and 18.

Example 17

While Biber et al. (2013) quite **accurately point out** that measures such as MLT do not capture a particular identifiable type of complexity, the present study provides further evidence that MLT appears to be associated with higher writing quality. **(Itl-Text5)**

Example 18

Therefore, podcasts **can be used** as main sources or supplementary tools as suggested by previous research (Istanto, 2011, Abdous, 2009; Lee & Chan, 2007). **(Indo-Text4)**

'Establishing Links between Sources' in ILC and IC

The next function of citation identified is 'establishing links between sources' to point to links between different sources. This is found in 0.82% of the IC but none (0%) occur in the ILC. This function can be seen in Example 19.

Example 19

Cameron (2001) has concerns about writing being introduced too early, in relation to learners in the five-to-seven age group but suggests that eight-nine-year-olds are likely to be ready to cope with writing to support their learning. **This is supported by Swain (2000),** who identified how collaborative writing enhanced the learning of young pupils in Canada. **(Itl-Text4)**

'Comparison with Other Sources' in ILC and IC

Finally, the last function found in the two corpora is 'comparison with other sources' to indicate similarities or differences with findings from previous studies. This function is the second highest function in the ILC (46.3%) and is the most dominant in the IC (31.5%).

Example 20

A similar finding was demonstrated by Crossley et al. (2010), who found that the use of more frequent words over time by learners correlated with the use of more polysemous words, suggesting that the more frequent words may have had more senses. **(Itl-Text5)**

In addition, **unlike previous scholarship on voice** that has focused on its long-term development (Ivanić, 1997; Dressen-Hammouda, 2014), these findings promote how studies on short-term development can expand present conceptualizations of voice construction. **(Itl-Text1.**

4. Discussion

The above findings have shown that, in the two corpora of RA Discussions, variations occur in both frequency, type and function of citations. In terms of citation types, Discussion Sections in the Indonesian local corpus evidence more integral than non-integral citations. This use of integral citations in the Indonesian local corpus shows that Discussions Sections in this corpus are constructed mostly through attributing whole responsibility to a single source or scholar cited (Kafes, 2017). This majority use of integral citations in the Indonesian local corpus may also suggest that Discussion Sections in this corpus are created to 'position a reader to accept rather than challenge the referenced propositions' (Coffin, 2009: 178) by showing how earlier relevant studies support their own (Hyland and Feng, 2017). It has been suggested that integral citation is a simpler form of citation (Jalilifar, 2012) which makes fewer demands on the author in synthesising various sources cited (Swales, 2014).

We argued earlier in this paper that the analysis of citation function emphasises the intentions writers realize by using citations and that through textual analysis it possible to identify the rhetorical functions of citations by considering the discourse within which those citations appear. However, in order to further pursue the notion of 'real intentions' with regard to using (or avoiding) citations we draw on data collected from interviews conducted with three Indonesian academics. In their interviews on the topic writing for academic publishing in English, the interviewees each pointed to the importance and challenges of citation practices in their academic writing. During the interview, Rani (pseudonym), for example, said:

> I think the reason for why I find it difficult to deal with citations is that I did not have a good access to current literature, especially research articles from highly reputed journals in TESOL, for example. So I rarely paid attention to how citations are employed in an academic text like a research article. I mean it is important to refer to good quality English research articles so we can see how expert writers cite other people's work (*Rani, translated version)*.

This challenges in citations practice among Indonesian academics in general could also be explained by a lack of resources and limited access to the literature that leads to the writers' lack of understanding of the importance of citation in academic texts (Adnan, 2014, 2009; Arsyad, 2013; Lillis and Curry, 2014) and RA writing practice in Indonesia (Arsyad, 2013). In his analysis of 47 Indonesian RA Discussion Sections published in Indonesian local journals in the Social Sciences and Humanities, Arsyad found an absence of references to previous research findings in the majority of the texts he analysed. This suggests that in research article writing practice in the Indonesian language published in Indonesian journals, writing a Discussion Section without citations is probably still possible, so that a similar practice would probably be transferred when writing RAs in English, especially among Indonesian novice researchers.

Unlike in Indonesian local corpus, Discussions Sections in the international corpus are mostly backgrounded through non-integral citations, as this type of citation is the most dominant in this corpus. This finding confirms Hyland and Feng's (2017) study. In their analysis of a corpus of 2.2 million words from the same leading journals in four disciplines (Applied Linguistics, Sociology, Biology and Electrical Engineering) in 1965, 1985, and 2015, Hyland and Feng found a new trend of using non-integral citations of most writers in leading international journals, indicating a general trend towards emphasising the reported studies rather than works cited among experts.

In terms of citation function, 'attribution' is used in a high percentage in each corpus. It is the highest function in IC (32.4%) and the second highest function in ILC (36.8%). This finding is not surprising because 'attribution' is a basic citation and is 'rhetorically the simplest' (Petriç, 2007: 247). It seems less demanding on writers' advanced rhetorical skills as compared to other functions like 'evaluation'. This textual finding is in line with data from the interview.

> When I write, I tend to use citations that support my findings or my ideas. But I also try to find out contradictory ideas so that I can show my position between the two. I do this because I know that when I only cite those which support, the discussion would be so narrow. With the pro and contra, our writing would sound more critical (Tio, *Pseudonym*).

The above discussion sheds new light on the perception that a 'soft' discipline like Applied Linguistics would likely use more integral citations (Hyland, 1999); this is not always correct. The fact that more non-integral citations are used in research article Discussions in the international corpus, for example, has evidenced that this citation type has been important in the creation of convincing and persuasive claims in this area. In addition, the dominant use of both 'attribute' and 'comparing with other sources' functions in both corpora is in line with a study by Harwood (2009), that in soft science, citations are employed to engage with readers.

5. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study support the idea that academics writing in local non-English backgrounds are likely to use integral citations of verb-controlling type, as reported by previous studies (e.g. Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011; Jalilifar, 2012). This is indicated by the use of more integral citations of verb-controlling than non-integral type in RA Discussion Sections in the Indonesian local corpus whereby the writers are Indonesian academics in which English is treated as a foreign language nationally (Arsyad et al., 2019; Adnan, 2014). It has been argued that such a dominant use of this citation type could be due to its simplicity in that this citation type requires less demand on synthesising various sources cited (Swales, 2014) and has been typically used in RAs written by novice academics (ElMalik and Nesi, 2008).

This preference for integral citation practices identified in the Indonesian local corpus is in contrast to the international and cross-disciplinary trend of using non-integral citations first identified by Hyland and Feng (2017) Discussion Sections in the international corpus were found to make greater use of non-integral citations, which synthesize various sources to do so. Finally, the dominant use of two citation functions (i.e. to attribute and to compare with other sources) as shown in each corpus has brought further evidence that in soft sciences citations are used to advance the credibility and the acceptability of the proposed claims by especially expert members of the discourse community (Hyland, 2004). This has been evidenced through attributing the claim to previous researchers in the field and by comparing their claims with results of previous studies in the same area (Hyland, 1997, 2000).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT. I would like to thank the reviewers of the journal for their expert advice and comments on this paper and the Indonesian Endowment Fund for Education Scholarship (LPDP) for its funding support.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 753−764
UDC: 811.111'376.625 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104753H

Original scientific paper

BECOMING A BUSINESS WRITER: OMANI ESP STUDENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED WRITING CHALLENGES, NEEDS AND WANTS

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Abstract. *Today, effective English writing is one of the most valuable professional skills for growth and development in the world of entrepreneurship. In spite of the prominence of English as the leading language of business and business education, writing is still one of the biggest challenges that business students face. The purpose of this paper is to report on a study that explored Omani business student-perceived challenges, needs and wants in writing. The study used an online survey involving seventy students from Sultan Qaboos University who were asked to share their perceptions in regard to these three dimensions specifically related to the skill of business writing. Analysis of the data was conducted using frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. Findings reveal that business students place effective writing skills high in terms of their perceived necessity. They also indicate that in spite of interesting and engaging writing activities contextualized in Oman's world of business, students' overall enjoyment level of writing is moderate on average due to perceived challenges throughout learning, and lacks in perspectives pertaining to how the writing tasks and assignments could be developed and implemented, including providing more guiding writing practice, more feedback, more interesting topics and more real-world topics and tasks. These student challenges, needs and wants analysis' findings can direct further developments, leading to a successful English business writing syllabus and teaching practice.*

Key words: *ESP, writing skills, business English classroom, Sultan Qaboos University, Oman*

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the features of today's modern world is the prominence given to the English language. English has eclipsed most other languages in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and the humanities (Rao, 2019; Selvaraj & Aziz, 2019). English has been called "the fastest spreading language in human history" (Neeley, 2012, para. 7). Although English has not surpassed Mandarin Chinese and Spanish in their respective numbers of native speakers as specified by Ethnologue: Languages of the World website (www.ethnologue.com), it has more than two billion active users of the language, which combined with a global dominance over the fields of international trade, entertainment, and academic publications, means that it possesses a paramount role that remains almost

Submitted June 19th, 2021, accepted for publication July 19th, 2021
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unassailable by other languages (Rao, 2019). Further, English has gained such preeminence that less than one-quarter of its users are native speakers (Rao, 2019). The geographical breadth of English, which is spoken in 146 countries, far surpasses Mandarin Chinese, which is spoken in 38 countries (www.ethnologue.com). This has an implication for the role of the English language student. Learning English is not primarily concerned with interacting with native speakers anymore; indeed, learners "are acquiring English because it will be required of them in a wide range of work related, educational and social activities, many of which will not include native speakers" (Mondiano, 2009, as cited in Grosu-Radulescu & David, 2015, p. 59).

English is now "the global language of business" (Neeley, 2012). Increasingly, multinational corporations have stipulated that English be the corporate language of their companies (Neeley, 2012) in order to standardize communication across diverse geographical boundaries. Neeley (2012) contends that there are three reasons driving this phenomenon: (1) competitive pressure – a diverse array of customers, suppliers, and business partners requires a common language of standardization. Ambitious companies that neglect this initiative may well be limiting their growth opportunities; (2) globalization of tasks and resources – common language inputs and outputs aids effective data-driven decision making, which is a hallmark of business success; (3) mergers and acquisitions integration across national boundaries – global negotiations are difficult enough even when conducted in the same language. When negotiations are conducted in several languages, "nuances are easily lost" (para. 13). Some level of English proficiency is required for anyone who endeavors to find success in a career in global business. The conclusion that can be drawn from this although it is not explicitly stated is that teaching of English, especially in the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), should extend its boundaries to focus on students' competencies and skills in English language use "in scholarly, professional, or working environments" (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 17). And written communication skill in business settings is no exception.

