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Original scientific paper

EVALUATING EMPLOYERS' DEMANDS FOR UNIVERSITY GRADUATES' LEGAL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY IN EMPLOYABILITY

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Abstract. *Assessing university graduates' legal English proficiency in workability is a vital activity in legal English language teaching to meet the job requirements. This quantitative empirical study investigated 35 participants from standing legal organs operating in Vietnam, using a researcher-made questionnaire to evaluate employers' requirements for school leavers, major in legal English for workability. There were seven dimensions relating to employers' requirements, namely the evaluation of legal English language skills, the prevalence of legal English language skills applied, the effective level of English language skills at workplace, the proficiency of legal English language requirement, legal English proficiency meeting employees' requirement for positions, methods of organizations evaluating the English language skills of applicants, and organization's schemes for applicants with good English proficiency. The results reveal that the employers have high opinions on using legal English at workplace, mainly reading and speaking skills. The findings indicate that employers implement a rigorous process when recruiting new graduates with legal English proficiency and formal tertiary qualifications. In addition, employers carry out a prioritized policy for employees who demonstrate their good English proficiency during their working practices. The findings would benefit employers recruiting right employees, university stakeholders adjusting their training policies, and students preparing well before graduation to satisfy employers' expectations and the society's demand accordingly.*

Key words: *legal English proficiency, workability, standing legal organs, university graduates, employers' expectations*

1. INTRODUCTION

Global integration boosts the world economy to be more and more developed. Giant conglomerates span their presence everywhere without boundaries and limitations. This situation reflects that an increasingly globalized workforce demands an international language to be used for exchanging information at workplaces. As a result, the overwhelming use of

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English as a de facto working language has created significant demand for workplace-specific courses. Understanding the role and practice of English at workplace is an important concern in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Meredith, 2013). If ESP is considered as the conduit between the academic activity and practical applications, then this growing concern could bridge the gap between the practice of teaching and learning ESP at school and employers' expectations in regard to workability. Most employers are facing skill shortages and find it difficult to recruit approximately skilled graduates (Su-Hie et al. 2017; Brikena & Gezim, 2011). In this study, employers were questioned to identify key attributes that they expected when recruiting newly-graduated school leavers for employability. The results yielded that four most common attributes employers nominated were English language competency, effective communication skills, the ability to work as part of a team, and effective problem-solving skills. Among these factors, employers showed their high dissatisfaction with graduates who failed to use their legal English competence to overcome challenges at work, which suggested that employers had to concentrate their recruitment on those with relevant qualifications and a good command of English, especially using ESP for workability.

The growth in ESP practice and research has been affected by global industries and related professions (Brewer, 2013; Tevdovska, 2017; Clement & Murugavel, 2018). Legal transactions are seen as crucial determinants for ensuring the global integration favourably and successfully. Understanding employers' expectations for using legal English for any legal transaction equates with English language education to help second language law professionals operate in academic and professional contexts requiring the use of English. Actually, the far-reaching influence and practical application of ESP override other aspects of language learning. In fact, every position at workplace requires a certain level of understanding and using ESP, which is widely acknowledged without discussing at length about the necessity of ESP. When researching what legal professionals mostly need to deal with English legal language for their job requirements, similar to general English, the frequent use of spoken and written legal English is not the same. While spoken English legal genres have been paid less attention, written English legal genres have been more commonly accessed (Muravev, 2020, Northcott, 2013). Because of higher involvement in the labour market, unemployment reduction, professional development, and the opportunity to get promoted in the professional hierarchy, ESP has become an appealing attraction to many school leavers entering the world of work. However, Ranasuriya and Herath (2020) state that the student competence of English language skill fails to satisfy industry requirements. Therefore, research in ESP has contributed greatly to the development of both the comprehension and practice of legal English.

Concerning employers' needs and expectations for new graduates in terms of employability, this resource of qualified workforce plays a decisive and vital part in the global socio-economic integration. Sloka (2015) points out that employers starve to hunt qualified, motivated, and loyal staff to ensure the sustainable development of their organizations. In reality, the dominant perspective of graduate employability places emphasis on objective employment outcomes and the development of human capital to provide favourable labour market outcomes for a university graduate. When questioning what characteristics, qualities, knowledge, and skills constitute employability for graduates, most employers express their viewpoints that graduates should not only possess technical and discipline competency from their degrees, but have many skills and attributes which encompass soft skills, such as critical thinking, team-working, problem solving, managerial abilities, and communication (Lowden, 2011). Opinions about the importance of the skills

and capabilities that higher education graduates should have, foreign language skills are reported as higher requirement when employers recruit new staff (Velden et al., 2015). Soft skills such as communication, interpersonal or management skills are received a great deal of employers' concerns for graduates, especially employees' English competency to use it for daily work exchanges (Hani et al. 2017; Ilhaamie & Rosmawarni, 2020; Cheang & Yamashita, 2020).

Although there have been many studies (e.g. Clement & Murugavel, 2018; Ilhaamie & Rosmawarni, 2020; Rumalessin & Farah, 2021) investigating employers' perspectives on the importance of English competency, particularly ESP, these studies have focused on ESP in general, not specifically on subject. The paper was conceived to examine employers' viewpoints of recent graduates, major in legal English to assess whether their legal English competency meet the requirements of workability. This study basically addressed the following questions:

1. What are the employers' requirements for university graduates' legal English competency at work?
2. What are the advantageous edges for employees with a good command of legal English?

2. Literature Review

Understanding the core issues to assess employers' expectations for new graduates is very important to compromise both what new graduates have to prepare at training institutions and higher education programs to satisfy the needs of employers. Together with a fast-track global integration, employers' needs and expectations are more and more challenging for skilled and well-educated workforce to keep up with a socio-economic development which has a great influence on the research field concerning employers' requirements for new graduates.

2.1. Employers' expectations

The challenge of work requires employees to educate themselves to meet the requirements of the positions they take on. Generally speaking, graduates are thought the prerequisite in their soft skills as specified in the study conducted by Hani et al. (2017) who investigated the relationship between communication, interpersonal and management skills with employee productivity. They conclude that the most needed element for soft skills is communication skill, they further curtail it as its scope being too broad and concentrate mainly on English language for communication medium. Besides, they state the insufficient English fluency as primary cause of discrimination between an employer and employee regarding international scenario. Lack of soft skills, especially communication skill, has been the focus in many studies (i.e. Ilhaamie & Rosmawarni, 2020; Cheang & Yamashita, 2020; Su-hie et al., 2017). In particular, Ilahaamie and Rosmawarni (2020) conducted a qualitative research to find out employers' expectation and preference of graduates in Malaysia. They claim that the main cause of unemployability of Malaysian graduates is lack of soft skills, particularly communication skill. This is similar to the research finding of Hani et al. (2017), but they do not specify English language competency as the weakness of communication skill. Relating to soft skills, Cheang and Yamashita (2020) did a mixed-method study on work readiness, they

disclose that soft skills are regarded equally important as discipline specific knowledge and technical skills according to employers. Their study also indicates the mismatch between university students and prospective employers in that university graduates believe that getting excellent grades help them easily get recruited while employers expect their employees to possess soft skills, personal attributes, and qualities as predictors of workplace and career success. Su-Hie et al. (2017) conducted a qualitative study on Malaysian employers to investigate their perspectives on the importance of English proficiency and communication skills for graduates at workplace. They discovered close relationship between the threshold level of English competence needed for developing good communication skills and the use of English language fluency for relevant communicative purposes in the workplace. They claim that good communication skills, together with a good command of English proficiency can increase graduates' employability and opportunities for career advancement.

Slova et al. (2015) carried out a mixed method study on employers' needs and expectations for qualified employees with four subjects, namely employers, teaching staff, students, and recent graduates. They suggest that prospective employees should have social competence, motivation to work, and responsibility in addition to professional skills and competence. Their research concentrates on 11 factors, particularly ability for self-contained work, plan work time, involvement, co-operation, intelligence, solidity and allegiance to company, initiative and creativity, willingness in skills improvement, computer literacy, knowledge skills, specific professional knowledge. Unfortunately, they do not include ESP in their study to contribute to the panoramic research picture of employees working in a multinational environment. In another mixed-methods study conducted by Mahbub et al. (2016) in comparing views of recent science graduates and employers, they examined 20 areas of knowledge and skills important for employability. Their research finding discloses that both employers and graduates consider generic skills as having a higher level of usefulness in workplaces compared to discipline-specific knowledge and skills. Remarkably, verbal and written skills are not highly appreciated by recent employees, whereas employers focus on these skills very much. Besides, this study does not mention English language skills, which requires recent graduates to use at their workplace.

In a large and comprehensive project commissioned by the Edge Foundation in charge of Lowden et al. (2011), they carried out a mixed-methods study to explore employers' perceptions of the employability skills of new graduates at local, national, and international level. They examined what qualities, characteristics, skills and knowledge secured recent graduates with employability. Their research results show that although employers really need new employees to gain the technical and discipline competences from their degrees, recent graduates have to prove their self-efficacy in a variety of broader skills and attributes, for example critical thinking, communication, problem solving, or team-working. Their finding also points out that the main skills and attributes employers expect from new employees are a good degree from an accredited university, work experience, participative, and their practical performance at current workplace. They, nevertheless, do not explore the requirement of English language competency with new graduates. According to the report on the employability of higher education graduates conducted by Humburg et al. (2013), they carried out research on skills enhancing graduates' possibilities to get jobs. The study results present employers' preference for recent graduates' chances to get recruited for the job ranking from the highest to the lowest, that is, professional expertise, interpersonal

skills, commercial/entrepreneurial skills, innovative/creative skills, strategic/organizational skills, and general academic skills. Surprisingly, among these skills, employers ranked general academic skills as the bottom list of the important criteria for new employees whereas new graduates strongly believe that they have to achieve good academic grades at university to demonstrate well at workplace. In particular, the result of the report reveals that foreign language skills are crucial in the interpersonal skills, but employers did not specify whether ESP or general English skills should be more emphasised. In one large-scaled survey by Cambridge English and QS (2016) carried out in 38 countries/territories and 20 different industries with 5,373 employers, the survey evinces that English language skills play a vital role for recent graduates under the view of over 95% of employers in many countries and territories where English is not used as an official language in communication, which is the basis for employees meeting ESP requirements at work.

2.2. Recent graduates' perspectives towards career development

When considering how employees view the importance of English competence at workplace with the hypotheses that ESP improves job performance and yields the prospects of promotion, many studies (e.g. Clement & Murugavel, 2018; Meredith (2013); Tevdovska, 2017; Tran, 2016) have proved that these assumptions are possibly true. Clement and Murugavel (2018) conducted a research on employees of different companies in India, with the claim that the requirements of English language become more and more challenging at work due to the global market, and employees who lack adequate English language skills seem to be difficult to demonstrate their capabilities to grow professionally. Meredith (2013) investigated how employees used English, especially ESP in the workplace. The research finding stresses employees' opinions on the role and practice of English at work because a demanding, globalized workforce and the highly needed use of English as a de facto working language requires employees to be proficient in ESP for the workplace in globalized environments. Similarly, Tevdovska (2017) implemented a study enhancing employability skills in ESP context. The results indicate that new graduates recognize the essential role of using ESP at a multi-lingual environment. They expect that teaching ESP at a higher education should match the requirement and necessity of employability skills of potential employers. In other words, recent graduates feel dissatisfied with current ESP programs at universities as ESP does not meet the needs of actual practices at workplace. Interestingly, Tran (2016) evaluated the collaboration between universities and enterprises to supply the labour market with a well-qualified workforce. The finding points out the fact that based on close collaboration with well-established companies, higher education institutions are supplied with updated source of information to formulate and orient the mission statement of education settings to avail the best educational programs. Although graduates recognize the benefits of the university – enterprise collaboration, they still express their doubts on the influence of corporate cultures on higher education programs. New graduates even complain that they have a limit choice of job opportunities as a consequence of being trained to meet certain types of companies, so they do not have a chance to learn ESP at universities. The report, however, fails to reflect the detailed ESP that the companies need their employees to be proficient basing on employers' perspectives.

Additionally, Northcott (2013) states that recent graduates complain that it is challenging to understand legal English language. They should have been instructed by

legal specialists or lawyers working in standing organs while they are at universities. Besides, they stress the important role of authenticity of legal English materials which are linguist-friendly but updated for preparing school-leavers to comprehend the knowledge of legal English language. In other words, new graduates suggest that educators should reform the syllabus to make a difficult area more accessible, and pedagogical principles for legal English practitioners to succeed in their current jobs. These perspectives are, to a certain extent, in line with the research findings done by Brikena & Gezim (2011). In this study, recent graduates reflect to be fully aware of the important legal English necessity at workplace. They suppose that specific terminology deters them from fluent communication in exchanging their daily conversations in addressing legal English matters at work. In addition, they hopefully believe that their viewpoints can contribute to educational institutions with resourceful reference in redesigning and renovating the ESP curricula, especially legal English curriculum to match theory to practice. Similarly, Rumalessin and Farah (2021) conducted a mix-methods study on legal English necessity of graduates. They emphasize the needs of student access authentic legal materials relating to law cases. They also underline that to ease graduates in later work, university programs should be reformed and updated to combine student expectations of acquiring legal English knowledge with professional practices so that new employees quickly get used to applying their legal English language skills in solving their actual tasks at work. Therefore, learning legal English at university provides sufficient workability for new graduates working in environments needing ESP competency.

3. METHOD

3.1. Research design

This descriptive, empirical research was primarily designed to evaluate employers' perspectives on the requirements for university graduates' legal English proficiency in workability. 35 participants were randomly chosen, utilizing the stratified random sampling method. This was because of the impossibility for the researcher, within the constraints of time and the COVID-19 pandemic, to collect the information directly from Vietnamese law firms and legal organizations, the questionnaire was floated via active Google form in the emails within a 4-week period. The researcher's email content, together with the questionnaire instruction, explained the objectives and relevance of the study, assured their anonymity, and gave them the willingness of not participating in the study if the respondents felt inconvenient. Finally, the data was screened before using SPSS statistics application for data treatment.

3.2. Participants

Among 35 respondents, the results presented that 7 participants, equivalent to 20%, worked as managers, 4 people (11.4%) were deputy managers, 2 senior investigators (5.7%) participated in this study, 5 lawyers (14.3%) expressed their stances, 3 staff or 8.6% took part in the survey, 4 heads of legal department (11.4%) returned their responses, 5 chief justices of the Provincial People's Court (14.3%) partook in the study, 5 partners (14.3%) for law firms turned in their opinions. Regarding the educational

levels, 16 participants accounting for 45.7% had tertiary diplomas, 14 people (40%) had post-graduate degrees, and 5 respondents (14.3%) gained doctoral degrees.

3.3. Research instrument

The study exploited the researcher-made questionnaire, which was constructed basing on factual and behavioral criteria proposed by recommended by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010). The questionnaire was constructed by the researcher, then sent to 5 experts on recruitment for the content validation. After that the questionnaire was implemented a dummy run with 7 volunteers for the validity and liability to select the items which were within the acceptable Cronbach alpha reliability estimates ($0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$). The final version was again returned to 3 experts from law firms to examine and validate the liability.

3.4. Statistical tools

The study used the summated rating scale, commonly referred as the Likert scale, had equal attitudinal value. Thus, the quantitative data was treated using descriptive statistics. Specially, frequency count and percentage were employed to analyze the demographic information, the importance of Legal English language in organizations, required legal English language ability for employees, and the offers from organizations to support their employees with better legal English ability. Descriptive mean was used to reflect an attitude towards the issue in question, particularly the amount of senior positions in the organization with legal English ability meeting job requirements, the frequency of legal English skills carried out at work, the importance of legal English skills for the organization, such as very low (1 - 1.8), low (1.9 - 2.6), normal (2.7 - 3.4), high (3.5 - 4.2), and very high (4.3 - 5.0).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. The importance of legal English language skills

To evaluate the necessary degree of using ESP at workplace, particularly legal English skills, the results from the survey point out that the majority of the respondents (n = 15, equivalent to 43.0%) confirmed that it was important to master legal English language to implement English at work. Following this rank, an astonishing batch of surveyed people (n = 13; accounting for 37.1%) expressed their stances that legal English language was very important to handle their daily tasks. Only 5 participants, equal to 14.3% reckoned that they thought legal English language was extremely important for recent graduates to succeed in dealing with their duties at work. Surprisingly, among two employers sharing 2.8% each, one regarded legal English skills as unimportant and the other held an opposite idea when remarking that English was the main language used in their working environments. Similar to the assessment in Meradith's research (2013), ESP is regarded as the conduit between academic research and practical applications. In legal field, it emphasizes the importance of synchronous domestic and international collective business transactions, which requires common laws to be interchanged in nature. To avoid possible awkward situations relating to law cases, legal English practitioners are those who can determine and settle down the potential problems in international co-operations (Su-Hei et al., 2017; Clement & Murugavel,

2018; Poedjiastutie & Oliver, 2017). From this research finding, it can be concluded that employees with high proficiency in ESP, especially legal English language skills considered as vital human resources in business activities in terms of the legal field, especially the current situation where there are more and more multinational companies and giant corporations choosing Vietnam as the melting pots for them to settle down their businesses. This research finding provides resourceful information for future graduates as they know what to prepare, not just their professions or general English, but more importantly a good command of ESP. Stakeholders, moreover, set their criteria for recruitments and have favourable policies for employees who have good educational qualifications and soft skills, especially proficient ESP employees at work. Therefore, there is an increasing demand for high-skilled workforce with a good command of ESP.

4.2. The frequency of legal English practices in business activities

The need to investigate actual legal English practices is very resourceful to contribute to the overall picture of what ESP really happens at work. Table 1 presents what aspects of legal English language skills are frequently used under the view of employers' assessment. As clearly seen from Table 1, the respondents incline to acknowledge that speaking and reading skills are much more prioritized than writing or listening skills. In particular, legal English language skills are indispensable in presenting, negotiating, and discussing legal issues (M = 4.64; SD = 0.36%). Reading legal documents and contracts (M = 3.61; SD = .031%), together with communicating with foreign customers (M = 3.79; SD = .854%) are reported high according to the current employers. For the other legal English skills, the results indicate that employers require their employees normally when translating legal documents from English to Vietnamese (M = 3.06; SD = .036) and vice versa (M = 3.09; SD = .117%), respectively. Likewise, employers evaluate normally the following perspectives, such as drafting legal documents or contracts (M = 3.10; SD = .232%), and writing legal correspondence (M = 3.03; SD = .317%). Overall, the standard deviation percentage is below 1.0, which means that there is a little difference among the respondents' choices.

Table 1 The prevalence of legal English language skills applied at work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Description
1. Translate legal documents from English to Vietnamese	35	3.06	.036	Normal
2. Translate legal documents from Vietnamese to English	35	3.09	.117	Normal
3. Draft legal documents, legal contracts.	35	3.10	.232	Normal
4. Read legal documents, legal contracts	35	3.61	.031	High
5. Communicate with foreign customers	35	3.79	.854	High
6. Write legal correspondence	35	3.03	.317	Normal
7. Present, negotiate, discuss legal issues	35	4.64	.036	Very high
Valid N (listwise)	35			

From the research outcomes, it is clear that employers acknowledge the forensic linguistics, which has the most influence on employees in workability, are spoken legal English genres, more attentive than written English ones (Northcott, 2013). Concerned

with legal translation, participants claim that legal language is one kind of specialized language which legally qualified translators are fully competent in this area because a substantial part of legal English skills is inherited from the nature and properties of legal English (Muravev, 2020; Su-Hei et al., 2017; Ezihaslinda, 2011). This explains why employers do not think that written and translation legal English skills are less attentive that spoken and reading legal English genres. To account for the emphasis to be placed on spoken and reading legal English abilities, it might be emphasized practical aspects of legal English in the form of socio-pragmatic competence rather than grammatical accuracy.

4.3. The legal English language position in organization operation

When assessing the most important English language skills, particularly reading, writing, speaking, and listening, the results indicate that the most important English language skill is reading legal materials (M = 4.57; SD = .920%), which means very high and most participants acknowledged their close choices by looking at the low standard deviation of below 1.0%. The second rank remarked by employers is speaking skill, which has the high mean (3.64) and the respondents' stance is not much different. Writing skill accounts for the third position under the view of employers (M = 3.17; SD = .685%), these figures denote that the employers showed normal requirements for this skill. Surprisingly, the participants ranked listening skill (M = 3.13; SD = .690) as the least necessity among four micro-skills of English language. In practice, reading in English plays a noteworthy part in maintaining professional knowledge. The fact points out that English is viewed as the most popular medium of communicating information in international journals, legal contracts, and instructions. Meanwhile, speaking skill is an effective means of conveying understanding and ideas to others. The interchanging position between reading and speaking skills takes place in different territories. Reading in English becomes the most important skill in countries where English is used in non-native English-speaking countries, but speaking skill is regarded as the most essential skill where English is employed as a second language or mother tongue (Cambridge English & QS, 2016). This finding is somehow similar to the conclusion presented in the study conducted by Clement and Murugavel (2018). They claim that speaking is, among other micro-English skills, regarded as the most important skill in workplace.

Table 2 The effective level of English language skills at workplace

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Description
1. Reading skill (legal documents, legal reports)	35	4.57	.920	Very high
2. Writing skill (legal document, legal reports, legal correspondence)	35	3.17	.685	Normal
3. Speaking skill (consulting, negotiating, presenting in legal fields)	35	3.64	.989	High
4. Listening skill (meetings, conferences in legal fields)	35	3.13	.690	Normal
Valid N (listwise)	35			

As clearly seen from Table 2, writing and listening English skills are not as important as the aforementioned skills. Employers pay normal attention to writing and listening English skills as they suppose that their staff spend time reading English documents and expressing their thoughts using the speaking skill. Employers stress the necessity of writing English skill in certain work positions, in particular, for staff involved in research and development (Cambridge English & QS, 2016; Muravev, 2020).

4.3. Employers' Legal English language requirements

To highlight the self-efficacy of employees' legal English competence meeting the requirement of their standing positions compared with the six-scaled English proficiency levels, namely elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced, and proficiency. The outcomes disclose that employers generally expect their employees to have a good command of English capabilities. In particular, employers recruit recent graduates with the lowest intermediate level (n = 9; equivalent to 25.8%), these figures are also the same as the advanced level. For the upper-intermediate level, 6 employers equal to 17% expect their new graduates to be at this level. The majority of employers (n = 11; similar to 31.4%) hopes to hire new school-leavers with a proficient English level – the highest capability of English competency. Nowadays, large multinational companies are possibly franchised and set up their branches in many different geographical locations. Staff have to use English to exchange at work. Specially, legal English demands exact terminology to address juridical cases. It also acquires co-workers to have proficient English language skills in a professional context with realistic legal scenarios and materials to successfully accomplish their duties. This finding shares the similarities with that in the report implemented by Cambridge English & QS (2016) when it reports that 49% employers require their staff to have advanced English. However, this percentage reflects ESP in general, not specified in legal English. As suggested by Muravel (2020), employers look for new graduates who have gained their English competency ranging from intermediate to proficient levels to develop professional cross-cultural communication skills in handling legal matters at workplace.

4.4. Existing employees' English proficiency

To illustrate different positions in a legal organization requiring legal English proficiency, Table 3 clearly displays the result specifying the requirements of different job titles to have a distinguished legal English fluency to successfully accomplish their challenging responsibilities.

Table 3 Legal English proficiency meeting employees' requirement for positions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Description
5. Top Management	35	4.57	.829	Very high
6. Head of Department	35	3.72	.756	High
7. Legal Department	35	3.57	.903	High
8. Customer Consulting Department	35	3.59	.897	High
9. Customer Service Department	35	3.89	.897	High
Valid N (listwise)	35			

The figures point out that it is demanding to work in this sector because employees in each position must have high and very high levels of legal English competence. Moreover, as glimpsed from Table 3, the result discloses that the higher position requires more proficient legal English capabilities. In this circumstance, top management needs to have very high level of legal English competency (M = 4.57; SD = .892%). One more thing, the employers also expressed their stances closely by looking at the standard deviation below 1.0%. These results are quite unique and different from other research findings relating to the acceptable levels of legal English fluency at workplace. For example, Meradith (2013) does not specify the English competence as long as employees can use their knowledge of English to do their duties. Recent graduates should take English mastery tests to demonstrate their abilities (Poedjiastutie & Oliver, 2017). Staff should learn specific terminology in terms of legal English language in addition to a university learning outcome English test (Brikena & Gezim, 2011). As such, top multinational companies need to set a good example to master legal English proficiency levels to meet the requirements of the companies (Clement & Murugavel, 2018).

4.5. Evaluating Legal English language skills during recruitment

To understand the process of company recruitment in regard with the evaluation of legal English language skills, it is noteworthy to examine the preliminary steps of employability for new graduates. The outcomes reveal that employers prioritize to hire recent graduates the most if seeing an applicant to study and graduate with a formal university degree major in legal English program (M = 4.46; SD = .432%). The successive rank is for those who hold a bachelor of law, together with a second diploma degree in English language (M = 4.03; SD = .520%). Besides, employers confess to have a normal preference with applicants who present an international English certificate to prove their English capability (M = 3.29; SD = .879%), with whom agree to conduct a part or the whole interview session in English (M = 3.19; SD = .917%), and who are willing to take an English test designed by in-house organization (M = 3.14; SD = .945%), or a tailored English test by outside organization (M = 2.96; SD = .902%). From the aforementioned data, employers understand and evaluate very high how important and sensitive legal knowledge combined with legal English language skills are, which accounts for the reasons employers give the prime favour for recent graduates who are trained and recognized by higher institutions with equivalent degrees for their efforts. So, the importance on the right and famous qualifications help recent graduates manage and succeed in their roles at workplace (Velden et al., 2015; Su-Hei et al, 2017; Cheang & Yamashita, 2020). It is advisable for employees to have qualified, professional expertise in their working positions with both good academic degrees and soft skills, specially ESP such as legal English language competence (Oliver, 2011; Rumalessin & Farah, 2021). Shockingly, employers evaluate moderately those graduates who obtain an English certificate or passing corporate English proficiency tests. This might be the fact that legal knowledge is so difficult and complicated to comprehend that it is ironically called "Legalese", that is, its complexity and sensitivity are understood by those who have an intensive and formal training specialized in it. Furthermore, the nature of legal terminology is only understandable in case someone has a good background knowledge of law. As a result, this relationship acquires the serious combination of professional academics with legal English mastery. Overall, a proficiency test cannot guarantee the demanding knowledge of legal English language under the view of employers (Brikena & Gezim, 2011; Meredith, 2013).

4.6. Benefits for employees with a good command of legal English mastery

To merit and encourage employees to develop their professional careers, it is necessary to inquire employers for what benefits competent employees receive from their achievements at workplace.

Table 4 Organization's incentive schemes for employees with good English proficiency

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Faster career promotion	18	51.4	51.4	51.4
Higher salary	12	34.3	34.3	85.7
Financial support for professional training expense	3	8.6	8.6	94.3
Praise	2	5.7	5.7	100.0
Total	35	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 illustrates four materialistic and spiritual rewards staff receive when they satisfy the criteria clearly set by one organization as an employee motivation. The majority of employers (n = 18, same as 51.4%) claims that personnel with a competent legal English language skill get a faster opportunity of career promotion at work. Meanwhile, 12 employers equal to 34.3% present their employees with a higher salary. The modest number of employers (n = 3, equivalent to 8.6%) awards a financial support for employees' professional training expenses. The bottom list of the incentive scheme policy is some forms of praise employers grant their staff. As glimpsed from Table 4, the support and material grants from employers serve as a huge and potential encouragement for employees to do their best to be advanced in both their specialized knowledge and legal English language aptitude, which is now regarded as an indispensable tool for integrated business transactions. In general, skills development is very necessary for increasing corporate productivity and sustainability, as well as improving working conditions and the employability of workers. Recognizing the importance of developing skilled, qualified workforce, employers wisely invest in their personnel with realistic, materialistic incentive schemes for those meeting certain criteria, not only spiritual encouragement (Brewer, 2013; Lisá et al., 2019). Seeing Table 4, it is obvious to recognize that the highest prospect of an employee with a good command of legal English language skills is fast promotion, which is in line with the perspectives of Fallatah and Syed (2018) in a critical review of Maslow's hierarchy of needs for employee motivation. The second rank is about high salary, which is consistent with many researchers (e.g. Su-Hei et al., 2017; Soka et al., 2015; Mahhbub et al., 2016). Overall, a competent legal English capability collaborated with professional law qualifications increases graduates' employability and yields opportunities for the potential career advancement at workplace.

5. CONCLUSION

One of the most remarkable functions of higher education is to provide societal workforce with professional knowledge and soft skills relevant to the labour market. Although universities keep reforming their programs and syllabi which sound to feature theoretically inclined nature, the current working environments increasingly require

employees to have higher-level skills and up-to-date knowledge. This study investigated employers' expectations in the legal field to find out how employers thought about the employees' ESP ability, particularly legal English language competency in addition to their qualified degrees. The results disclose that employers apply a rigorous recruitment process in selecting and hiring new workforce. In addition, staff not only have at least one bachelor degree, preferablly a bachelor of Law, but they should have a second diploma degree, major in legal English or in English. Besides, employers have a normal attitude to English certifiates or corporate English comptency tests as they suppose that legal English knowledge is something inquiring people to have intensive, formal education to understand the nature about it. This is the reason why the present employees who work in legal organizations must be in the intermediate English proficiency level. To encourage and promote employee motivation to develop their professional career during their work life, legal organizations invest in their workforce self-development with lavish rewarding privileges. For example, fast promotion is the most popular form of rewards for personnel meeting the requirements of the organization policies. Then, a successive merit is to give deserved staff with a higher pay. As such, the compensatory payment of the legal organizations has a washback effect on the efficiency and productivity at workplace. Employees must have an effective and realistic plan to get promoted in their career ladders.

Although the research sample size exploiting the employers' viewpoints is modest during the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the cross-sectional, descriptive approach was carefully implemented to ensure the accuracy and liability of the results. This research functions as the springboard for the future studies in the relationship between ESP with academic degrees for employee professional developments. Moreover, the findings may bring back the helpful benefits for the university-enterprise collaboration to generate a qualified workforce for satisfying the needs of the global economic integration.

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Original scientific paper

ACADEMIC MISCONDUCT IN THE PROJECT WORK OF TERTIARY ESP STUDENTS: CAUSES, RELATIONSHIPS AND SOLUTIONS

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Abstract. *University students often lack basic skills related to academic integrity, especially with regard to the ethical use of resources. The paper attempts to identify typical cases of academic misconduct. In an effort to find the situations or circumstances that may trigger unethical behaviour, or a relationship between language proficiency and academic dishonesty, a profound analysis of Business English student projects was made, revealing that there is a relationship between the nature of a task and the occurrence of inadequate use of resources, as academic dishonesty is present irrespective of student's language proficiency. The authors' ambition is to propose solutions to tackle unethical academic behaviours, focusing on prevention rather than tracking and penalization. Besides providing proper training in correct citation, paraphrasing and summarization, it is also necessary to reassess the relevance of the project task. This combination should help to achieve not only a unique project work outcome, but also develop skills, such as critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, collaboration, information literacy, productivity and reliability, and ultimately lead to the development of autonomous lifelong learning.*

Key words: *plagiarism, compilation, project work, academic dishonesty, Business English*

1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) try to engage students in meaningful activities that will enhance their learning. In line with the educational theories of constructivism that we chose for the theoretical framework, they are actively seeking ways of implementing realistic productive tasks in which the knowledge the students work with (or specific language, in the case of ESP) would become internalized. One of the popular activities used for the purpose is project work and students regularly encounter various project tasks during their studies.

Project work is an umbrella term covering a wide range of activities which usually contain searching for information, processing it towards creative work and presenting the final outcome. Despite the fact that by the time they start higher education, they have had a lot of experience with project work, many students have not developed working habits

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related to academic ethics and integrity, such as acknowledging reformulate authorship to the creator of the idea mentioned, avoiding both intentional and unintentional plagiarism, using appropriate quotations and paraphrasing, or other skills related to the proper use of resources.