2. WRITTEN COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN BUSINESS SETTINGS

Written Communication as a Skill for Personal and Organizational Success

Writing is a versatile and fundamental skill (Graham, 2019). It allows individuals to successfully perform many tasks, including learning new ideas, persuading others, recording information, and chronicling experiences (Graham, 2019). Writing effectively is a skill that plays a prominent role in attaining successful outcomes both in school and in the workplace (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2014; Hidayati, 2018). Conversely, Graham (2019) argues that the inability to produce effective writing will inevitably "exact a toll" on individuals' academic, occupational, and personal realms (p. 278).

In all levels of education, writing is the most used skill area to assess students' performance (Afrin, 2016, as cited in Hidayati, 2018). Competence in the ability to write clearly and effectively in English is a prevalent learning outcome in most tertiary educational institutions (Sparks, Song, Brantley, & Liu, 2014). Ninety-nine percent of professors polled at 433 colleges and universities in the United States rated writing as one of the critical intellectual skills that students must develop (Sparks, Song, Brantley, & Liu, 2014). The Assessment of Higher Education Learning Outcomes, a project sponsored by the OECD, stipulates that proficient written communication is to be expected of all students in tertiary educational institutions internationally (OECD, 2012).

Additionally, a successful career in today's workforce is dependent in part on an individual's proficiency of writing skills. Almost every profession requires some form of regular documentation (Selvaraj & Aziz, 2019), so it can be said that almost any modern workplace requires decent writing skills.

Effective business writing

Writing, in general, is a complex skill that requires a marshalling of competencies to be synthesized into a coherent whole. Elements of effective writing include (Why are students, n.d.): writing mechanics: grammar, sentence structure, and spelling; planning a writing strategy; communicating ideas clearly and concisely; constructing a reasoned, demonstrable argument; effectively marshaling evidence and using sources appropriately; and organizing ideas effectively. According to Sparks, Song, Brantley, and Liu, 2014, the complexity of writing as a skill includes all of the following dimensions: context and purpose; audience awareness; content development and organization; conventions of genre and discipline; use of sources; word choice and style; and mechanics. In essence, "writing is a learned skill that cannot be mastered in a short time and needs to be continuously trained" (Salimah & Kwary, 2015, p. 44).

The Plain Writing Act of the U.S. government (2010, as cited in White, 2015) stipulates that writing be "clear, concise, well-organized, and follows other best practices appropriate to the subject or field and intended audience" (p. 73). More than a purely intellectual act, writing proficiency may aid or hinder one's career success, as many jobs require writing tasks that require technical data to be presented in a clear and professional manner to an organization's key decision makers (White, 2015).

Many tertiary educational institutions offer courses in academic writing; however, increasingly scholars and practitioners have argued that "business writing" is qualitatively different from academic writing (White, 2015). Bovee and Thill (2014, as cited in White, 2015) define business communication as a tool that incorporates the four elements of professionalism, accuracy, clarity, and brevity. Professionalism in the business workplace refers to an understanding of an intended audience. For instance, managers vary in terms of their comfort level of more formal versus less formal writing styles, including salutations commonly used in the business world (White, 2015). The effective business writer is aware of such preferences, and tailors his or her writing to the specific manager involved. Next, accuracy relates to the reality that many decisions in the business world are data-driven (White, 2015). Language must be precise as key decisions often hinge upon the linguistic interpretation of data. Third, the concept of clarity in business writing refers to language being unambiguous in its intended or favoured outcome (White, 2015). For example, business managers report receiving emails in which good command of English grammar and sentence structure is evident, but the resulting action that is desired remains obscure. In others words, business writing often centres around "the asking" of the recipient, meaning that an action is required (White, 2015). Finally, White (2015) argues that, unlike academic writing, business writing prizes conciseness, without "long and wandering sentences", or "overly verbose paragraphs" (p. 77). Moreover, Zhang (2013) reports of a study in the banking sector in which business practitioners evaluated business students' writing capabilities. Unlike teachers of business English writing, who generally stressed grammatical accuracy and consistency of formatting of texts, banking executives were more concerned with "power relationships between the writer and the reader, workplace culture, and time constraints. Their comments on language errors or visual appeal in student writing were also framed in terms of their impact on corporate image rather than linguistic proficiency" (p. 145).

Employer perspectives

In today's globalized workplace, the importance of generic soft skills has gained increasing attention in recent years. Unlike previous decades, graduates' subject knowledge and technical skills alone are insufficient for lasting career success (James & James, 2004; Nealy, 2005, as cited in Robles, 2012). In Robles (2012) survey of business executives, the top ten most prized soft skills were found to be: integrity, communication, courtesy, responsibility, social skills, positive attitude, professionalism, flexibility, teamwork, and work ethic. It should be noted that communication, including written communication, was ranked as the second most important skill after integrity, with 91.2% of business executives ranking it as "extremely important" (Robles, 2012). Poor communication skills in the business world may lead to harmful and lasting effects, including "tarnished brand image, decreased employee productivity, ineffective or erroneous decision-making, misinterpretations, and mismanagement" (Kleckner & Marshall, 2014).

In the United States, survey results of the National Commission on Writing (2004, as cited by Conrad & Newberry, 2012) indicated that fewer than one-third of employees possessed competency in writing abilities most valued by organizations. Further, organizations found the majority of recent graduates' writing skills to be "unsatisfactory", leading to many firms hiring trainers to run remedial courses in writing for employees (Conrad & Newberry, 2012).

3. English for Specific Purposes and Written Communication Skills Development

The design and revision of English for Specific Purposes courses is directly related to needs analysis (Chovancova, 2014). Basturkmen (2013, as cited in Chovancova, 2014) contends that needs analysis findings should direct the development of the syllabus. In the domain of ESP courses, learners' employment target situations and learners' course feedback opinions should be taken into account (Chovancova, 2014). Nation and Macalister (2010) and Long (2005) divide needs analysis into necessities (what students need to learn), lacks (what students' problems are throughout learning), and wants (what students wish to learn).

This study involves business students with the aim of evaluating their perceptions in regard to three dimensions, namely challenges, needs and wants related to the skill of business writing which is ascribed importance for higher education students (Didenko & Zhukova, 2021). The following research questions were explored:

1. What are the perceived necessities of Omani business students in writing?
2. What are the writing challenges as perceived by the students?
3. What do business students wish to learn and how do they wish to learn to acquire effective writing skills?

Study context

Sultan Qaboos University is a tertiary educational institution in the Sultanate of Oman. It is a national leader in higher education and community service in the country.

Providing 'specialists and experts of Oman in diverse fields, taking into account the changing needs of the marketplace and working within the framework of state policy on resource development' alongside with 'constant modernization of the educational process at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels' are among the university's objectives (Objectives, n.d., n.p.). One of the university's units, the Centre for Preparatory Studies, primarily focuses on the English language education and offers three business English courses for all students in the College of Economics and Political Science. Students take these three courses in their first and second year of their degree study plan. English for Business III course is the third and final course that students take to improve and develop their English language skills, including business writing skills.

Participants

A total of 70 students who were taking English for Business III course in Spring 2021 semester participated in the survey (N = 70). The proportion of female to male respondents was 65.7% (N = 46) to 34.3% (N = 24). Over half of the students (54.3%) were 20 years old, with most of the remaining participants being 19 years old (22.9%) and 21 years old (21%). Since most of the students take English for Business III in their second year of their degree plan before choosing their specialization, 87.1% of the respondents indicated that they had not yet chosen a business major. The specializations of the remaining participants were: information technology (4.3%), accounting (2.9%), economics (2.9%), finance (1.4%), and marketing (1.4%).

Research methodology

A survey instrument using Google Forms was administered to students. For quantitative analysis of results, average mean scores were calculated and ranked from highest to lowest. Standard deviations were also calculated to observe the dispersion of responses for each question. For qualitative analysis, participants' free responses were coded using observed themes that emerged. Two general types of coding were performed. Free responses were grouped into "positive", neutral", and "negative" categories pertaining to questions that dealt with enjoyment levels in the course. Additionally, free responses were grouped thematically, where possible. Similarly, for questions that dealt with suggestions for improving writing outcomes in the course, free responses were coded according to identified theme.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Perceived' necessities

The importance of fitting students' needs and requirements has been emphasized by many studies that examined teaching and learning in the ESP context. Marcu (2020), for example, contends that "every course, no matter what level, undergraduate, postgraduate, or as part of company development training, needs to be designed according to the results of a needs analysis that has to be applied to make sure that materials are properly selected for the purpose of meeting the learning objectives" (p. 311). First, participants were presented with several writing tasks that pertain to their future work in the business world and asked to rate each in terms of its perceived necessity. A Likert scale was used to collect responses, which were then ranked according to mean scores. For each business writing task, students had to choose from: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. Results can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Scale mean scores and standard deviations of perceived necessity of writing tasks for future work

No	Writing Skill	Mean Score (future work)	Standard Deviation
1	Writing a CV to find a job	4.54	0.77
2	Writing clear and effective English	4.37	0.90
3	Writing business emails	4.27	0.88
4	Writing business memos	4.09	0.88
5	Writing business letters	4.07	0.91
6	Writing business research reports	3.93	1.17

As models of future professional and business practices and sources of language, tasks and assignments in English business writing seem to present real situations and practices. Here, we find that there is a lot of agreement among students on the necessity of being able to effectively write a CV (mean = 4.54, std. dev. = 0.77). The ability to write in "clear and effective English" also placed high in terms of its perceived necessity (mean = 4.37; std. dev. = 0.90). As can be seen in Table 1, business emails (mean = 4.27, std. dev. = 0.88), memos (mean = 4.09, std. dev, = 0.88), and business letters (mean = 4.07, std. dev. = 0.91) were generally also viewed as necessary writing tasks in their future work. Writing business research reports (mean = 3.93) were perceived to be the least necessary among the choices. However, there was more variance among answers here as research reports had the highest standard deviation (std. dev. = 1.17). Conversely, the least amount of spread of answers belonged to the task of "writing a CV to find a job" (std. dev. = 0.77), indicating that most students found this task to be indispensable.

Writing challenges

Next, students were asked about their competency regarding elements of proficient writing, such as skill related to grammar, spelling, punctuation, composition, paraphrasing, proofreading, and referencing. These are viewed as common writing challenges. Fourteen writing skills were presented and participants used a Likert scale to rate their competency in terms of the degree of challenge for each: 5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree; 3 = neutral; 2 = disagree; and 1 = strongly disagree. Results can be seen in Table 2.

As can be seen in Table 2, students expressed the most confidence with their abilities in capitalization (mean = 4.59), linking expressions (mean = 4.16), conclusion writing (mean = 4.16), punctuation (mean = 4.01), and formatting (mean = 3.99). Conversely, students expressed the least confidence with paraphrasing (mean = 3.69), proofreading (mean = 3.63), using correct grammar (mean = 3.60), using precise vocabulary (mean = 3.59), and in text citation and referencing (mean = 3.54), indicating that these last five skills were seen to be the most challenging. Further, it can be noted that the least amount of variance of responses related to capitalization (std. dev. = 0.77), organization of ideas into paragraphs (std. dev. = 0.76), and conclusion writing (std. dev. = 0.79). In text citation and referencing showed the highest amount of variance (std. dev. = 1.10) indicating that it is not the weakest area for all students, although it was generally weaker on average, and therefore more challenging.

Table 2. Scale mean scores and standard deviations of competency in English (challenges)

No	Skills	Mean Score (competency)	Standard Deviation
1	Using capital letters properly	4.59	0.77
2	Using effective linking expressions	4.16	0.88
3	Writing a conclusion	4.16	0.79
4	Using correct punctuation	4.01	0.88
5	Formatting documents professionally	3.99	0.84
6	Writing effective topic sentences	3.90	0.82
7	Organizing ideas into effective paragraphs	3.87	0.76
8	Spelling words correctly	3.86	0.87
9	Writing effective supporting sentences	3.69	0.83
10	Using paraphrasing skills	3.69	0.94
11	Proofreading documents	3.63	0.87
12	Using correct grammar	3.60	0.89
13	Using precise vocabulary to express ideas	3.59	0.89
14	Writing in text citations and references	3.54	1.10

What students wish to learn and how they wish to learn

The third element of needs analysis is "wants" (what students wish to learn). The main focus here is on business class activities and suggestions made by the participants. Students were presented with twelve suggestions in the form of various writing activities. A Likert scale was used for students to evaluate how "interesting, useful, and engaging" each of these activities were, choosing from: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. Writing activities were then ranked according to mean scores, and standard deviations were calculated to note the dispersion of the responses. Results can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Scale mean scores and standard deviations of preferred topics for business writing (wants)

No	Skills	Mean Score (preferred topics)	Standard Deviation
1	Companies in Oman	4.01	0.96
2	The world's most successful companies	4.01	0.97
3	Marketing and advertising strategies	3.77	1.21
4	Managing people in a company	3.73	1.14
5	New technologies in business	3.69	1.15
6	New entrepreneurs	3.59	1.00
7	Famous business people/CEOs	3.57	1.16
8	Current economic conditions	3.54	1.34
9	Business concepts	3.26	1.30
10	Daily business news stories	3.24	1.10
11	Current research in business journals	3.20	1.12
12	Reviewing a well-known business book	2.83	1.09

As can be seen in Table 3, the top five writing topics that students felt were “interesting, useful, and engaging” were: “companies in Oman” (mean = 4.01); “the world’s most successful companies” (mean = 4.01); “marketing and advertising strategies” (mean = 3.77); “managing people in a company” (mean = 3.73); and “new technologies in business” (mean = 3.69). Conversely, the two writing topics that garnered the least amount of interest were: “current research in business journals” (mean = 3.20); and “reviewing a well-known business book” (mean = 2.83). As can be seen from the standard deviation scores in table 3, this third question that asked about preferred writing activities generated a lot more variance in scores as compared with questions regarding writing necessities and challenges. This is most likely due to the inherent subjectivity in the question as it relates to students’ business interests. Nevertheless, students’ responses showed the least amount of variance for the preferred writing topics of “companies in Oman” (std. dev. = 0.96), and “the world’s most successful companies” (std. dev. = 0.97).

Enjoyment level

The next part of the survey involved questions related to students’ enjoyment level of writing. Students were asked if they enjoyed writing, in an overall sense, in the English for Business class. They then chose a response along a continuum from “1 = I enjoy it very much”, to “5 = I don’t enjoy it at all”. The following bar chart (Figure 1) displays their responses.

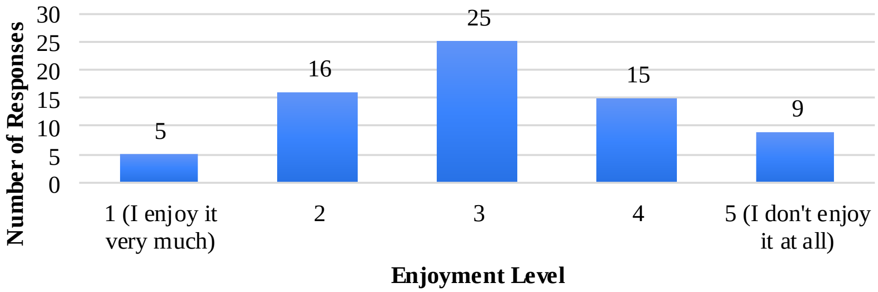

Fig. 1. Ejoymennt Level of Writing

As we can see from figure 1, students’ overall enjoyment level of writing showed a range in which 25 out of 70 students (35.7%) neither enjoyed nor didn’t enjoy writing. The number of students who really enjoyed or moderately enjoyed writing was 21 out of 70 (30%). Finally, the number of students who didn’t enjoy writing, in a moderate or extreme sense, was 24 out of 70 (34.3%).

Students were then asked in an open-ended question to provide reasons why they enjoyed or didn’t enjoy writing in the English for Business class. A total of 49 responses were received. An analysis of these qualitative responses was conducted to identify possible recurring themes.

Responses were coded along thematic lines and then tabulated to determine which themes occurred most often. Most of the responses either provided a reason for enjoying or not enjoying writing. Several respondents gave a response along the lines of “it depends”, containing both a positive and negative theme, which were tabulated accordingly. Themes were then ranked according to frequency. Results can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Reasons for enjoying writing activities
in the English for Business class

No	Reason	Frequency (number of similar responses)
1	Desire to improve writing skills	5
2	Interesting topics	5
3	Opportunity to express own opinions	4
4	Enjoy business topics in general	2
5	Can learn about business through writing	2
6	Desire to improve business vocabulary	1
7	Opportunity to be creative	1

As seen in Table 4, the three most common reasons for enjoying writing were: "desire to improve writing skills" (n = 5); "interesting topics" (n = 5); and "opportunity to express own opinions" (n = 4). To illustrate, one student responded:' 'I enjoy writing in English for Business course because it moves my writing skills such as paraphrasing. I've also become really good at it which makes me feel fulfilled about myself.' According to another student, she enjoyed writing 'because it is always a pleasure to express opinion and reflect the writer personality with a strong business words.' However, a wider variety of themes were identified among the reasons for not enjoying writing in business English class, and they are presented in Table 5. They are listed in their decreasing order of frequency.

Table 5. Reasons for not enjoying writing activities
in the English for Business class

No	Reason	Frequency (number of similar responses)
1	Dislike paraphrasing	5
2	Uninteresting topics	5
3	Penalized with low marks	4
4	Dislike writing in general	3
5	Limited time to complete writing task	3
6	Dislike referencing	2
7	Insufficient in class practice	2
8	Lack of choice regarding writing tasks	2
9	Lack of business knowledge	1
10	Mentally exhausting	1
11	Struggle with punctuation	1
12	Struggle with vocabulary	1
13	Too many writing tasks	1
14	Topics are too challenging	1
15	Unclear instruction from teachers	1

As can be seen in Table 5, over 40% of the responses here (n = 14) pertained to three themes related to a dislike of paraphrasing (n = 5); a feeling that writing topics are not engaging (n = 5); and a perception that writing outcomes often result in low marks (n =

4). Many students in the course often indicate that they struggle with paraphrasing, which is a necessary research writer's skill in tertiary education. They also point out insufficient knowledge of business-related context and content. Here are some students' responses: 'Writing is interesting, but sometimes I feel distracted because of difficult topics and questions.'; 'It's not fun because I don't have enough background about the topics.'

Students' suggestions for improvement

Finally, students were asked to provide suggestions pertaining to how the writing tasks and assignments in the course could be improved. A total of 46 responses were received, and of these, 12 themes were identified and tabulated. Results can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6. Suggestions for improving writing activities in the English for Business class

No	Reason	Frequency (number of similar responses)
1	Provide more interesting topics	11
2	Provide more guided writing practice	9
3	Change marking criteria	4
4	Provide more feedback	4
5	Provide more real-world topics and tasks	2
6	Provide more time to write in class	2
7	Provide clearer instruction	2
8	Make writing more personalized	1
9	Model good writing	1
10	Provide more choice in writing tasks	1
11	Reduce number of writing tasks	1
12	Use more business vocabulary	1

Here, approximately half of the total responses related to two themes: a desire for "more interesting topics" (n = 11); and a desire for "more guided writing practice" (n = 9). Here are some students' responses related to the type of writing topics in the course: 'writing topics should be related to how the business world works nowadays'; 'let students bring some information from daily life, which happened recently in Oman or in the world'; 'I feel like it could be more interesting in a way that relates to our daily life or the specific environment we are living in'. In terms of the theme for more guided writing practice, students made the following comments: 'we need to practice more during the class with the teachers, so we can discuss with him and know where our mistake is'; 'by giving the students more practice, directing them to what is right and what mistakes to avoid. Also, by illustrating to them some tips'; 'more practice in the class instead of assignments. Having conditions similar to the exam helps in improving my writing skills in the exam.'