The authors looked for the causes of these acts among 3rd year Bachelor degree students of the Faculty of Economics, Technical University of Košice focusing on inadequate uses of resources in the 254 students' final projects in Business English courses of the academic year 2019/2020. The paper describes the types and causes of academic dishonesty, then focuses on project work as a tool for enhancing learning by use of higher-order thinking skills. The individual phases of our research conducted are described in the subsequent parts of the paper:

- Identification of the types of academic dishonesty in student project work (Chapters 2 & 4)
- Analysis into the frequency of plagiarism and compilation – out of 254 projects (Chapter 5)
- Research into the project topics in relation to the opportunities for academic misconduct – Typology of project topics (Chapter 6)
- Research into the students' choice of topics (Chapters 7 & 8)
- Research into the relationship between academic misconduct and students' language proficiency (Chapter 9)

The Discussion segment of this paper contains a proposal of possible solutions to reduce academic misconduct.

1.1. Constructivism

Constructivism is an educational theory based on Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development and Lev Vygotsky's social constructivism, claiming that knowledge cannot be acquired by direct transmission, i.e. passive perceiving, but rather through experience and social discourse, when the learners create new understandings and integrate new information with their prior knowledge (Jumaat et al 2017). Constructivist-based approach to learning aims to engage students in the investigation of realistic tasks by means of activities such as project work, group work, problem-solving, field trips or virtual trips, hands-on activities, and working with authentic materials. Constructivist strategies are widely employed within the framework of revised Bloom's taxonomy of educational goals (Krathwohl, 2002, p. 213, Armstrong, 2010) ranging from simple recall of information to complex evaluation of knowledge and creation of learners' own outputs. The learning objectives of the revised Bloom's taxonomy are expressed by the following verbs:

- remember,
- understand,
- apply,
- analyse,
- evaluate,
- create.

These objectives are often pictured as a pyramid, with "remember" stage at the base and "create" stage at the top of the pyramid, suggesting that the base is formed by lower-order thinking skills, and the upper part by higher-order thinking skills.

In a constructivist-based approach, instead of providing information and explanations, instructors provide conditions that make learning possible (Seifert & Sutton 2009) and act like

experts, providing assistance when necessary, navigating students through manageable tasks, enabling them to independently understand information, discover relations, invent new models, analyse consequences, evaluate results, which allows learners to construct new knowledge that becomes internalized throughout the process.

2. Academic Dishonesty, Plagiarism and Unethical Behaviours

2.1. How Students Cheat

There are various types of dishonest student behaviours, the most frequent ones include the following:

- Cheating in exams – using cheat sheets, copying other student's answers, using books and other unauthorized materials, using smartphones (and increasingly also smartwatches) to communicate with other students in/outside the class or to search for answers in their phone's memory or online, alternatively, they take pictures of tests, forward them to a distant 'expert' who will provide answers, etc. The options are constantly growing along with technological advances.
- With the advent of the Internet, plagiarism, or copying other authors' materials has become much easier and more common than ever before. It takes various forms:
  - impersonation or contract cheating, when the entire work has been written by a third party on behalf of the student assigned,
  - copying the entire work from another author and submitting as one's own,
  - collusion – several students work together on individual assignments,
  - cutting and pasting chunks of texts into the student's own work, not giving due credit to the creator of an idea,
  - copying a sentence or a paragraph and failing to put quotation marks around the quote,
  - unacceptable paraphrasing another author without acknowledging the source,
  - self-plagiarism or duplicate submission (using previous assignments),
  - unintentional acts of plagiarism of various kinds and extents.
- Fabrication and falsification – making up quotations or references that the student did not consult in their research, inventing or changing the data to produce research results without actually conducting the research.
- Producing a compilation of quotes or paraphrases with no inputs, interpretations, or conclusions from the student.

2.2. Why Students Cheat

Based on data in the literature dealing with academic dishonesty and information collected in interviews with our students, we have identified the causes that can lead to academic misconduct related to the use of resources in students' project work:

- The causes of unethical behaviour related to the use of resources include cultural traits – in some cultures, information and knowledge are considered collective property, they are passed, shared and memorized. Therefore, in the process of education in such cultures, students are not expected to process information and discover knowledge by themselves. The information is transmitted from the

teacher to students, whose task is just to memorize it – thus the knowledge is shared by the whole community (Reid, 1993, 89; Carroll, 2002; Ryan, 2000).

- Students acquired bad habits during their primary and secondary education, which may be a consequence of the vast popularity of project-based teaching across all levels of education. However, information and instructions on the proper use of resources are often absent at these levels of education.
- Everyday behaviour on social networks also influences students' attitudes towards acknowledging authorship, as sharing different content regardless of authorship is common practice.
- Students lack experience in academic writing; the principles of academic integrity and ethical work are not taught.
- The reason for using plagiarized texts is also the fear of making mistakes caused by uncertainty in the use of foreign and/or academic language.

The abovementioned reasons may cause unintentional plagiarism. Other reasons are related to the deliberate unethical use of resources:

- Students may feel under the pressure to obtain a degree to meet their parents'/ community's expectations, yet they lack intrinsic motivation and/or interest in their study.
- Students with poor time management skills tend to plagiarize when having insufficient time frame,
- Students plagiarize in an effort to find the path of least resistance, or some believe in economic use of resources in terms of achieving an acceptable result with the least possible effort.
- Students do not perceive cases of plagiarism and unethical use of resources as serious misconduct, as they are often inadequately penalized, even when committed by public figures. They tend to rationalize, thinking that "everyone else is doing it" and thus develop habits of distorted thinking.
- If the topic does not pose a sufficient challenge because it is too general (the task is not specific) and the processing does not require problem solving, students commit plagiarism, as the nature of the topic implies that too many resources are available, making students think "everything has already been written, there is nothing left to discover".

3. Project Work in Language Education

The process of teaching foreign languages has been evolving for several millennia, as a result of the dynamic nature of languages, and developments in the fields of linguistics, methodology, pedagogy and psychology. Over the centuries, attention has shifted from the language system itself to the way a language is taught, eventually focusing on the process of learning. Gradually, the use of the grammar-translation method has been abandoned and methods requiring the activity of the learner have gained ever-increasing popularity.

In the teaching of foreign languages, it is advisable to fulfil all educational goals, which are expressed in the revised Bloom's taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002, p. 213, Armstrong, 2010), such as:

- memorizing and understanding new words and elements of the language system,
- their use in context,

- analysis of language phenomena within the system,
- evaluating the suitability of a language element in a specific context,
- creating students' own outputs (text, blog, wiki pages, presentations, problem solving, role-playing games, negotiations, debates, etc.).

Teaching usually progresses from lower cognitive processes (memorization, comprehension and application) to a higher cognitive process (analysis, assessment and creation).

According to the principles of constructivism, problem-solving tasks play a vital role in the process of education, as knowledge is internalized by working with information. As a result, project-based teaching has been a popular method for several decades at all levels of education. Hutchinson believes that project work "encourages initiative, independence, imagination, self-discipline and co-operation together with cross-curricular skills development where knowledge gained in other subjects may be used in the English class," (Hutchinson, 1996). This view is generally accepted, and project work is popular among teachers of various subjects, as well as in foreign language teaching. The term project work includes a wide range of activities, which comprise:

- searching for information,
- information processing towards a creative outcome,
- and presentation of the final product.

The creativity inherent in the activities found at the top of Bloom's taxonomy of educational goals is what teachers appreciate, as they believe that it brings results.

Based on our experience, we can state that although the intention of creative work on individual projects may be promising, in reality, the resulting projects do not bring the expected results. There are signs of plagiarism of various extent present in students' project work, and many outputs are composed of disorganized or even random compilations. In order to complete the task, students often just search for relevant information on the Internet and copy it into their project work without mentioning the source, without their own input in processing or interpretation of information. We notice incorrect citations and paraphrases, compilations without any interpretation or students' own inputs, or even copying the entire text. Manifestations of academic dishonesty may not be intentional; they may also result from students' lack of awareness of the principles of academic ethics and integrity.

4. Identification of Academic Dishonesty in the Project Works of Business English Students

In the first phase of our qualitative research, we conducted observations, interviews with teachers and studentsand document analysis of student final project works of Business English courses, in order to identify typical cases of academic dishonesty. The projects were a part of the Business English final exam, the students had a choice of 50 topics (further described in section 6 of this paper) to choose from at the beginning of their 5th semester, and their task was to write a 5-page document, submit it before the exam period and prepare a presentation on the subject that would be delivered at the oral exam.

The analysis showed the presence of various types of academic misconduct, such as

- not giving due credit to the creator of an idea,
- copying a sentence or a paragraph failing to put quotation marks around the quote,
- paraphrasing or citations without acknowledging the source,

- submitting one's own previous work created for another subject (self-plagiarism), or
- copying the entire work from another author and submitting as one's own.

The research has also shown cases of academic dishonesty such as

- an unacceptable way of paraphrasing (without adding student's own opinion/interpretation),
- misinterpretation of the original text,
- compilation of quotes and paraphrases in which students' own inputs in terms of interpretation, evaluations and opinions were absent.

In addition to the ways of inadequate use of resources identified in our analyses, there are also other types of academic misconduct. For example,

- if students have not actually used the required number of sources and they make up the list of bibliographic references (adding sources they did not use),
- in the case of assignments requiring a survey, they may falsify the data to the desired result, or fabricate them if the survey was not carried out at all.

These types of academic misconduct are very hard to identify and prove. Probably the most difficult to identify and prove is the case when the entire work has been written by a third party on behalf of the student assigned.

5. Frequency of Plagiarism and Compilation

The second phase of our research aimed to check for the presence of plagiarism or other manifestations of academic dishonesty in student project works. The analysis was performed on 254 projects, which were part of the final exam in the Business English course (Fig.1). The research was conducted by intensive reading of the papers, checking bibliographic references, and focusing on the "suspicious" parts of the text using freely available online software tools to check originality (listed under Refereces). The analysis confirmed the assumption that experienced teachers could identify the "suspicious" parts of the text which differed significantly from the student's usual linguistic expression used at the level of lexicon, syntax and style, and when checked, these proved to be plagiarized. The aim was to check for the presence, not the extent of plagiarism, i.e. for the scope of this quantitative research, it was not important whether it was one sentence that was plagiarized or a few paragraphs. We are aware of the limitations of our approach – a more detailed qualitative analysis which would identify the extent of academic misconduct would require professional plagiarism checking software, which was not available to us at the time of our research. If signs of both plagiarism and unacceptable compilation were detected in a project, it was added only in the plagiarism category, as we considered plagiarism to be a more serious case of academic misconduct.

It was observed that the highest number of works (137 works – 54%) contained inappropriate compilations of quotations and paraphrases, while the author's own contribution, interpretation and evaluation of the adopted ideas from secondary sources were missing. In 105 works (41%), we noted the presence of various signs of academic dishonesty, such as copying entire parts of the work, paraphrasing ideas without mentioning the source in the text, only in bibliographic references. There was also a case when two different students submitted identical projects. Only 12 of the submitted

projects (5%) met the criteria of acceptable use of resources. The results of the analysis forced us to look for the causes of unethical behaviour of our students.

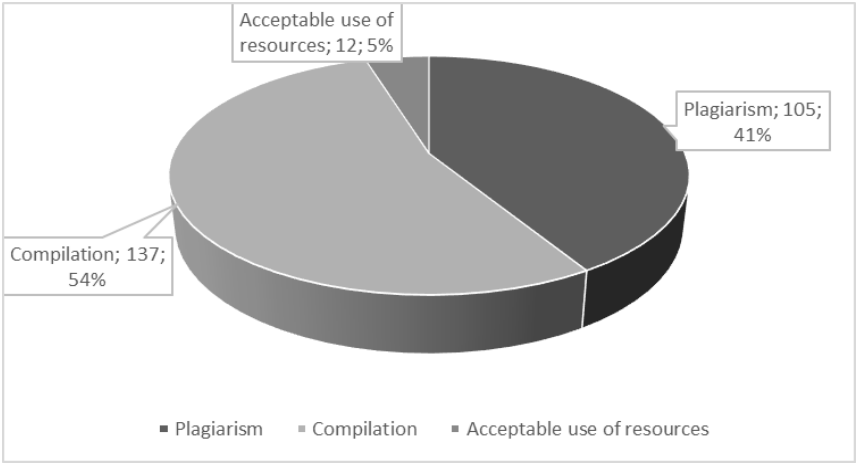

Fig.1. Number of project works containing signs of plagiarism and unacceptable compilation vs. acceptable use of resources

6. Typology of Projects

Based on the identification of typical causes of plagiarism, our goal was to eliminate as much as possible the reasons for the unethical behaviour of students in their project work. In the third phase of the research, we focused on the analysis of the topics of final projects in terms of the complexity of processing the topic, the availability of relevant resources and the effort that needs to be made to fulfil the task of project work. The aim of the analysis was focused primarily on the specification of those properties of project topics that prevent plagiarism or eliminate it as much as possible. In the past, we had noticed a high level of plagiarism also in connection with the voluntary topics the students were allowed to choose themselves. In order to observe whether the students' approach to unethical resource management would change, specific topics were proposed for the students, which arose as a summary of the Business English teachers' proposals. However, the creation of topics was not preceded by the establishment of strict criteria for the formulation and nature of the project theme. As part of the final exam in Business English, 254 students were offered a choice of 50 topics for final projects. We continued to record signs of plagiarism and the presence of inappropriate compilation, gathering information without the authors' own contributions in the students' project works, and therefore, we analysed the nature of the proposed topics. The research also focused on the popularity of topics among students, the relationship between their choice and nature of the topics or task completion in connection with the presence of signs of academic dishonesty.

The analysis showed the diversity of the nature of the topics of the project work. In some cases, the elaboration of the topic did not require much effort and creative approach of the author, as it was possible to find many electronic resources related to the issue on the Internet, however, some topics required students' highly autonomous and creative

work. Based on the nature of individual topics of student projects, 4 basic types of topics were categorized. The complexity of the project associated with the specificity of the topic related to the occurrence of the number of relevant sources increased from Type 1 to Type 4.

Project topics Type 1:

These topics are general, they address well-known issues understandable to the general public, and relevant resources can easily be found on the Internet. Students are not required to solve a problem, the topics are not demanding and the project work does not require a creative or analytical approach. The nature of the topic increases the possibility of plagiarism or compilation of individual parts of the project.

Examples:

- *Marketing tricks*
- *Money laundering*
- *The euro and the eurozone.*
- *European central bank and its relation to central banks of EU countries*

Project topics Type 2:

These topics are slightly specified, which can complicate but not prevent plagiarism. In comparison with Type 1, these topics are less general; however, there is no specific task, which makes it easy for students to find resources, copy information and adjust it to suit the topic. Narrowing the focus, such as assigning geographical site-specific topics, may reduce the possibility of copying, but may not necessarily lead to the avoidance of plagiarism. Examples:

- *Industrial parks in Slovakia*
- *Slovak tax environment*
- *E-business in Slovakia*
- *The main Slovak exports and imports*

Project topics Type 3:

These topics contain the task of comparison, so by their very nature, they signal to students that it is necessary to conduct some research. However, a comparison-only task does not necessarily require a creative approach, deep thinking, or problem-solving and can be solved by compiling relevant information from various sources without the student's own input. When comparing specific information, students are less likely to find a ready-made answer to a given task that requires separate comparison and evaluation of information, which reduces the number of available ready-made resources in English.

Examples:

- *American and European business cultures*
- *The role of the FED in comparison with the ECB*
- *Comparison of two bank products/services*
- *Investment Banking in the U.S.A. (the UK) and Slovakia*

Project topics Type 4:

These topics represent a highly specific, personalized problem task that is more difficult to plagiarize because the finished answer is unlikely to be found on the Internet. Students

need to find information on a given topic and select relevant information, analyse and reach a certain conclusion, justify their conclusions, solve a problem or share personal experience. Productivity, individual work, critical thinking, and creativity are needed to complete the task and also help prevent plagiarism. In terms of the classification of educational goals according to Bloom's taxonomy (Armstrong, 2010), it is necessary to use activities from the top of the pyramid to fulfil the task.

Examples:

- *Ethical policy of a particular company. Why should you do business ethically when unethical behaviour brings more?*
- *China – a threat or opportunity for European businesses? What is behind the absolute advantage of Chinese products?*
- *My virtual company*
- *How young people manage their assets (on the basis of a questionnaire)*

7. Popularity of Topics and Signs of Academic Dishonesty

The quantification of projects according to the type of selected topics brought surprising results. The popularity of Type 1 topics far exceeded the other topics, since as many as 194 out of 254 students, i.e. 76%, chose a topic falling into Type 1. The numbers of the other types decreased gradually. The research has shown that the popularity of topics declines with their increasing difficulty.

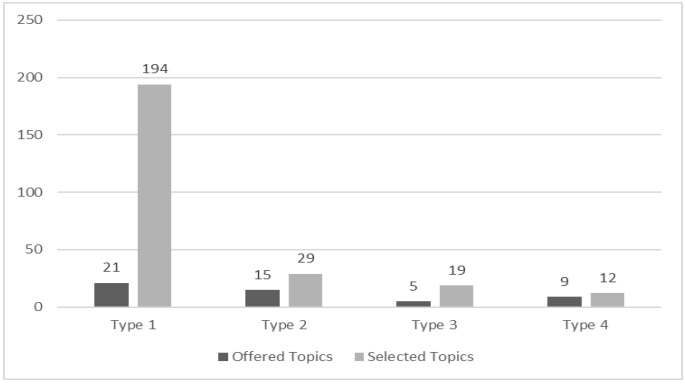

Fig. 2 Offered vs selected topics

When identifying unethical use of resources, we quantified the number of works with present signs of plagiarism and compilation (if both phenomena were present, we added the work into the plagiarism category) and the number of acceptable works in terms of ethical use of resources according to the typology of project topics (Fig. 3). In types 1-3, the number of works containing signs of compilations always exceeded those containing plagiarism. In projects of Type 4 topics, signs of unethical use of resources were not present to a significant extent in relation to the author's own work. This demonstrates a clear link between the task assigned and the use of resources to fulfil it.

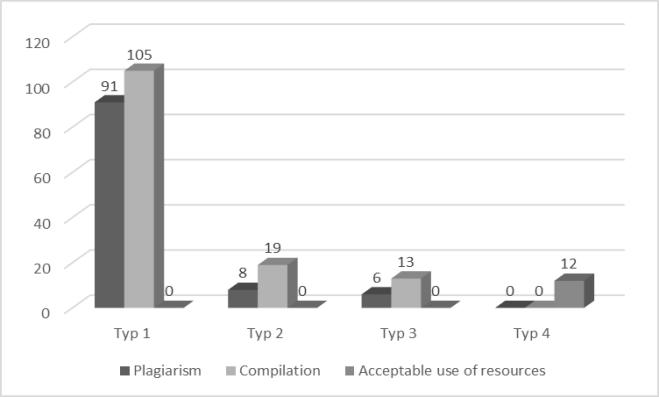

Fig. 3 Occurrence of signs of academic dishonesty in connection with the typology of topics

8. Analysis of Students' Preferences when Choosing the Type of Topics in Relation to their Language Level

The connection between the originality of the projects and the highest language level of the students was not obvious, which led us to further research. The research in this phase was carried out on a sample project works of those students who passed their first attempt of the written part of the final exam and achieved a grade of A-E. In the analyses of the relationship between students' language proficiency and the topic selection or academic dishonesty, we took into consideration students' grades from the written part of the final exam. The project and its presentation were a part of the oral exam, hence the project quality did not have any impact on the grade achieved in the written exam we took into consideration.

We analysed the preferences of 183 students in their choice of topic in relation to their language level as expressed by their grade level in the written exam. For each grade level, the number of project works with a topic corresponding to a certain type was quantified and expressed in the form of a bar chart (Fig. 4).

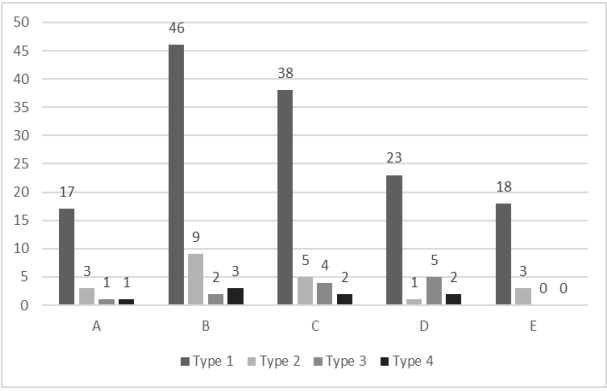

Fig. 4 Students' choice of topic types according to their grade levels

For A-grade students, the proportion of project work topics of Type 1 was 17 (about 77%), Type 2 appeared in 3 works (14%) and Types 3 and 4 were represented equally by 1 work (4.5%) each. B-grade students also chose Type 1 topics in about 46 cases (77%), the number of Type 2 topics was 9 (15%), Type 3 was chosen in 2 cases (3%), and Type 4 occurred in 3 (5%) of the project works. 38 (78%) of C-grade students selected Type 1 topics, while Type 2 topics appeared in 5 works (10%), Type 3 occurred in 4 cases (8%) and Type 4 in 2 (4%) of the project works. Similarly, D-grade students' choice of Type 1 topics reached 24 cases (about 74%), Type 2 was represented in 1 work (3%), Type 3 was selected by 5 students (16%), and type 4 by the remaining 2 (6%). Regarding E-grade students, the result was slightly different, as the choice of topics by students was limited to Types 1 and 2; 18 (86%) and 3 (14%), respectively.

The analysis of the relationship between the choice of the type of project topic and language level clearly showed that the language level of the students does not have a significant influence on their choice of the topic. In the case of students graded A-D, we observe an almost identical ratio of topic choice, with a strong preference for Type 1 topics (about 74-78%), which include topics that are not demanding and do not require a creative approach, as ready-made texts are often easily available on the Internet. The representation of other Types (Types 2-4) is relatively identical in the same group of students (graded A-D), while the popularity of Type 4 topics turns out to be the lowest.

This fact confirms that specific topics requiring a creative approach of the author and independent processing of information are not preferred, regardless of the level of students' language skills. However, students assessed at grade E chose only project topics of Types 1 and 2. What is more, a significant preference for Type 1 (86%) was shown in this case. We assume that this fact is related to the complexity of the task and the overall professional level of knowledge of these students. It is also possible that the occurrence of academic misconduct is related to students' overall lack of academic skills to read professionally, as Javorčíková and Badinská (2021, 664) found in their research into students' reading comprehension and critical thinking skills.

We agree with Gudkova (2021, 236) claiming that it is necessary to incorporate argumentative practices into ESP courses, so that students are able to present their own ideas in a logical manner, and support them with correct arguments, as well as to recognize flaws in other people's argumentation. We believe that once students master the basics of argumentative literacy, they will also be able to work with resources in an acceptable manner and use other people's opinions to support their own ideas while acknowledging authorship correctly.

9. Relationship between Language Skills and Academic Dishonesty

The fifth phase of our research investigated the possible relationship between students' overall language skills and academic misconduct. Our assumption was that signs of academic misconduct would be present predominantly in the works of lower-grade students since their limited language proficiency might cause uncertainty and fear of making mistakes.

However, as can be seen in Figure 5, signs of unacceptable compilation were dominant almost across the whole spectrum of student works, regardless of their grade.

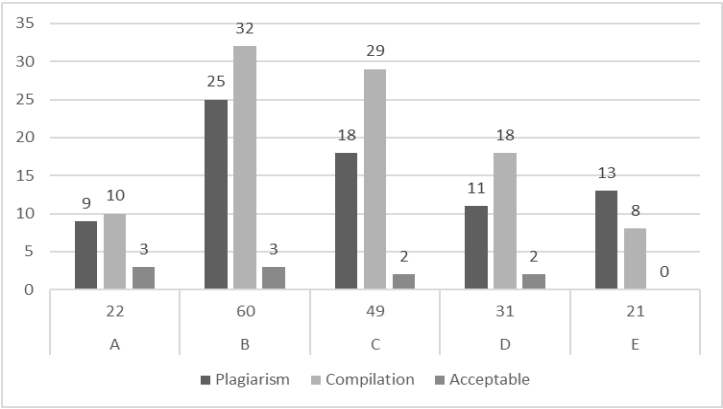

Fig. 5 The presence of plagiarism and unacceptable compilation vs. acceptable use of resources in students' projects according to their overall grades (A-E)

Out of 22 A-grade students, only 3 (14%) used resources in an acceptable manner. Signs of unacceptable compilation were present in 10 projects (45%), and plagiarism was detected in 9 projects (41%).

Three out of 60 B-grade students (5%) produced projects without any signs of academic misconduct. The number of works containing signs of unacceptable compilation was 32 (53%). Signs of plagiarism were found in 25 projects (42%).

In the case of C-grade students, the number of works containing signs of unacceptable compilation was 29 (59%), and plagiarism was detected in 18 works (37%). Two students (4%) used resources in an acceptable manner.

Similarly, two D-grade students (6%) used neither compilation nor plagiarism, while 11 students (36%) plagiarized to some extent and 18 students (58%) used unacceptable compilation.

The case of E-grade students was different from the previous ones, as plagiarism prevailed (13 cases, 62%), unacceptable compilation was present in 8 works (38%), while acceptable use of resources was not present at all. We suppose that they did not attempt to formulate their own ideas because of the fear of making mistakes and low level of language proficiency.

Contrary to our assumption that signs of academic misconduct would be present in the works of lower-grade students, the analysis showed that unacceptable use of resources is present throughout the whole spectrum of student language proficiency. It seems that looking for the path of least resistance is an approach used by all students of all grades. However, our research did not include an analysis of students' awareness of ethical behaviour, thus some cases of the academic misconduct might have been unintentional.

10. Proposal of Solutions for Elimination of Plagiarism in Student Projects

Of course, it is possible to verify the originality of each project using software tools. However, we believe that it is more important to focus on the prevention of unethical behaviour rather than on its penalization when detected.

In line with the available literature (Sowell 2018), we can recommend the following steps to reduce the level of plagiarism and other unethical use of resources:

- include the basics of academic writing in the course syllabus,
- increase students' awareness of plagiarism (explain, define, analyse examples),
- provide appropriate instruction, practice, and feedback on how to work ethically with resources.

Based on our research results, we recommend the implementation of the following steps:

- identify project-specific requirements (such as the number and type of resources used) and provide detailed guidance,
- assign project topics that cannot be 0easily plagiarized.

Our analyses have revealed the following characteristics of project topics that make plagiarizing difficult or even impossible. They can be used to reduce/prevent plagiarism.

- the topic is not generally discussed among the general public, so less ready-made material is available,
- the topic is specific and task-oriented,
- the topic is personalized,
- the task requires a solution to a particular problem,
- the task is reasonably demanding and requires a creative approach.

The following examples (Tab.1) show changes to selected project topics and the implementation of the above features to prevent plagiarism more effectively.

Table 1 Transforming topics of Types 1-3 to Type 4

Original topic	Transformed topic
Strategy, philosophy, corporate culture and policy of a profitable company (Type 1)	Company Success – What is behind the success of two particular profitable companies? (Compare their strategies, philosophies, corporate cultures and policies and suggest best practices that you would recommend to a start-up company)
Slovak tax environment (Type 2)	Ideal Tax System – An ideal tax system (from the point of view of a country, companies and individuals)
American and European business cultures (Type 3)	Business Cultures – Differences and similarities in business cultures between Slovakia and a chosen country (suggest two lists of dos and don'ts for companies that want to start business in/with Slovakia or the chosen country)

10. Conclusion

Project work consists of searching for information, its processing and presentation of the final output. If plagiarism is present, the second phase of work on the project – working with information requiring various higher-order thinking skills – is reduced or even eliminated (depending on the extent of plagiarism) and the students only search for information and then present it as their own. We must realize that the second phase of the

project work process, i.e. working with information, is an important part of the internalization of knowledge, and therefore, this crucial stage of project work should not be omitted.

The results of our research suggest that reducing the level of academic dishonesty is also in our hands. However, we need to choose a proactive rather than a reactive approach – prevention rather than detection and penalization. A proactive approach to eliminating plagiarism consists of raising awareness of this issue, encouraging academic integrity by setting a good example, promoting an honest attitude, allocating teaching time for the theory and practice of ethical use of resources, but especially by changing project topics and providing more intellectually demanding tasks that require autonomous work and creative approach from the author.

We are convinced that maintaining the emphasis on the second phase of the project work, i.e. information processing, eliminates plagiarism from students' project work and at the same time it contributes to the development of key competencies for the lifelong learning of the individual. Another benefit is that such a set of processes will bring greater satisfaction with our work as teachers, because, as Bloom argues, "it is far easier, more intellectually interesting, and more ethically satisfying to prevent plagiarism than to track it down" (p. 209). We need to be aware that we cannot completely eliminate the risk of cheating by impersonation or contract cheating, when the entire work is written by a third party on behalf of the student assigned; however, the risk can be partially reduced by evaluating the oral performance and responding to questions at the project presentation.

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Online resources:

https://plagiarismdetector.net/

https://www.check-plagiarism.com/

https://searchenginereports.net/plagiarism-checker

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Original scientific paper

IDENTIFYING WEAKNESSES OF CLIL IN THE MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION CLASSROOM

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Abstract. *Due to the ever-increasing expansion of English language integration into content courses within higher educational institutions (HEIs), this study seeks to gain insights into how domestic students, as well as content and language lecturers perceive integrating English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) in an academic/vocational military university using Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). We investigate firstly on how mostly domestic, non-native English speaking students perceive learning academic military content in an English Educational Environment (EEE), and secondly, how content and ESAP lecturers perceive collaborating within CLIL at the Swedish Defense University. Using a mixed-methods approach with data gathered from students and lecturers, the results are useful for HEIs looking to increase their English integration. Our results indicate that NNES students indeed learn content and language knowledge simultaneously using CLIL because communicative ESAP tasks enable them to process, and increase content knowledge. However, as this article will show, students prefer drastically different CLIL methods for reasons that we argue can be traced to varying L2 proficiencies. Meanwhile, lecturers had different expectations of, and perceived, interdisciplinary collaboration differently. This study concludes by suggesting that CLIL step 3 is inherently flawed due to a mismatch of implicit methods and explicit expectations of language proficiency, which consequently complicate lecturer roles and interdisciplinary collaboration.*

Key words*: ESAP, CLIL, Military English, EEE.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In a push for internationalization, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are incorporating English into courses and programs at staggering rates (Wächter and Maiworm 2014; Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, Dearden 2018; Hurajova 2021). Offering English Educational Environments (EEE) – programs in English or with English language support – is thought to work towards the goals of internationalization to appeal to international students and faculty, and to prepare domestic students to participate professionally in fields in which English is the Lingua Franca. While these intentions are good, oftentimes the ways in which languages are incorporated into programs are decided with little or no consultation from language-learning experts or content lecturers (CLs), with negligible regard for the implications on language learning for students

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(Galloway and Rose 2021; Macaro et al. 2018), and with CLs potentially ill-prepared to teach adequately in English (Hurajova 2021).

To meet internationalization aims, HEIs are increasingly trialing and implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in which students should develop content knowledge and language competence simultaneously (Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2015; Fajardo, Argudo, and Abad 2020; Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols 2008); the responsibility for student language and content learning is shared between language lecturers (LLs) and CLs since pedagogical collaboration is expected. While CLIL is similar to Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT), CLIL is a European approach to teaching and learning that suits the internationalization and multilingual goals of European countries (Eurydice 2006) as it places an equal emphasis on language and content learning objectives (Halloway and Rose 2021). Moreover, CLIL is widely known to be an effective and motivating method for learning language (Banegas 2018; Roy, Kudry, and Naya 2020; Sylven 2017) since students use the target language (TL) to complete relevant, real-world tasks and learn content simultaneously (Woźniak 2017; Gawlik-Kobylińska and Lowińska 2014; Mehisto et al. 2008). Universities may also mistakenly view CLIL as a financial incentive like 'getting two subjects for the price of one'.

Implementing CLIL is a challenging and complex process in part because institutions are rapidly implementing EEEs in which structural policies for language integration are inadequate (Aguilar 2017: 732). Additional complications occur as lecturers struggle to negotiate their roles (Bonnet and Breidbach 2017) during collaboration between language and content disciplines (Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2014; Wozniak 2017). Implementing CLIL before teaching staff are adequately prepared with appropriate didactic preparation is also common, yet problematic (Gawlik-Kobylińska and Lowińska 2014). Not to be forgotten are the domestic students who may or may not care to have a substantial portion of their education in EEE (Hurajova 2021). Learning from others' experiences is both time and cost effective, so reporting on the difficulties and possible solutions of CLIL implementation can be beneficial for the wider research community. This paper focuses on internationalization at home where a CLIL environment is created for a dominant group of domestic students and a few international students who will work both domestically and internationally within the military after graduation.

2. Literature Review

Traditionally, HEIs have offered English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses. However, without the specific connection to students' specialization, student needs are not well met (Galloway and Ruegg 2020). Meanwhile, tailoring English for Specific and Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses for discipline-specific courses places significant demands and responsibilities on language specialists to know relevant content outside their specialty area (Galloway and Rose 2021) even if they may have "expertise in ESP teaching in particular domains" (Woźniak 2017, 248).

CLIL, like ESP, utilizes the discipline-specific English found in the content of non-language disciplines and includes the teaching of professional practices or skills. Differences between these approaches arise mostly in how CLs approach the role of language within the content course. Within CLIL, CLs are said to approach language learning differently (Aguilar 2017; Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2015; Yang 2020) by

including scaffolding, frequent questions, feedback, and discussion (Llianares and Morton 2017). During CLIL's systematic collaboration, some research suggests CLs' confidence in using English increases, as does LLs' confidence in teaching with discipline materials (Bruton and Woźniak 2013). Importantly, their heightened confidence may stem from the added support that both discipline experts gain from working collaboratively to prepare lectures and materials to identify what tasks and content are most essential.

Moreover, CLIL is adaptable and accommodates a wide range of student needs within HEIs (Aguilar 2015, 2017; Coyle et al. 2010; Greere and Räsänen 2008; Hurajova 2021; Mehisto et al. 2008). While CLIL retains the focus of discipline-specific language learning and skills typical for ESP, recently research shows that students and lecturers may require ESAP lessons in EEEs to complement content lessons prepared with an explicit language-learning focus (Galloway and Rose 2021). In this study, we have used a modified version of Step 3 CLIL from Greere and Räsänen's (2008, 6) five-step CLIL classification in which some cross-disciplinary collaboration among lecturers occurred and student officers received additional ESAP lessons. Noteworthy for Step 3 CLIL is that language learning is expected to occur incidentally. This is appropriate for our study since explicit proficiency requirements for students do not exist in their program of study, yet language-learning aims do.

2.1. CLIL in HEIs

Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés (2015) research on lecturer and student views of CLIL implementation showed both groups viewed the CLIL experience more positively than the ESP option. CLIL was more favorable because of the focus on discipline-specific language use in a more relaxed atmosphere with a focus on fluency rather than grammatical accuracy. These aspects, settings, and expectations have been noted to be beneficial for language learning in other language learning settings (Yakut and Bada 2021, 624; Stanojevič Gocič and Jankovič 2021, 608). Woźniak (2017) studied LL perceptions of their role as CLIL tutors for CLs, and found that implementing CLIL required redoubled focus on methodological and pedagogical approaches in content lessons. Consequently, CLs became aware of the role of discipline-specific language – and how to address it in their teaching.

Traditionally, linguists have driven CLIL integration and research (Galloway and Rose 2021), and because of their disciplinary language expertise, they can positively influence the integration of language and content courses in tertiary institutions (Taillefer 2013). Since, "more input from content specialists" regarding CLIL experiences is desirable (Airey 2017, 301), and this study shares the experiences a joint CLIL implementation by both content and language experts at a military university.

2.2. Background to CLIL Implementation

Within European military academies and universities, warfare disciplines are naturally central; equally essential is the need to communicate beyond national borders and typically in English. Officers are required to discern in groups and individually the implications and responses to complex and multifaceted events, to disseminate orders clearly and succinctly under time pressure, and to communicate continuously. Such challenging tasks, which are both complex and abstract, require officers to have intercultural awareness and communicative strategies (CSs) to ensure communicative competence (CC) with diverse interlocutors as these tasks also typically include more communicative breakdowns and difficulties due to the complexity of them (Paramasiwam

2009). Moreover, research has shown that extensive exposure to a TL influences the communicative strategies learners choose to gradually liken the TL communicative strategies more so than L1 strategies (Yakut and Bada 2021, 622). Thus, exposure to the TL will likely aid speakers in communicating with other speakers of English.

Additionally, "building a content-language competence is particularly important for effective communication between military staff members from various academies" (Gawlik-Kobylińska and Lowińska 2014, 115). Within NATO, and NATO Partners for Peace (PfP) countries, English proficiency for military purposes is essential. Military students need to have a sufficient level of receptive English knowledge to read relevant military literature related to their academic studies. Additionally, students need to produce discipline-specific English for specific military purposes like during crises, under threats of large-scale violence, or in academic settings. For these reasons, CLIL appears to be an effective method for an academic military institution in which language-learning objectives, including communicative competence and key technical language, are as essential as content objectives, and they also have a symbiotic relationship.

Indeed, researchers at the Polish National Defense University (PDU) suggest that CLIL could be effective in higher military education because the CLIL modality can be tailored to the needs of specific groups of learners (Gawlik-Kobylińska and Lowińska 2014, 114–15). Researchers suggest CLIL could ameliorate the transition for domestic military students of acquiring discipline studies from a native to a foreign language (L2). Furthermore, they argue that learning in an L2 enhances students' abilities to view content from differing perspectives which is clearly beneficial for cross-cultural interaction and interoperability. Gawlik-Kobylińska and Lowińska therefore suggests that "since in military areas a specific language must be used in different contexts and circumstances, the CLIL approach is a viable tool for the maximization of teaching effects" (2014, 115). As research certifying the applicability of CLIL in academic military settings is outstanding, this paper intends to shed light on lecturer and students views of a CLIL trial in a highly specialized military/vocational and academic setting similar to the PDU so that HEIs with specialized academic and vocational student groups can gain insight in how content and language can be implemented successfully.

Although CLIL appears to be effective in academic and vocational settings, and appropriate for the purposes of tertiary military education, challenges remain for its implementation. Initially, CLs may perceive their own English abilities as insufficient (Aguilar 2017), or that content must be simplified for student comprehension (Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2015). Yet, other research suggests that students and lecturers appear to adjust to each other's L2 language proficiency (Nikula 2010; Smit 2010). These trepidations certainly deserve consideration prior to implementation of any CLIL program.

Challenges in CLIL integration could also stem from a distrust between disciplines e.g. LLs perceiving themselves to be in a "butler stance" – subordinate to the CLs – rather than filling a role of their own (Raimes 1991). Conversely, if LLs assume a leadership or expert role in the collaborative processes, they may appear too dominant or to undermine the expertise of the discipline experts (Jacobs 2007; Weinberg and Symon 2017). Since the CL in this study are military officers and accustomed to hierarchical settings, these challenges are particularly relevant and could impede CLIL integration.

The specific socio-lingual contexts in which CLIL interventions are embedded can be another hurdle. For this study, CLIL implementation requires unique solutions because of the need to comply with Swedish law (HSV 2008) on parallel language use (PLU) – the concurrent use of several languages within one or more discipline without one language

"abolish[ing] or replac[ing] the other" (MR-U 2006, 93). In practice, students must understand and communicate course content in English *and* Swedish and therefore meet high standards in both languages. Notwithstanding, PLU allows for flexibility with course design, course literature, and language integration.

2.3. Aims and research questions

Given the challenges highlighted in research on implementing a CLIL-approach, more research is needed on trial designs of CLIL approaches in HE that reflect the lived experiences of CLIL (Nikula 2017, 311). This pilot study examines the perceptions of students and lecturers involved in implementing CLIL in higher military education at a Swedish university, subject to PLU requirements. Specifically, we aim to address the following research questions:

1. How did the military officers experience practicing their oral and written English skills as they developed their content knowledge during the CLIL implementation?
2. How did CLs and LLs experience their roles during the teaching and planning process, and how do they view future integration?

3 Institutional Context and Design of the Study

This section presents the institutional context and design of the study, examining the implementation of CLIL within the master's program for career officers at the Swedish Defence University (SEDU). The program aims to increase the students' professional and academic English proficiency required for their studies and service in the Swedish Armed Forces (SwAF), while preparing some students to continue their studies at English-medium military universities. Their professional requirements entail the need to communicate clearly and accurately under time pressure and threats of large-scale violence or life-threatening conditions.

Miscommunication or misunderstandings can be lethal. Because the language of military command typically is English, the pressure increases for officers to be able to lead and exploit forces during joint operations in both national and international settings. Interoperability with other nations' militaries demands CC and cross-cultural understanding in addition to being expert military officers. However, while not all officers have the English proficiency to work internationally, they still have the opportunity to complete the program and to advance in their careers domestically, so preventing someone from graduating because of sub-par English skills for domestic work is controversial. Instead, the aim for language teaching is to aid them in their language learning and use of strategies to overcome communicative difficulties.

This study implemented CLIL in a military theory course in which 86 percent of 1,400 pages of academic texts was English-medium. Students used English productively in one formal written response and one seminar (henceforth the CLIL-seminar). The remaining written responses, seminars, and course literature were in Swedish to fulfill PLU requirements. The course is student-centered and the ESAP lessons include communicative activities that focus on vocabulary acquisition and instruction of language learning strategies to improve their language and is conducive for these autonomous learners (Stanojevič Gocič and Jankovič 2021, 608). During the course, LLs were allocated weekly 90-minute lessons to address key terminology, concepts, and communicative techniques. In some lessons, students summarized course literature and discussed seminar questions. However, LLs tailored lessons

to their specific student needs rather than a prescribed syllabus. Consequently, less proficient student groups focused on making sense of the literature, while more proficient student groups advanced to discussing and applying the theories to their future needs. See Table 1 below for a detailed overview of the course.

Table 1 Overview of the CLIL-implementation

Theme	Receptive/Productive Element	Language
A	Content Lectures	2 Swedish 1 English
	Language Lesson	1 English
	Written assignments before Seminars 1–3	3 Swedish
	Seminars 1–3	3 Swedish
B	Content Lectures	3 Swedish
	Language Lesson	1 English
	Written assignments preparing students for Seminars 4–6	2 Swedish 1 English (CLIL-seminar)
	Seminars 4–6	2 Swedish 1 English (CLIL-seminar)
C	Lectures	2 Swedish
	Language Lessons	2 English
	Written assignments to prepare for Seminars 7–8	Swedish
	Seminars 7–8	Swedish

The CLIL approach chosen by the course director aimed to improve students' English proficiency and professional readiness. Students attended weekly ESAP language lessons, which utilized content materials in tasks, and attended content lectures that were predominantly in Swedish. Ahead of the English-medium seminar (henceforth the CLIL-seminar), one LL paired with one military professional lecturer and/or one military historian. Each pair/group determined the extent of collegiate collaboration. The CL led the CLIL-seminar while the LL evaluated language use and assisted if linguistic breakdowns occurred. For the written assignment due ahead of this seminar, LLs evaluated the language use while CLs assessed the content of each student's submission. LLs evaluated the use of correct lexis rather than grammatical accuracy relevant for communicative competence as SLA research shows incorrect lexical use causes miscommunication more frequently than grammatical inaccuracy (Politzer, 1972 as cited in Levenston 1979, 147) and because the course does not include English language production requirements.

It should be noted that the course documents specify requirements for "correct" Swedish language (SEDU, 2020a: 9), but fail to outline explicit English language requirements, requirements for English proficiency, or correct use of English terminology. Instead, students should achieve English language proficiency through language lessons *aiming to*:

a) Increase the student's ability to independently gather and process written and oral information in English.
b) Develop and consolidate the student's ability to present and support their own ideas in writing and in spoken English at a level equivalent to the requirements for command positions within the SwAF and for international deployments.

c) Develop and consolidate the student's ability to argue, discuss, and reason hypothetically about relevant topics for the officer's profession at all command levels and in an academic context (SEDU 2018, 5).

Accordingly, accurate English terminology and communicative competence were primary foci while grammatical correctness was secondary.

4. Research Methods

Through a mixed-methods approach, this study seeks to gain insights into CLs' and LLs' perceptions of their experience. It reports on quantitative and qualitative data that research has called for (Nikula 2017) collected during one academic semester (Fall 2020), including discrete and free response questions from three sources: students, content, and LLs. Of the 172 students enrolled in the course, four were exchange students with L1s other than Swedish. Of the twelve war studies or military history CLs, eleven spoke Scandinavian L1s and one had English as their L1. All LLs spoke a variety of English as their L1 and instruct graduate and undergraduate military students in ESAP courses.

The officers' questionnaires aimed to uncover the perceptions of officers and lecturers regarding the CLIL implementation. Immediately after the course ended, we sent questionnaire links to CLs and LLs respectively. Officers received their link via their virtual learning platform and a blanket email requesting their participation. We chose online questionnaires mainly for ethical reasons based on the university's work-at-home policy during COVID-19, and viewed interviews with the participants as potentially problematic as the authors were lecturers of the course. We considered that longer interviews or mainly free responses could affect the response rate, given officers' strenuous course load and examination schedule. For these reasons, we invited participants to respond anonymously to the questionnaires. The limitations following from the study's narrow focus and lack of in-depth interviews prevent drawing conclusions with larger implications.

The first part of the questionnaires included questions in which participants responded on a four-point Likert scale with a commentary section following each question. Participants could respond in either English or Swedish. We translated Swedish responses to English and included an additional open-response question in each questionnaire to detect themes and to elicit more qualitative feedback. Participants could reply as extensively as they wished in commentaries after each question and in free-response questions.

The officer questionnaire focused on officer perceptions of the literature and tasks in English in this CLIL course and their English lessons. The CLs questionnaire included questions regarding their own and their officers' abilities to communicate effectively in the CLIL-seminar. We asked LLs about the language teaching and collaboration with CLs ahead of the CLIL-seminar. Lastly, all questionnaires asked for participants' views on future CLIL implementation.

We collected the questionnaire data from officers' (n = 63), CLs' (n =12), and LLs' (n = 9) responses, and used descriptive statistics to identify trends. Statistical analysis procedures were deemed unnecessary, as participants' perceptions and opinions could be seen using distributive statistics. The open-ended responses were coded and are presented thematically.

5. Results and Discussion

This section, divided into two parts, presents and discusses the officers' learning experiences and the planning and teaching experiences of CLs and LLs. As will be shown, our findings underscore the problem of managing officers' divergent expectations and preferences during CLIL implementation, and the issues surrounding the collaborative process involving CLs and LLs.

5.1. Officers' learning experiences: A mixed picture

This section presents officer perceptions of the receptive and productive aspects of the CLIL intervention, highlighting the disparate views of learning and discussing academic content in L2 English, and their preferences for future CLIL implementation.

5.1.1. Receptive elements within the CLIL intervention

A majority of officers, 67 percent, viewed the English-medium literature favorably as an aid to later production of course content. One-third considered it aided them very little, while eight percent perceived no aid at all. A common theme among the responses indicates students found the English-medium literature beneficial for exposure to central terminology, including:

(1) "Much of the terminology used in the seminar are [sic] defined and described in the literature, therefore I think it was helpful";

Others noted the benefits to proficiency:

(2) "Definitely helped to read a lot of English literature during the course, helps me get into the mindset of speaking english [sic]";

(3) "I also found listening to the literature as an audio-recording helped me a lot to get prepared for the seminar in English";

Accordingly, most officers viewed the inclusion of a majority of English-medium course literature positively because it aided their preparation for production. Relatedly, qualitative data suggests some students would have preferred more receptive English-medium content lectures to reinforce their language learning from the literature:

(4) "[Acquiring terminology from the literature] would [have made an] even greater impact if the lecture as well was performed in English [sic].

These findings coincide with other research that notes that extensive exposure to the TL materials seems to improve L2 productive skills for CC purposes (Yakut and Bada 2021). Thus, officers generally perceived the receptive elements of the CLIL intervention were beneficial for their learning, and some desired more English-medium lectures. However, officer opinions differed broadly regarding productive elements of the course, as presented below.

5.1.2. Productive elements within the CLIL intervention

Roughly 73 percent of officers viewed the English-medium written assignment in preparation for the CLIL-seminar as beneficial with only one-fourth responding "very little" or "not at all". See Figure 1.

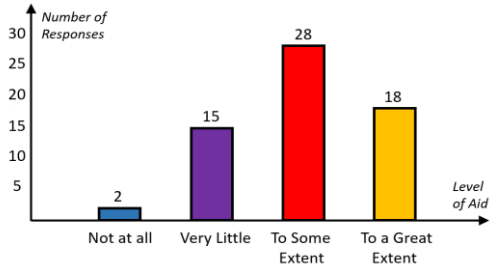

Fig. 1 Officer responses on the extent to which the written assignment helped them ahead of the CLIL-seminar.

Comments spanned from positive (5) to neutral (6) to negative (7) and (8):

(5) it helped "facilitate my thoughts and arguments, since the seminar was in English";
(6) "no distinction from the [writing assignments ahead of] seminars in Swedish";
(7) that "to write and speak in English felt hampering";
(8) "[t]here was far too much focus on writing grammatically correct rather than [on] content".

Comments (5) and (6) indicate some found the writing assignment beneficial for processing content, and writing in English was not negative. Meanwhile, comment (7) can be expected in an SLA environment, as students notice gaps in their productive knowledge and are pushed to produce comprehensible output (Swain 1995). Comment (8) reflects one officer's uncertainty about language proficiency goals.[1] As coming sections will show, the lack of explicit language learning criteria and/or the language aims that were not clearly disseminated to officers explain why they held such differing views of *how* CLIL should be implemented. Still, most officers perceived benefits from engaging with the written assignment in English.

Thereafter, we asked officers to estimate how effectively they could participate in the English-medium CLIL-seminar (see Figure 2 below), and then how much the seminar contributed to their understanding of course content. An overwhelming majority, 73 percent,

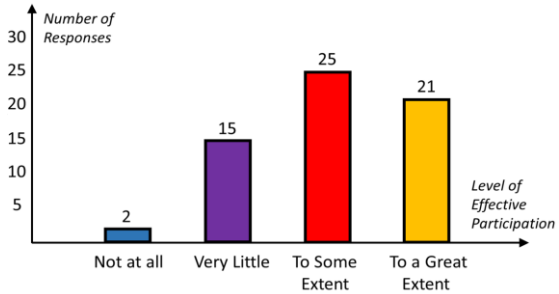

Fig. 2 Officer responses on how well they perceived they were able to participate effectively in the CLIL-seminar.

[1] The course description outlined no specific language learning goals.

viewed they were able to participate effectively in English during the seminar, as compared to 27 percent who responded "very little" or "not at all". It is noteworthy that the same percentage of officers who felt they could participate in the seminar effectively also viewed that the written assignment aided their learning. Therefore, other HEIs should consider including written assignments ahead of spoken seminars to aid students in noticing their gaps of linguistic knowledge (Schmidt, 1990) which will consequently aid students in oral production. Awareness-raising and increased perception of successful production are likely to increase their motivation (Stanojevič Gocič and Jankovič 2021, 608).

Albeit overwhelming perceptions of effective participation, only 37 percent perceived the CLIL-seminar aided their understanding of the course content to some or a large extent. Meanwhile, 63 percent perceived it aided them "very little" or "not at all". The most prevalent theme within the qualitative data indicates officers felt constrained when discussing content topics in English. Comments included:

(9) "When it is a high tempo in the debate, I´m not that fast to form my thoughts in english [sic]. This can experience [sic] inhibiting";

(10) "When I´m not using english [sic] as everyday language it becomes an extra step to overcome to obtain knowledge. Not in a negative way, it just takes longer time to [com]prehand [sic] the literature";

Comments similar to (9) and (10) are expected during a learning process, and frustrated students may not necessarily interpret this feeling as "negative" but as a means to an end (see comment 10).

A secondary theme that became evident from the results indicated that the language proficiency of some officers or lecturers impeded their content discussions or caused misunderstandings. Comments include:

(11) "Speaking english [sic] in a seminar is challenging and misinterpretations among students/teachers were common";

(12) "I gain a deeper understanding by listening, discussing, and arguing with my group-comrades [in Swedish. Conducting the seminar in English] "hampered us all – including the seminar leader";

(13) "Some students avoid participating. Those that do participate "have difficulties formulating more thorough discussion contributions, which contributes to a shallow understanding of the subject";

(14) "I am skeptical to a seminar in English. Interesting ideas and thoughts are missed, and too much focus is placed on speaking grammatically correctly or not at all";

Comments (11) and (12) reference breakdowns in communication due to participants' lack of proficiency which research indicates is one reason some lecturers are skeptical to participating in CLIL-seminars (see e.g. Aguilar 2017; Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2015). Relatedly, comments (13) and (14) note that some perceived their insufficient language proficiency prevented full comprehension of course content, another point repeated in research (Galloway and Rose 2021). Idealy miscommunication would not occur, yet overcoming miscommunication and practicing CC strategies is especially useful for officers and is actually also inherently part of increasing linguistic proficiency, a program aim. A key to successful implementation may be to raise officers' awareness to this so they perceive it as practice rather than failure. Lastly, comment (14) relates to comment (8) and reinforces the idea that language, proficiency, and content objectives of the CLIL intervention were insufficiently disseminated to students.

The remaining qualitative data from officers' perceptions of the CLIL-seminar show completely divergent opinions. Some officers responded that the seminar maintained the same/similar level of discussion quality as in Swedish and that language was essentially unproblematic:

(15) "no distinction from a Swedish seminar":

(16) "[c]onducting the seminar in English did not hamper me in any way in understanding";

While others noted:

(17) The CLIL-seminar "was helpful for language [proficiency], but not for [gaining] deeper understanding of content";

(18) "Separate the content and language by discussing the content first and then focusing on the language. It would have been better to have the examining warfare and flexibility seminar in Swedish and have the seminar as well in the following English class to be able to focus on the language";

Comments (15) and (16) indicate that some officers perceived they could participate fully in the CLIL-seminar and gain content knowledge, perhaps due partially to their own and their groups' collective language proficiency, something noted in other research (Sylvén, 2017). These officers were thus able to utilize the synergy that CLIL offers – learning language and content simultaneously. Others did not perceive the same synergy (comments 17 and 18). Comment (18) indicates difficulties in combining content and language learning in that some need to understand the content first before *being able to* focus on the language. This disparity could likely be caused by variations in officers' English proficiency before starting the program as they perceive an extra hurdle of first comprehending and synthesizing the English-medium material before processing the content well enough to discuss it in English in an academic EEE. Comments 9 and 10 further strengthen this argument. These opposing and often diverging views are underscored in the following sections, in which officer preferences for future CLIL iterations are presented. Before that, officer perceptions of the ESAP lessons are presented.

Regarding the ESAP lessons, Figure 3 (below) illustrates student responses were split nearly evenly, with a slight majority that viewed ESAP lessons aided their ability to understand content. The split perceptions could be due to the officers' different needs within ESAP groups. Groups who were potentially more able to manage the heavy reading load in English might have had their ESAP lessons focus on improving other areas of English (e.g. fluency, or academic vocabulary), whereas those who struggled with the reading might have needed more support with – and therefore the ESAP lesson focused on – understanding the literature (see comment 19 below). Consequently, officers whose ESAP lessons were less focused on processing content, but perhaps more on reading comprehension or other fluency activities might have responded negatively to this question. Correspondingly, commentary for this question shows disparity and underscores the benefits of ESAP lessons. While some officers struggled to keep up (19), the dominant theme highlighted officer satisfaction with ESAP activities that aimed to synthesize the content material by having them summarize and discuss [Swedish] seminar questions in English (comments 20 to 22):

(19) "the heavy reading task" left "little time for text-analyzes [sic]" and to "do the actual reading". This student opted for "finding some information" to present in the English classes;

(20) "[T]here is great potential for us to use the English lessons to discuss the seminar questions. This worked well in my language study group";
(21) "[w]hen I prepared my summar[ies], I also had to understand my topic in order to describe it for my colleagues";
(22) "it is really good to have English class every week, to get the language ongoing. Also to support all the reading in English literature".

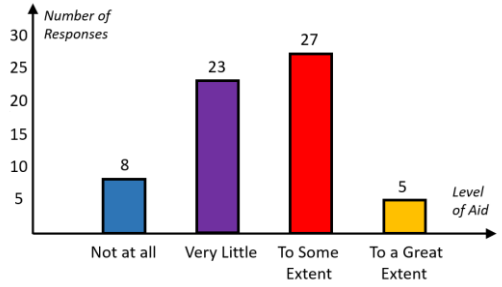

Fig 3. Officer responses on the extent to which the ESAP lessons aided in their processing and understanding of course content.

Generally, officers viewed the ESAP lessons were beneficial for their language learning, but less so for processing course content. These results further indicate that ESAP lessons should remain flexible and include scaffolding to aid learner reception and production of key terminology, technical terms, and communicative strategies for some, and tasks to further understanding and develop fluency for those who can independently process the literature. Given these different needs and expectations, officers' opinions for future CLIL integration differed.

5.1.3. Future CLIL integration: Mixed preferences

This section address officers' preferences for future CLIL integration and summarizes their view of the CLIL implementation. Regarding how content and language could be integrated going forward, nearly the same percentage of comments cover: i) no integration or EMI; ii) separate ESP and content lessons; or iii) fully-dual CLIL (section 2). As noted in other PLU settings (Sylvén, 2019), students with EMI preferences find the combination of languages confusing, and therefore suggest an English-medium only course instead. Conversely, comment (23) below suggests the English-language elements were more burdensome than beneficial, which indicates a preference for the removal of English-medium course elements.

(23) "The output of writing reports and having seminars in english [sic] will not have the long term effect that I think you are hoping for. The cost is far greater than the profit in this case";

The "cost" mentioned in comment 23 was another theme found throughout the questionnaire responses and qualitative data related to the amount of coursework in the limited timeframe. This is illustrated in comment (19) above and the following:

(24) "The course was overloaded with things to do in the stipulated time. To reach a deeper understanding one should have more time to do text-studies and discussions about content before the actual seminar";

Managing the course was challenging enough for some prior to adding what they perceived as the extra burden of learning content in an L2. This potentially led them to prefer removing English, sentiments reflected in other EEE settings (Hurajova, 2021). Yet, an equal number of other officers disagreed, expressing comments like:

(25) "Please remove english [sic] as a subject from the schedule and integrate in the common classes"

In sum, the number of offiercers who thought a complete integration of content and language without specific ESAP lessons was equal to the number who preferred a monolingual course. Finally, one-third felt that some language training is good and that the current implementation was acceptable.

In sum, a majority of officers considered the amount of English-medium receptive activities to be satisfactory or increasable (comments 2 and 3). Tasks for language production were seen as beneficial for language learning, but less so for content learning (Figure 2 and comment 17). The ESAP lessons were most valuable to those who could independently manage the literature, as they utilized them to improve fluency and to synthesize content and language (comments 21 and 22). However, some officers were unable to make use of these lessons, likely due to their sub-optimal reading skills and/or receptive language proficiency (comment 19). Comments 8 and 14 also indicate that SEDU ambiguously disseminated language aims and proficiency requirements, which likely created confusion about the officers' expectations of their own language production, and what the ESAP lessons should provide. Finally, the officer's program includes language aims, without specific requirements, yet officers know they will need to produce specific terminology in their profession. This discrepancy may be the source of confusion and frustration. Thus, CLIL step 3 illogically pairs implicit language learning aims with explicit content aims that require adequate proficiency and explicit technical language. Explicit language production in an L2 requires explicit language learning methods (e.g. Hulstijn, 2005).

5.2. Lecturers' experiences: a mixed picture

This section presents language and content lecturer perceptions of CLIL. Two key themes emerge: i) LLs and CLs were not equally satisfied with the current collaboration; and ii) lecturers were unclear about their CLIL responsibilities and how collaboration should occur.

5.2.1 Collaboration

The amount of collaboration between LLs and CLs regarding key terminology and concepts was limited – only two language teachers engaged in collaboration ahead of the CLIL-seminar. Multiple reasons explain the limited interdisciplinary collaboration. First, the course director served as an interface with a contact person in the language section, jointly coordinating the use of literature in the English classes and preparing the seminar. This may have sent a signal to some lecturers to 'hold rank' and deflect to the coordinators, rather than taking initiative for further collaboration themselves. Another reason is that eleven out of twelve CLs perceived themselves qualified to lead the CLIL-seminar. Their perceived confidence combined with a military attitude to "make do" even

during difficult situations might have influenced their approaches. Clearly, the message to collaborate across disciplines was unclear.

Additionally, CLs and LLs perceived the seminar and the collaboration within it differently. CLs were positive about their experiences and satisfied with the current collaboration, as noted in comments 26–28.

(26) "Great to integrate more language teacher [sic] and skills into the seminars";

(27) "[The CLIL-seminar] was a challenge, but also very useful for the students to discuss in English - with each other and me, but also with the English teacher who took an active part in these discussions";

(28) "I think the one seminar we had, was good. Doesn't need to be too complex. Just let them talk more English in class. I think the whole point is to make their English come more casually, and more exposure to english [sic] will contribute greatly to this. Keep it up!"

Yet, comment 28 calls into question how invested some CLs were in the collaboration. Simply speaking more English does not necessarily fulfill even incidental learning, expected in step 3 CLIL. However, CLs' positive responses could also indicate that they appreciated the professional development opportunity while working towards the goals of internationalization of the university and the Swedish Armed Forces. Still, comment 30 insinuates that this CL failed to understand fully what ESAP lecturers do and could explain why some LLs were less satisfied than CLs with the collaboration as seen in the comments below:

(29) "Time was running low, and with only a one minute left, [the seminar leader] asked if I had any comments about language. I felt like I was an afterthought rather than a teacher";

(30) "I would prefer to feel like I'm on equal footing with the content teachers through team teaching";

Comments 29 and 30 are prevalent among LLs in other studies as well (Airey 2016; Jacobs 2007; Raimes 1991; Taillefer 2013; Woźniak 2017). Although LLs were positive to the CLIL-seminar, nearly 70 percent would have preferred "more integration with the CLs *ahead* of [the CLIL-seminar]" (emphasis added). Meanwhile, three LLs responded they did not prefer having more collaboration with CLs. One possible reason for this is that they perceived themselves as, and preferred, to remain in the role of an LL.

As in other CLIL studies, LLs could have contributed by aiding the CLs ahead of the seminar (Hurajova 2021; Woźniak 2017), or by taking a more active role during the seminar (Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés 2015). Such measures are systematically found in more explicit CLIL implementations like steps 4 or 5 (Greere and Räsnänen 2008) in which collaboration between discipline lecturers is explicit and extensive. However, this study implemented CLIL in a program that lacks language proficiency requirements and systematic collaboration. Consequently, proficiency expectations and expectations on *how* interdisciplinary collaboration could occur likely differed between CLs and LLs. Collegial distrust and feeling their expertise is undermined could have indeed impaired collaboration (Jacobs 2007; Weinberg and Symon 2017). The inherent ambiguity of implementing CLIL under these circumstances makes role expectations and performance requirements unclear for officers and lecturers. Interdisciplinary collaboration falters as each group of lecturers strives to meet expected aims, but their expectations misalign. Collaboration becomes uneven, insufficient, or non-existent, potentially resulting in sub-optimal learning experiences for the students.

5.2.2. Future iterations

The lecturers also weighed in on how to develop the CLIL approach further for forthcoming iterations. Nine out of ten responded positively to including at least one CLIL-seminar in future courses, of these three-fourths responded "to a great extent". Only one lecturer from each discipline responded "very little". CLs considered no future change was necessary (comment 28, above), and, no CL responded that they needed additional support to conduct future CLIL-seminars, which calls into question how invested they were in the collaboration. In contrast, LLs requested additional elements to facilitate further integration, including CL training and extra time allocation:

(31) "[m]ore time [is needed] for collaboration with content teachers and an openness that both content and language teachers have something to contribute to the way content and language can be delivered for optimal effect".

Regarding how future integration could develop, LLs were divided about whether or not fully integrated CLIL, rather than a single seminar, was appropriate or desirable (see Figure 4 below). One reason against full integration was PLU. Yet, full integration does not preclude the use of Swedish. LLs clearly favored greater integration. However, the clear division within the group signals again the need for clearly disseminating the integration aims, the extent of collaboration, and lecturers' roles; in essence more systemic structural support (Gawlik-Kobylinska and Lewinska 2014; Hurajova 2021).