5. CONCLUSION

This paper reported on a study that looked into Omani business student-perceived challenges, needs and wants in writing. The examination that involved business students at Sultan Qaboos University revealed that business students place effective writing skills high in terms of their perceived necessity. However, though writing activities and tasks currently offered are perceived as interesting and engaging, students' overall enjoyment level of writing is mostly low or moderate due to perceived challenges throughout learning and lacks in perspectives pertaining to how the writing tasks and assignments could be developed and implemented, including providing more guiding writing practice, more feedback, more interesting topics and more real-world topics and tasks. These student challenges, needs and wants analysis' findings can direct further developments, leading to a successful English business writing syllabus and teaching practice.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 765−773
UDC: 811.111'373.2 https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104765S

Original scientific paper

FRAME SEMANTICS METHODOLOGY FOR TEACHING TERMINOLOGY OF SPECIALISED DOMAINS

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Abstract. *The article attempts to show how the theory of Frame Semantics and the resources of the lexical database FrameNet can be used for teaching/learning terminology of specialised domains. The article discusses the principles of Frame Semantics and presents a use case of application of the frame-based methodology for developing classification of terminology of the selected financial subdomain for learning/teaching purposes. The use case focuses on terms denoting concepts that compose 'CAUSE-RISK' frame which was developed on the basis of several related frames in the FrameNet database. The stages of the use case and its outcomes are described in detail and the benefits of application of the methodology for learning/teaching specialised vocabulary are provided. Hopefully, the provided insights will give ideas to teachers of foreign languages for specific purposes and help to develop effective terminology teaching/learning techniques.*

Key words*: Frame Semantics, FrameNet, terminology, teaching specialised vocabulary*

1. INTRODUCTION

Terminology is an essential component of any specialised language as it represents the knowledge of a specialised domain, its conceptual structure that encompasses domain specific concepts and their interrelations. Thus, acquisition of terminology of a specialised domain is one of the key skills to be developed in studies of languages for specific purposes, both native and foreign.

In study materials, terms are often extracted from the texts and presented as autonomous lexical units in term lists and glossaries, which, along with various vocabulary exercises, become the main tools for teaching/learning terminology. However, such methodology has its limits: it makes it difficult to perceive relations between the terms and the overall terminological framework of a specialised domain that represents the conceptual structure of the domain. The perception of this structure provides for development of a much better understanding of the meanings of the terms, which is essential in developing skills of their accurate usage.

In the last decade, several studies have been performed on application of the Frame Semantics methodology in vocabulary teaching and learning (e.g. Atzler, 2011; Mousavi et al., 2015). Frame Semantics approach is based on the assumption that linguistic knowledge is

Submitted May 16th, 2021, accepted for publication July 17th, 2021
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inseparable from encyclopaedic knowledge as the language reflects the world the way it is constructed by humans (Cuyckens and Geeraerts, 2007, p. 201). Thus, lexical units become meaningful only when they are understood as denotations of conceptual elements of cognitive structures called frames that are defined as “schematisation of experience (a knowledge structure), which is represented at the conceptual level and held in long-term memory and relates elements and entities associated with a particular culturally-embedded scene, situation, or event from human experience” (Evans and Green, 2006, p. 211).

Frame Semantics opens new possibilities to develop vocabulary teaching/learning techniques enabling to relate lexical units into cognitive structures and thus facilitating their understanding, as well as their retention, recall and accurate usage.

The object of the present paper is the EU financial terms which denote concepts that belong to the frame CAUSE_RISK. The aim of the research is to describe the possibilities and advantages of the application of the Frame Semantics methodology for teaching and learning financial terms related to the concept RISK. In order to achieve the aim the following objectives were set:

a) to overview issues of vocabulary acquisition in the context of second language learning;
b) to present the main principles of Frame Semantics;
c) to discuss the possibilities of applying the Frame Semantics methodology in teaching and learning English financial terms;
d) to analyse and classify the EU financial terms related to the frame CAUSE_RISK extracted from an ad hoc corpus as a use case of application of the presented methodology.

The present study was carried out based on the analytical-descriptive and corpus analysis methods which enabled the researchers to unveil the advantages of the application of the Frame Semantics methodology for teaching/learning financial terms with the help of visualisation of conceptual relations between the terms under the established frame.

2. Theoretical Background and the Methodological Principles of the Research

2.1. Vocabulary acquisition in teaching/learning a second language

Acquisition of vocabulary is one of the main tasks in learning a language as vocabulary acquisition goes along with acquisition of the world knowledge (Cameron, 2001). The perception of the world around us depends on the language/s we grew up with and the experiences we made within this language or languages. Language is an ideal tool for shaping the perception of our surroundings, which enables us to describe them and assign names to the objects (Mousavi et al., 2015).

When we learn a second language, our brain faces challenges as it is ‘programmed’ to acquire world knowledge and express our emotions via a certain linguistic toolkit and has to adapt to a new set of rules and patterns. Bishop (2019, p. 3) states that ”every L2 learner’s brain is programmed by a certain idea about how the construction, structure, or pattern of a language must be, and the language is the L1, while no L1 learner’s brain contains any such data or idea whatsoever. The knowledge of L1 subconsciously forces the L2 learners to apply the L1’s construction, structure, or pattern to L2”’.

Vocabulary learning plays an essential role in this process. Vocabulary reflects cultural and social reality of another language community and its acquisition enables a better understanding of the world-view of this community. Both the receptive and productive language skills (writing, speaking, reading and listening) are influenced by vocabulary, its acquisition and retention.

Acquisition of vocabulary of a specialised domain (i.e., terminology) has also other important tasks. Terminology represents domain specific knowledge and conceptualisation. Therefore, its acquisition enables construction and usage of this knowledge. Besides, domain conceptualisation might be different in different communities, e.g. national legal concepts are system-bound and do not have absolute equivalents in other national legal systems, they may be similar in their functions, but not identical (Sandrini, 1999; Pommer, 2008). Therefore, terminology acquisition also enables comprehension and juxtaposition of different realia and their conceptualisation in different communities.

The variety of teaching general and specialised vocabulary methods is very large ranging from traditional ones, such as the translation method, the reading method, the natural method (the direct method), the situation method, etc., to more recent ones, e.g., vocabulary games, flashcards, semantic words maps, key word method, content and language integrated learning, computer-assisted vocabulary learning, etc. (Setiawan, 2008).

However, the main approach used is still based on providing language learners with word/term lists (alphabetical, thematically related) with definitions and/or translations which learners try to memorise (Read, 2004, as cited in Atzler, 2011). Such vocabulary acquisition becomes a very long process and demands certain personal features as to be disciplined and well-organised in order to take time every day for repetition in order to be successful in vocabulary learning (Özbal and Strapparava, 2011, p.1-2). Therefore, search for vocabulary learning techniques which would facilitate its retention and recall are still relevant and important. One of them is based on the principles of Frame Semantics presented in the next section.

2.2. Principles of Frame Semantics

Frame Semantics, which is a branch of Cognitive Semantics, was developed by Charles Fillmore, an American linguist, who defined it as the study of how people link linguistic forms with cognitive structures named as frames. Fillmore described frames as "certain schemata or frameworks of concepts or terms which link together as a system, which impose structure or coherence on some aspect of human experience" (Fillmore, 1975, as cited in López and Valenzuala, 1998, p. 3).

Frame Semantics seeks to investigate "how linguistic forms evoke or activate frame knowledge" (Fillmore and Baker, 2009, p. 317). The essential linguistic units that activate frames are verbs and deverbal nouns as they attach other words and together with them embody various situations of human experience.

This theory presents a new way of conception of the word meaning which is understood only "with reference to a structured background of experience, beliefs, practices etc. and these background frames activate the concept encoded by the lexeme" (Fillmore and Atkins, 1992, p.77). Words are linked to frames in such a way that the meaning associated with a particular word cannot be understood out of the frame it belongs to.

Petruck (2003, p. 1) explains that "a frame is a cognitive structuring device, parts of which are indexed by words associated with it and used in the service of understanding".

Fillmore provides an example of the word *aorta* that denotes a particular concept, the content of which can be perceived only through the frame of the mammalian circulatory system. In the same way, talking about the meanings of the verbs of judgment and verbs of commercial transaction, Fillmore argues that "nobody can really understand the meaning of the words in that domain who does not understand the social institutions or the structures of experience which they presuppose" (Fillmore, 1987, as cited in Cuyckens and Geeraerts, 2007, p. 172). Thus, Frame Semantics seeks to show that a word becomes meaningful only in the context it is used in with other lexical units as only this contextual usage enables to perceive a particular situation of human experience reflected by the lexical units. This shows that Frame Semantics does not make a significant distinction between semantic and pragmatic knowledge and views a lexical unit as a unified entity (Evans and Green, 2006, p. 215).

The semantic research of Fillmore and his colleagues gave birth to the project FrameNet which now functions as an open database constantly updated by new research findings. FrameNet is a lexical resource of modern English based on semantically and syntactically annotated sentences; it is also a lexicographic project (Fillmore and Baker, 2001, p. 1). FrameNet provides cognitive frames, which are based on annotated lexical units extracted from texts. More than 200 000 English sentences were manually annotated in order to establish 1 200 cognitive frames which are currently described in the database. FrameNet is freely available online and easily downloadable. This project has aroused great interest among scholars and inspired many other research projects worldwide. As frames are often similar across languages, principles of FrameNet are applicable to description of lexical units in various languages. Similar projects already exist in French, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, German, Swedish, and Korean.

The present paper seeks to present possibilities of application of the Frame Semantics methodology in presenting and learning domain-specific vocabulary (terminology) which is believed to have significant benefits with regard to vocabulary acquisition, retention and recall. This approach enables studying terms not as individual words or phrases, but as a part of a cognitive structure – a frame which helps to understand the overall picture of a certain subdomain and gain background knowledge.

3. Application of the Frame-based Methodology in Acquisition of English Financial Terms

Application of the Frame-based methodology will be presented via a use case on developing taxonomy of financial terminology of a chosen subdomain which is proposed for teachers of English for financial purposes; however, a use case of this type may be organised in studies of any specialised domain. The use case was carried out in several stages, each consisting of a set of tasks which are described below. A teacher may decide which tasks will be carried out by the teacher and which tasks can be given to the students and carried out by them under the teacher's supervision. If the teacher considers the tasks too complicated for the students to perform, only the final outcome of the use case (the taxonomy of the terms) can be used for teaching/learning purposes.

In the first stage of the use case, an ad hoc corpus of financial documents has to be compiled or a ready-made corpus of a financial domain (or any other relevant domain) has to be downloaded from publicly open repositories. In this use case, a corpus compiled by the authors of this article Oksana Smirnova and Sigita Rackevičienė (2020) was used.

The corpus consists of the EU financial documents extracted from EUR-Lex database of the EU legal acts and other documents. The extracted documents are dated 2013-2018, the size of the corpus is 1,006,485 words. The corpus is publicly available in CLARIN-LT repository as a constituent part of a parallel corpus ‘English-French-Lithuanian Parallel Corpus of EU Financial Documents’ (Smirnova and Rackevičienė, 2020) and can be reused by all interested teachers and students.