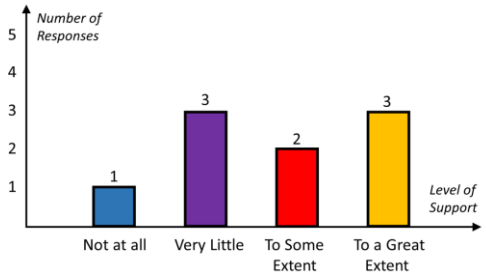

Fig. 4 LL responses to their support for step 5 CLIL integration

6. Conclusion

This study aimed to identify advantages and disadvantages from implementing CLIL step 3 by examining how military officers viewed developing their English skills in tandem with progression in their content knowledge, and how lecturers viewed the interdisciplinary collaboration. Results show that officers felt extensive English-medium receptive material aided their production of English terminology and proficiency, and relatedly, that ESAP lessons enabled them *to be able to* process the hefty amount of English-medium content literature through interaction during the ESAP lessons. This indicates that HEIs intending to implement CLIL should augment it with specific and flexible ESAP 'supportive processing lessons' in which students address content in the TL outside of content lessons. This study also shows that producing structured, TL written output before spoken output helped the officers to participate more effectively in

meaning-making and processing of content. Thus, the symbiotic relationship of CLIL was successful in this vocational/academic EEE.

One significant outcome of this study is that, while integrating step 3 CLIL (Greere and Räsänen, 2008) may seem enticing to HEIs looking for a less controversial inclusion of English in EEE, step 3 CLIL misses the mark by not achieving true integration. Specifically, the incidental language learning methods of CLIL step 3 are misaligned with the explicit productive expectations of specific terminology and vocabulary needed to achieve the expected content aims. Ambiguous and incidental language learning aims only create confusion for learners regarding expectations of their (intended) performance, as they attempt to align their efforts to elusive objectives. Ambiguous aims also create confusion for LLs' regarding their role and responsibilities in collaboration. Instead, a clear delineation and separation of the content and language aims would improve the learning effect for both content and language. It is important to that a structured approach to CL and LL collaboration should include clear specifications of integrational and general aims to make similar interdisciplinary collaborations more productive and transparent to learners.

Results from this study indicate future research could consider the role that learner proficiency plays in integration, and whether the repetition of certain tasks in the L2 may allow less proficient students to maintain motivation and gain confidence as they are allowed to focus on specific-language in authentic contexts.

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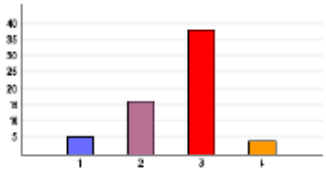
APPENDIX A:
STUDENT RESPONSES

Evaluation of Content and Language Integration in 2HO040 HOP Warfare and Flexibility

Antal erhållna enkätsvar: **63**

1) To what extent do you perceive that the amount of course literature in English affected your ability to speak in seminar 2B conducted in English and produce the written assignment, prepared before the seminar?

(1) (1) Not at all;	5	*7,9%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	16	*25,4%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	38	*60,3%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent.	4	*6,3%*
Medelvärde	2,65	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,72	



Comments Q1:

Ser inte hur mängden engelskspråkig kurslitteratur skulle påverka min förmåga att uttrycka mig eller skriva min engelska text. Till en liten del fick jag stöd i facktermonologi från litteraturen.

It would be even greater impactif the lecture as well was performed in english. By a native english-spoken person.

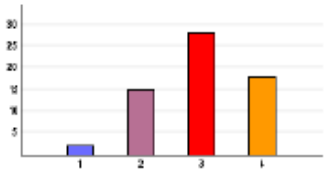
It definitely helped to read a lot of english litterature during the course, helps me to get into the mindset of speaking english as well.

It gave a good topic related vocabulary to use.

Much of the termonology used in the seminar are defined and described in the litterature, therefore I think it was helpfull.

2) To what extent do you perceive the written assignment, prepared before the seminar conducted in English, helped you to gather your thoughts and solidify your arguments?

(1) (1) Not at all;	2	*3,2%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	15	*23,8%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	28	*44,4%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent.	18	*28,6%*
Medelvärde	2,98	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,81	



Comments Q2:

Det blev alldeles för stort fokus på att skriva grammatiskt rätt snarare än sakinnehållet.

I believe this is a misinterpretation from the teachers who doesnt speak english that well. My seminar teacher had lesser proficiency than most group members and thougth that we did better in our written assignments than we did durung the swedish speaking seminars. I dont agree with that conclusion and believe that the english level migth have impressed him instead of the actual content of the written tasks.

Då seminariet var på engelska så underlättade uppgiften mina tankar och argument.

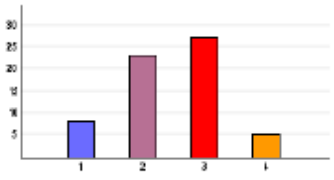
No distinction from the seminars in swedish.

But that is the same as in Swedish, to write and speak in English felt hampering.

3) To what extent do you perceive the English lessons helped you to understand and process the thematic content and course literature?

Antal svar på frågan:

(1) (1) Not at all;	8	*12,7%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	23	*36,5%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	27	*42,9%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent.	5	*7,9%*
Medelvärde	2,46	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,82	



Comments Q3:

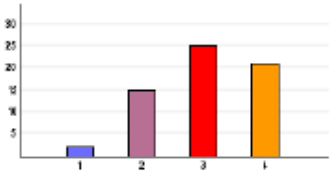
Det finns en stor potential att använda oss av engelska lektionerna för att diskutera seminariefrågorna. Något som fungerat för min engelska grupp.

There was little time for text-analyzes, more a fact oc finding some information, this depending on the heavy reading task just looking to numbers of paper and the time to do the actual reading.

When I prepared my summarize, I also had to understand my topic in order to describe it for my colleagues.

4) To what extent do you perceive you were able to participate effectively in the seminar in English?

(1) (1) Not at all;	2	*3,2%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	15	*23,8%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	25	*39,7%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent.	21	*33,3%*
Medelvärde	3,03	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,84	



Comments Q4:

I was a little hampered by having to use English but it did not affect me that much.

Ställer mig skeptisk till att ha ett seminarium på engelska. Missar intressanta tankar och idéer då alltför stort fokus läggs på att prata rätt eller inte alls.

Speaking english in a seminar is challenging and misinterpretation among students/teachers were common.

Då inte engelska är mitt huvudspråk, så hämmas jag att kunna delta aktivt i seminariet.

No distinction from the seminars in swedish.

It was more difficult to have spontaneous discussions in the topic.

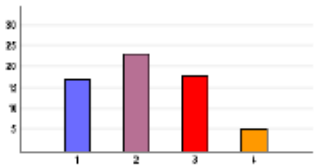
But that is the same as in Swedish, to write and speak in English felt hampering.

When it is a high tempo in the debate, I'm not that fast to form my thoughts in english. This can experience inhibiting.

It would have been better to have the examining warfare and flexibility seminar in Swedish and have the seminar as well in the following English class to be able to focus on the language

5) To what extent do you perceive you were able to gain a deeper understanding (sense-making) of the relevant course content because of the seminar conducted in English?

(1) (1) Not at all;	17	*27,0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	23	*36,5%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	18	*28,6%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent.	5	*7,9%*
Medelvärde	2,17	
Median	2	
Standardavvikelse	0,93	



Comments Q5:

Conducting the seminar in English did not hamper me in any way in understanding.

Aven andra deltagare undviker att aktivt delta. De som yttrar sig har svårt att formulera sig djupare i resonemanget. Vilket bidrar till en ytligare förståelse inom ämnet.

No distinction from the seminars in swedish. The course was overloaded with things to do in the stipulated time.
To reach a deeper understanding one should have more time to do text-studies and discussions about content before the actual seminar.

The seminar in English was helpful for the language, but not for the deeper understanding.

When I´m not using english as everyday language it becomes an extra step to overcome to obtain knowledge.
Not in a negative way, it just takes longer time to apprehand the litterature.

I gain a deeper understanding in listening, discussing and arguing with my group-comrades ! English, I think, hampered us all- including the seminar leader. Which in fact made that particular seminar the least learning and developing of them all when it comes to war-science.

(Free response) In which ways could the course better facilitate preparation for seminar 2B conducted in English?

(6.1)Seminar 2B, just as all the other seminars, are limited mostly by the timeframe and not by the fact that it was conducted in English.

(6.2) In my opinion the English lessons served and still serve a good purpose in processing the main course content. This is due to that the group I belong to focuses on processing the seminar questions in every weeks lesson, which is good preparation.

(6.3) I found listening to some of the litterature as audio helped me a lot to get prepared for the seminar in english. BUT this is only a part of it and missing in the course hence I wanted to let you know about it. The parts already included like reading the litterature in English and the preparation in the English class before the seminar are more important on the whole. So my suggestion would be to also include the audio part in the links already provided in the course.

(6.4) Det är bra att ha språkträning. Låt språkträningen ske när det är språk och fördjupning i ämnet när det är det. Det ska tilläggas att även om eleverna kanske behärskar ämnet, så ställer det stora krav på seminarieledaren. Totalen att hålla ett seminarie på engelska, under kurstid, är ingen god lösning. Däremot är det bra att hålla muntliga framställningar och seminarie på engelska språklektionerna.

(6.5) Please remove english as a subject from the schedule and integrate in the common classes.

(6.6) The main question is how english could better be integrated in Krig och Flex. One seminar in english doesn't change the big picture. Most of the material on the course is in english. Perhaps the whole course should be in english. Or in swedish. A combination is confusing.

(6.7) Dock gav seminariet på engelska mer än jag hade hoppats på, men i förhållande till att driva det på svenska så är kunskapstappet för stort för att det är värt det.

(6.8) I do not see the point of having a seminar in english at all, I´m afraid. On the contrary, I think it inhibts us from participating in the seminar in the way we should and that it also inhibts us from obtaining the teaching goals of the course.The output of writing reports and having seminars in english will not have the long term effect that I think you are hoping for. The cost is far greater than the profit in this case. Probably not the answer you wanted, but this is how I see it.

(6.9) A native english speaking person conducting the lecture. More time or less literature. Pre-discussions before the seminar.

(6.10) First of all - it is really good to have English class every week, to get the language ongoing. Also to support all the reading in English literature. To anwer the question - I can not come up to something that could be better.

(6.11) If English are to be divided into every course, i think this was a good exampel of how to do it.

(6.12) One way could be to discuss the seminar questions on the lesson(s) prior to the english seminar.

(6.13) It is good training to speak English on a seminar, but I do not think that you should mix an exam seminar in a major course with English language training.

See comment on question 4

In all it´s good to intergreat the english in the course, but it come whit a cost.

The seminar comes relatively early in the course. Maybe integrate the English in a later seminar.

It was all good.

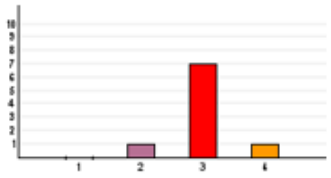
APPENDIX B:
LANGUAGE LECTURERS' RESPONSES

Language Teachers Survey for Warfare and Flexibility Fall 2020

Antal erhållna enkätsvar: 9

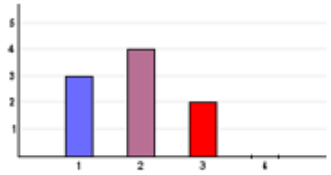
1. To what extent were you able to teach and/or discuss with students ahead of the seminar central terminology, concepts, and communicative techniques relevant for a seminar conducted in English?

(1) (1) Not at all	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very little	1	*11,1%*
(3) (3) To some extent	7	*77,8%*
(4) (4) To a great extent	1	*11,1%*



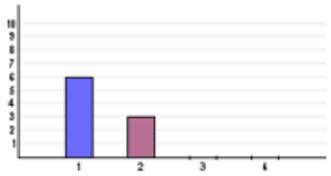
2. To what extent did you collaborate with content teachers during the Warfare and Flexibility course to facilitate student learning of central terminology and concepts in English?

(1) (1) Not at all	3	*33,3%*
(2) (2) Very little	4	*44,4%*
(3) (3) To some extent	2	*22,2%*
(4) (4) To a great extent	0	*0%*



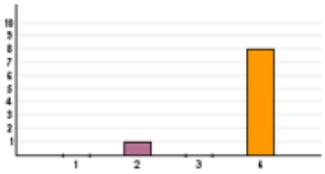
3. To what extent were you as a language teacher used by the content teachers to aid in their personal language preparation ahead of the seminar conducted in English?

(1) (1) Not at all	6	*66,7%*
(2) (2) Very little	3	*33,3%*
(3) (3) To some extent	0	*0%*
(4) (4) To a great extent	0	*0%*



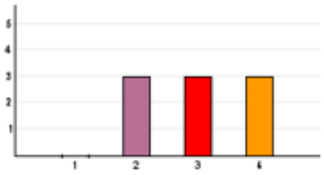
4. To what extent are you positive to the inclusion of one seminar conducted in English in future courses?

(1) (1) Not at all	0	0%
(2) (2) Very little	1	11,1%
(3) (3) To some extent	0	0%
(4) (4) To a great extent	8	88,9%



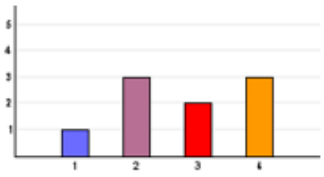
5. To what extent would you prefer having more language and content integration with the content teachers ahead of the seminar in English?

(1) (1) Not at all	0	0%
(2) (2) Very little	3	33,3%
(3) (3) To some extent	3	33,3%
(4) (4) To a great extent	3	33,3%



6. To what extent do you perceive a "fully dual" Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach that integrates language and content teaching through a discipline expert or through team teaching (Greere & Räntänen, 2008, p. 6) to be appropriate

(1) (1) Not at all	1	11,1%
(2) (2) Very little	3	33,3%
(3) (3) To some extent	2	22,2%
(4) (4) To a great extent	3	33,3%



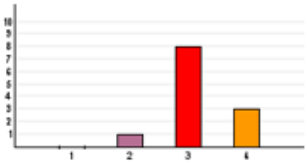
APPENDIX C:
CONTENT LECTURERS' RESPONSES

Teacher Evaluation of Content and Language Integration in 2HO040 HOP Warfare and Flexibility

Antal erhållna enkätsvar: **12**

1) To what extent do you perceive you were able to effectively lead the seminar in English?

(1) (1) Not at all;	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	1	*8,3%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	8	*66,7%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent	3	*25%*
Medelvärde	3,17	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,58	

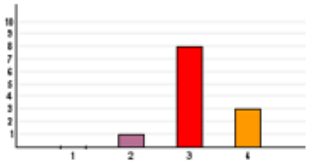


Comments Q1:

Fredrik Eriksson ledde seminariet, jag var med som bisittare. Men jag hade nog inte kunnat leda det på engelsa på ett bra sätt.
You are always 50% more stupid in another language.
Need more practice!

2) To what extent do you perceive the seminar reached a similar level of academic and content discourse as for seminars conducted in Swedish?

(1) (1) Not at all;	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	1	*8,3%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	8	*66,7%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent	3	*25%*
Medelvärde	3,17	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,58	

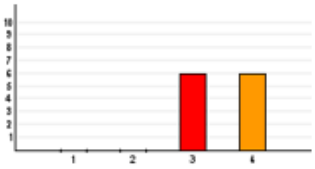


Comments Q2:

see comment above
We all need more practice!
I ran two seminars and while the first was somewhat tentative and hampered (due to participants' general English level) the secon limitations.
Some students found it difficult to express themselves in a nuanced way.

3) To what extent do you perceive the native Swedish speaking students were able to participate during the seminar in English?

(1) (1) Not at all;	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	0	*0%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	6	*50%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent,	6	*50%*
Medelvärde	3,50	
Median	3,5	
Standardavvikelse	0,52	

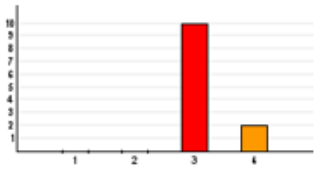


Comments Q3:

They liked it and they tried as much they could.
Some students found it difficult to express themselves in a nuanced way, which made the hesitate to speak.

4) Similarly, to what extent do you perceive the native Swedish speaking students were able to participate at the same level during the seminar as during seminars conducted in Swedish?

(1) (1) Not at all;	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	0	*0%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	10	*83,3%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent,	2	*16,7%*
Medelvärde	3,17	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,39	

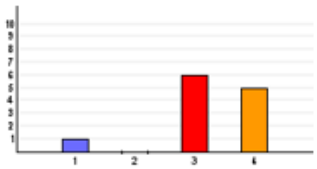


Comments Q4:

Native Swedish is home safe for our students, but they liked to speak English in the seminar.
There were less nuances in the discussion, and it was clear that some students found it more difficult to speak English.

5) (If applicable) To what extent do you perceive conducting the seminar in English enabled group cohesion for groups with exchange students?

(1) (1) Not at all;	1	*8,3%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	0	*0%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	6	*50%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent,	5	*41,7%*
Medelvärde	3,25	
Median	3	
Standardavvikelse	0,87	

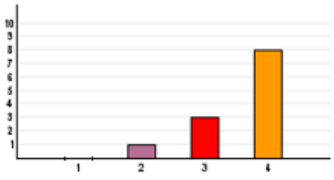


Comments Q5:

Our exchange student in the group was close to excellent in speaking English.
I have neither experience nor any factual perception of that, but would assume that it at least didn´t Disable group cohesion.
Did not have non-scandinavians in either group. Did not matter.
I didn't have any exchange students. My answer above it, thus, theoretical.

6) 6) To what extent are you positive to the inclusion of one seminar conducted in English in future courses?

(1) (1) Not at all;	0	*0%*
(2) (2) Very Little;	1	*8,3%*
(3) (3) To Some Extent;	3	*25%*
(4) (4) To a Great Extent	8	*66,7%*
Medelvärde	3,58	
Median	4	
Standardavvikelse	0,67	



Kopia av Comments Q6:

We should do it, we all need it! Great to integrate more language teacher and skills into the seminars.
It was a challenge, but also very useful for the students to discuss in English - with each other and me, but also with the English teacher who took an active part in these discussions.

(Free response) What additional elements of support do you feel are to enable you to feel more comfortable conducting seminars in English?

Language Integration Learning is our objective for next year! Good going!
I think the one seminar we had, was good. Doesn't need to be too complex. Just let them talk more English in class. I think the whole point is to make their English come more casually, and more exposure to english will contribute greatly to this. Keep it up!

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Review research paper

METADISCURSIVE NOUNS IN ACADEMIC ABSTRACTS: A CORPUS-BASED COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MUSIC STUDENTS' DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS IN CHINA AND THE US

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Abstract. *The growing interests in metadiscursive noun make it a heated topic for scholars to conduct various intradisciplinary and interdisciplinary researches in this field. However, the research about academic writing in the discipline of music still remains blank. This article makes a comparative study to explore the use of all categories of metadiscursive nouns in a corpus of 40 English abstracts of music students' doctoral dissertations in China and the US. The research results have indicated: 1) L1 students of English tend to use more metadiscursive nouns to express their stance and promote their research; 2) They also employ diverse lexico-syntactic structures to encapsulate these metadiscursive nouns, thus making the abstracts coherently link together; 3) Students from China and the US both prefer to use entity nouns in "Determiner+N" sentence pattern. This comparative study has pedagogical implications for EFL teaching in China and raises Chinese music students' awareness to improve their academic writing skills.*

Key words: *metadiscursive nouns, English abstract, academic writing, music discipline, comparative study*

1. INTRODUCTION

The abstract noun use has gained wide attention in the research of academic discourse. The earlier studies have given different names for abstract nouns: "general nouns" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976); "anaphoric nouns" (Francis, 1986); "carrier nouns" (Ivanič, 1991); "shell nouns" (Schimd, 2000); "signaling nouns" (Flowerdew, 2003). The earlier studies have recognized the role of abstract nouns as critical resource in academic interactions, for instance, the importance of abstract nouns in organizing cohesive discourse (Flowerdew & Forest, 2015; Francis, 1986), and the interpersonal function to construct writer's stance (Schimd, 2000; Charles, 2007; Jiang, 2015). Jiang and Hyland (2015) coined the term "metadiscursive nouns" for abstract nouns that possess these dual functions.

In the past decade, a number of studies have explored the interdisciplinary differences in the use of metadiscursive nouns among soft disciplines and hard disciplines, including applied linguistics, marketing, philosophy, electronic engineering, medicine and physics

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(Jiang & Hyland, 2015; 2018; 2021). In addition to doing the researches in different registers, the cross-cultural comparison of metadiscursive nouns are also conducted in the discipline of applied linguistics (Huang & Xu, 2017; Fang, 2021). However, up until now, in both interdisciplinary and intradisciplinary studies, the metadiscursive noun use in the discipline of music still remains a relatively neglected field.

The music discipline has struggled to gain its "legitimate" position in academic research. The particularity of the subject makes people pay excessive attention to the production of musical works, but ignore music students' or scholars' endeavors in academic writings. In fact, they also write articles about music theory or do musical empirical studies; and then publish them in academic journals to promote their analysis. By doing so, musicians or music lovers around the globe can better appreciate the compositions or traditional musical instrument in one's own culture. From this perspective, their language use in academic writing is also worth investigating.

In China, the doctoral dissertation for music discipline is written in Chinese. But music students are required to insert an English abstract in their graduate thesis to advocate their studies to the international academic circles in the field of music. Since the English abstract in Chinese doctoral dissertations are not usually polished by English professionals, it can reflect Chinese music doctoral students' true level of English proficiency. Besides, the relatively standardized construction and condense form of abstract make it an "excellent material for genre analysis" (Bondi, 1997).

So, this study focuses on the discipline of music and choose the English abstracts in music students' doctoral dissertations as the research subjects. It compares the overall use of metadiscursive nouns from two different cultural groups: Chinese and English. Through a corpus-based examination, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

(1) Are there any differences between the use of metadiscursive nouns in the abstracts of Chinese and US music students' doctoral dissertations? If yes, to what extent do Chinese and the US music students differ in the use?

(2) What are the frequently-used lexico-grammatical structures and functions of metadiscursive nouns in the abstracts of Chinese and the US music students' doctoral dissertations?

The significance of this study is more than covering up the research blank in metadiscursive nouns but also in its cross-cultural contexts. The cross-cultural comparisons can make Chinese students aware of the use of metadiscursive nouns in academic writing and it has pedagogical implications for their future English academic writings. They can imitate the use of L1 users of English to make their work be better understood and accepted by the international academic circle.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Definitions and Classification of Metadiscursive Nouns

Metadiscourse is an important concept in applied linguistics. It was first put forward by Harris in 1959, and the concept has been developed by many linguists. According to Hyland (2005), it is the "cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text". So metadiscourse plays a crucial role in facilitating communication and building relationships with the audience in academic writing. The term "metadiscursive noun"

is a sub-category of metadiscourse coined by Jiang & Hyland (2015). The definition of metadiscursive nouns refers to "the organization of the discourse or the readers' understanding of it" (Jiang & Hyland, 2015). As a subset of abstract nouns, metadiscursive nouns have "both a constant meaning and a variable, pragmatic meaning which depends on contextual lexicalization" (Jiang & Hyland, 2017), as shown in Example (1) and (2).

(1) This *dissertation* brings light to a corner of the clarinet repertoire seldom explored and heard today. (Corpus EA)[1]

(2) The narrative of "A" is actually quite welcomed by romantic musicologists in the 19th century. Later, I will provide a detailed analysis and review on such a *misinterpretation.* (Corpus CA)[2]

The unspecific meaning of metadiscursive nouns *dissertation* and *misinterpretation* is supplemented by immediate reference. *Dissertation* with a demonstrative "this" exaggerates the contributions made by the current thesis; while *misinterpretation* is an anaphora, referring back to the previously mentioned trend. Previous studies mainly focus on analyzing the functions and structures of metadiscursive nouns.

According to the framework proposed by Jiang & Hyland (2017), the function of metadiscursive nouns is two-fold: one is the interactive function to establish cohesion in the text and the other is interactional function to engage the readers and show writers' stance. The interactive dimension can be shown that these nouns can either "refer backward to encapsulate earlier material, or forward to prospect forthcoming information" (ibid). The functional classification of metadiscursive nouns is based on their stance options: how writers use these abstract nouns to "mark entities, describe attributes of entities and discuss the relations between entities" (ibid). Table 1 presents the detailed classification of metadiscursive nouns. We can discover writer's stance, attitude and engagement of reader by analyzing these metadiscursive nouns.

Table 1 A functional classification of metadiscursive nouns (Jiang & Hyland, 2017)

	Description	Examples
Entity		
object	concrete metatext	*article, paper, study*
event	events, processes, and evidential cases	*change, case, observation*
discourse	verbal propositions and speech acts	*argument, claim, notion*
cognition	cognitive beliefs and attitudes	*decision, idea, notion, aim*
Attribute		
quality	traits that are admired or criticized, valued or depreciated	*advantage, difficulty, failure*
manner	circumstances of actions and state of affairs	*time, method, way, extent*
status	epistemic, deontic and dynamic modality	*possibility, trend, choice*
Relation	cause-effect, difference, relevance	*reason, result, difference*

As for the study on syntactic structures of metadiscursive nouns, Schimd in 2000 has discovered four types of most-frequently used lexico-grammatical patterns of shell nouns:

[1] Corpus EA contains 20 English doctoral dissertation abstracts written by music doctoral students in the US
[2] Corpus CA contains 20 English doctoral dissertation abstracts written by music doctoral students in China

N+post-nominal clause; Determiner+N; N+be+complement clause; Determiner+be+N. The abstract nouns in these sentence types can fulfill various syntactic functions and they can perform the cohesive function to introduce new information into the text. Charles (2003) concentrates on the analysis of shell nouns which occurs at sentence initial position in "This+N" pattern. Liu & Wang (2016) add new syntactic structures to Schimd's existing model, for example N-Cl-clause, N-EP structure (like, such as), N-be/V-to/doing, etc. Liu & Deng (2017) probes the N-be-that construction in popular and professional science articles with a focus on abstract nouns.

Based on the framework of metadiscursive nouns proposed by Jiang & Hyland (2017), this study investigates both the functions and the structures of metadiscursive nouns to enable readers to have a thorough understanding of the metadiscursive noun use in the doctoral dissertation abstract in the discipline of music.

2.2. Related Studies on Metadiscursive Nouns in China and Abroad

A number of intradisciplinary and interdisciplinary studies have been conducted to compare the use of metadiscursive nouns from different angles. Some linguistic scholars focus on its use in different disciplines: Charles (2003) discovered disciplinary differences in the use of metalinguistics nouns in doctoral thesis. She found politics tend to use more of these abstract nouns than material science. Jiang & Hyland (2015) analyzed research articles published in international journals in eight disciplines (electronical engineering, medicine, cell biology, physics, applied linguistics, marketing, philosophy and sociology), they found that the soft discipline uses more stance nouns. Jiang & Hyland (2017; 2021) further probed the interdisciplinary use of metadiscursive nouns in academic abstracts and later discovered the diachronic changes of these nouns in four disciplines (applied linguistics, sociology, biology and engineering). It can be inferred from the previous studies that metadiscursive nouns were not evenly distributed across disciplines.

Other researchers concern about the different use of stance nouns between first language and second language students. Flowerdew (2010) demonstrated that Cantonese speakers use fewer signaling nouns in terms of overall frequency and range of use than their L1 users of English counterparts in argumentative writings. Lou (2013) compared Chinese linguistic MA students' thesis with English native students; then found that Chinese students lack diversity in using shell nouns. Jiang (2015) found that first language students are more skillful in expressing their stance in argumentative essay. Huang & Xu (2017) revealed that Chinese writers tend to use fewer metadiscursive nouns of almost each category than L1 users of English in international journals of applied linguistics.

From the review of previous studies, it has been noticed that the research of metadiscursive nouns covers a wide range of disciplines and academic genres. But no attention is paid to music discipline; and the cross-cultural comparisons mainly focus on the discipline of applied linguistics. So, this study aims to make a comparative study to investigate the intradisciplinary difference of metadiscursive noun use in the discipline of music between Chinese and the US doctoral students.

3. METHOD

This study draws on the analysis of 40 English abstracts in doctoral dissertations. It consists of two self-built corpora. One is called Corpus of Chinese Students' Abstracts (Corpus CA) and the other is called Corpus of English Students' Abstracts (Corpus EA).

Each corpus contained 20 English abstracts accompanying doctoral dissertations published between 2018 to 2020. All of these doctoral dissertations were randomly selected on CNKI and ProQuest in the discipline of Music. The authors of the doctoral dissertations in English were from American universities; and the authors in Chinese were from Chinese universities. As to ensure the authors of the selected dissertations are L1 users of English, we carefully chose authors who have traditional English surnames (the name like Stanchev, Koo were removed from the corpus). When building the corpora, in order to make the two corpora more comparable, the dissertations we chose are all theoretical studies about music theories or appreciations about music. The total number of words in Corpus CA is 9147 tokens, and 4612 in Corpus EA. Table 2 is the description of the corpora.

Table 2 Description of the corpora

Corpus	No. of texts	Total No. of tokens	Average text length
Corpus CA	20	9147	457.3
Corpus EA	20	4611	230.6

The analytic procedure is divided into 3 steps. First is data annotation. Based on the concept proposed by Jiang & Hyland (2017) (see Table 1), we manually identified all categories of metadiscursive nouns. The dissertations were all annotated for three times to assure its accuracy, and the three results achieved 98% agreement. Due to their context-dependent nature, some abstract nouns were excluded because they did not perform the interactional and interactive functions mentioned previously, though they may be counted as one in other cases. For example, the italicized word “analysis” and “review” in the following sentence from Corpus CA were not counted because they only performed as a noun phrase not the dual functions:

Later, I will provide a detailed *analysis* and *review* on such a misinterpretation. (Corpus CA)

The second step is to find out the lexico-grammatical structures of these metadiscursive nouns. We classified these sentences according to the model proposed by Schmid (2000) and Liu & Wang (2016): (1) N+v/be+nominal phrases; (2) N+v/be+complement clause; (3) N+prepositional phrase; (4) N+clause; (5) Determiner+N and (6) Determiner+be+N (In all these patterns, N refers to metadiscursive nouns). We first used TreeTagger (v.3.2) to tag the passage and then imported the data into AntConc (v.3.5.9, Anthony, 2020). We searched the regex expressions to find the above six lexico-grammatical structures. In order to confirm the prior classifications, we also checked all the results manually to ensure its accuracy.

The final step is data calculation and data analysis. Raw numbers of each category of metadiscursive nouns were all counted in these two corpora and converted into frequencies per 1000 words. Then we employed Loglikelihood and Chi-square Calculator (v.1.0, Liang, 2012) to check out whether there were significant differences in the use of metadiscursive nouns in the two corpora. The raw frequencies of the above 6 types of lexico-grammatical patterns were also counted and their ratios were calculated to find the most preferred patterns by Chines and English music students.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Different Distributions of Metadiscursive Nouns in the Two Corpora

After careful examination, 286 cases of metadiscursive nouns in the two corpora, totaling 13758 tokens, have been found. 117 metadiscursive nouns are identified in Corpus EA, averaging 25 per 1000 cases; while 169 cases in Corpus CA, just 18 per 1000 words ($\chi 2=6.83$, $p<0.05$). The given Chi-square results can indicate that there is a significant difference in the use of metadiscursive nouns in Chinese and English music students' doctoral dissertation English abstracts. The specific distribution of the functional classification of metadiscursive nouns in the two corpora is shown in Table 3.