In the second stage of the use case, the corpus has to be uploaded to a corpus analysis software, such as AntConc (Anthony, 2014), in order to perform the quantitative analysis of lexical units, establish the most frequent terms in the corpus and select the key terms for further analysis. Selection of the terminology is of vital importance since learners do not have time and opportunity to learn all terms of the studied domain. The analysis of term frequency in the corpus helps to select a manageable quantity of the most important terms as it is based on real usage of the terms in the domain. In our use case, we uploaded the corpus to the AntConc software and used its tool “Wordlist” to establish the most frequent single-word terms in the corpus. In our case, they were risk(s) (freq. 4350), credit(s) (freq. 3952), and exposure(s) (freq. 3039). Since the term risk was the most frequent word in the English corpus, we decided to focus on it and multi-word terms with the nominal base risk. We would also recommend to choose one single-word term and focus on it and the multi-word terms that include it.

In the third stage, the sentences that include the selected single-word term (used on its own or as a constituent part of a multi-word term) have to be extracted from the corpus, i.e. copied from the corpus into a separate file. In our use case, we extracted 4314 sentences that include terms with the nominal base risk. Extraction of the data can be carried out by dividing the corpus into subcorpora and analysing each subcorpus separately. This task can be carried out by students working in groups.

In the fourth stage, the sentences have to be analysed and grouped according to the situations they describe. The semantics of the verbs plays the decisive role in this analysis. Therefore, all verbs have to be highlighted and sentences have to be grouped into categories according to the verb meanings: each category has to include sentences with verbs having identical or similar meanings. In our use case, the extracted sentences describe several types of situations:

- situations in which something or somebody causes risk to an entity (sentences with verbs such as pose, entail, create, cause, constitute, generate, involve, lead to, give rise to, expose, arise from, result from);
- situations in which the affected entity experiences risk (sentences with verbs such as bear, face, incur, assume, take on(undertake), have);
- situations in which specialists identify risk and assess its importance (sentences with verbs such as identify, capture, detect, disclose, ascertain, point out, measure, assess, evaluate, report, understand, underestimate, overestimate, calculate);
- situations in which specialists apply various measures to reduce risk and take control on it (sentences with verbs such as mitigate, reduce, minimize, eliminate, absorb, cover, prevent, manage, monitor, address, control, hedge, constrain, limit).

Due to the limited scope of the paper, further we provide the results of the frame-based analysis of the situations of the first type.

In the fifth stage, an appropriate frame has to be selected from the FrameNet database and used in its original form or adapted to the corpus material. In our case, several frames in FrameNet were considered: the frame ‘RISK-scenario’ and the frame ‘Cause_to_start’.

However, neither of them was completely suitable, thus, based on these frames a frame adapted to the selected corpus material was created and named ‘Cause_RISK’. It encompasses four main elements (see Figure 1):

- Cause refers to an animate or inanimate entity, a force, or event that produces an Effect (RISK).
- Effect (RISK) indicates the process or state that the Cause initiates.
- Experiencer is an animate or inanimate entity that experiences Effect (RISK).
- Asset is something (abstract or concrete) judged to be desirable or valuable that might be lost or damaged.

Fig. 1. Relationships between the frame elements

In our investigated material, the CAUSE_RISK frame is evoked by the verbs which have the semantic meaning ‘to cause something’: pose, entail, create, cause, constitute, generate, involve, lead to, give rise to, expose, arise from, result from. The verbs attach terms that denote concepts that refer to various participants of the situation. These participants are represented by the frame elements (Table 1).

Table 1 Definition of the CAUSE_RISK frame and examples expressing the frame

Definition:

A **CAUSE** causes an **EFFECT** (**RISK**) on an **EXPERIENCER / to an ASSET**

Examples:

1) **Access** [Cause] **would *cause* systemic risk** [Effect].
< *Commission Implementing Regulation (EU)2017/394 of 11 November 2016*>

2) **A concentration of assets and overreliance on market liquidity** [Cause] ***creates* systemic risk** [Effect] **to the financial sector** [Experiencer] and should be avoided.
<*Regulation (EU) №575/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013*>

3) **A default of the obligor/guarantor** [Cause] ***would constitute* a huge reputational risk** [Effect] **to the group** [Experiencer], damage its franchise and could threaten its viability.
<*Commission Delegated Regulation (EU) 2018/179 of 25 September 2017*>

4) < … > the **market risk** [Effect] **that *is generated* by the internal hedge** [Cause] shall be dynamically managed in the trading book within the authorised limits.
<*Regulation (EU) №575/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013*>

5) **The borrowing and lending operations** [Cause] related to the Union’s macro-financial assistance shall be carried out in euro < … > and shall not involve the Union in the transformation of maturities, or ***expose* it (the Union)** [Experiencer] **to any exchange** or **interest rate risk** [Effect], or **to any other commercial risk** [Effect] < … >.
<*Decision (EU) 2016/1112 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 6 July 2016*>

6) < … > **the changes** [Cause] in the intensity of macroprudential or systemic risk are of such nature as ***to pose* risk** [Effect] **to financial stability** [Asset] at national level.
<*Regulation (EU) №575/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013*>

In the sixth stage, the terms used in the sentences have to be classified according to the frame elements and types of realia they represent. In our case, we got the following conceptual-terminological taxonomy (see Table 2):

Table 2 Frame elements and the terms of the frame CAUSE_RISK

Cause (50 terms)	a) physical and institutional actors: *obligors, connected clients, users, natural or legal persons, guarantor, other participants, CCP, systematic internaliser, people; institution(s), entities, CCP, systems, CSD- banking service provider(s), etc.* b) a financial tool: *business models, number or volume of orders, exposures, credit exposure, short positions, financial instruments* (*covered bonds, credit derivatives, contracts, investments of a CSD, credit default swap, obligations), bank-type ancillary services, etc.* c) actions or processes: *failure of an institution, malfunction of an institution, changes, deficiencies in information systems, internal processes, personnel's performance, disruptions, borrowing and lending operations, inadequate and failed internal processes, etc.*
Effect (37 terms)	a) risk related to an Asset*: risk of credit loss, credit risk, risk of securization;* b) risk related to an Experiencer: *counterparty (credit) risk;* c) risk arising from a certain harmful event: *operational risk, settlement risk, default risk;* d) risk of certain intensity/extension: *excessive risks, significant (higher) risk, material liquidity risk, a high risk of disruption, low risk, general risk, potentially high risk of contagion, higher risk of price abuse, material risk of damage, undue risk, unacceptable risk, single risk, huge reputational risk, material liquidity risk, similar risk, specific and general wrong-way risk, systemic risk, etc.*
Experiencer (27 terms)	physical and institutional actors: *third parties, other entities, group, interests of one or more users of the CSD, interests of one or more clients, sponsor, original lender, commercial paper investor, originator; financial institutions, financial system, CSD, financial sector, the Union, CCP, ECA, business model, etc.*
Asset (5 terms)	*financial stability, the performance of transactions, the soundness of an institution, the CSD's operations, resilience or smooth operation of markets*

The provided classification of terms under the frame CAUSE_RISK according to the frame elements provides a visualisation of the conceptual-cognitive structure that represents a particular type of situations of human experience. We believe that such classification facilitates the retention of terms as it enables students to construct a structure in their mind encompassing interrelated conceptual categories, realia they refer to and terms denoting them. Such interlinked structure facilitates understanding of the overall picture of the subdomain and helps to memorize the terms. Learners realize that Cause can be denoted by terms designating physical and institutional actors, financial tools, actions and processes, while Experiencer is only denoted by terms designating physical and institutional actors. The terms that designate an Asset are usually abstract and denote the obstruction of sustainable function of the financial sector. The terms that denote risk may refer to different aspects of risk: risk related to an asset, risk of certain intension or extension, etc.

If students do not take part in the development of the classification, they should be provided with the corpus material as well. The corpus provides the contexts in which terms are used, and these contexts are important in many aspects: they reveal how terms are used in sentences, which verbs attach them and which phrases they are used in. Contexts also help to understand the meanings of terms; moreover, they often contain direct explanations, e.g.:

< … >“group of connected clients” means any of the following: two or more natural or legal persons [Cause] who, unless it is shown otherwise, constitute a single risk [Effect] because one of them, directly or indirectly, has control over the other < … >.

<Regulation (EU) №575/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013>

Thus, students can consult the corpus material whenever they need more information about the terms, i.e. their usage in real context and their meaning.

CAUSE_RISK frame allows students to memorize more than 100 terms. The frame-based method can be combined with other methods, e.g., the ‘brain storm for ideas’ for the vocabulary recall, when students are asked to remember as many terms that denote Cause, Effect, and Experiencer as possible. Students can work with the data from the corpus to organize other terms into other frames and in this way broaden their word and term banks.

4. Final Remarks and Conclusions

The results of the presented use case on the application of the frame-based methodology for teaching/learning financial terminology allow drawing the following conclusions:

1. Frame Semantics opens new possibilities to develop vocabulary teaching/ learning techniques enabling to relate lexical units into cognitive structures and thus facilitating their understanding, as well as their retention and recall.

2. The Frame-based methodology is particularly relevant to learning/teaching specialised vocabulary (terminology) as it helps revealing the conceptual structure and substructures of the specialised domain, categorisation of concept and their interrelations. The perception of these interlinked structures enables a much better overall understanding of the domain, minimizes the time used to memorise the terms, reduces the load of retention and, thus, facilitates acquisition of terminology and its accurate usage.

3. The Frame-based methodology is based on corpus analysis; thus, learners have a possibility to work with terminology used in texts drafted by experts of specialised domains and used in specialised communication. Corpus material enables to select the dominant terminology and investigate its frequency and distribution in the domain. It also reveals the real usage of the terms, i.e. their collocations, syntactic structures they are used in, most frequent grammatical forms, etc.).

Thus, frame-based learning provides for development of a wide range of skills necessary for learning/teaching both general and specialised vocabulary, as well as skills necessary to analyse linguistic structures and cognitive frameworks revealed by them. This methodology needs further investigation on its applicability at university studies: research focused on students who speak different native languages and study in different fields would allow to draw conclusions on effectiveness of this approach for different target groups.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 775−777
Short communication https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2104775B

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING: A TEACHING APPROACH WHERE LEARNING COMES ALIVE

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"Doing projects" is a long-standing tradition in American education. According to Buck Institute for Education (BIE) (www.pblworks.org) the roots of PBL lie in this tradition. But the emergence of a method of teaching and learning called Project Based Learning (PBL) is the result of two important developments over the last 25 years. First, there has been a revolution in learning theory. Research in neuroscience and psychology has extended cognitive and behavioral models of learning—which support traditional direct instruction—to show that knowledge, thinking, doing, and the contexts for learning are inextricably tied. We now know that learning is partly a social activity; it takes place within the context of culture, community, and past experiences.