As can be seen in the table, the distributions of three main groups of metadiscursive nouns in the two corpora are relatively similar. Both Chinese and English music students most prefer to use entity nouns in their writing of abstracts. The ratio of entity nouns is 67.5% and 78.1% respectively in Corpus EA and CA, which is the most frequently-used category of metadiscursive nouns, while the relation nouns are used least by both two cultural groups. Although the usage of attribute nouns ranked second in both two cultural groups, L1 students of English are more likely to use this category than Chinese doctoral students. Then we will make a further explanation about the different and similar use of these nouns by doctoral students from two cultural groups:

Table 3 Distribution of metadiscursive nouns in the two corpora

Categories	Corpus EA			Corpus CA		
	Total no. of items	Items per 1000 words	% of total metadiscursive nouns	Total no. of items	Items per 1000 words	% of total metadiscursive nouns
Entity	79	17	67.5%	132	14	78.1%
Objects	31	7	26.5%	54	6	32%
Events	23	5	19.7%	41	4	24.3%
Discourse	6	1	5.1%	8	1	5%
Cognition	19	4	16.2%	29	3	17.2%
Attribute	35	7	30.8%	27	3	16%
Quality	11	2	9.4%	10	1	6%
Status	1	0	0.9%	0	0	0%
Manner	23	5	19.7%	17	2	10%
Relation	3	1	2.6%	10	1	6%
Total	117	25	100.0%	169	18	100,0%

4.1.1. Entity nouns

Entity nouns embody "writers' judgment of texts, events, discourse or aspects of cognition" (Jiang & Hyland, 2017). It can be further classified into four subcategories: object, event, discourse and cognition nouns.

Among all the subcategories of entity, the object nouns are the most commonly used, usually referring to writer's own written work. The reason for the repetitive use of object nouns is that it makes the target readers aware of the "novelty and contribution" of this academic research (Jiang & Hyland, 2016). The italicized words in sentence (3) and (4) are the examples. However, we have noticed that Chinese and English doctoral students

are prone to use different words to mention their dissertations. The Chinese students seem especially indulged to use the word *paper*, it occurs 29 times but only 2 times in Corpus EA. The English music students like to use *dissertation* instead. Besides, L1 students of English employ various terms to refer to their metatext, like *document, study*. It can enrich the lexical diversity of the abstract. So far, we can only find *document* in corpus EA and it can be assumed as a distinct object noun in music discipline. The excessive use of *paper* in Chinese students' writing is due to their limited vocabulary and lack of general knowledge about English culture. In English, *paper* usually refers to "term paper" or "scholarly paper" whereas *dissertation* is the proper name for doctoral degree thesis.

(3) Specifically, this *dissertation* will analyze how certain arrangers have adapted western art music for steel pan chamber ensemble while discussing the possible methods the arranger used to create this adaptation. (Corpus EA)

(4) This *paper* intended to examine the Chinese modern music which emerged after the early 20th century. (Corpus CA)

One of the findings in this study different from previous ones is that both Chinese and English music doctoral students use more object nouns than event nouns. It is contrary to the findings discovered in other soft disciplines, such as applied linguistics and sociology (Jiang & Hyland, 2016). The reason behind this phenomenon might be the academic genre being analyzed is different. The abstracts selected by Jiang & Hyland were from academic journals; but in this study, they were chosen from doctoral dissertations. Furthermore, the chosen dissertations are all theoretical ones; they are more concerned about the values or aesthetics of the music work. From this perspective, their explanation may more rely on writer's own interpretation and understanding rather than empirical work. So, they will use fewer evidential nouns, but more object nouns to emphasize the importance of their written work.

The cognition nouns can help readers to foreground what can be expected to read in the main content. In addition, it makes the text flow naturally from one part of the abstract to another. Example (5) and (6) are typical cases of these functions. As can be seen from Table 3, the cognition nouns appear at least one time in each abstract from the two corpora. Swales (1990) suggested that it is common to present research purpose in the writing of abstract. Doctoral students who are close to the academic circles have received academic training for a long time, they must clearly know the organization of a standard abstract. So, both Chinese and English students tend to employ academic word clusters, like *the purpose of…*, *the aim of…* to illustrate what they desire to achieve in their dissertation, which all have cognition nouns.

(5) The *purpose* of this dissertation is to examine Joachim Raff's life and to provide historical, contextual, stylistic, musical, and idiosyncratic elements of each of Raff's available choral works. (Corpus EA)

(6) The main *purpose* of this thesis is to explore the current Chinese music art from the perspective of image communication in the context of visual culture. (Corpus CA)

4.1.2. Attribute nouns

Researchers have revealed that academic writings are more than just to present scholars' findings, but also show their evaluations and comments of the results (Hyland & Tse, 2005).

The employment of attribute nouns evaluates the quality, status and formation of entities. Its further subcategory includes quality nouns, manner nouns and status nouns.

Quality nouns assess writers' value towards a statement. In most cases, the quality nouns can best represent writer's stance and achieve the interactional function of metadiscursive nouns. The data in the two corpora show that L1 doctoral students use more quality nouns than Chinese students in the abstract, indicating that they are more skillful to express their stance. However, both L1 and L2 students of English prefer to add a premodifying adjective to the quality nouns to show their judgment about an event. In sentence (7), by using the noun *issue*, the author is informing the readers that the piano reduction in orchestral composition may have serious impacts on pianists, and he holds negative opinions about this phenomenon. The same is to the word *problem* in sentence (8), conveying writers' concerns about the development of oriental music culture.

(7) However, the reduction has various *issues* that make performing this composition challenging for pianists. (Corpus EA)

(8) This is also a common *problem* for the inheritance and development of Oriental music culture. (Corpus CA)

As for manner nouns, they "describe the circumstances and formation of actions and state of affairs" relating to time, method and way (Jiang & Hyland, 2016). It is interesting to find that L1 students of English tend to use more manner nouns, of which the number is twice as many as used by Chinese students. Though the selected dissertations are theoretical in nature, L1 doctoral students like to explain the constructing principle of a concept, and the possible methods that the musician (who are being analyzed in their dissertation) used to create his/her work. However, Chinese doctoral students only mention their own adopted methods when conducting their research. Besides, the manner nouns used to depict a specific time or to mark the time boundary only occurs once in Corpus CA but none in Corpus EA. Their scarce occurrence is resulted from the nature of the music discipline. Unlike the experiments conducted in hard discipline, music work or skill is not transient and the production of music work will not be confined in time. The following are examples of manner nouns:

(9) The *mechanisms* for creating musical identity during much of the modern period were based on the elements of pitch, rhythm, harmony and form. (Corpus EA)

(10) Through this research, more scholars, researchers, and performers become aware of the fundamental *techniques* that make these works successful. (Corpus EA)

(11) At the same *time*, the development of tourism economy makes Sabah begin to pay attention to the economic effect of aboriginal traditional music culture. (Corpus CA)

The nouns that relate to status express "judgement of epistemic, deontic and dynamic modality" (ibid). The authors usually use these nouns to denote the likelihood of the research results or their ability to do something. As shown in Table 3, the occurrence of status nouns in both two corpora is scarce. Only one hit was found in Corpus EA, but none in Corpus CA. The L1 students of English like to use the adjective counterparts of relation nouns to express epistemic modality, such as "possible", "accessible" to show their evaluation. However, even the adjective forms are rare in Corpus CA. This finding can be explained by Hu & Li's statement (2015) that "the manipulation of epistemic modality in academic writing is particular problematic for the L2 students".

4.1.3. Relation Nouns

Relation nouns are usually used to indicate the connection or relationship of information in the discourse, which can embody the writer's understanding towards the connections or relationships of information. The use of relation nouns is important in conveying writers' stance, since it can directly point out the logical relationship between each proposition and make the statement more reliable and convincing. By using words like *impact* or *basis*, it reveals writers' agreement that something plays a fundamental role (as shown in Sentence 13), while *imbalance* discloses contradictions and disapprovals. According to the research result, the ratio of relation nouns occupies least position in the two corpora, with the normalized frequency of one word per 1000 words in the two corpora. It can suggest that both Chinese and the US students lack the awareness to use relation nouns to make their abstract more logically organized and persuasive.

(12) In addition, Elgar included numerous musical quotations from earlier compositions... As a *result*, many reviews critiqued the work as lacking compositional originality and creativity. (Corpus EA)

(13) It combined with the theory of chaos to analyze the deterministic behavior and uncertain behavior of the whole music structure organization. This has a direct *impact* on the psychological preset before creation. (Corpus CA)

It can be concluded that the use of metadiscursive nouns in doctoral dissertation abstracts is more flexible and richer by L1 music students of English than Chinese music students. The use by Chinese doctoral students is monotonous and simple. It indicates that L1 students are more adept at constructing their stance in academic writing. They are familiar with the ways to effectively build up their arguments and strengthening their propositions by using different categories of metadiscursive nouns. The reason for Chinese students using fewer metadiscursive nouns may arise from their disciplinary writing tradition. It is normal for Chinese music students to make a brief introduction about the musician or the music work at the beginning of the abstract, which hardly contains any metadiscursive nouns. But the US music doctoral students usually skip that part, only focusing on introducing their study in the abstract, which explains why their abstracts are shorter than Chinese students. Another reason can be that Chinese students lack systematic training of academic writing which in turn accounts for their lack of consciousness to employ these rhetorical skills.

4.2. Lexico-Grammatical Differences of Metadiscursive Nouns in the Two Corpora

The syntactic structures of metadiscursive nouns are diverse to meet writers' demands. The link between the head noun and its complement content can both achieve textual and pragmatic functions. By interpreting their lexico-grammatical patterns, metadiscursive nouns are assumed to "signal the relationships between parts of the text and address the management of information flow" (Jiang & Hyland, 2017). This study adjusted and fused the classification of lexico-grammatical structures by Schmid (2000) and Liu & Wang (2016). Table 4 presents the detailed data about the distribution of these 6 types of structures in Corpus EA and Corpus CA. From the table, we can see clearly that the syntactic pattern of metadiscursive nouns used by Chinese music doctoral students is different from English students. We will discuss the similarity and difference in the sub-sections.

Table 4 Frequency of the lexico-grammatical patterns in the two Corpora

Lexico-grammatical structures	Corpus EA		Corpus CA	
	Raw number	Frequency	Raw number	Frequency
Noun+V/be nominal phrase	9	7.7%	6	3.6%
Noun+V/be complement clause	12	10.3%	14	8.3%
N+ prepositional phrase	22	18.8%	47	27.8%
N+clause	26	22.2%	17	10.1%
Determiner+N	45	38.5%	84	49.7%
Determiner+be+N	3	2.6%	1	0.6%
Total	117	100.0%	169	100.0%

4.2.1. Structure "Determiner+N"

The ratio of the structure "Determiner+N" occupies most in both Chinese and English students' doctoral dissertation abstracts. However, this structure takes up 49.7% in corpus CA, but 38.5% in corpus EA. This result is similar to that of Jiang & Hyland (2017): authors in the discipline of applied linguistics, marketing, philosophy, electronical engineering, etc. also like to use this syntactic pattern most in their writing of abstracts. By using this simple and direct syntax, writers can save the textual space and explicitly express their intentions. In most cases, the metadiscursive noun in this lexico-grammatical structure is accompanied with a proximal demonstrative determiner "this" to highlight the significance of this paper work; and they always appear at the beginning of the sentence or clause to "create cohesion in a text" (Gray, 2010)

However, Chinese music students seems to overuse this simple sentence pattern due to their low English capacity. The English proficiency of most Chinese music students is not that good because the English requirement for them to admit to university is normally lower than the students in other disciplines. But for L1 students of English, they have received qualified education in English writing since primary school. There is no doubt that they are more proficient in using other syntactic patterns.

We also made a comparison according to its functional classifications (see Figure 1), both Chinese and English students most likely use the entity nouns, particularly object or event nouns in this pattern.

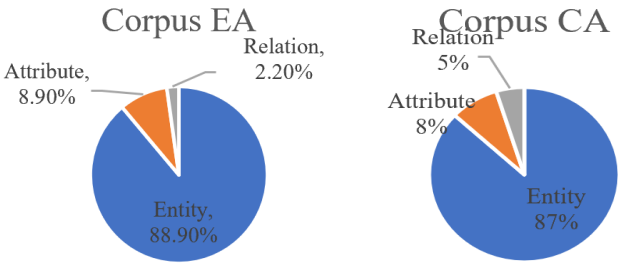

Fig. 1 The Functional Distribution of Metadiscursive Nouns in "Determiner+N"

Since an abstract is the miniature of the whole dissertation, writers want to divert readers' attention to what they have achieved in this present study, so they will use *this*

dissertation, this paper, this analysis to "promote the accompanying article" (Jiang & Hyland, 2016). In sentence (14), *this dissertation* is used to mention what this study has contributed. The same is to *this paper* in sentence (15), the author states clearly what he intends to achieve in this thesis. In addition, we can also find the cataphoric use of "Determiner+N", for example in sentence (3) above, *this adaptation* refers back to the things that arrangers used to adapt the western art music, thus making the reference much more precise and contributing to the coherency of the text.

(14) Through several engraving projects and performances, this *dissertation* brings light to a corner of the clarinet repertoire seldom explored and heard today. (Corpus EA)

(15) This *paper* attempts to sum up its unique technique in the traditional instrumental music theory, and then probe into the law of music form contained therein. (Corpus CA)

4.2.2. Structure "N+clause"

The lexico-grammatical structure of "N+clause" is the secondly most-used pattern in corpus EA. In this pattern, the postnominal clauses express the propositional contents of the metadiscursive nouns clearly. In addition, we can also discover writer's stance by analyzing the head nouns. Schimd believes that the choice of abstract nouns in this structure can "determine the conceptual status of clauses" (2000). In Sentence (16), by using the ontological noun *fact*, the author strongly believes what he says in the following proposition is true. It can be considered as "self-source" which is discovered by the author himself in the dissertation (Charles, 2007). If we change *fact* into *belief*, the claim is much weaker. Writers also express their attitudes towards the proposition in *that* clause, the epistemic noun *hope* in example (17) can show their wish about the expected influence of their study. The premodifiers in the pattern "N+clause" is rare, but in case (17) the evaluative adjective "fundamental" exaggerates the importance of using the techniques discussed in the dissertation to make composition successful.

(16) Despite the *fact* that many of these pieces are innovative and well-written, few, if any, have entered the standard repertoire. (Corpus EA)

(17) It is my *hope* that through this research, more scholars, researchers, and performers become aware of the fundamental *techniques* that make these works successful. (Corpus EA)

Chinese students rarely use this sentence pattern in their writing of abstract compared to its use in Corpus EA. In Chinese culture, when building up the whole sentence, Chinese people are prone to add descriptions before the nouns rather than after them. Chinese syntax has the characteristics of "left-branching" (Lian, 2010). So, under the influence of their first language, Chinese music students may rarely use this sentence pattern. Besides, the use of "N + clause" complement requires a more complicated language use for it "requires a nomination of an event" (Jiang, 2015). We can infer that Chinese music students' linguistic proficiency is not sufficient for them to master this sentence pattern well.

As we can see in Figure 2, the doctoral students in the US and China prefer to use different category of metadiscursive nouns in this lexico-grammatical structure. The L1 speaker likes to use attribute nouns, especially manner nouns. By adding a complement clause to the manner noun, the authors make the readers be specific about the methods or approaches they have adopted in their study, which are crucial to their further reading and

understanding. However, we cannot infer Chinese students' preference in our corpus due to the limited data. But both cultural groups will not choose to use relation nouns and object nouns in this structure. Because relation nouns are used to describe the relationship among entities, so if they want to use relation nouns (i.e. *relationship*, *difference*), they would follow the convention of English grammar: to add a prepositional phrase (i.e. *between* or *among*) after the head nouns.

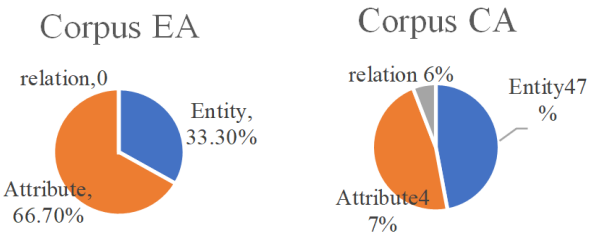

Fig. 2 The Functional Distribution of Metadiscursive Nouns in "N+clause"

4.2.3. Structure "N+prepositional phrase"

Among all the post-modifiers, "prepositional phrases are by far the most common variant" (Biber, Grieve, Iberrishea, 2010), and nominal prepositions phrases are "very much common phrasal postmodifiers in L2 English academic research writing" (Hernandez, 2022). As can be seen from Table 4, the use of "N+prepositional phrase" is popular among Chinese music students, and they especially like to collocate the metadiscursive nouns with the preposition "of". The word after "of" is usually "a deverbal noun, deadjective noun or gerund" (Flowerdew & Forest, 2015), like in example (18). But we consider "developing" is a wrong use of "development" by Chinese students. In sentence (19), the preposition is used to indicate the relationship between two cultures. Almost all categories of metadiscursive nouns can be shown in this pattern (see Figure 3). It is a means of introducing and signaling the realizations of the head noun. Chinese music students like to use event nouns or cognition nouns in this structure, which has some relations with the formulaic chunks, for example *with the preparation of…*, *the change of…*, *give an overview of…*, these phrasal clusters all contain event nouns. They also like to use the expression *an analysis of…*, and then add the title of the concerto or the music theory being analyzed in the dissertation as the post modifier to stress the research focus.

(18) The research of this paper explores the *process* of the developing from the original sampling to the whole sound works. (Corpus CA)

(19) This will also try to expound how Chinese folksong is used in Chinese modern music works and explore the influence of the transition *relation* between traditional culture and the ideological trend of time culture to the works. (Corpus CA)

We also discover that the lexico-grammatical patterns of N+V/be+ nominal phrases, N+V/be +complement clause and Determiner+be+N are not commonly used by either group of students. According to our data, cognition nouns usually occur in the "N+V/be+complement clause" pattern because of the academic cluster *the purpose of… be to…*. Nevertheless, L1 doctoral students of English still use these three patterns more

frequently than Chinese students. In the abstracts of Chinese doctoral students' dissertations, we found problems of low syntactic complexity when using the metadiscursive nouns, which also results from their restrictive English storage.

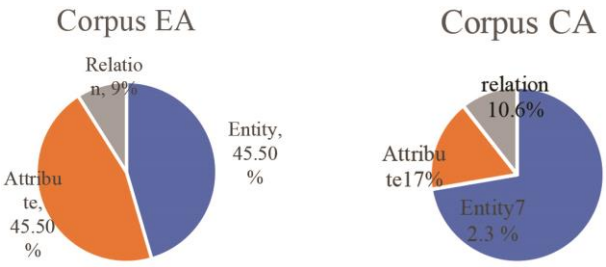

Fig. 3 The Functional Distribution of Metadiscursive Nouns in "N+prepositional phrase"

5. Conclusion

In this comparative study, we have analyzed the metadiscursive nouns used in the English abstracts from music students' doctoral dissertations written by two different cultural groups. This study indicates that there are significant differences between the use of metadiscursive nouns by Chinese and the US doctoral students in the discipline of music. Both two groups of doctoral students prefer to use entity nouns most in their English abstracts and relation nouns are used least by them. Despite the overall similarity in its category distribution, there are variations in its specific data. L1 doctoral students of English tend to use more stance nouns in the dimension of entity, attribute and relation of metadiscursive nouns to express their attitudes towards the music work being discussed in the texts, reflecting their high proficiency in constructing stance in academic writing. But due to the peculiarity of the music subject, both groups use more object nouns than event nouns, which is different from previous study (Jiang & Hyland, 2017). We also found metadiscursive nouns that are distinct in music discipline like *document*. As for the lexico-grammatical structures, the pattern "determiner+N" is the most popular one used by two groups, in which object or event nouns are most likely to be found; and this result is similar to Jiang & Hyland (2017). Besides, L1 students adopt diverse syntactic patterns to use these metadiscursive nouns.

The cultural factors account for the different use of metadiscursive nouns by Chinese and English students. Being influenced by the syntactic construction in their first language, Chinese students use fewer "N+clause" patterns. The thinking mode in Chinese traditional culture also informs them to be prudent when evaluating other's or one's own work. So, Chinese students tend to be conservative when expressing their stance, which leads to the fewer occurrence of stance nouns in their articles. But it can also reveal that Chinese music students are not skillful in academic writing: in addition to their overuse of object nouns and simple syntactic patterns, we can also find many grammatical errors in their abstracts. It is necessary for them to learn some essential skills in English academic writing during their doctoral education. They need to be equipped with such rhetorical knowledge like using metadiscursive nouns to establish a good link with target readers in their research papers.

Apart from its relatively small size of corpus and limited data, this article is a good attempt to enrich the inter-cultural study in the field of metadiscursive nouns and it investigates into the academic writing of music discipline which has not been analyzed before. It also sheds lights into developing students' rhetorical consciousness in future EFL teaching, especially in the teaching of academic writing. If EFL learners want to publish articles in the international context, they have to master the rhetorical skills accordingly. EFL teachers can also rely on corpus to unpack the authentic use of native speakers and to use it accordingly in their own texts (Malakhovskaya et al., 2021). However, more research is needed to deepen the understandings about the metadiscursive noun use in the music discipline. The size of the corpus can be enlarged to make the results more accurate. More resources, such as journal articles, postgraduate thesis in the music discipline, are suggested to be incorporated in analyzing these metadiscursive nouns in future studies.

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Original scientific paper

IMPORTANCE OF TRANSLATION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERING -CASE STUDY-

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Abstract. *Translation as a teaching and learning tool has not been fully approved in teaching English for general purposes (Duff, 1994); however, it is frequently used in teaching English for specific purposes (ESP), (Chirobocea, 2018). In order to analyze the importance of translation in teaching ESP, a case study was conducted aiming at analyzing the role and importance of translation exercises while using the ESP textbook "Oxford English for Electrical and Mechanical engineering" OUP and pointing out the advantages of using translation in teaching. During the winter term of 2021/22 academic year, 36 third-year students participated in a case study at the Faculty of Mechanical engineering, University of Montenegro. In their obligatory ESP course, they were taught English for Mechanical Engineering. At the end of the course, students were given a questionnaire to evaluate the quality and importance of all exercises applied (retelling, translation, grammatical exercises, reading comprehension, speaking, listening, and writing). Eventually, additional exercises that included translating sentences into English and from English were graded as one of the most efficient and, accordingly, the most important ones. Students were satisfied with the effects of applying translation exercises in the process of teaching and learning which has increased their motivation to use translation to a greater extent both in their future studies and in their future professional surroundings. Moreover, it is expected that translation exercises will raise students' awareness of the importance of accuracy when using technical vocabulary in L1 and L2. Presently, domain experts translate scientific texts into and from English without consulting linguists and philologists of the Montenegrin language. This case study is the beginning of comprehensive research to be carried out among a greater number of students at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering (Departments of Electronics and Energetics) and Faculty of Medicine (Departments of General Medicine, Stomatology and Pharmacy), University of Montenegro.*

Key words: *translation, teaching and learning tool, English for Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, textbook, case study*

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1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this paper is to analyze the importance of translation in teaching and learning ESP. Namely, in the interview conducted at the beginning of the course, it was noticed that in their previous studies of English, students were mainly encouraged to use L2 without translating it into or from L1. Consequently, it is assumed that students cannot be used to translating when they reach their third year of studying and that they need some training and instruction in the field of translation. Harmer (2001) notices that in the past, most methods of L2 language teaching required L1 to be banned from the classroom. In addition, the use of L1 was considered undesirable in the communication approaches to language learning in the 1970s and 1980s. But lately, attitude towards translating native language and language classes has improved. Most students continue to translate from L2 to L1 and vice versa, regardless of how well they understand reading and listening materials. This fact makes foreign language teachers aware of the importance of translation in language education (Harmer, 2001). Therefore, being aware of the advantages of translation as a teaching and learning tool it was included in the syllabus of the ESP obligatory course in the field of Mechanical and Technical Engineering. Introducing translation as a teaching tool aimed at raising awareness of its importance among students. Furthermore, the starting premise was that translation would enhance their accuracy in using technical terms both in English and Montenegrin and it would enhance their communicative skills while discussing different versions of translation one with another. Consequently, a case study was conducted during the winter term at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering, University of Montenegro. In the period of three months, 36 third-year students were taught English for Electrical and Mechanical Engineering. At the end of this course, they were given a questionnaire to assess the importance and quality of all exercises applied.

When planning the syllabus for the ESP obligatory course in the field of Mechanical and Technical Engineering, doubts arose about whether translation exercises should be included, as translating was not predominantly practiced in students' previous studies of General English. Therefore, an issue of students' motivation has been raised and it had to be investigated. Though students were hesitant at the beginning, claiming that translation itself is a demanding task and it requires a higher level of English language knowledge, eventually, they showed great interest in completing translation exercises This kind of bias is a common ground in referring to translation as a profession itself not to be performed by all learners of the English language but only by those who are proficient in English. However, Selinker (1996: 103) argues that translation skills need to be linked to language proficiency. Witte (2009 quoted in Kic-Dragas 2014: 258) stated that you do not need to be an expert in translation and translation theory to use translation in the classroom. Nonetheless, the translation activities, which are used to learn ESP and L1, can facilitate understanding of the subject in the ESP classroom and improve learner's skills (Avand 2009: 45).

Another reason for conducting this research is that it is common in the Montenegrin scientific and professional environment that domain experts translate scientific texts into English without consulting linguists and philologists of the Montenegrin language. As Stojković (2021: 33) notices "the consequence is a mere (and often incorrect) transliteration of English scientific terminology and, ultimately, an uncurbed influx of foreign terminology". Kavaliauskiene and Kaminskiene (2007: 132) agree that "uncritical use of translation may give learners insufficient, confusing, or even inaccurate information

about the target language. Kavaliauskiene and Kaminskiene (2007: 135) add that "despite students' language proficiency, students still mentally translate from L2 to L1 when reading scientific or technical text." This fact makes teachers of English consider the importance of translation for learning purposes.

Furthermore, the author wanted to shed light on the lack of translation exercises in ESP textbooks. At the beginning of the course it was noticed that there were no translation exercises given in the English for Mechanical Engineering, OUP textbook. This fact was a starting point that inspired a whole set of activities, commencing from choosing appropriate texts for translation and ending with conducting a research study on how students reacted to supplementary translation activities in their classes. As Richards (2001) claims that "for learners, the textbook may provide the major source of contact they have with the language apart from input provided by the teacher", we agree that inserting translation exercises into the syllabi of ESP textbooks would influence students' translation skills' improvement and ability to apply these skills at their future workplace. Duff stresses the real-life need for communication both from L1 into L2 and from L2 into L1, and observes that Foreign Language (FL) textbooks typically provide little guidance on the latter, although many professionals need this skill in their daily work (1989, 6). Medrea (2012) emphasizes that ESP learners may need to translate in future work and argues that legal English learners may face the challenge of translating the legal system rather than words (2012: 5478).

2. Theoretical Background

Different translation theorists presented different theories according to their own points of view, e.g., Nida (1964), Catford (1965), Koller (1972), Toury (1972), Appel (1983), Reiss and Vermeer's Approach (1983). Sperberg and Wilson proposed their influential Relevance Theory from the cognitive point of view in 1986. Then in 1991, Ernst-August Gutt applied Relevance Theory to translation study and put forward his famous relevance-theoretic translation approach. Gutt (1991) in his book, *Translation and Relevance: Cognition and Context*, presents the interpretation of translation claiming that translation is a special form of communication, which involves three parts: the original author, the translator and the target language text reader, thus it should follow the general rule of communication. From the perspective of Relevance Theory, translation is a dynamic process. So, we cannot simply say which translation method is better than the other. The translator should use various methods according to the particular translation purpose, the text typology, and the specific context. But the most important issue is that the method the translator uses in a certain context must accord with the optimal relevance, that is to say, to achieve adequate contextual effects on the target language text reader's part without unnecessary processing effort. The main claim of Relevance Theory is to achieve optimal relevance with the least effort. (Gutt,1991: 202). Therefore, there are many applications of different translation methods in accordance with their relevance, *inter alia*, the use of translation as a teaching method.

Translation as a teaching method has long been associated with grammatical translation (Chirobocea 2018; Marinov 2016), limiting the use of translation in foreign language education. In recent decades, however, and especially since the beginning of the century, the value and benefits of the use of translation in EFL teaching has been reassessed. The

author will give an overview of the advantages of using translation in teaching and learning both EFL and ESP.

Discussing an issue of learning EFL, Widdowson claimed that "learning and translating become essentially the same thing" (2014: 237), translation being understood in both meanings of the word as a process and as a result – "the process of translation is the means and the product in the form of a second text is the end". Widdowson's thoughts on the role of L1 in language learning and teaching are similar to Juliane House's argumentation for the inclusion of translation in these processes. She maintains that translation contributes to a more efficient and economical explanation of L2 items, helps learners build confidence in dealing with the "intimidating strangeness" of L2, while utilizing their knowledge of L1 and thus enabling "continuity of their lingua-cultural identity" (2016: 123). She foregrounds the pragmatic usefulness of translation "as a technique in establishing pragmatic equivalences by relating linguistic forms to the communicative functions of utterances", thus fulfilling the objective of gaining communicative competence (ibid, 124) (cited in Popović and Vlahović, 2021: 379).

Duff (1989: 6) suggests that translation as a language-learning activity stimulates speculation and discussion, lends itself well to group work, and develops "three qualities essential to language learning: accuracy, clarity, and flexibility" (1989, 7). The point that translation can be a communicative activity that encourages discussion is also made by a number of other authors, e.g., Nord (1997), Mahmoud (2006), Leonardi (2009), Simões, Guincho and Magalhães (2013). Mažeikienė (2018), summarizing the most important arguments in favour of translation in ESP teaching, also observes that translation in the ESP context can be seen as a communicative activity, which, if properly balanced, well-planned and tailored to the specific needs and profiles of learners becomes an efficient teaching/learning method (Dudley-Evans and St. John 2012: 4).

Chirobocea (2018) agrees that translation has proven to serve as an essential educational tool, a teaching/learning method at least as a supplement, especially in the context of ESP (Chirobocea 2018: 67). Since the second half of the 20th century, interest in the use of translations and the use of L1 in foreign language education has revived (Malmkjaer 1998 cited in Leonardi 2009: 143; Atkinson 1987; Marinov 2016: 229 quoted in Chirobocea 2018: 70), and certain researchers referred to translation as the fifth skill alongside reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Chirobocea 2018: 71; Leonardi 2009: 142; Janulevičienė and Kavaliauskienė 2015: 39; KicDrgas 2014: 258; Kavaliauskienė and Kaminskienė 2009: 176). Leonardi (2009) believes that "translation should not be seen, and consequently treated, as a completely different language skill as compared to Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening because it is an activity which includes them and is, to a certain degree, dependent on them," Leonardi (2009: 143).

Another important use of translation in teaching and learning is related to the socio-cultural context. Translation promotes cultural understanding, "develops ESP learners' analytic skills, engages them in cross-linguistic comparisons", while focusing on accuracy as an important aspect of ESP (Chirobocea 2018: 522). Leonardi (2009) focuses on translation in teaching business English and maintains that "Translation is a mediating activity that always takes culture-bound terms and concepts into account to be successful in its transposition of a text from one language to another. Business and financial texts are characterized by many culture-bound terms and references which students should know to boost their comprehension of texts" (2009: 150). Further, it points out that "Translation, therefore, becomes a form of cultural mediation which is needed in order to carry out

communication across cultures" (2009: 151). As Leonardi (2009: 141) maintains, "Through translation, students can learn more about problem-solving strategies, improve their analytic skills and strengthen their grammatical and lexical competence and performance." Carreres (2006) conducted an investigation at the University of Cambridge on students' attitudes towards using translation in learning a language. The findings of his study suggested that translation is one of the best ways for learning.

Furthermore, using translations in foreign language education eliminates the negative attitudes of students and reduces their fear of learning a foreign language (Stibbard, 1998). According to J. Harmer (2001), the main cause of using L1 is induced activity if the student cannot activate the vocabulary for the selected task. Another reason is that translation is natural for learning a language, and switching code between L1 and L2 is considered a natural progression. The amount of L1 used by a particular student may be related to different learning styles and abilities. "No matter what the teacher says, there is no doubt that students will use L1 in the classroom" (Harmer, 2001). In addition, modern translation theory emphasizes functionality, and translational activity always refers to the translation of the carefully selected genuine text with a clear context and purpose (Nord, 1997). In this approach, translation is seen as a communication activity that can develop students' translation skills and communication skills in their native and foreign languages (Karoly, 2014: 90).

In the research study presented in this paper, the author will highlight the positive aspects of translation as a teaching and learning tool. However, the emphasis will be put on students' responses upon introducing translation into the teaching process. The starting hypothesis is that they will recognize a lot of benefits of translation in teaching and learning ESP.