There is no unique accepted definition of PBL. However, BIE defines standards-focused PBL as a systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions and carefully designed products and tasks. This definition encompasses a spectrum ranging from brief projects of one to two weeks based on a single subject in one classroom to yearlong, interdisciplinary projects that involve community participation and adults outside the school. More important than the definitions are the attributes of effective projects. The BIE planning model is based on a number of criteria that distinguish carefully planned projects from other extended activities in the classroom.

Firstly, the model for PBL emerged from a number of medical schools especially the Case Western Reserve University in the United States of America in the 1950s and McMaster University Faculty of Health Sciences in Canada in the late 1960s (Boud and Feletti, 1997). The concern at that time was on the effectiveness of traditional science courses in preparing students for the real world and problems they would have to solve as physicians.

Markham (2009) describes that PBL integrates knowing and doing. Students learn knowledge and elements of the core curriculum, but also apply what they know to solve authentic problems and produce results that matter, so, the core of this methodology is learning by doing.

Generally, PBL in ESP courses enables students to develop and improve their language fluency and accuracy, writing skills while building personal qualities and skills such as self-confidence, problem solving, decision-making, and collaboration. (Fried-Booth, 2002; Stoller, 2006; Beckett and Slater, 2005)

Since PBL shifts the emphasis on learning activity from teachers to students, it can also help students become more autonomous learners who will transfer the skills they learned in the classroom to their lives outside of the classroom (James, 2006).

PBL affords flexibility for teachers in curriculum design and allows teachers to target material that motivates students (Tomei, Glick, & Holst, 1999). PBL allows the learner to be at the center of the process and promotes autonomy, problem solving, critical thinking, as well as interpersonal and life skills. Thomas (2000) proposed a definition of PBL from PBL handbooks as being "a teaching model that organizes learning around projects" and projects as being complex tasks based on challenging questions or problems that involve students in design, problem-solving, decision-making, and/or investigative activities, that give students opportunities to work relatively autonomously over extended periods of time, and culminate in realistic products or presentations (Jones, Rasmussen, & Moffitt, 1997; Thomas, Mergendoller, & Michaelson, 1999).

Some previous studies that investigate the implementation of PBL have shown its benefits for both teaching and learning process. Ichsan (2016) found that PBL was applicable and effective for teaching speaking. In addition, Simpson (2011) found that PBL helps the instructor to give task that is systematically based on the specific needs of the students. Apart from this, PBL also supports and enhances teamwork, higher-order thinking skills, presentation skills and self-confidence in the language.

Simpson (2011) proposes the following four stages of implementation of PBL:

1. Starting the project

This stage consists of several set of introduction of the teacher related to the project that needed to fulfill by the students. The students may select the topic of interest and relevancy. The teacher can create guiding questions so that students have idea about what to do and are encouraged to study or develop. Students then establish the project outline and plan the method of research, final outcomes and individual participation in the project.

2. Developing the project

This stage involves research, which is undertaken by all group members either individually, in pairs, or as a group. In this stage the instructor helps the students with the sources and the topic.

3. Reporting to the class

This step consists of presenting the project and receiving feedback about the project (what has been done so far). This stage requires teamwork, active listening and constructive feedback.

4. Assessing the project

In this final stage, students present their work orally. Students present their projects after which other students ask questions and comment. The final assessment is done by the teacher.

In conclusion, Project Based Learning is a teaching method in which students work on a project over an extended period of time (from a week up to a semester) that engages them in solving a real-world problem or answering a complex question. They demonstrate their knowledge and skills by creating a public product or presentation for a real audience. As a result, students develop deep content knowledge as well as critical thinking, collaboration, creativity, and communication skills.

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THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 779−781

Book review

ENGLISH FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

By Mable Chan

Publisher: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group | Year of Publication: 2020
Place of Publication: London; New York, NY | Pages: 246

Reviewed by Yan Peng and Linxin Liang

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In today's increasingly competitive business environment, in order to be successful, communication is one of the most significant functions for all kinds of business firms to master, and it is particularly essential for firms doing business internationally. This book comes at the right time, as business communication is absolutely necessary in an era where international communication is increasingly frequent and sound communication is particularly important.

This book comprises 11 chapters. Chapter 1 provides some useful background information about the latest developments of written and spoken communication in the workplace and outlines the structure of the book. Chapter 2 on the features of business communication presents the purpose and nature of business English, and typical differences and features of business English with some examples, which will acquaint readers with the appropriate style for workplace communication to make communication effective.

Chapter 3 first explores seven principles to ensure readability for writing effective email messages. Next, there is an examination of some common errors in email writing made by second language learners, with special attention to the wrong use of lexical words. It is followed by the analysis of three concluding tips for sending email, including mobile device considerations, good impression consideration and email etiquette. It then goes on to introduce the emerging use of enterprise social media, including its definition and four main features. This chapter ends with a section devoted to the perception of employers and employees towards use of social media.

Chapter 4 deals with conveying negative and goodwill messages. Thus, it is largely concerned with an introduction to a framework for analyzing negative messages, two different approaches (direct approach and indirect approach) in conveying negative messages and four explanation types (casual, referential, ideological and penitential accounts) used in conveying negative messages. Some authentic examples are analyzed for an understanding of negative messages. In addition, this chapter also provides an important introduction to goodwill messages and engages with different types of goodwill messages. It sets out some contents and structures of goodwill messages, including initial thanks, initial congratulation, initial sympathy and initial invitation. Finally, two authentic examples adapted from a 'thank you message' and 'a sympathy message' are analyzed.

Chapter 5 examines sales correspondence and job application messages. This chapter begins by discussing persuasive strategies, including Aristotle's three modes of persuasion (ethos,

Submitted June 28th, 2021, accepted for publication July 8th, 2021
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pathos and logos) and six weapons of influence (reciprocation, commitment and consistency, social proof, liking, authority and scarcity). There follows a brief description of steps to prepare for persuasion and two approaches in preparing persuasive messages with case analysis. This chapter ends with an introduction of seven moves for writing sales letters and its linguistic features, and seven structural moves of a letter of application and some strategies of promoting oneself and language use.

The central concern of Chapters 6 is enquiry and invitation messages. This chapter opens with a brief review of previous studies about enquiry messages and then points out how to make enquiry messages effective with an analysis of some authentic examples. Later, it sets out to explain invitation messages. The emphasis falls on the move structure of invitation messages. Particular emphasis is also placed on semantic categories involved in the persuasive moves. Finally, it provides a move structure comparison between sales correspondence and invitation messages.

Chapter 7 is devoted to formal business reports and proposals. It shows an overall structure of business reports, which contains introduction, methodology, findings/discussion, conclusions and recommendations. And it makes excellent use of three mini-reports to illustrate the structure. It also looks at the use of hedging devices in discussing findings with a sample text. It then introduces how to write the conclusion and recommendations. More importantly, it suggests some essential skills for describing trends in a report and comparing and contrasting the numerical data in tables and charts. Finally, it discusses the needs for a proposal and the content and structure of a proposal followed by an analysis of an authentic proposal.

Chapter 8 focuses on making oral presentations. Here this chapter states how to plan your presentation, including knowing your purpose and audience. Later, it gives a good account of how to organize your presentation, which contains two important parts of introduction and conclusion. Moreover, it introduces some steps to prepare for a persuasive speech, the use of a figure of speech and the avoidance of fallacies. It also gives detailed practical guidance on how to deliver your presentation, focusing on engaging the interest of the audience and speaking in a natural spoken style. It concludes with a summary of five factors related to presentation skills, which cover clarity/understandability of the structure, presentational structure, the type/level of information provided, persuasiveness of the entrepreneurs' presentation and the entrepreneurs' personal characteristics.

Chapter 9 elaborates on informal English and English for socialization, with a focus on small talk. It first explains the roles of small talk with two examples of movie extracts. It then provides a succinct analysis of the small talk at work sub-corpus. It also presents some expressions used for small talk involving ten different topics, which the reader can use in daily communication. In addition, it introduces the use of slang and informal expressions, listing 20 slang items and some common English idioms/slang/informal expressions for effective communication. At last, the role of non-verbal communication is discussed.

Business meetings and negotiations is the subject of Chapter 10. It goes to great lengths to introduce the challenges and difficulties in having meeting, particularly the language difficulties and cultural-related difficulties. Some subjects such as role of the chair, openings/closings and transition of meetings, turn taking, topic progression and authentic language use in meetings are briefly discussed. It then gives a description of the discursive practices as indexed by common clusters in meetings, which are categorized into discourse-making practices and interactional practices. It especially explicates five main interpersonal language categories in meetings, including pronouns, backchannels, vague language, hedges and deontic modality. It also delves into the minutes writing, concentrating mainly on seven common questions about minutes writing. Finally, this chapter focuses its attention on negotiations by investigating negotiation outcomes, ways to negotiate effectively, five phases of negotiation and tips for negotiation.

Chapter 11 is about employment and appraisal interviews. It presents an introduction of employment interviews, exploring in detail the structured behavioural employment interviews. And it treats the appraisal interviews at length with authentic examples of task-oriented behaviour and relation-oriented behaviour. Finally, it deals with the issue of four techniques required in interviews, including questioning technique, from standardization to interaction, leadership activity as a gatekeeper and three levels of listening/critical listening.

This book is a much-needed comprehensive guide, which serves to introduce the realities of communication in business to students, professionals and practitioners. The formatting and layout of this book are carefully considered. Each chapter opens with some thought-provoking questions for reflection and closes with a series of stimulating post-reading activities. Moreover, it is amply illustrated with authentic examples, which are presented in great detail and sometimes accompanied by tables. For this, this book succeeds in combining a strong emphasis on the theoretical introduction and practical examples, with detailed background information on business communication. Therefore, the author should be commended on these. However, readers could have been navigated through some useful websites or videos on business communication for visual learning and a conclusion could have been added at the end of each chapter.

Finally, this book may be a self-study textbook for anyone interested in business communication, and it is in fact a particularly valuable reference for communication-focused practitioners and learners.

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 783−784

Book review

TEACHING ENGLISH FOR TOURISM BRIDGING RESEARCH AND PRAXIS

Editors: Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie
Publisher: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group | Year of Publication: 2020
Place of Publication: London; New York, NY | Pages: p. 262

Reviewed by Slavka Madarova, Spain
University of Alcala

This book, published in 2020, forms part of series The Routledge Research in Language Education, which to date counts with 66 publication within the topic of Language Education. It is organized into two parts with distinct purposes: while the first one is concentrated on the theory and inspects concepts, the second one explores the praxis of teaching and learning of English for Tourism (EfT). Included are brief biographies of nine contributors to the book, of whom two are also the editors of the volume, showing that each of them counts with experience in teaching English in different settings and for varied purposes. Combined with their expertise in areas related to linguistics, sociocultural contexts, intercultural competence, language instructions and more, the readers are getting a point of view from the practitioners working in the field.

Michael J. Ennis and Gina M. Petrie, editors of the volume, intended to encompass within it experienced researchers interested in increasing the visibility of EfT, which has been considered as a part of ESP teaching. The attempt of the publication is to provide more detailed information about teaching and learning of EfT, which is rather under-recognized. As mentioned in the introduction, they aimed to respond to the lack of consolidated information about its teaching and learning since "the research and scholarship that does exist seems to be scattered across the vast field of ELT" (p. 2 of the book).

The book opens with the *Introduction: A response to the disparate/desperate circumstances* where Michael J. Ennis and Gina M. Petrie talk about EfT as a neglected branch of ESP and mention that most of the work disseminated via academic journals and major publishing houses concentrates instead on English of Tourism (EoT). This lack of research leads them to confirm the uniqueness of EfT teaching and learning and the need for this publication.

First part, *English for Tourism: Theories and Concepts,* contains three articles. The common theme that unites contributions in this part is the need to look for what lies beneath and what shapes the teaching of EfT while reflecting on the situation in which the learners encounter themselves.

In the first article, *What is "English for Tourism"? A "grounded review' of textbooks and secondary literature*, Michael J. Ennis carries out an analysis of corpora taken from English and into-English translated texts prior to 2016 in two subcategories – EoT and EfT. Their comparison proved that the sample contained little research on teacher training for EfT, which according to Ennis highlights the importance of the present volume (p. 29). Second article, *Exploring stakeholders' language desires in English for tourism: An argument for uniqueness* is based on

Submitted August 31st, 2021, accepted for publication October 8th, 2021
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'rights analysis', taking into consideration motivation and desires of EfT students which are often neglected. Here Gina M. Petrie suggests considering dreams of students instead of solely focusing on the dreams of consumers (p. 45). This concept of needs and motivation for learning English also appears in the next chapter, *The Politics of Englishes for Tourism: A World Englishes Perspective*. McHenry, who uses World Englishes (WE) as a theoretical framework with its concepts of native speaker, standard English and speaker autonomy suggests that WE perspective is useful in EfT classes as "it means focusing on the users and use of English in tourism contexts" (p. 87 of the book).

Second part, *Teaching English for Tourism: From Theory to Praxis,* consists of six articles. Each of them recounts a classroom experience where English is taught as a foreign language and at the same time serves as a language of instruction. They present a practical example of teaching EfT in various environments.

In *The changing nature of tourism discourse: Practical applications for the classroom*, Suzanna Miles describes how an EfT class in Italy explored the specialized discourse of promotional texts, which led them to material creation for potential visitors to the region. Staying in Italy, *English for tourism in the non-native English classroom: Machine translation and corpora* by Dominic Stewart discusses how the machine translation can assist the non-native EfT students in translating promotional texts and turning them into persuasive discourse. In *Cultural languaging" in English for tourism: Integrated learning of language and intercultural skills in tourism education* Ana Gonçalves stresses out that the language proficiency needs to go hand in hand with the intercultural communicative competence and presents examples of cultural languaging from Portuguese EfT classroom. *The international nonwork experience and development of students' language skills and cultural intelligence in an English for tourism purpose course* by Jeannette Valencia Robles examines experiences and behaviors of Spanish EfT students during their stay abroad, particularly the use of communicative strategies employed in their cross-cultural interactions. Massimo Verzella and Agnieszka M. Sendur in their chapter *A telecollaboration project on writing for tourism: Exploring thematic patterns in feedback exchanged by Italian, Polish and Ukrainian students with US peer reviewers* focus on how virtual exchange carried out without a mobility program can help EfT students to foster intercultural communicative competence, focus on target audience and look at English as a lingua franca that helps them to communicate in the various contexts. The closing chapter, *Teaching and assessing academic writing for tourism studies: An example of reflective practice from the field* by Michael J. Ennis, describes the process of designing and implementing course material for teaching EfT in Italy and shares valuable insights that could significantly help other instructors in the field.

In addition, the book includes 23 pages of selected bibliography, divided into two main categories: *Course books* and *Research and scholarship*, each of them further arranged by regions and countries for easier navigation.

This publication opens a space for discussion of teaching experiences and can serve as food for thought for anyone interested in how the teaching and learning of EfT is shaped. As mentioned by Ennis, the problem faced by ESP instructors who teach tourism students does not lay in lack of tourism textbooks in the market but rather in how to adapt material to make it suitable for a particular environment where "English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) and serves as both a lingua franca (ELF) and a medium of instruction (EMI)" (p. 194). Concepts applied to teaching and learning EfT in the first part concentrated on the research and experiences described in the second part offer this particular point of view. As editors urge their readers "to pick up where we have left off" (p. 5), there is hope that this publication will encourage further investigation in the area and that more professional will share their experiences to continue enriching the field of EfT.

In conclusion, in the world of ESP there is still a limited number of publications similar to this. Therefore, the present volume should be considered as a worthwhile and novel contribution that can further the exploration of EfT teaching and learning.

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 785−786

Book review

CORPUS ANALYSIS FOR LANGUAGE STUDIES AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

By Giedrė Valūnaitė Oleškevičienė, Liudmila Mockienė and Nadežda Stojković

Publisher: Cambridge Scholars Publishing | Year of Publication: 2021
Place of Publication: Newcastle-upon-Tyne, UK | Pages: p. 176

Reviewed by Giedrė Valūnaitė Oleškevičienė, Liudmila Mockienė

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The book titled *Corpus Analysis for Language Studies at the University Level* - authored by three distinguished ESP scholars Giedrė Valūnaitė Oleškevičienė, Liudmila Mockienė and Nadežda Stojković - and published by Cambridge Scholars Publishing - highlights corpora use in teaching foreign languages in university education. It provides a detailed case study of analyzing the terminology of constitutional law in both English and Lithuanian as an example to illustrate the possibility of integrating corpus analysis tools into the process of teaching foreign languages in university education. The book reveals that initial linguistic knowledge is essential when teaching and learning foreign languages at more advanced levels while applying corpus annotation. In addition, it shows that, even though the use of new corpus software is perceived as a positive, there are still certain issues to be solved in this regard, such as the constant renewal of public computers in universities and the technical and methodological support for teachers while using corpora tools.

The book is organized in three chapters each dealing with corpus analysis and its relevance in English language teaching.

Chapter 1 provides a brief review of teaching foreign languages in the settings of non-linguistic departments. It presents generic attributes, the importance of communication and social skills, teaching and learning foreign languages for employability, and the relevance of translation and corpus linguistics for learning material design in the discussed settings.

Chapter 2 focuses on the application of corpus analysis and building tools in teaching English at university level for corpus compilation, data extraction, and further contrastive and linguistic (especially lexical) analysis. It provides a detailed case study of analyzing terminology of constitutional law in English and Lithuanian as an example to illustrate the possibility of integrating corpus analysis tools into the process of teaching and learning languages at more advanced levels.

Chapter 3 provides a brief theoretical background focusing on corpora application in language studies, followed by a discussion of certain issues in discourse management and organization, and closes with insights on principles of teaching and learning with technology and the role of the initial knowledge. The authors also explain the methodological approach of the research by providing the grounds for the methodological choices of the qualitative research and describing the research procedures. Lastly, the authors present results of the research and provide recommendations for

Submitted September 1st, 2021, accepted for publication October 8th, 2021
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teaching and learning a foreign language at more advanced levels while applying corpus analysis and building tools.

Finally, this invaluable book will appeal to both academics and practitioners interested in the process of teaching foreign languages at more advanced levels while applying corpus analysis and building tools for corpus annotation.

(Excerpt from Introduction)

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 787−790

Book review

PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH IN IT - PERSPECTIVES OF DISCIPLINARY LITERACY DEVELOPMENT FOR UKRAINIAN STUDENTS

By Oksana Krasnenko, Maryna Rebenko, Liudmyla Kucheriava

Publisher: The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine
Year of Publication: 2019 | Place of Publication: Kyev | Pages: p. 118

Reviewed by Maryna Rebenko & Oksana Krasnenko

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The *Professional English in IT* textbook written by Oksana Krasnenko, Maryna Rebenko and Liudmyla Kucheriava has been tailored for B2-B2+ students completing their 4th year of undergraduate study in Intellectual and Information Systems, Cyber Security and Information Protection, Software Systems and Technologies, Applied Information Systems, Networking and Internet Technologies, and Technology Management. Guided by the recent trends in ESP/EAP methodology, the *Professional English in IT* responds to challenges of contemporary education and students' personal needs. The textbook aims to develop and enhance the English professionally oriented competencies, such as speaking, reading, and writing. All unit topics are relevant, informative, and the best for the learners who want to keep their job-focused knowledge up-to-date. The integrated content allows IT students to accomplish specific academic and workplace tasks as well as to develop such essential soft skills as communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity. The student-centred activities integrated into each unit help students become confident lifelong learners in the huge world of global communications and technologies. The textbook under review is appropriate for IT students of technical schools, colleges, and higher education institutions willing to raise their awareness in the field of ESP. It could be also applied in both offline and online ESP classrooms targeting to boost students' content-based knowledge improvement.

The *Professional English in IT* has been prepared in close collaboration with the subject lecturers of the IT Faculty. Most conceptual textbook material is relevant to the national curriculum and features the ESP syllabus framework for the 4th year IT and Computer Science students. The textbook teamwork targeted to match learners' collective as well as personal disciplinary literacy needs, according to the international and university educational goals. The unit scope design involved the authors in the eight-step process: examining student learning needs; clarifying the goals and objectives to teach literacy across the discipline; identifying gaps in students' career readiness; developing relevant learning materials; completing the content-based textbook units; reflecting student performance successes and failures; and

Submitted June 5th, 2021, accepted for publication October 11th, 2021
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improving teaching materials expertise through evaluating the textbook approach strengths and weaknesses.