3. Analysis

During the winter term, i.e., 45 classes altogether, 36 third-year students had a chance to learn English for Electrical Engineering as an obligatory subject of their academic studies.

A mixed qualitative and quantitative research method has been adopted to reach the original findings from this research. Original data were collected through a questionnaire delivered to undergraduate students who had already successfully completed the two EFL courses, offered at the undergraduate level at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering, the University of Montenegro during the academic year 2021-2022.

The questionnaire was prepared in the Likert Scale from the most to the least important or significant value (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree), combined with close YES or NO questions, open questions, and preparatory interview questions made orally at the beginning of the course.

Bearing in mind the complexity of technical vocabulary and advanced level of English, the author doubted whether students should pay special attention to translation exercises at all. In addition, in the preparatory interview conducted, the author realized that students have not had a lot of practice in translation while studying English for General purposes. Surprisingly, they were very interested in doing these exercises and commented on them providing different possible versions of translation, thus showing a high level of understanding of language and nuances in the meaning of both general and technical vocabulary.

Such a response to translation exercises sparked an idea to conduct a questionnaire inquiring them about the role and importance of translation exercises in learning ESP.

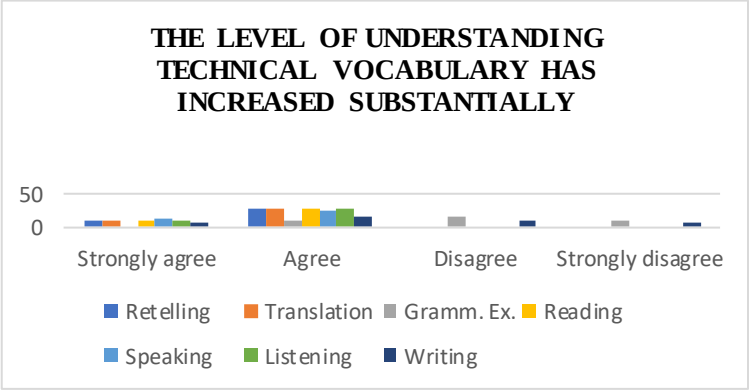

Fig. 1 Level of understanding of technical vocabulary

The **first question** posed related to the rate of understanding the technical vocabulary in the exercises as follows: retelling, translation, grammatical exercises, reading comprehension, speaking, listening, and writing.

The chart shows a high level of understanding of the technical vocabulary gained through translation exercises.

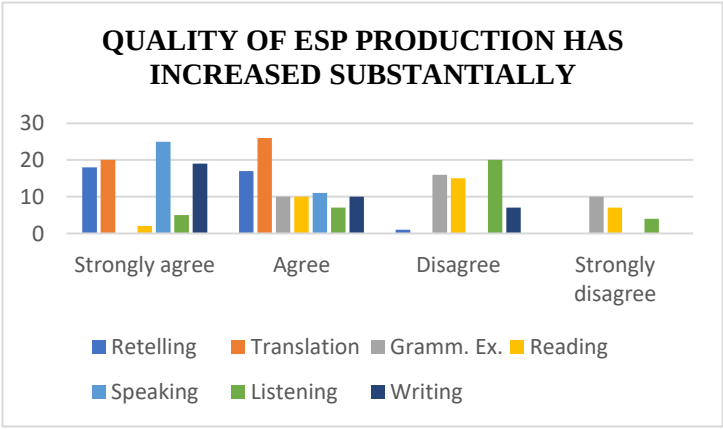

Fig. 2 Quality of ESP production

In the **second question** students were asked to rate the quality of language production through the following exercises: retelling, translation, grammatical exercises, reading comprehension, speaking, listening, and writing.

In this stage of analysis, students replied that translation exercises have substantially increased the quality of their ESP production.

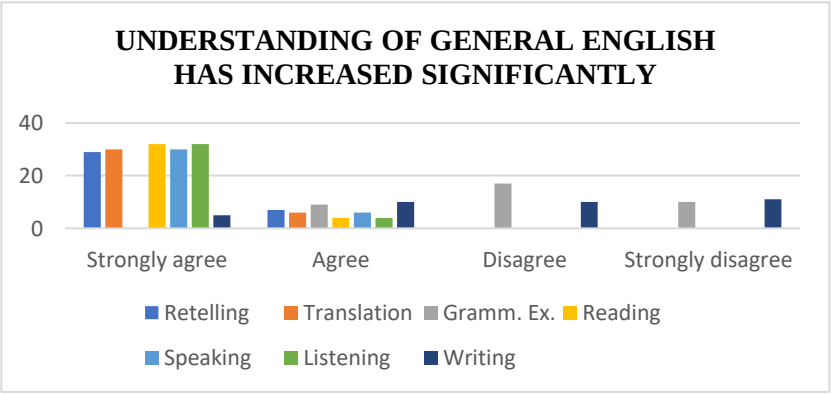

Fig. 3 Understanding of General English

In the **third question** students were asked to rate their overall understanding of General English through the following exercises: retelling, translation, grammatical exercises, reading comprehension, speaking, listening, and writing. In this questionnaire, we wanted to analyze the students' awareness of the presence of General English in the ESP texts and the fact that they have the chance to learn and acquire knowledge of General English, respectively in the ESP coursebook.

The results indicate that translation exercises have helped students improve their understanding of General English significantly.

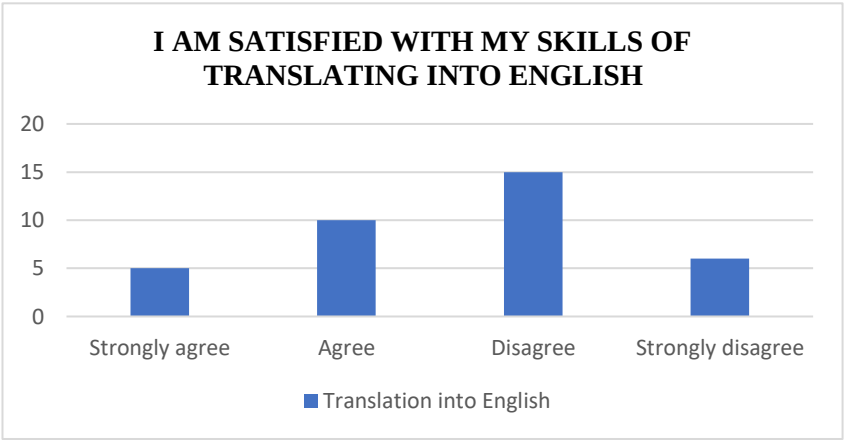

Fig. 4 Satisfaction with skills of translating into English

The **fourth question** referred to the students' satisfaction with their translation skills. As we can see, most of them disagreed with this contention they were not satisfied with their ability to translate ESP in English. The reason why there were not satisfied with their translation skills into English is that translating into English is generally considered more difficult than translating from English. Carreras writes (2006:5), translation is

considered to be demotivating and frustrating "because students can never attain the level of accuracy or stylistic polish of the version presented to them by the teacher," mainly when translating into L2.

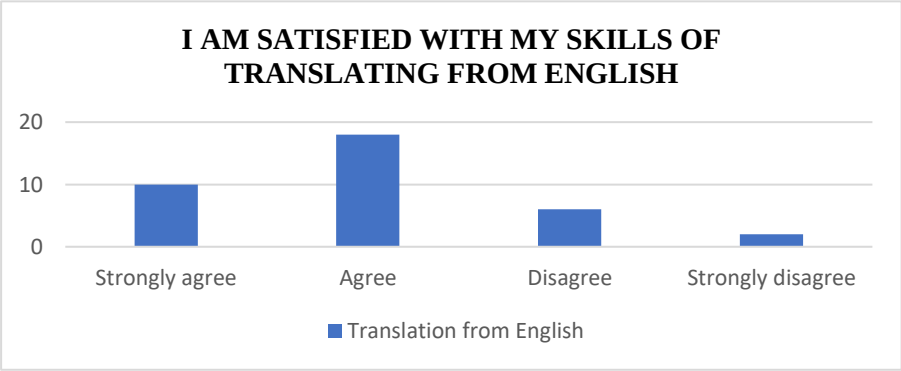

Fig. 5 Satisfaction with skills of translating from English

The **fifth question** referred to the students' satisfaction with their translation skills. As we can see, most of them were satisfied with their ability to translate ESP from English.

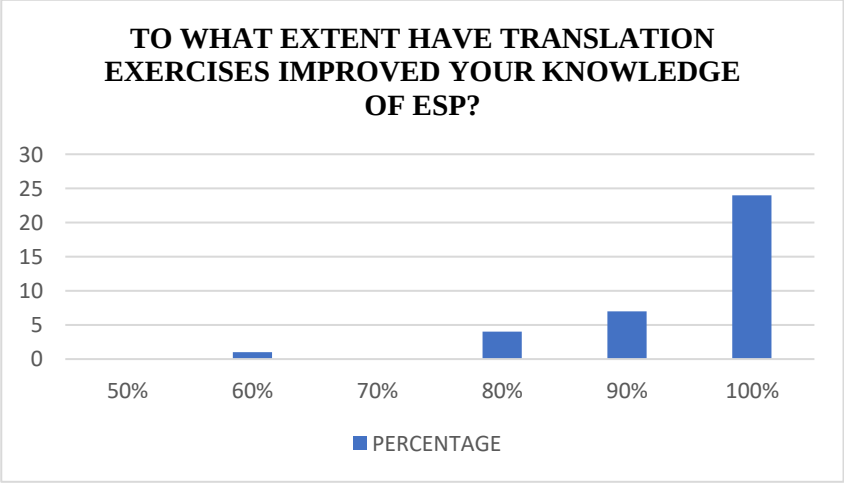

Fig. 6 How much have translation exercises improved your knowledge of ESP?

In their answer to the **sixth question** students replied that translation exercises improved their knowledge of ESP to a great extent.

Fig. 7 Translation or definition when looking up an unknown word

Students responded to the **seventh question** claiming that they prefer consulting a translation instead of a definition when looking up an unknown word**.**

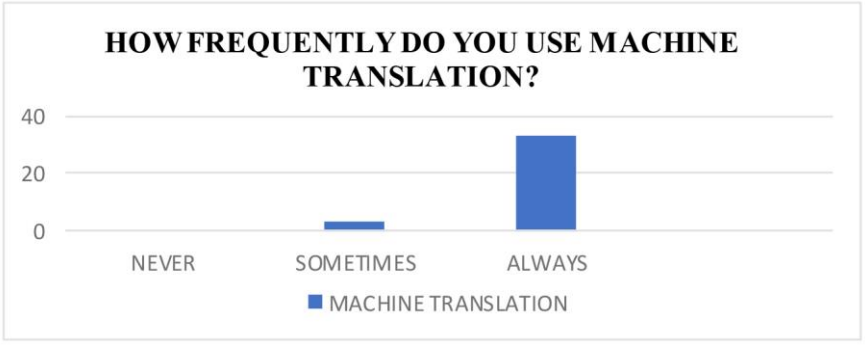

Fig. 8 How frequently do you use machine translation?

When asked how frequently they use a machine translation in the **eighth question** most students answered that they use it almost always.

Fig. 9 Imperfections of machine translation

As a reply to the ninth question, most of them answered that translation exercises have helped them realize the imperfections of machine translation and thus correct them accordingly.

In addition, as there are many anglicisms in the field of mechanical and electrical engineering in Montenegrin, students have had an idea that they already know a lot of words in this area. However, there are so many other technical terms that are far too specific that they need precise translation and proper definition, although it has been noticed that students did not know the meaning of the technical term upon the definition provided and that the precise translation of the specific word was still necessary for its understanding, e.g., *tap, pendulum, crankshaft, valves, buoyancy, hinge, leverage, fulcrum,* etc.

In the textbook used in our classes we have come across a lot of examples of anglicisms, e.g.:

Engineering n. – *inženjerstvo*
Machines n. pl. – *mašine*
Electronic adj. – *elektronski*
Electrical adj. – *električni*
Installation n. – *instalacija*
Medical adj. – *medicinski*
Scanners n. pl. – *skeneri*
Convert v. – *konvertovati*
Ventilation n. – *ventilacija*
Lubricants n. pl. – *lubrikanti*
Resistant adj. – *rezistentan*
Plastics n. – *plastika*
Polyester n. – *poliester*
Nylon n. – *najlon*
Metals n. – *metali*
Oscillate v. – *oscilirati*
Friction n. – *frikcija*
Tension n. – *tenzija*
Gravity n. – *gravitacija*
Elasticity n. – *elastičnost*
Radiator n. – *radijator*
Thermostat n. – *termostat*
Cylinder n. – *cilindar*
Toxic adj. – *toksičan*

Onysko, A. (2012) discusses the impact of anglicisms and its implications for the future of German bearing in mind different aspects of this influence, *inter alia,* reasons why they occur in German up to differentiating the borrowings on the separate representational levels of phonology, orthography, and morphology.

Furthermore, what has been noticed is that the prevailing presence of anglicisms in English for Electrical and Mechanical Engineering supposedly influenced students' improper transliteration of words in English while not knowing the proper translation of these words, eg. *hand-overs – hendoveri, quench – kvenčovanje, shafts – šaftovi, commutators – komutatori, solder – solderovanje.*

On the other hand, there were technical terms with the metaphoric extension of the meaning, eg. Spring (En.) – opruga (BCMS) - ESP

Spring (En.) – izvor (BCMS) – General English

Students managed to work out the meaning of the technical term *spring* through its association with its meaning in General English – *stream*. In this case translation of the word, *spring* both in General English and in the ESP was of utmost importance.

Therefore, we can conclude that translation plays a crucial role in the cognitive processes of understanding ESP vocabulary in L2.

Numerous studies indicated that both negative and positive transfer between L1 and L2 was necessary for developing the interlanguage, the complex system of the learners' L2. Many teachers recognize that L1 in the classroom positively represents interlanguage. The data on interlanguage and language transfer show that it is highly probable that L2 learners will always think most often in their L1, even at the advanced level (Mahmoud, 2006).

Regarding the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, it is vital to find out how students themselves feel about it. C. Schweers (1999) researched this issue and found that a high percentage (88.7%) of the student participants felt that their mother tongue should be used in their English classes. Moreover, if learners of a second language are encouraged to ignore their native language, they might feel their identity threatened. The following authors (Janulevièienë and Kavaliauskienë 2000, 2004) researched the use of mother tongue and translation in ESP classes. Our data were close to those reported by C. Schweers. As many as 86% out of 110 respondents felt that the native language should be used in the classroom. 90% claimed native language is important for explaining complex concepts, 57% recognized its importance in introducing new material, 74% emphasized its role in defining new vocabulary, whereas 55% explained the link between English and Lithuanian. It is noteworthy that in teaching/learning ESP it had been a long-felt dissatisfaction, mainly on the students' part, about the exclusion or minimal use of translation in mastering complex issues. Learners constantly wished to check the exact meanings of the professional terms in their native language by consulting bilingual dictionaries or asking for the teacher's explanations.

The recently published blog on the plenary session at the IATEFL Conference in Aberdeen, 18–20 April 2007, refers to the ideas of a well-known linguist Guy Cook, who was a speaker there (online): "The most important statement was the fact that EFL and ESL teachers tend to take a monolingual approach, thus neglecting the importance of translation in the process of teaching English. The EFL/ESL classroom cannot follow the motto "One nation, one people, one language". Quite contrary to that, L1, i.e., the student's mother tongue, should, by all means, be acknowledged. The importance is highlighted even more because the students' culture is part of their language. By neglecting their language, the teacher, in a monolingual classroom, neglects their culture, which leads to the danger of neglecting their identity. What is more, no valid database could confirm that the monolingual approach to teaching is the best one. The disregard for the student's mother tongue can de-motivate the students and be counterproductive. Therefore, there is neither a scientific nor a pedagogic reason to exclude L1 from the teaching. There are probably more reasons, utilitarian and political, to make the use of L1 quite valuable in teaching English. The former reason implies that the students would be motivated to think more about appropriate equivalents in their languages. The latter, of course, emphasizes the importance of cultural diversities and tolerance among nations". Considering what has been written above, it is essential to research the use of the mother tongue and the utility of up-to-date translation.

Kavaliauskiene, Mažeikiene, and Valunaite-Oleškevičiene, (2010) conducted research on the use of the mother tongue in the English classroom. The study, in which 641 respondents participated, revealed the following: 21% of respondents use only English,

58% sometimes use the mother tongue, 8% – frequently, 7% – most of the time, and 6% – about half the time. The importance of the mother tongue in teaching and learning English was previously recognized by Mattioli (2004) who claimed that "rigidly eliminating or limiting the native language does not appear to guarantee better acquisition, nor does it foster the humanistic approach that recognizes learners' identities."

4. RESULTS

After carrying out the research analysis, the author has found out that 80% of students responded in favour of translation exercises. The results are as follows:

- There is a high level of understanding of the technical vocabulary gained through translation exercises;
- Translation exercises have substantially increased the quality of their ESP production;
- Translation exercises have helped students improve their understanding of General English significantly;
- They are not satisfied with their ability to translate ESP in English;
- They are satisfied with their ability to translate ESP from English;
- Translation exercises improved their knowledge of ESP to a great extent;
- Students claimed that they prefer consulting a translation of a word instead of its definition when looking up an unknown word**;**
- Students answered that they use machine translation almost always;
- Translation exercises have helped them realize the imperfections of machine translation and thus correct them accordingly.

The given results imply students' positive feedback to introducing translation into teaching and learning ESP. In addition, it has influenced an increase in their motivation to apply translation in future studies and in their professional surroundings. Students' motivation resulted from their satisfaction with the translation skills gained, specifically with their knowledge of the ESP and General English, which has increased throughout practicing translation exercises.

Therefore, if the translation is introduced purposefully and imaginatively into the language learning program (Šulajterova, 2008), it can motivate learners and arouse their interest in didactic activities. Another aspect that should not be neglected in this respect is the choice of texts to be translated. In this respect, Bonyadi (2003) draws attention to the need for careful selection by claiming that "dull, overlong and uncommunicative texts that are difficult to translate usually de-motivate the students" and suggests that teachers start with short(er) communicative texts. In addition, Malmkjaer (1998) claims that the issue of motivation should be correlated with realistic goals with differing criteria applying for proficiency in L1 and L2. If this is indeed done, as Carreras did in her 2006 study, learners of English, even at the initial stages, overwhelmingly perceive translation exercises as useful in language learning and activity that invites discussion to which students are happy to contribute.

5. CONCLUSION

Translation has been largely neglected in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. We aim to show that, with proper regard for the principles of translation theory, translation can play a valuable role at all but the lowest levels of student language competence. In addition, the skill of translating should be developed as an integral part of the language learning program, especially in teaching ESP.

Additional reason for conducting the research was related to the fact that domain experts themselves translate the technical terms without the need to consult linguists of Montenegrin or the English language. Consequently, a lot of transliterated English expressions are uncritically and unduly used in everyday communication both by experts and students (Stojković, 2021).

In the research conducted during the winter term, in 2021/22 academic year, 36 students were taught English for Electrical and Mechanical Engineering. At the beginning of the course, it was noticed that there were no translation exercises included in this ESP textbook *Oxford English for Electrical and Mechanical engineering*, OUP, and that translation exercises should be included as an invaluable teaching and learning tool. Eventually, at the end of the course, students were given an opportunity to evaluate the usefulness of the exercises given to them, and surprisingly, translation exercises ranked high. The research study has proven the expected results of applying translation in teaching and learning ESP such as:

- Enhancing communication with the teacher and their peers in the classroom;
- Making them feel more confident when learning new words;
- Knowing exactly what the meaning of the word is after having it translated, as the definitions in English can be too long and confusing. In some cases, the definitions in English contain new words that they do not understand either;
- Being creative in offering their own versions of translation;
- Learning something new in the area of mechanical and technical engineering in the texts selected for the translation.

According to Leonardi (2009: 145), a conversation about translation problems in an ESP classroom facilitates understanding of a text by relating the analyzed text with relevant topics studied in students' L1. Leonardi (2009: 143) highlights the contribution of translation to improved understanding and deeper analysis of a specialized text: "Before starting translating a text, the source text (ST) should be read carefully and analyzed in detail. Thus, through close reading and careful text analysis of the ST, students can gain important insights into the comprehension of the text in order to avoid misinterpretations and misunderstandings."

As pointed out by many linguists, translation as a method is very much justified and needed and this was vindicated in the survey by our students. Students considered the translation exercises beneficial because the exercises gave them insight into their proficiency in understanding and using technical English vocabulary. Leonardi (2009: 148) believes that translation can be a helpful method of building vocabulary in the ESP classroom: "In a contrastive bilingual situation, students can, thanks to translation, improve their ability to find an equivalent in L1 to match a phrase in L2. Translation can teach students to learn vocabulary in two stages: students are taught to make a connection between the meaning and the form of the word, and then they must learn when to use or not to use the word, its word relationships, its nuances." Translation exercises proved to

be extremely useful when it comes to acquiring ESP, while having raised students' motivation to value the importance of translation highly both in their studies and in their future professional surroundings.

This research paper is a basis for the extensive research to be carried out among a greater number of students. In the winter term of the next, 2022/23 academic year, the author will conduct a research study investigating the importance of translation exercises at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering (Departments of Electronics and Energetics) and Faculty of Medicine (Departments of General Medicine, Stomatology and Pharmacy), University of Montenegro.

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Review research paper

TEACHING EAP TO DIGITAL GENERATION LEARNERS: DEVELOPING A GENERATION-SPECIFIC TEACHING STRATEGY

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HSE University, Russia

Abstract. *The article focuses on developing an English language teaching course for students of digital generation in non-linguistic specialties. To develop the course, a theoretical analysis of the scholarly literature on the digital generation student characteristics and their attitude to online and blended learning environments was conducted. In addition, the empirical data obtained through pre/post-tests and a survey of the students who enrolled in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course was analysed. The experimental groups were offered an EAP course specially designed for digital generation students and the control groups were offered a traditional EAP course. The pre-instructional questionnaire was developed to identify the behaviour of the digital generation students in the context of foreign language learning. The end-course survey was used to analyse whether the participants' perception of foreign language learning changed after completing the course. The pre-instructional and post-study language proficiency scores were compared across the experimental and control groups. The research findings indicated that the experimental groups showed a significant advantage over the control groups and expressed more positive attitudes to learning EAP. Practical implications suggest that tailoring foreign language teaching to the basic characteristics of digital generation learners can significantly improve its efficiency, resulting in a higher level of foreign language proficiency and leading to increased motivation to study a foreign language.*

Key words: *digital generation, non-linguistic specialties, EAP, online and blended learning*

1. INTRODUCTION

With the introduction of digital pedagogy into higher education settings, all the stakeholders, including instructors and course designers, have become concerned about how digital technologies may be used to enhance and innovate educational processes. COVID-19 pandemic has stressed "the importance of integrating technology into language teaching and learning" (Kohnke et al. 2021, 1). The successful development of online learning in higher education has created a shift in the way instructors and learners approach their tasks (Bassoppo-Moyo 2006). Online learning adopted in many universities has offered a variety of options for technology-enriched learning, making instructors better equipped with delivery

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methods, ranging from the online delivery method to the combination of both traditional and online formats. Moreover, the online teaching strategies appeared to be useful in the period of the COVID-19 pandemic.

However, their effectiveness is determined by several factors, one of which is appropriateness. This implies that online and blended learning delivery methods should be appropriate to contemporary realities and educational settings and the whole teaching strategy should be developed to the needs of learners who "have been growing up with the development of information technology" (Knežević 2017, 340). There is an increasing concern over finding an appropriate approach to teaching a foreign language to a new generation of university students.

It is well established from a variety of studies and teaching experience that foreign language teaching context is specific in some ways. Its most distinctive feature is that the instruction is competence-driven, focusing on developing learners' language knowledge and speaking, reading, listening, and writing skills. In such a context, learners tend to heavily rely on their hands-on practice and demonstration of skills by the instructor, on the one hand, and their autonomy, on the other hand. Both researchers and practitioners in foreign language education settings acknowledge the importance of integrating online teaching methods into the learning environment for promoting successful language learning. Nevertheless, their focus seems to be largely on the development of one particular language competence, for example, vocabulary and grammar acquisition, or listening and speaking skills (Wang 2016, Nutta 2013, Abassy, Delvand and Heidar 2020, Akiyama 2019, Lim and Pyun 2019, Sumtsova 2015).

Another issue that arises from the foreign language teaching context is a wide variety of students' behaviours in the language classroom, which can be attributed to foreign language learners' characteristics, motivation and learning preferences. Investigation of these features is important for understanding how to accommodate teaching practices to different learner types to promote successful language learning. However, the challenge facing foreign language teachers is whether the instruction, which is based on individual differences approach and tailored to meet the preferences of particular students in the particular educational environment, may be replicated in another instructional context without much adaptation.

Yet, developing an effective teaching format that meets language learning objectives and satisfies target learners' needs remains challenging. The necessity to examine learners' unique characteristics, which differentiate them from the previous generation, is obvious. The importance of adopting a generational approach to teaching a foreign language to digital generation learners is justified for some reasons. First and foremost, digital generation learners comprise the highest percentage of the current population among higher educational institutions and urge universities to reconsider and re-engineer the educational environment and approaches (Graf 2005, Jaleniauskienė and Jucevičienė 2015). Hence, considering the characteristics of the digital generation, regarding their learning style, needs and preferences, may provide instructors with a valid basis for choosing the most appropriate teaching strategy. Second, exploring the student profile of a particular generation in the foreign language learning context can extend the literature on digital generation characteristics and language education. Moreover, the empirical investigation of the applicability of the generation-specific characteristics to developing a foreign language course may provide the strategies aimed at both effective language knowledge acquisition and the development of digital generation personalities. Furthermore, the comprehensive and multilevel methodological approach,

suggested in this study, may create a framework for developing teaching strategies based on digital generation learners' characteristics in foreign language teaching.

2. Theoretical Framework

The concept of generation is chosen as a theoretical background to investigate whether characteristics of digital generation learners may influence the way they approach the task of learning a foreign language and whether the characteristics may be used to develop an effective English language teaching course. Within the framework of the Generational Theory developed by W. Strauss and N. Howe (1991) and their followers, generations are defined as different cohorts of people who are shaped during their formative years by their socio-economic and political environment, historical events, and related phenomena, which create a distinct gap between the generations (Parry and Urwin 2011, Scholz 2019, Shamis 2019). Researchers have approached the characteristics of the digital generation from different perspectives.

From the perspective of social sciences, a contrastive approach is considered to be the best when analyzing generations, when even minor changes may appear. When comparing and contrasting two digital generations in Europe, Generation Y (1980 to 1994) and Generation Z (born after 1995), the generational theory researchers pointed to information technology as the common driving force for these two generations (Scholz, 2019). Despite this, these digital generations differ a lot in terms of their beliefs and attitudes toward careers, politics, and education. What differentiates generation Y and generation Z is the structured system of education that the latter generation got used to and their expectations of this structure in everyday situations; their expectations of being taken care of and a feel-good environment at home, at school, at work (Scholz 2019, Jaleniauskienė and Jucevičiene 2015).

From the pedagogical perspective, digital generation learners are placed under much scrutiny about their learning environment and performance. Born in the network society and engaged in technology-based socialization, they are characterized by multimedia literacy, Internet and social media addiction, distraction, different ways of reading and thinking, individualism, unwillingness to work in groups, overprotection, pragmatism, preferring intensive work, creativity, impatience (Jaleniauskienė and Jucevičienė 2015, Cowan 2014, Nechaev and Durneva 2016, Sapa 2014).

E. Jaleniauskienė and P. Jucevičienė (2015) identified characteristics of the latest generation of learners about the impact they may impose on their learning. Among their most common characteristics that have a positive impact on learning are greater technological advancement, reliance on a bigger number of constantly connected devices and possession of numerous sources of information, feeling comfortable in online communication and collaboration, worldliness, and strongly developed skills for navigating and creativity.

The most common characteristics that have a detrimental impact on learning are being susceptible to distractions, having strong multitasking skills, loss of face-to-face communication skills, loss of social skills, infantilism, individualism, a different method of reading, the feeling of being overprotected, preference for games instead of serious work, vulnerability when facing challenges and difficulties in real-world situations, impatience, and preference for speed instead of accuracy.

Undoubtedly, technology-dominated backgrounds, and different learning and social preferences of the latest digital generation learners intensively affect higher education (Buzzetto-Hollywood and Alade 2018). Being driven by the necessity to satisfy the digital generation learners' learning preferences and needs, educators may introduce strategies aimed at substituting social skills courses with information technology courses (Scholz 2019), which may deprive technology-driven learners of the social activity model of behaviour. Another challenge facing instructors and course designers is the necessity to identify what delivery mode is the most effective for teaching digital generation: traditional, online, or hybrid (blended) instructional format.

As far as online learning format is concerned, both researchers and practitioners have conducted much investigation about its efficiency in terms of students' overall performance and their attitudes and perceptions towards learning. Some research findings showed mixed student feelings about online learning. Some students reported their positive perceptions of online courses that required much learner autonomy (Huang 2002). Several studies found no significant difference between the online and traditional learning formats regarding student satisfaction and student learning (Shelley et al. 2007).

Even though there proved to be no distinctive student performances in online classes compared to traditional classes, attitudinal measures revealed students' more positive reactions to their web-based instructional experiences. (Newlin et al. 2005). During the COVID-19 pandemic, many students liked online learning for such reasons as "safety, comfort, economic reasons, and having more time in general" (Sevy-Biloon 2021, 15).

Nevertheless, the disadvantages of online instruction are manifold and cause considerable concerns among both learners and instructors. One of the major concerns is the lack of social interaction in online courses which negatively affects their learning outcomes and their motivation. This became obvious during the pandemic of COVID-19 when "little interaction between classmates and teachers" was the most common reason for student dissatisfaction and lower learning outcomes (Sevy-Biloon 2021, 15). The researchers agreed on the necessity for the course designers to focus their attention on those elements that could support the unique experiences of students exposed to the online delivery mode and yield positive student attitudes, and on the necessity for the academic institutions to create effective online learning environments (Reisetter et al. 2007, Papastrergiou 2006). For example, encouraging instructor support and student-to-student interactions through group work might enhance online learning (Biggs et al. 2006, Hiltz et al. 2000). Another concern is changing the expectations of students. For example, students expect instructor responses to email and discussion boards to occur shortly after the students post their queries (Fox 2007).

Due to the obvious negative sides of online instruction, the hybrid or blended instructional format is gaining momentum. Not surprisingly, higher satisfaction was expressed by students enrolled on a hybrid course format that incorporated online activities with traditional, face-to-face delivery (Marcketti and Yurchisin 2005). This hybrid delivery method, also known as blended, online learning helps to overcome the disadvantages of a completely online environment and ensures the benefits of personal interaction with the convenience and flexibility of online assignments and discussions (Lamport and Hill 2012).

Currently, although there are different views on accommodating generation-specific characteristics to learning practices, most researchers and practitioners tend to agree that the university environment should be created based on the generation profile. Despite their obvious preferences for a technology-driven educational environment, the digital generation learners should be offered a learning environment which encompasses classroom, informal

and virtual environments as a single, integrated environment (Jaleniauskienė and Jucevičienė 2015).

Within the context of foreign language teaching, innovative digital educational technologies have been widely used in the EFL settings (Wang 2016, Nutta 2013, Abassy, Delvand and Heidar 2020, Akiyama 2019, Lim and Pyun 2019, Yen et al. 2015, Sumtsova 2015). Computer-based and web-based instruction has been acknowledged as efficient technologies in the language classroom, which can promote both language skills, such as vocabulary learning (Wang 2016), grammar learning (Nutta 2013), listening skills (Delvand and Heidar 2020), and more effective learning environment (Alodail 2014, Lau et al. 2014, Nutta 2013). An increasingly effective instructional medium for developing communicative language competences is videoconferencing, which contributes to effective learners' vocabulary acquisition (Akiyama 2019), and considerable progress in listening and speaking skills (Lim and Pyun 2019), writing and speaking skills (Yen et al. 2015).

2.1. Statement of the problem

In the aforementioned studies, the relationship between digital generation learners' characteristics and their performance and perceptions of the learning environment has been a subject of extensive research, although it has not been developed much in foreign language teaching studies. Little attention has been paid to investigating what teaching strategies can be implicated to enhance motivation, develop positive attitudes, and ensure the high performance of digital generation learners when developing their foreign language competence.

The considerations mentioned in the theoretical framework section would lead to the following implications for foreign language teaching: 1) the time borders between the generations are not sharp ones, which implies that the differences between two digital generations (generation Y and generation Z) are not as relevant as the differences between generation X and both digital generations Y and Z; 2) situational factors during youth may lead to different variations of one generation in different areas of a country; 3) the instructional approach to digital generation learners should be based on the comprehensive analysis of their needs, preferences and expectations of the learning environment; 4) teaching strategies should be aimed at comprehensive and consistent development of foreign language competence. Within this investigation, we do not intend to analyse the factors that affect the characteristics of the cohort of technology-driven learners. Rather, their generational characteristics are important as the learning inputs. Furthermore, the current research adopted an umbrella term of the digital generation and approached the task by combining the characteristics as the literature on both the first and second digital generation suggests. This generalization may seem to lead to some confusion, on the one hand; on the other hand, this approach may prevent us from overlooking some intrinsic features of EFL learners in the higher education environment.

This study aims at identifying characteristics of digital generation learners from the foreign language teaching perspective and at developing a foreign language teaching strategy based on this learner profile to promote their effective learning. We assume that in learning a foreign language, digital generation learners demonstrate better educational outcomes and express more positive attitudes to their learning process when they have a web-based student-centred rather than traditional teacher-centred instructional format.

3. METHODS

The study was conducted with 62 students of Economics at Perm State University in Russia, taking an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course. Thirty-five (56%) were males and twenty-seven (44%) were females. Thirty-two participants (17 males, 15 females) were members of three experimental groups and thirty participants (18 males, 12 females) were in three control groups. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 20, with a median of 19 years (SD = 0.7). They were supposed to belong to the same generation. Age and gender were kept as fixed variables. The same instructor was responsible for all the classes.

The empirical base of the study was meant to be the results of the entrance and final tests identifying students' level of English language competence, the students' responses to a survey that was developed to identify the behaviour of the digital generation young people in situations related to learning a foreign language and the students' responses to a questionnaire about their attitude to the language learning process in the course.

The tests to assess students' proficiency in English were done in the DIALANG diagnostic system available at www.dialangweb.lancaster.ac.uk. They were conducted at the beginning and the end of the course. The competences assessed were reading, writing, listening, grammar and vocabulary. Students used the system from its website free of charge.

The survey on the behaviour of the digital generation learning English was given to students before the beginning of the course. It included a series of questions adapted from the previous studies: 1) the questionnaire by Hans Jürgen Eysenck which was designed to measure two major dimensions of personality, namely extroversion and neuroticism, and to identify behavioural characteristics whose significance depends on their relation to a sufficiently wide range of life situations (Eysenck 1958); 2) the questionnaire developed by Kenney which can be used to identify the main traits of digital generation respondents (Kenney 2015); 3) the questionnaire aimed at disclosing digital students' attitude to digital technology (Seemiller and Grace 2016). The survey was created with the help of Simpoll (https://simpoll.ru), which is an online platform for developing surveys. Each student received a link for the survey and was able to answer the questions at a convenient time and pace.

The questionnaire contained the following set of 20 questions:

1) Do you like tasks that require to be focused on minute details?
2) Is it difficult for you to feel at ease in a large group of people?
3) Do you like to be a leader in a group activity?
4) Do you get upset easily?
5) Do you often argue about things you are quite ignorant about?
6) Do you feel unhappy when you can't communicate with many people?
7) Do you often want to be alone?
8) Do you often find it difficult to concentrate?
9) Are you a sensitive person?
10) Do you often act quickly and confidently?
11) Do you work well on a team?
12) Do you prefer to work on a project alone or with 1 or 2 of your friends?
13) Do you prefer to work on a project alone or with a large group of people?
14) What are your main sources of information?
15) What technology do you use?

16) Can you concentrate on a long text for a long time?
17) Do you think pictures, graphs, tables, and other visuals make information more understandable?
18) Do you want to get constant feedback about your performance?
19) Do you appreciate your teacher's support in your study?
20) Do you feel upset if your teacher ignores you?

At the end of the course, all the participants of the study were asked to answer a questionnaire about their attitude to the language learning process. The respondents were asked three questions:

1) Can you measure your English classes in the past three months on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is 'I liked my classes very much' and 5 – 'I disliked my classes'?
2) Are you going to study English in the future?
3) What are the main reasons for your interest in learning English?

The EAP course was the offline course that formed the context for this study in all student groups. During the course, students of experimental and control groups were introduced to broad academic skills. They learnt to acquire the knowledge and use the skills that they can implement during their academic course and in specific academic situations in the future. Students acquired academic writing skills, which were essential for doing academic writing tasks. These tasks varied from writing graphs and bar chart descriptions to academic essays. Accurate grammar, punctuation, and language use were important components of the EAP course writing classes, along with specific teaching of the formal language. In addition, students were introduced to various text types, linking words and signposting expressions. Academic listening involved listening to lectures or discussions in English and writing adequate notes on them. To improve their academic speaking skills, young people were given practice in making presentations, taking part in discussions on academic topics and other activities. Likewise, they studied reading strategies such as skimming to understand the gist and scanning to find specific information and analysed how texts can be structured. The course textbook was IELTS Masterclass by Simon Haines and Peter May.

As mentioned above, the course content within all student groups was the same as well as the course textbook, but under the experiment, students were randomly assigned to two instructional formats presenting the course materials: a web-based student-centred instructional format (experimental) and a traditional teacher-centred instructional format (control).

The web-based student-centred instructional format meant using a special digital generation-specific teaching strategy developed based on the students' responses to the questionnaire given at the beginning of the study, whereas the traditional teacher-centred instructional format did not take into consideration the digital learners' profile.

In the experimental groups, students were placed at the centre of the learning process. Within the framework of a student-centred approach, the instructor used such teaching methods as active learning, flipped classroom and problem-based learning. Very often students were given the topic before their classes through well-structured online audiovisual materials: short texts, videos, films, presentations, and mind maps. Then in class, they discussed its key aspects presenting their interpretation of an issue in small groups of four to six students.

The topics were taken from the course textbook, but students were allowed to refer to other sources of information at their discretion. During the course information was presented in a multimodal format. Apart from doing tasks from the course textbook, the instructor in the groups created presentations and graphic images which incorporated

web-based information in the interactive format. Stepik online platform (https://stepik.org) was chosen to be the software environment for the course. Some texts, listening tasks and discussion questions from the course textbook were given to students on the platform. Along with Stepik, a VK group (https://vk.com) was created. The main aim of the group was to provide constant access to all necessary materials and to allow the students to be in touch with their teacher at any time. Once a week students were offered face-to-face meetings with their teacher so that they could receive instructional support in dealing with any problems that they experienced.

In the control groups, a teacher-centred examination-driven traditional instructional approach was used. The teacher took the most active, leading role using preferably the PPP (Presentation, Practice and Production) teaching method. The usage of a concept or an item was demonstrated by the teacher. Then students had a teacher-assisted practice: they asked for help if there were any difficulties during the completion of a task. In the last stage, production, learners worked with minimal help, but the instructor was always ready for assistance. All the tasks were taken from the course textbook.

4. Results and Discussion

The research explored the characteristics of digital generation students from the foreign language teaching perspective and students' performance and perceptions of EAP learning in a web-based student-centred instructional format and a traditional teacher-centred instructional format.

The survey conducted at the beginning of the study uncovered that digital generation learners preferred the flexibility of a web-based format of information delivery. The habitual way of obtaining information for them was from the screen of their digital devices in the form of fragmented well-structured short texts. This concurs well with preceding findings in the literature. Gibson (2016) emphasizes that learners who belong to the digital generation have "shorter attention spans" and "their ability to multitask is developed by constant screen exposure". Some scholars believe that this generation of young people has preferences for simplification and prefers small pieces of online information with pictures (Gibson 2016, Lenhart 2015, Törőcsik et al. 2014).

In addition, students reported that although they did not tend to work in large groups being very individualistic, they often appreciated cooperative learning and liked working in small groups. Their responses are consistent with the findings of the research conducted by Teh Ya Yee and Moy Tow Yoon (2019), who reported on the positive learning experiences of cooperative learning from both the group and individual perspectives, and by Seemiller and Grace (2017), who found that digital generation students prefer both independent learning and working in small groups (Seemiller and Grace 2017).

Furthermore, the survey showed that representatives of the digital generation expect to be given constant support from their teachers and if they are not, digital students feel upset. This is confirmed by the findings of Cowan's study (2014). He assumes that support is vital for the digital generation of young people, and their teacher should "scaffold their activities through feedback" (Cowan 2014).

The characteristics of digital generation students identified after the analysis of the questionnaire responses were taken as a basis for a digital generation-specific teaching strategy of the web-based student-centred instructional format of the course. The format

was introduced in experimental groups. Special attention was paid to two basic concepts, teacher confirmation and informatization, which were assumed to be of vital importance for foreign language teaching for students of the digital generation. These concepts are related to the basic characteristics of digital students, which were revealed. By the term 'informatization' we mean the integrated use of information technologies which can help to create a comfortable atmosphere for the digital generation students' learning. Teacher confirmation is defined as the interaction between students and educators in which teachers make students feel they are valuable individuals (Shen and Croucher 2018). The highest level of teacher confirmation appears to be significant for designing the generation-specific teaching strategy because the high level of teacher confirmation is in strict compliance with the students' constant need for their teacher's support, which was demonstrated in their responses.

As the main purpose of the study was to evaluate a traditional teacher-centred instructional format and a web-based student-centred instructional format in terms of their efficiency for digital generation learners, we compared the results of the students' entrance and final tests identifying their level of English language competence done before the beginning of the course and at the end of the course. Table 1 presents the percentages of students who received A2, B1 and B2 grades in experimental and control groups across the two-time points.

Table 1 Percentages of students with grades A2, B1 and B2 grades.

Grade	Entrance test		Final test	
	Percentage of students		Percentage of students	
	Experimental groups	Control groups	Experimental groups	Control groups
A2	40	43	20	37
B1	51	50	65	54
B2	9	7	15	9

Students in the experimental groups demonstrated better educational outcomes in their final test in comparison with the control groups' students. Taking into consideration the fact that the initial grades of students were practically equal, it can be claimed that using a web-based student-centred instructional format in groups of digital generation learners is worthwhile as it increases their language proficiency. We assume that the chosen web-based student-centred instructional format contributed to the progress identified in the experimental groups for several reasons.

Firstly, course materials presented in a compressed, well-structured visual mode in the forms of presentation, mini texts and videos given online helped the students to keep their concentration for a long time because students of the digital generation better memorize information introduced in such a way. Secondly, face-to-face meetings with their teacher were effective because digital generation learners consider personal contact to be an integral part of their teacher's performance and enjoy the learning environment when their activities are scaffolded through their teacher's feedback. Thirdly, being individualistic, digital generation students like individual learning. This preference for much autonomy was considered, and the students of the experimental groups had a chance to think over the material on their own before they took part in discussions. Following this characteristic, we introduced the flipped

classroom method. However, we considered the fact that their complete independence may have made them “less confident as long as challenges and difficulties emerge” (Cowan 2014) and organized discussions in small groups, which was useful for students as they acquired new learning methods by observing how their peers studied.

Along with the changes in educational outcomes, we examined the changes in the students’ attitude to the language learning process in general at the end of the course. The responses given by the students showed that the young people in the experimental groups were more likely to continue learning English in the future (95%). They mentioned that the atmosphere in which they studied was pleasant and engaging. The majority of the students in the experimental groups liked their English classes very much (90%). Furthermore, the majority of respondents in the experimental groups (91%) noted an increase in their motivation to study. The survey demonstrated their positive reaction to the introduction of the web-based student-centred instructional format of the course. In contrast to the experimental groups, most respondents in the control groups did not show an intention to continue learning English (78%) and they described their English classes as useful but a bit boring and monotonous and said that they had quite a neutral attitude to them (85%). The motivation increase was mentioned by about 5% of students in the control groups.

5. Conclusion

The study explored the characteristics of digital generation learners from the foreign language teaching perspective and examined the efficiency of a web-based student-centred instructional format based on these characteristics in comparison with a traditional teacher-centred instructional format. It was found that generational characteristics are important as learning inputs when approaching the task of developing a foreign language teaching course for digital generation students. The research findings are universally applicable and can serve as a basis for organising English for Academic Purposes courses in institutions of higher education presenting a practical framework for developing an effective educational environment for digital generation learners.

Nevertheless, a number of limitations have to be acknowledged and further research would be essential. In particular, a larger sample of students from several universities in various geographical areas can be analysed. Additional work needs to be done to examine learners' perception of their teacher's communication behaviours, which can influence the educational outcomes and students’ attitudes to the learning process. Furthermore, it is recommended to broaden the scope of study to multi-level cultural contexts.

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Review research paper

VIDEO TUTORIALS AS POTENTIAL ALLIES IN ESP CLASSROOM

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Abstract. *The use of video materials as teaching aids in ESP courses has been advised and widely practiced by ESP scholars for decades. In the highly technologically developed and networked world of today which has given rise to a cyber culture and on-line education, video tutorials have emerged not that long ago as a platform for sharing knowledge on various scientific, professional and every-day topics. Bearing this in mind, the paper has an intention to explore how technical video tutorials can be used in ESP classroom with technology students. In view of promoting the deep learning strategy which insists on implementation of digital technologies in the 21st century education, this paper will pinpoint the effects of technical video tutorials on the learning process in ESP settings, observe student reactions to guest tutors and their short video-lectures, and analyze some of the outcomes of this type of instruction.*

Key words*: video tutorial, ESP, deep learning strategy*

1. INTRODUCTION

Digitalization in the 21st century has brought a wide range of opportunities for learning, making the internet a legitimate source of information and materials to study from. Video tutorials, for instance, are continuously being created and uploaded on the internet due to an ever present need to share information with the goal to instruct, give advice, or provide solutions. This kind of video content is readily available and followed in households out of an urge to collect more knowledge on various topics.

There are many different forms that video tutorials can take. They can be made in the format of screencasts or screen recordings, audio files, written documents, or interactive videos in which the tutor and the viewers establish a special bond based on the same interests, or a shared problem. The fact that video tutorials not only provide original content to the viewers, but also make a strong visual impact on them, positions them high on a scale of effective teaching materials which contribute to the efficacy of learning.

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2. IMPORTANCE OF VIDEO MATERIALS IN ESL

Video materials have been used in language tuition since the 1970s and many studies conducted in the meantime have proven the effectiveness of *videos* in teaching English as a second language. However, the effects of *video tutorials* still need to be thoroughly examined, especially in the area of ESP where they could be put to the greatest usage; therefore, this paper can be seen as one of the attempts to come to certain conclusions on the application of video tutorials as teaching aids in the context of ESP.

So far, studies have shown that videos can be a great motivation to students, triggering their attentiveness and enthusiasm for language learning. Hansch et al. (2015) support this thesis by stating that online learning videos *build rapport* and *motivate learners*, which is achieved by providing a meaningful content and context that is related to real-life experiences. Ultimately, videos "help students in gaining confidence as they repeat and imitate real models using the target language" (Radosavlevikj and Hajrullai, 2019: 183).

Besides their motivational role, videos make the learning process easier and more effective by clarifying sometimes very complex concepts though visual cues they provide. As Hick, Hughes and Stott (2011: 96) see it "the total context includes paralinguistic, linguistic and physical environment", therefore, the meaning is conveyed not only through the words, but also through the use of symbols, signs, gestures, sounds, and actions. Choi (2015: 23) points out that this means of instruction can "assist learners in interpreting the listening scripts by using all those non-verbal aspects of communication", making listening and comprehension tasks much more manageable.

All this leads to a better retention of the study material as Cruise (2007: 6) indicates, claiming that "the mix of spoken language, text, still images and moving images in television and video results in higher learning gains". His further findings show, for instance, that more than 50 percent of video content viewers actually use new vocabulary as a result of watching a video, which sheds light on videos as valuable language banks making language more memorable and ready for use. Similar studies, done by Lloyd and Robertson (2012), reveal that students tend to achieve better test results when being instructed through video sessions than by being exposed to textual tutorials.

Speaking in favour of video usage in the EL classroom, Radosavlevikj and Hajrullai (2019) emphasize the importance of video materials in teaching different types of EL learners. Since videos have an impact on different senses at the same time, visual-spatial learners can benefit from the presented images, auditory-sequential students from the sound and the speech recordings, whereas individuals that rely on tactile-kinesthetic strategy can learn through demonstrative actions displayed in videos. This way individual learning styles are taken into consideration, which can be especially important in an ESP classroom settings, since such classrooms are quite often heterogenous. Constantinou and Papadima-Sophocleus (2020: 18) stress that in ESP classrooms, technologies "become a source of authentic materials, opening a window to the world and exposing the learners to real life language use in their specific disciplines". Thus, it is possible to view upon video tutorials as tools that can cater the needs of different learners coming from different learning environments with different level of preknowledge, ensuring that each individual gets a proper stimulus for the learning activity in the context of authentic specialized language.

A very good platform for promoting the usage of digital tools in education, and especially in ESP classes, is a deep learning strategy. This is a teaching method which ensures "learning through discovering and mastering existing knowledge and then creating

and using new knowledge in the world" (Fullan and Langworthy, 2014: 21). It advocates for developing technological literacy in learners, intending to grant them full digital citizenship; therefore, it sees technology as an enabler and accelerator of learning. In the context of deep learning, "technology directly supports the new learning partnerships and it becomes the foundation of deep learning tasks" (Fullan and Langworthy, 2014: 32).

Not surprisingly, VanderArk and Schneider (2012: 13) point out that deep learning and digital learning are, in fact, compatible as means of instruction, so that deep learning can also take benefits on several grounds such as "personalized skill building", "schools and tools", and "extended access and expanded options" through the capacities that digital props provide. The same authors mention that it is through this synergy that student "success factors such as engagement, motivation and persistance" can be increased, which is one of the main reasons why the video tutorial research to be presented in this paper was theoretically and methodologically grounded in no other, but the deep learning strategy itself (2012: 26).

3. Importance of Video Materials in the Context of Deep Learning

Deep learning as one of the prominent learning strategies in the 21st century insists on the usage of digital resources for teaching purposes, out of an awareness that learners should be made digitally literate and capable of implementing technology for the studying benefit. The utmost goal of this way of instruction is to create highly competent individuals equipped with a full set of skills, both content and career oriented, which are needed by the labor sector.

In practice, deep learning actually requires a skill of adaptation to the new learning contexts, by relying on pre-knowledge and already lived experience. This said, it is clear that many learning opportunities and platforms should be created by teachers to motivate learners develop "survival skills" in the new, unexplored territories of knowledge. In particular, this implies the usage of online platforms, sources and formats, making video tutorials a suitable resource in this respect.

Through the lense of deep learning, technical devices and digital contents can just foster learner autonomy and responsibility for the process of learning, since this educational system allows lerners to develop skills and gain knowledge at their own pace, following their own interests and needs. Motteram (2013) points out that digital technologies help teachers work with learners, but also make learners very active in *languaging* through their independent work on the web-based content.

Taking into consideration the said principles of deep learning, and promoting this trend of learning in the area of higher education, an ESP research has been conducted among the freshmen of Road Traffic and Industrial Engineering departments at the Academy of Applied Technical and Preschool Studies in Niš. The study involved 20 students from each department who took part in four workpackages: 1. completion of an innitial questionnaire designed to investigate student attitudes towards video tutorials in general, 2. implementation of a specific ESP video tutorial project, 3. completion of a feedback questionnaire meant to explore student preferences in regard to the video tutorial project, and finally 4. oral examination about the topic presented in tutorials.

4. THE VIDEO PROJECT OUTLINE[1]

4.1. Initial phase

Primarily, it was important to check if the students had any previous, out of the classroom experience in using tutorials, so as to see how versed they were in using such visual materials. For this purpose, a student questionnaire comprising 10 questions was prepared and distributed by the teacher at the beginning of the project. The aim of the initial questionnaire was to collect data on how students perceive tutorials, that is, whether they see them as materials they watch for fun, as potential tools which can be used in self-education, or as a combination of both.

The frequency of watching tutorials was a significant aspect for analysis too, based on a presumption that exposure to such visuals could have had a substantial impact on developing ESP skills. The longer hours students spent watching these materials online, the more they were exposed to the English language and in contact with specific terminology of ESP, which could offer them an opportunity to accumulate linguistic competence in their specific professional field.

To support the research further, the attitude of students in regard to trustiness and authenticity of tutorials as educational resources was taken under scrutiny as well. The fact that students trust tutorials and value them as a reliable source of information could also provide an insight into their habits as users of tutorials and indicate to what extent they were ready to rely on this kind of materials in their learning processes.

Related to this, it was also necessary to determine which criteria the students themselves were using for assessing the quality of video tutorials. Therefore, they were given a list of assets to choose from (by circling one or more options) such as the picture, the sound, the content, the text, or the overall feel of the visuals.

In addition, the students had to self-evaluate their own English language skills pertaining to tutorials. On the one hand, they were to assess how difficult it might be to follow this type of content and understand it. On the other hand, they had to state if they could benefit from tutorials, in terms of gaining language skills and/or broadening perspectives in their field of study.

Last but not least, the questionnaire was set to investigate creativity in students as far as the production of their original content in the form of video tutorials was concerned. For this purpose, they had to identify strengths and weaknesses regarding both their inner technical and language apparatuses, and come up with an outline for their professional tutorial, which could be developed as a follow-up activity to this project.

4.2. Project task

The focal stage of the project was conceptualized upon watching three different video tutorials on forklift operation. This specific topic was selected with the reference to the curriculum for Road Traffic and Industrial Engineering study programs and in alignment with the students' real-life experience as B category drivers. To operate a forklift requires skills that B category drivers do not gain when taking their driving lessons. However, forklift operation is similar enough to driving a car, which could inspire interest in

[1] Video tutorial project outline can be accessed at the following link https://www.vtsnis.edu.rs/predmeti/poslovni-engleski-jezik/

students and provide a sound foundation for building up knowledge on the driving activity itself. This way the students were asked to rely on their previous knowledge and skills, and use this asset in the new learning environment, which is one of the core principles of the deep learning strategy.

The first video (*Forklift training-basic operations*, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fc0JWk19Z7I) was the longest and linguistically most demanding one, but at the same time it served as a proper introduction to the topic. The goal of this particular activity was to make students listen for details, pick up the important language such as words, terms and phrases, and utilize the specific language in context to produce meaningful answers. The idea behind this activity was to strive for a linguistic boost and to gain a theoretical input on how to drive such vehicles.

A practical dimension to the project, which could indicate to what extent the students actually understood the instructions on forklift operation in English and how successfully they could apply them in real life, was left out from the research out of objective and safety-wise reasons. The higher education institution where the research had been conducted, did not have any forklifts in stock, nor could it possibly organize a training with the third party involving so many students, incorporating all the safety regulations that had to be met in order to implement a risk-free practical driving test.

However, after watching the first video tutorial, the students were equipped with substantial theoretical knowledge on how forklifts operate, since the first video explained all the actions performed by the fork lift (FL) operators in great detail. This included information on driving instructions, safety-tips, rules for loading and unloading the pallets, vehicle maintenance checks, etc. This helped in fostering language confidence, which was further on embedded through a set of ten comprehension questions that the students had to respond to.

The second video (*Crown 5500 controls tutorial*, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=G7D3a_dLmJI) was a tutorial on the use of a special mark of a fork lift vehicle, that is Crown 5500. Some of the instructions given here differed from the ones the students could get in the previous video. Therefore, this activity was useful for developing analytic skills in students, through the process of comparison and contrast where students could make inferences on different types of fork lift vehicles. The second video was accompanied by 5 comprehension questions, since it was much shorter in length than the first video tutorial.

The third video (*Lift-reach truck training*, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PfMGYnTdahw&ab_channel=LIFTTraining) was not focused on performances of fork lift vehicles, although some additional features in this respect were revealed, such as displaying data on the control panel, but it was more informative on the driving skills that could be gained through practical training. The students could see what kind of drill the fork lift operators should get and the specific tasks they had to do, like avoiding physical obstacles in their way, driving in reverse, going in between the road markings, etc. This particular video helped students learn not only about the technical specifications of FLVs, but also about the skills needed to operate them by observing the real actions exhibited by the FL operators. The last video was accompanied by 4 comprehension questions; therefore, the students had 19 questions in total to complete for their homework assignment, which was a very extensive writing exercise to do, and a very good way to promote writing skills and expand a word bank in the domain of specialized language. Since *writing* is seen as one

of the principal language activities in deep learning, it has been widely used here to ensure the success of the process of learning.

4.3. Post project phase

In order to analyze the level of student compliance and satisfaction with the set project activities, a feedback questionnaire was administered to them and collected after completing the video tutorial assignment. The purpose of the feedback was to find out which one of the three video tutorials was most suitable for learning English and improving ESP skills from the students' point of view.

The students were invited to evaluate the quality and the appeal of tutorials, express their emotions towards them, rate the performance and skills of individual tutors who appeared in the videos, and single out the video that was most useful, interesting, professional and self-explanatory of them all. Also, they had to state their opinion on the overall project, by giving their votes for or against video tutorials as potential means of instruction in ESP classes.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Initial questionnaire

The analysis of the initial questionnaire has shown that students from both RT/IE departments take a very similar stance on video tutorials. Namely, the majority of students in both groups stated that video tutorials are, above all, proper educational tools for them. The students also suggested that tutorials are useful when wanting to learn something new, and that they are a good source of information to be collected on their field of study. Bearing this in mind, video tutorials can be seen as treasuries of various types of knowledge to dive into when one feels a need to gain knowledge on matters of his/her interest. Therefore, if students were ready to use tutorials at home to satisfy different educational needs, there is no reason they would not be using them more often in the classroom. Extensive research in this area has already proven in practice that videos can inspire interest in studying, clarify the content, and introduce professional topics which would otherwise be difficult to grasp without the use of such visual props.

In regard to reliability of video tutorials, both groups of examinees expressed a certain amount of doubt in the accuracy of such online sources, which indicates that students as viewers do take caution when accessing web content, finding it reliable, but only *sometimes*. The fact that students seem to be reserved towards video tutorials is seen here as the reflection of their sharp critical sense capable of choosing good from bad material, and an urge for watching high quality content that can offer meaningful, checked and verified information on professional topics.

Agreement was also achieved by both samples as it comes to the quality of the selected video materials. It has been concluded by both groups that a video tutorial must include not one, but all of the following aspects, that is, high quality picture, sound, content and text, in order to be considered a good web product. Therefore, the expectations of students from video tutorials seem to be high and most likely based on the need to hear and read some good English, and find out relevant information on the subject matter of their study.

Both RT and IE students think that watching video tutorials is a good way of learning English and claim that they do not experience any difficulties in understanding the content, showing that their receptive language skills are well-developed for this kind of activity.

However, although the students agree that making a professional video tutorial on their own would be a creative task, the lack of content knowledge in RT students, that is, inadequate English language skills in IE students, is something that would slow the process down and make it difficult for them to handle the task, according to their own self-assessment. In view of improving the chances for a success of such a project, some extra work then would have to be done on the part of the teacher in order to boost confidence in them as learners, and this would ask for more practice in the area of productive skills. Good writing and speaking in English, but also a proper command of computer skills in making and editing videos, would be the key competencies to target. This would definitely require more practice in ESP classes as well as within their IT courses.

A slight departure in results has been noticed only pertaining to the frequency of watching video tutorials. Whereas the RT department students tend to watch more tutorials and do it on a daily basis, students from the IE department access such materials less often, but still do it every week. However, this is substantial evidence to claim the popularity and attractiveness of the video tutorial format among the young generation, which should be taken as an advantage by teachers who struggle having their ESP class attentive and active enough throughout the course.

In addition, it could be seen that video tutorials really could inspire creativity in some students, who came up with presentable ideas for their own content. The Road Traffic students, for instance, thought of videos that could speak about traffic safety, different types of vehicles and their performances, or the rules for cyclists in traffic and the reasons why cycling should be promoted as an activity. On the other hand, the students from the Industrial Engineering department followed their own interests and mentioned possible videos on PC parts, laboratory equipment and instruments, driving maneuvers on vehicles and the like. Other ideas were given as well, but they were a bit vague or too general, speaking about non-professional topics.

All the above-mentioned suggests that video tutorials with their expected positive effects on students could be used as teaching tools and incorporated in the ESP syllabus, especially given the needs of students as learners and their positive attitude to video lesson formats.

5.2. Main project task

The results of the central stage of the video tutorial project have revealed a great amount of dedication and devotion on the part of students, who took the activity seriously and invested themselves a lot in completing it. Students' answers to the comprehension questions, as it turns out, are concrete, elaborate and precise, with accurate wording and sentence structure, so there is no evidence of misunderstanding the content in any way. It should be admitted though that one of the significant factors influencing the students' performance here could have been the fact that the students did the project at home, without any time-constraints, meaning they could pause, rewind, replay and re-watch the materials as many times as they wanted, thus soothing their individual needs as learners.

A tendency to copy chunks of the text from the video titles was noticeable upon several occasions, but this does not have to be seen as a flaw to the project, given different capabilities

of students as language users, some of them being at a higher, some of them at a lower level of ESP aptitude. Since each video tutorial has an incorporated textual support in English, students could both read from the videos and listen to them, this being a learning strategy with a multiple effect on their senses, and possibly a strategy that might have eased the process of learning for them.

In addition, the consistency of the topic throughout the video tutorials and a lot of repetition of the subject-specific language, also had an important role in clarifying the study material, and thus on retaining it more easily, as it was proved later during the oral examination. The students were assessed not only based on their writing skills obtained through the video tutorial project assignment, but also based on their spoken communication when asked to defend orally their video projects as part of the final exam. Even after the time elapsed, the students could remember the content, the language and the structures from the videos, as it was exhibited during the interviews with the teacher, when they showed a very good command of specific terminology and the topic in general, the ability to compare and contrast the videos, and identify different features of FL vehicles.

5.3. Feedback questionnaire

Feedback from the students received upon completion of the video project gave significant findings to the teacher that could be used for selecting appropriate tutorials for future instruction in ESP classes. Namely, all three videos covered the same topic, but not all of them were created in the same format, which could also have had a different impact on students as viewers and receptors of the video content. Since the teacher is not an expert in the field, such findings could be quite useful coming from students who are trained to become professionals in the field.

This study actually shows that students from both groups of examinees singled out the first and the third video as the most interesting, the first one also being considered the most professional, whereas the second video was rated as boring by the RT students and the least professional by both groups.

Based on this, it can be concluded that video materials which lack a pragmatic aspect to themselves and are not demystifying of how certain operations are done in practice, are not that well received nor understood by the learners. This is because they rely on a static picture and the talk of a narrator/tutor who is hidden behind the camera. For this reason, the second video was also rated as the least understandable one, apart from being boring and unprofessional.

On the other hand, students' reaction to the third video in which it is possible to see the tutor perform the actions and hear him talk giving plenty of information, was much better, and almost as good as the reaction to the first video. In the first video, one can see the actions performed by a third party and hear the expert narrator who leaves the impression of being highly-competent, well-informed, and skilled in the subject matter. The tutor from the first and the tutor from the third videos were rated as persons of trust and those who provided the best explanations as mentioned by the RT and IE students respectively. RT students selected the first video as the most useful one, but were more in favor of the third video in terms of likeability. On the other hand, IE students thought that all three videos were equally useful, but opted for the first video as the one they liked best.

The final remark of students on the project itself and tutorials as educational means turned out to be positive and highly supportive of the methodology used, as the findings

of the feedback questionnaire indicate. RT students have noted that the video project was useful and interesting, but at the same time quite challenging, being perceived as a bit harder activity than their usual ESP tasks. As they have stated, the project was an interesting new way of learning English, but at the same time a good way for getting familiar with professional topics through theoretical and visual instructions.

The IE students were a bit scantier in giving comments, but they still spoke in favor of the project and the video tutorials stating that they could be seen as useful means for studying ESP, stressing the importance of the native tutor's language skills as a decisive factor in the process. This group of students expressed their strong belief that visuals (pictures and videos) provided to support the ESP lesson, could make learning much easier and more long-lasting.