The textbook encompasses ten content-based topics, revealed in the following units: Information Systems (pp. 7–13), Database Management Systems (pp. 14–20), Computer Networks (pp. 21–27), Networking Media and Hardware (pp. 28–34), The Internet and the World Wide Web (pp. 35–40), Online Communication Morality and Security (pp. 41–47), Cryptology in the Computer Era (pp. 48–53), Multimedia and the Web (pp. 54–59), E-Commerce (pp. 60–66), and Green Technologies (pp. 67–74). It opens with the Preface (p. 6) that introduces the textbook structure and purposes. The textbook includes two Appendices: Computer Science and IT Acronyms (pp. 75–78), and Texts on Pleasure Reading (pp. 79–117). There is an extensive list of references of the key papers to fit the further purposeful reading. The structure of a textbook unit is as follows:

Unit Title
A. Discussion Starters Section
B. Before You Read Section
C. Reading Section
D. Comprehension Check Section
E. Use of Language Practice Section
F. Student Web Research Activity Section
G. Speaking Tests Section
H. Home Writing Assignment Section.

The Discussion Starters Section helps students get into a learning frame of mind. The topic is introduced through a set of images to describe, reflect on, and share. Such visuals aim to attract students' attention to the topic, keep them engaged in training activities and initiate fruitful classroom discussion. The Before You Read Section covers a couple of reflective questions to develop the theme and generate ideas. This is followed by the Reading Section featuring authentic articles and essays to contribute to students' reading skills enhancement. The follow-up part, Comprehension Check, assumes to facilitate knowledge representation on the specialized text content. Students are assigned either to respond to the comprehension questions or make up their issues to shed light on the central ideas for the afore. Then, in Section E, they accomplish Use of English tasks to practice and expand target vocabulary. Enhancing a reservoir of hard and soft skills, learners work on matching, word-formation, gap filling, synonym-antonym, sentence ending suggestion, true-false, agree-disagree, and other activities. Most assignments correlate to the Graduate Test on ESP, so student pre-exam acquisition turns a challenge into enjoyable experience. Aimed at successful independent study, the Web Research Activity Section involves students' ability to manage online information for an assignment topic. It boosts students' self-directed learning skills to organize the obtained information in a self-developed project, and encapsulate its key ideas at the classroom. It is assumed that such compilation of the acquired knowledge and project-making learning experience develops learners' critical and reflective thinking essential for disciplinary literacy strategies. Next, the Speaking Tests Section features a set of comment require open-ended questions and/or visuals on mindful conversation topics for deeper in-class connection. Such integrated assignments keep expanding learners' vocabulary, enable them to monitor and reflect on their learning, encourage them to prove their point of view, participate in a debate, and implement their own experience. In addition to contributing to students' language professional development, this technique equips an ESP teacher with effective tools for evaluating a student's efficiency level of content-based communication. The end-of-unit section is a Home Writing Assignment tied to motivate students to think, analyse, compare and produce a strong logical case on the unit topic. In ESP settings, a home writing task encourages learners to make a reasonable generalization, reach conclusions and apply what has been learned through an effective writing environment. Hence, this section makes an asset phase of the unit learning outcomes.

For instance, Unit 3 *Computer Networks* introduces the Discussion Starters Section with a topic-related question-and-image description and commenting assignment. Students are assigned to describe the image, exchange their opinions on how videoconferencing and telecommuting have changed our world. This activity enables learners to activate their background knowledge, arouse interest in the topic, launch vocabulary expansion, and as a result, strengthen analytical skills. In the Before You Read Section of Unit 3, learners are asked to define the notion of "a computer network" on their own and to share expectations on the further-given article *Intent-Based Networking.* It targets to apply reflective practices and motivate integrating students' imagination and critical thinking on what they are going to study.

In the Comprehension Check Section of Unit 4 *Networking Media and Hardware,* students respond to the text-dependent questions. They keep reflecting and expressing their ideas on the impact of 5G technology on future life.

In the Use of Language Practice Section of Unit 7 *Cryptology in the Computer Era,* learners are supposed to mark the statements as true, false or not given and make false ideas correct following the article *Privacy and Computers*. They are involved in completing the summary on *Privacy and Computers* with the suggested linking word combinations. Next, students keep expanding their vocabulary bank by matching a list of key verbs from the article to their synonyms. In the next use of language assignment, learners work on a gapped text filling in the spaces with a suitable word form. They end up making up sentences of their own using suggested word combinations from the text. A natural context of such content-based task cycle creates a real purpose for professional language use and generates students' productive preparation, training, reflection and feedback within the naturally arisen professional linguistic culture.

In the Web Research Activity Section of Unit 9 *E-commerce,* students work in teams. They have to choose one of two issues and prepare a one-page summary as collaborative writing in Google Documents or a presentation in Google Slides. Some questions are given to help them explore additional information in-depth.

The Speaking Test Section G is designed to boost effective job-focused communication. Pushed to the limits of their language skills, learners are engaged in reflecting and discussing topical issues. Toward the end of each unit, there is a purposeful writing task. In the Home Writing Assignment of Unit 8, *Multimedia and the Web* students are supposed to prepare an argumentative essay on the topic *The Possible Use of Web-Based Multimedia in the Future.* Such a meaning-making activity enables learners to expand their control in professional language, promotes extensive critical thinking and decision making, and thus, leads to up-skill learners with learning for understanding experience.

Appendix 1 provides learners with the glossary of the most common Computer Science and IT related acronyms, particularly the shortened forms of the frequently used terms, email abbreviations, and emoticons. Appendix 2 supplements each unit with two-three thematically related texts. The self-learning approach of the appendices content reinforces students' interest to broaden their knowledge and advance their proficiency in ESP.

Designed for Computer Science and IT undergraduates, this 118-page textbook in professional English is logically structured and consistently written. Formally approved by the Faculty of Information Technology, the textbook was published by the National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine in 2019. The authors have managed to handle a challenging task – to cross various disciplines such as Information Systems, Networking Media and Hardware, Cryptology, E-commerce, and more within one expertise. The topics designed in the textbook framework meet both the ESP course curriculum requirements and more importantly, learners' needs due to the increasingly developing IT core sphere. Each unit covers the content and language in equal measure aimed at preparing students to enter the workforce with high-demand hard and soft skills.

The textbook unit activities are worked out to reflect the topics encompassed in the unit articles and are synchronized with the unit sections progressing. Targeting to engage the students in pre-, while- and post-reading tasks, encourage performing subject-matter situations in teams, working out projects and completing writing content-based assignments, the *Professional English in IT* scope enables learners to integrate the acquired educational material into the focused practical knowledge and to have a significantly wider range of skills.

The *Professional English in IT* motivates students to be open to learning, set clear goals, build an extensive vocabulary, reflect on purpose and make decisions upon plans, take initiative in teamwork and think critically doing research. As a result, such content learning boosts job-focused language proficiency acquisition and fosters discipline literacy competence. All the aforementioned endeavours prove the relevance and value of the *Professional English in IT* textbook within the ESP course for students of IT and Computer Science in the international tertiary education settings as a whole and the Ukrainian case in particular. The *Professional English in IT* application is partly limited. Since the textbook unit framework lacks audio and video training materials, students' listening comprehension development could suffer. On the other hand, in post-pandemic reality, the unit scope design might be powerful university closure activities conducted in at-home environments and targeted students' self-control and self-development as one of the learning outcomes.

THE JOURNAL OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC AND ACADEMIC PURPOSES
Vol. 9, Nº 4, Special Issue, 2021, pp. 791−792

Book review

ADVANCED ENGLISH FOR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND EUROPEAN STUDIES

By Kalina Bratanova

Publisher: The University of National and World Economy

Year of Publication: 2021 | Place of Publication: Sofia. Bulgaria | Pages: 226

Reviewed by Albena Stefanova

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The textbook "Advanced English for International Relations and European Studies" by Kalina Bratanova was published in March 2021 by the University Publishing Complex of the University of National and World Economy (UNWE) in Sofia, Bulgaria. The only textbooks written by authors from the university faculty until then were written in 1980 and 1987. They were aimed at students of previous generations and in line with state and university requirements based on a curriculum and syllabi that were changed with regard to Bulgaria's accession to the European Union. The present textbook achieves a synergistic effect by meeting the requirements of the new academic programmes and fulfilling the needs of the new generations of learners – the Millennials and Generation Z who grow up with modern information and communication technology and hence learn and communicate in a way that is radically different compared to previous generations.

The *Introduction* provides a detailed description of the tasks included in the textbook as well as guidelines to its effective use.

The textbook is aimed for advanced learners (level C1 of CEFR) and includes eight units focused on topics central to the education of the students of International Relations and European Studies: English as the language of global communication, the Cold War, the United Nations, NATO, the European Union. Each unit comprises three sections. Section A, *Introducing terminology*, is focused on specialised vocabulary, collocations and phraseology, and is based on speaking and reading comprehension tasks. Section B, *In the headlines*, aims to familiarise students with the media jargon of the unit topic. The tasks in Sections A and B include matching, gap filling, cloze tests and multiple-choice exercises. Section C, *Exam practice*, prepares students for the format and tasks of their final exams at UNWE and introduces them to specialized writing, for instance essay writing, summarizing or trend describing. Furthermore, it facilitates the improvement of student linguistic, sociolinguistic and social competences. Sections B and C offer listening comprehension tasks involving gap-filling, replacing synonyms and preparing short summaries on questions. Each unit ends with the *Mapping countries* rubric, which provides cultural knowledge and expands students' knowledge on cultural diversity and develops their skills for intercultural communication. The rubric uses the interactive online platform *Otellus.com* and thus gives students the opportunity to learn their way – by interaction, multimedia and exploration.

Submitted May 18th, 2021, accepted for publication July 8th, 2021
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It also helps them realize the relevancy of the course content and increase their motivation and engagement for learning.

At the end of the textbook, there is a detailed key to all tasks and the audio scripts of the recordings from Sections B and C. All texts are authentic, and reveal the characteristic features of the political and diplomatic discourse. The variety of exercises contributes to the balanced honing all components of student functional communicative competence. In addition, the textbook can be used by students or advanced learners who would like to consolidate their knowledge and skills and prepare for the internationally acknowledged CAE and IELTS exams.

We gratefully acknowledge the contribution of the following reviewers who reviewed papers for Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes

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Dr. Maggie Charles, Oxford University, UK, United Kingdom
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Funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union