6. CONCLUSION

According to the sources on Wikipedia, a video tutorial is "a method of transferring knowledge and may be used as a part of a learning process. More interactive and specific than a book or lecture, a tutorial seeks to teach by example and supply the information to complete a certain task". So, if not entirely, at least partially, tutorials could be used for educational purposes in order to obtain relevant professionaly-oriented information, or master problem-solving techniques for a specific professional challenge.

Bearing this in mind, tutors, as experts in the field, might be seen as persons with the potential of becoming "guest lecturers" in the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classroom, giving detailed explanations on specific professional topics and demonstrating how to apply expert knowledge in real life situations. This is especially important given the fact that ESP teachers do not possess the same level of content-based knowledge and skills.

However, the role of the ESP teacher does not necessarily have to be diminished in this kind of a teaching construct; on the contrary, the teacher is still needed by students to select appropriate video tutorials, prepare accompanying language activities for this type of instruction, observe learning outcomes, provide both lingustic and technical support, give feedback on students' work, and perform the assessment.

This way, a good cooperation can be achieved between an ESP teacher and the tutor who is an expert in the field, provided that a video tutorial is authentic, and that the tutor him/herself is native in English, since these preconditions do ensure not only the transfer of professional knowledge to students, but also the transfer of important language skills to them as learners of a specialized discourse in ESP.

The study presented in this paper has confirmed the efficacy of using video tutorials in the context of ESP tuition, through both written and spoken learning outcomes achieved by students on a selected professional topic. As it turned out, the project task was both challenging and motivating for learners, making them more invested in the process of learning, which resulted in their competency to use the specialized language to speak and write with fluency. Besides, the video material used in the project was creative enough to inspire students for making outlines for their original video contents, which has revealed a potential of video tutorials for creative purposes as well.

Moreover, the study showed that students appreciate the type of video tutorials with both a narrator/tutor and a demonstrator, that is the person who performs the actions, since this kind of video material not only provides a theoretical input, but also reveals

some of the practical operations that are of interest to students who can also learn by observing these actions.

All in all, exposing students to video tutorials had a positive effect on their language skills, but also proved that such visual instruction is well received, which is an additional reason why video tutorials, having the power to make learning more interesting, should become an indispensable part of any ESP syllabus.

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Review research paper

THE IMPACT OF AUTOMATED WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON EFL LEARNERS' ACADEMIC WRITING ACCURACY

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Abstract. *The positive effect of Corrective Feedback (CF) on students' writing performance has been a topic of dispute for a long time. The dominant belief around this issue is that students benefit from feedback to a certain extent. However, there is no consensus on what type of feedback can achieve that or the effect of CF provision on language learning in general. This study investigates the impact of Automated Written Corrective Feedback (AWCF), namely Grammarly AI-powered writing assistant, on students' academic writing accuracy. After being allotted to control and experimental groups, sixty-four university students participated in the study. The participants underwent a pre-test to validate their homogeneity and levels and a post-test to explore the effect of using Grammarly on the written work of the experimental group. The main finding of the research is that after 14 weeks of using Grammarly, the experimental group members showed a significant improvement in their written accuracy compared to the control members. Moreover, it was found that the progress was represented in a substantial drop in the number of errors pertaining to specific categories while errors of other types remained unaffected. The implications of the findings are discussed, and suggestions for further research are presented.*

Key words*: corrective feedback, Grammarly, AWE, WCF, error treatment*

1. INTRODUCTION

It has been widely acknowledged that "written accuracy is important in the real world" (Ferris 2011, 14). This importance stems mainly from the advent of English as lingua franca and a medium of instruction that requires students to use English for learning disciplinary courses and communicate their knowledge and information while studying at university and post-graduate levels (Coffin et al. 2003). It is also a basic need for academic professionals of different disciplines for scientific publishing, especially with the vast spread of the concept of publish-or-perish that requires them to write, mainly in English (Raitskaya and Tikhonova 2022). Furthermore, In the contexts of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and

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English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It is required to acquire the language and learn the disciplinary content (Wahyuningsih 2020, Utkina 2021)).

Therefore, teachers deprecate writing mistakes and consider them disgraceful. Accordingly, they consider it essential to provide Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) to learners, ask them to revise their work accordingly and repeat the process as often as possible (Burstein, Chodorow and Leacock 2004). Although WCF has been debated for a long time, no consensus has been reached regarding its effectiveness in improving writing performance. Some researchers defended its value for promoting learners' writing and stated that it "significantly improves accuracy" (Bitchener 2008, 15) and makes students "more confident in performing their academic writing task" (Wahyuningsih 2020, 13). Notwithstanding, other researchers, e.g. (J. Truscott 1996), thought contrariwise, stating that it is ineffective and even harmful for learning.

Parallel with the vast advances in computers and related technology; there has recently been considerable interest in Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE) which is a suite of software that automatically assesses students' writing. AWE was introduced in the EFL classroom setting to account for teachers' heavy workload that prohibits them from accurately following their students' writing (Burstein, Chodorow and Leacock 2004). It was recognised that AWE effectively checks students' spelling, grammar, word choice, tone, and plagiarism. However, there is also no decisive proof regarding their impact on improving students' written accuracy, i.e. appropriate use of grammatical conventions, punctuation and other writing mechanics, whether in the long or short term.

Many recent studies investigated AWE; however, most of these studies focused on how this technology can be used in teaching (Barrot 2020, Ghufron and Rosyida 2018, Li, Link and Hegelheimer 2015). Other studies explored how students can benefit from such technology (Jim 2018), yet others evaluated the types of feedback presented by AWE applications (Luo and Liu 2017). Relatively few studies have explored the effect of AWE application in improving students' performance in writing (Qassemzadeh and Soleimani 2016). As this is a significant aspect of research that can generate insightful implications on the use of AWE, the present study aims at investigating the effect of using Grammarly, a well-known AWE application, on improving the academic writing accuracy of Arab EFL students. As a sample, the study targeted university students majoring in English language and literature at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Error correction in the classroom and assessing students' activities are among the several foci of research in second language acquisition, TESOL and academic writing. Most related theories acknowledge that errors are an inevitable phenomenon in language learning in general (Huang 2009). However, there are different perspectives on dealing with them. For example, according to the behaviourist theory, language learning is a habit formation process achieved through stimulus, response, and reinforcement. Positive feedback is needed to reinforce learners' correct output, while incorrect output needs to be corrected. Consequently, traditional teaching methods based on behaviourist views focus more on accurate language production, and teachers tend to correct students' mistakes to achieve habit formation through conditioning (Demirezen, 1988).

Suggesting that instruction should focus on enabling students to use language successfully in a realistic setting, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was presented in the 1970s. The main elements of the approach were inspired by the *comprehensible input* (Krashen 1982). According to the hypothesis, "we acquire by *going for meaning* first, and as a result, we acquire structure" (p. 21). Accordingly, the CLT method contradicts the traditional approach, where the focus was on the structure. Furthermore, it does not encourage continuous error correction. Krashen (1982) considers error correction "a serious mistake" (p. 74) because it makes students defensive, uses an avoidance strategy, and focuses on form more than on meaning.

Another teaching method that merges the two techniques mentioned above is *focus on form*, which suggests targeting accuracy through communicative-based activities (Long 2000). *Focus on form* can be achieved through CF, which targets the meant form to be taught. Applying *focus on form* in class and reacting to students' errors is found to develop students' accuracy (Lightbown & Spada 1990). Another effective method in this strand is to provide CF in written format, a common approach known as Written Corrective Feedback.

2.1. Written Corrective Feedback

According to second language learning theories, feedback provision is one way to promote students' motivation and ensure linguistic accuracy (Ellis 2009). Feedback can be positive to reinforce correct production or corrective, defined as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance." (Chaudron 1977, 31). Further, corrective feedback can be *oral*, through regular classroom instruction, or written in the forms of notes, symbols, or error corrections (Wirantaka, 2019). The debate around the latter type, i.e., Written Corrective Feedback (WCF), is more contentious. The efficacy and practicality of WCF are always a topic to dispute (Ellis 2009, Beuningen 2010, Maleki and Eslami 2013, Jang 2020). WCF is widely believed as a "means of fostering learner motivation" (Ellis 2009, 3), and there is sufficient evidence that it significantly improves accuracy (Bitchener 2008). However, other views devaluing its usefulness emerged later. The initiative claims in this strand were raised by Truscott (1996), who not only claimed that CF is ineffective for both logical and functional reasons but also believed that it "has harmful effect" (J. Truscott 1996, 327). The significant argument presented by Truscot about the uselessness of WCF is that "grammar correction is a bad idea" (J. Truscott 1999, 111). Furthermore, serious methodological issues are found in the research that yields contrary claims. (J. Truscott 2020).

There are, however, subsequent studies that refute these claims and promote using WCF. For instance, Bitchener (2008) states that providing WCF on specific errors would significantly improve academic writing accuracy. Kang and Han (2015, 1) reported that "corrective feedback can lead to greater grammatical accuracy in second language writing, yet its efficacy is mediated by a host of variables, including learners' proficiency, the setting, and the genre of the writing task.". Their conclusion is based on their review of 21 studies related to CF practice and results. Thus far, there is no conclusive statement about the exact effect of WCF in improving EFL learners' academic writing accuracy. However, it is a standard and indispensable practice in the EFL classroom (Luo & Liu, 2017). Moreover, its role in L2 writing development is "an exciting and dynamic area of investigation and, as such, is likely to continue engaging the energy and insights of established and emerging scholars" (Bitchener and Ferris 2012, 27). These studies yielded many dichotomies regarding types of feedback and errors to be corrected.

2.2. Types of feedback

The focused versus unfocused classification is based on the views about the amount of feedback provided to learners and its distribution to different error categories. In this regard, researchers differentiate between focused feedback, where teachers "focus attention on a few error types rather than try to address all the errors learners make" (Ellis 2009, 6) and unfocused (or comprehensive) feedback, which "involves correction of all errors in a learner's text, irrespective of their error category" (Beuningen 2010, 11). The argument for adopting the first approach is the limitedness of students' cognitive capacity, which is susceptible to overloading with much feedback. This is because "too much feedback at any one time might be de-motivating or too burdensome for cognitive processing." (Bitchener and Ferris 2012, 128). Accordingly, focused feedback is recommended for teachers and researchers. It is perceived to effectively teach the targeted forms and help the researchers design proper test instruments.

Another classification divides feedback into direct and indirect. Direct feedback points to the error and provides the correct linguistic form thereof, and indirect feedback only informs the learner that an error has been committed (Ferris 2011). Other terms to describe these types are explicit versus implicit feedback (Ellis 2009). No consensus as to what type is more effective. Indirect feedback is praised because it engages students in language processing and problem-solving, which foster their learning. However, direct learning is considered better since it provides learners with sufficient information about their errors (Beuningen 2010).

2.3. Types of errors

Researchers distinguish between errors to be corrected by the teachers. Ferris (2011) classified errors into treatable and untreatable. Treatable errors by such a classification can be explained and remedied following specific rules. These errors include article usage, subject-verb agreement, and singular/plural forms. On the other hand, untreatable errors are non-distinctive errors that cannot be corrected according to fixed rubrics such as lexical and some word choice errors. Research findings pertaining to this dichotomy support treatable errors as focusing on them is more likely to lead to a more successful CF (Beuningen 2010). Also, Ferris (2011) suggested that teachers should provide indirect feedback to correct untreatable errors because this type is more responsive to indirect feedback, while direct feedback works well with treatable errors.

Another typology divided errors into local and global. According to Touchie (1986), local errors such as article, preposition, and verb inflection errors do not impede text comprehension. In contrast, global errors such as word order inaccuracy distort the utterance's meaning and disrupt communication. Although it seems intuitive that global errors are more serious and should be given more consideration by teachers (Ellis 2009), it is nonetheless context-dependent (Ferris 2011). Besides, deciding which type of error to be local or global is not always easy for regular teachers.

2.4. Corrective feedback for academic writing

Academic writing is the writing used in universities and scholar publishing to communicate scientific ideas and information to instructors or the wider academic community. This type of writing requires strict standards to distinguish it from other types

of writing. For example, it should demonstrate knowledge of rhetorical conventions, linguistic features, vocabulary, and syntax (Utkina 2021). Therefore, instructors must devote all possible strategies to fostering students' written accuracy. Feedback is one of the essential techniques followed by teachers in this regard (Wirantaka 2019, Wahyuningsih 2020).

In Academic writing classes, especially in higher education settings, two types of CF are usually used: teacher and peer feedback. Both types of feedback are found effective. However, research has proved that teachers' CF of academic writing is a complex process for several reasons. Coffin et al. (2003) quantified factors that cause such a dilemma, the most important of which are: (1) The mismatch between teachers' and students' concepts about academic writing, (2) different and inconsistent comments from teachers on similar pieces of writing, (3) mixed, unclear and confusing comments, and (4) comments are derived by teacher disciplinary background. Nevertheless, it is widely acknowledged that L2 students still prefer teachers' CF over peer feedback which may be more suitable for L1 learners (Hinkel 2004). Therefore, the above barriers need to be tackled to provide more efficient feedback since it is believed that "to improve the quality of students' academic writing, teachers need to improve the quality of their feedback" (Wirantaka 2019).

Research on the CF of academic writing focused on the types of CF provided for students, students' perception of the practice (Leong and Lee 2018), and the effect of different kinds of feedback on students' academic writing. Dewi and Jati (2017) found that teacher-written feedback is the most beneficial method for improving students' writing compared to video-based and peer feedback. Furthermore, Leong and Lee (2018) observed that both teachers and students agreed that feedback should help students become insightful and autonomous learners and that it should be detailed and personalised. However, this does not mean that teachers should act as editors for students' written work but rather instruct them on how to deal with frequent and sometimes persistent errors (Hinkel 2004). Hence, it can be concluded that appropriate teacher WCF is a crucial strategy in academic writing instruction.

2.5. Automated Writing Evaluation

Recently, the WCF provision has witnessed new development. Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE) software is a suite of tools that assess students writing by comparing a written text to built-in databases of writing and specific rubrics to measure students' lexical, syntactic, and grammatical aspects (Elliot et al. 2013, Hockly 2019, Woodworth and Barkaoui 2020, Miranty and Widiati 2021). The theoretical foundation behind using AWE lies in practical reasons. Teachers are usually encumbered by burdens that hinder them from following up with their students or doing so accurately. Implementing new techniques can help them to a far extent as scoring would be faster, cheaper, and more accurate (Rudner and Liang 2002, Miranty and Widiati 2021).

Other AI-powered writing assistants are customarily considered under the umbrella of AWE though they are slightly different from them. An example of these tools is Grammarly which is an AI-powered writing assistant founded by Max Lytvyn, Alex Shevchenko, and Dmytro Lider in 2009 (Grammarly 2022). Its primary aim, as advertised, is to foster online writing and hence enhance communication. Grammarly performs more than its name implies. It is not limited to grammatical correction, but its corrective suggestions include style, clarity, engagement, and delivery. These potentials attracted academic writing researchers' attention since they address the crucial requirements of the style. Several studies supported the claims that it is highly effective in promoting students writing (Barrot 2020, Ghufron and Rosyida 2018, Nova 2018, O'Neill and Russel 2019).

Woodworth & Barkaoui (2020) elaborated on the significant differences between standard AWE tools and these grammar checkers, stating that the latter "cannot be moderated by the teacher, do not evaluate writing quality, and do not include any portfolio and class management tools" (p. 237). Notwithstanding, many recent studies consider Grammarly an AWE tool (Miranty and Widiati 2021), while other studies adopted a more precise term, *Automated Written Corrective Feedback* (AWCF). Such studies appraise AWCF applications stating that they do more than AWE ones since they provide feedback on students' performance and thus help improve students' accuracy (Burstein, Chodorow and Leacock 2004, Guo, Feng and Hua 2021).

As Grammarly gained a gradual reputation as a powerful writing assistant and grammar checker, several studies investigated it concerning different variables. Regarding students' perceptions of the application, Nova (2018) explored three Indonesian students' experiences using Grammarly. The findings indicated that the participants found Grammarly helpful as it provides easy, fast, and free editing services. Some weaknesses of the programs, such as misleading feedback and lack of content and context, were also reported. Other studies compared human feedback to an automated one. An example of such studies is (O'Neill and Russel 2019), which examined the perceptions of one group of students (n=54) who received additional Grammarly feedback and regular feedback from their academic advisors. Further, their perceptions were compared to those of other group members who received feedback only from their teachers. The results indicated that students who implemented Grammarly as a writing assistant were more satisfied with the grammar advice they received. Their satisfaction was related to short-term benefits on their marks and the long-term benefits to their writing.

Comparing Grammarly's potential is not limited to students' perception of it. Ghufron and Rosyida 2018 compared the AWCF provided by Grammarly to feedback provided by teachers. The material was written by two homogenous groups of an Indonesian university, i.e. (control and experimental group), each incorporating twenty participants. Interestingly, the results showed that the students who received AWCF committed fewer errors in the post-test than those whose work was evaluated by the teacher. The improvement of their work was limited to diction, grammar and writing mechanics. However, they showed no development in content and organisation.

Similarly, Para and Calero (2019) used a pre-test/post-test experimental research design to explore the improvement of the writing of 28 university students during a semester of study. The participants used Grammarly and *Grammark*, another AI writing assistant, to get feedback. The study demonstrated a significant improvement in the performance of the participants who used either of the two assistants at the post-test level. Further, it was reported that the improvement was in most aspects of writing accuracy, including grammar, punctuation, mechanics, and style. The researchers traced the improvement to the student's motivation as they learn independently. However, they asserted the role of the teacher in compensating for the limitations of the tools, which they found to be in content development. Another study (Guo, Feng and Hua 2021) investigated the effect of Grammarly on 36 students' second draft of an essay. The result showed that errors have decreased significantly after the revision and that students have responded to most Grammarly suggestions.

Studies on the impact of Grammarly on academic writing accuracy can provide powerful implications to EFL teachers about how, when and to what extent they should integrate Grammarly into their teaching plans. However, studies of this kind are relatively

few compared to the extensive use of Grammarly in different contexts, i.e., general online writing, CMC, social network, and classroom setting.

Research Hypotheses

The paucity of studies of this type, especially in Arab EFL learning settings, is the primary motive of the current study. To fill in such a gap, and because the approach is still modern, this research attempt to test the following hypotheses:

H_0: There are no significant differences between the writing accuracy levels of students who use Grammarly and those who do not.

H_a: Students who use Grammarly will write more accurately than those who do not.

The following methods and procedures will be adopted to achieve the study aims.

3. METHODS

3.1. Research design

This study adopted a between-group experimental research design where control and experimental groups participated. The experimental group's members used Grammarly to assist them in their writing assignments for fourteen weeks. The effect of such a practice was then assessed to test the research null hypothesis. To measure the effectiveness of the treatment, the researcher used a pre-test/post-test design. First, a pre-test was conducted to check the writing level of the research sample before the treatment. After the treatment, a post-test was administered to fulfil two purposes: first, to measure the effectiveness of using Grammarly by members of the experimental group, and second, to confirm that there are no other factors that affect the post-test results. These will be confirmed by reviewing the control group members' results.

3.2. Participants

Sixty-four female college students participated in the study. The participants were students at the fifth level (third year) at the English Language and Literature Department, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. Although there were no available data concerning their exact proficiency levels according to the standard benchmarks, it can be stated that their levels range from intermediate to upper-intermediate. They have studied English as a general course for about ten years at public schools and as a major for four semesters. They have already studied two courses in writing skills, two grammar courses, one vocabulary course, and courses on general linguistics and literature.

When conducting the study, the participants were enrolled in the Applied Linguistics (ENGL 3150) course taught by the researcher. They were divided into two sections by the university's automated registration system, which assigns students to their sections by the precedence of registration. The researcher took advantage of this random allocation and appointed one section as a control group and another as an experimental group. Each of the groups comprised thirty-two students. This procedure was believed to assure the homogeneity of the groups as their levels are comparable based on their grades in the previous courses.

3.3. Instruments

3.3.1. Grammarly

Grammarly is a well-known application that provides feedback on writers' grammatical errors, vocabulary usage and writing mechanics. It provides its service through two plans: free, which can suffice a standard user, and a premium for more advanced tasks. The editing service is presented to users on different platforms. As of July 2022, it has an application for Microsoft Windows, a plugin in Microsoft Word, Outlook and Chrome browsers. It can also be used in portable devices through the virtual keyboard for smartphones or the iPad application.

The researcher presented an instructional session on downloading, installing, and using the application. The experimental group participants were asked to download the application's free version and the plugins for Microsoft Word and Google Chrome. Further, he followed up on the student's progress and answered questions about its use. the participants did not report significant difficulties in using the application.

3.3.2. Writing tasks

The researcher designed two writing tasks to assess the participants' written accuracy at the two stages of the research. Students were asked to write a text of not less than 200 words on one of four topics on both tasks. Each task contains descriptive, narrative, argumentative, and expository options. Table 1 presents the topics for the writing tasks.

Table 1 Writing topics for the pre-test and post-test

Pre-test	Post-test
Yourself	Your Hometown
Your Childhood Memories	Your Experience in Learning the English Language
Advantages and Disadvantages of the Internet	Pros and Cons of Smartphones
A Place You Will Never Forget	An Unforgettable Vacation
How to Cook Your Favourite Dish	How to Shop Wisely

The topics were meant to be straightforward as the primary aim is to measure forms more than content.

3.4. Data collection and assessment

The writing texts were submitted through blackboard LMS, downloaded, and printed for manual review. For the pre-test writing, the task was held asynchronously; students were given three days to present their work through the LMS. However, an online session was held to administer the writing post-test synchronously. Also, the researcher used Respondus LockDown Browser1 to ensure that the participants would use no writing assistants or external software other than Blackboard textbox.

[1] Respondus Lockdown Browser is "a custom browser that locks down the testing environment within a learning management system." (Respondus 2021)

The collected 128 texts were assessed manually by two raters, the researcher and another university professor. The rubrics for evaluating the texts were based on the initial review of the writing material and focused on errors that met two criteria. First, the error should be a treatable grammatical error. This criterion excluded errors in other aspects such as punctuation, style, and spelling. Second, the errors should be marked and responded to by Grammarly as clearly as possible. The researcher used a premium Grammarly account to study the suggestions provided for the errors. The application goals were set to assess the students writing against standard academic writing rubrics, as shown in Figure 1 below.

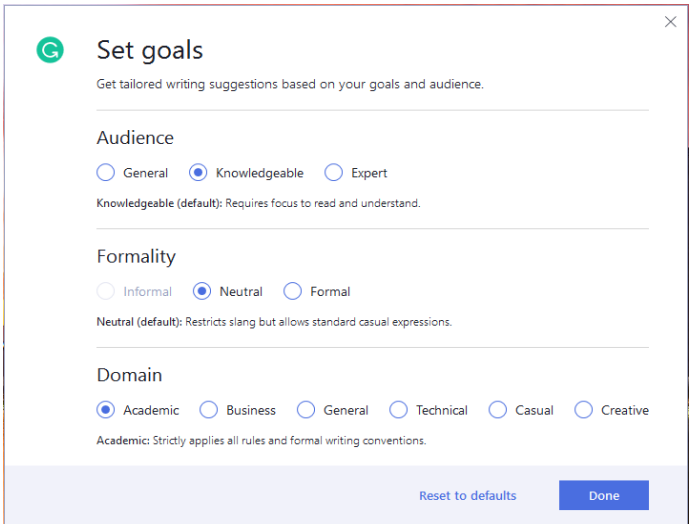

Fig. 1 Goals for tailoring Grammarly feedback to the participants' writing

Accordingly, the top five errors committed by the participants were elected to measure the students' writing accuracy and any potential progress that would occur thereof. The five errors checked for were: (1) articles, (2) subject-verb agreement, (3) verb tense, (4) word choice, and (5) singular/plural form errors. The ceiling score for each writing task was 25 points, and the correction was based on deducing one point for each error of the five mentioned types.

The correction rubric was then explained to the second-rater. The Cohen's Kappa for inter-rater reliability was conducted using SPSS to check the level of agreement between the two raters. The results of the inter-rater agreement were Cohen's *k*: 0.69 for the pre-test and 0.75 for the post-test, which suggest substantial agreement in the result for both tests. Moreover, the researcher checked the Grammarly application frequently to check how it responded to different error types.

3.5. Data Analysis

To generate the results for the study, the researcher conducted an independent samples T-test. The test results were used to interpret the difference between the two groups in terms of mean scores, standard deviation (SD), and the significance level of difference between

the groups. Moreover, the researcher analysed the errors of the two groups to determine which errors were decreased after using Grammarly.

4. Results and Discussion

The overall results of the two tests by the participants of the two groups are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2 The results of the two tests by members of the two groups

Test	Pre-test				Post-test			
	Total Errors	Mean score	Average error*	SD	Total errors	Mean score	Average error	SD
Control	237	17.59	7.4	3.2	277	17.12	8.7	4.3
Experimental	265	16.71	8.3	4.0	144	20.59	4.4	3.1

**Note*. The value indicates the average error per text.

The results of the two independent samples T-test are presented in Table 3 below

Table 3 The results of the independent samples T-test

	t	df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean difference
Pre-test	954	62	.344	.875
Post-test	-3.66	62	.001	3.46

From the two tables, it can be reported that:

The 32 participants who used Grammarly as a writing assistant for 14 weeks (M = 20.59, SD = 3.1) compared to the 32 participants of the control group (M = 17.12, SD = 4.33) demonstrated significantly better writing accuracy scores, t (62) = -3.66, p = 0.001. These results provided sufficient proof to reject the null hypothesis raised by the study. This finding is justified by the low p-value of (.001), which is much less than the alpha level (a = .05). Therefore, it supports the alternative hypothesis that students who use Grammarly would write more accurately than those who do not.

The improvement in writing accuracy is represented in the overall writing scores of the students who used Grammarly. A considerable reduction of grammatical errors was witnessed in the experimental group members' performance after using Grammarly for fourteen weeks. The mean score of the participants jumped by 3.5 in the post-test. Bearing in mind that the ceiling score of the tests is 25, this can be considered a significant improvement as it represents 14% of the total score.

Two considerations support these results. First, it is noteworthy that participants of the two groups were considered homogeneous before the experiment. This finding is supported by their mean pre-test scores, which were different by only (0.09). This slight difference can be traced to writing topic selection, rating inconsistency, or typical individual differences. Secondly, when comparing the experimental group scores to those of the control group on the post-test, the results showed not only different performance in favour of the experimental group but also a slight drawback in the control group's mean score, i.e.,

control group members' mean score in the pre-test (17.6) was better than their mean scores in the post-test (17.1). This finding rules out any external effect that may contribute to improving experimental group members' writing scores.

These findings align with the results yielded by previous literature on using Grammarly, e.g. (Qassemzadeh and Soleimani 2016, Ghufron and Rosyida 2018, Para and Calero 2019, Guo, Feng and Hua 2021). However, some differences in the methodology and the procedures followed in these studies are noted. For example, Guo, Feng, and Hua (2021) supported the positive effect of Grammarly on students' writing. However, since students wrote two drafts of the same topic (the second of which was assisted by Grammarly), the practice effect could intervene. Also, (Para and Calero 2019) used Grammarly as a teaching complement to give CF to students; hence the development of the scores cannot be traced back only to their use of Grammarly and Grammark applications, although their effects are very likely. Hence, claiming that improving students' writing is because of AWCF only maybe a hasty generalisation.

These considerations are taken into account in this study by taking three precautions: (1) No WCF feedback was provided to the research participants by the teachers during the experiment, (2) the writing post-test was about new topics to eliminate practice effect, and (3) the post-test was administered in a virtual locked environment using Respondus Lockdown Browser to prohibit potential use of writing assistants.

On the other hand, some previous studies adopted methods that are not followed herein and hence might be considered likely limitations of the present study. For example, Qassemzadeh and Soleimani, (2016) applied an experimental method that utilised a grammar pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test administered to the participants in six sessions. A delayed post-test can give insightful implications about the long-term effect of the Grammarly feedback on students' writing accuracy. The finding of the current study cannot answer this question. Likewise, other studies evaluated students' academic writing in many aspects. For example, (Ghufron and Rosyida 2018) assessed students' performance in terms of vocabulary usage, mechanics of writing, and grammar. Thus, unlike the present study, it can provide a broader outlook on the potential of Grammarly on students' academic writing.

This study, however, elaborated on different aspects of grammar by classifying error types and checking which one seemed to be affected by implementing AWCF through Grammarly. To achieve this, the performance of the control group members in the two tests is reviewed. The results are presented in Figure 2 below.

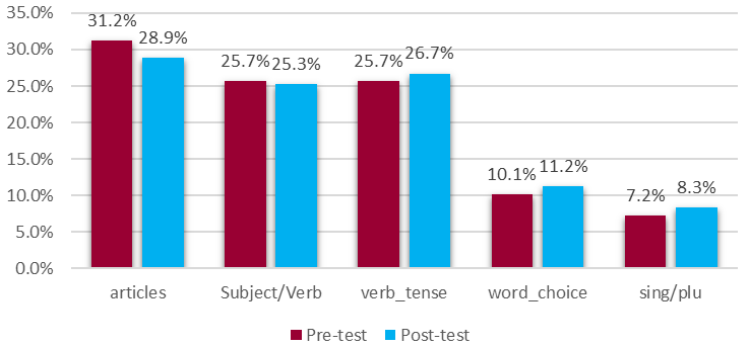

Fig. 2 Percentages of errors by the control group participants

The results show almost a consistent performance in the two tests in terms of the percentage of errors committed in each type. Most committed errors in both tests were those related to article usage, and the fewest ones were those related to word choice and singular/plural forms, respectively. However, errors pertaining to subject-verb agreement and verb tense exchange their ranks. In the post-test more verb tense errors are committed. More importantly, the percentages of each error type in both tests are interestingly similar, with a low difference that reaches only (2.3) in its maximum. These findings represented the basis upon which the experimental group results were analysed to yield the results displayed in Figure 3.

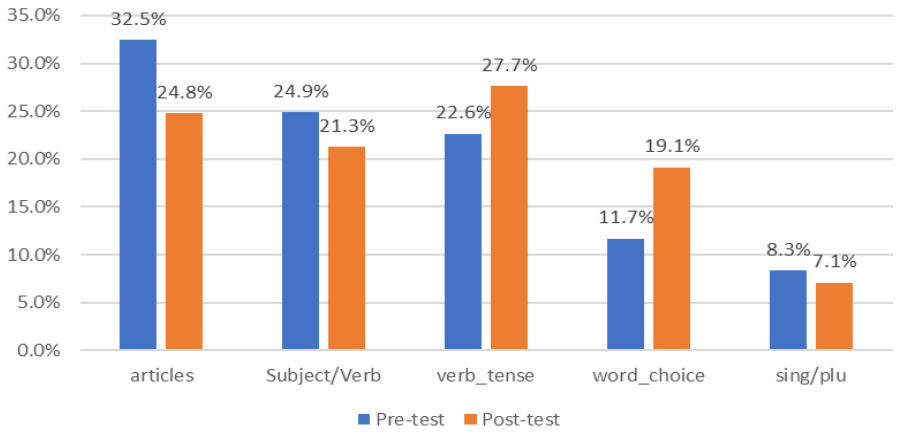

Fig. 3 Percentages of errors by the experimental group participants

Contrary to the control group results, a noticeable drop in the percentage of the most committed errors is witnessed. Errors in article usage decreased by 7.7%, and errors in the subject-verb agreement dropped by 3.6%, which can be considered a substantial difference. On the other hand, errors related to other types had not decreased; instead, percentages of verb tense and word choice errors had increased in the post-test. Concerning the last type, singular plural forms, no significant difference was witnessed as the difference was only 1.2 in favour of the post-test.

From these findings, it can be inferred that Grammarly feedback effectively teaches errors related to article usage, subject-verb agreement, and, to a lesser extent, singular plural form. Errors related to verb tense and word choice are not likely to be remedied using Grammarly's AWCF. These findings contradict what was found by Ferris (2006), who claimed that students made progress in reducing errors relating to verb tense and committed more article errors after being exposed to CF regarding such error types.

It is not probable that the improvement in specific error types is because of the nature of the feedback provided by Grammarly for each error category. Figures 4 and 5 below display examples of Grammarly corrective suggestions for the five error types taken from the participants writing in the pre and post-tests.

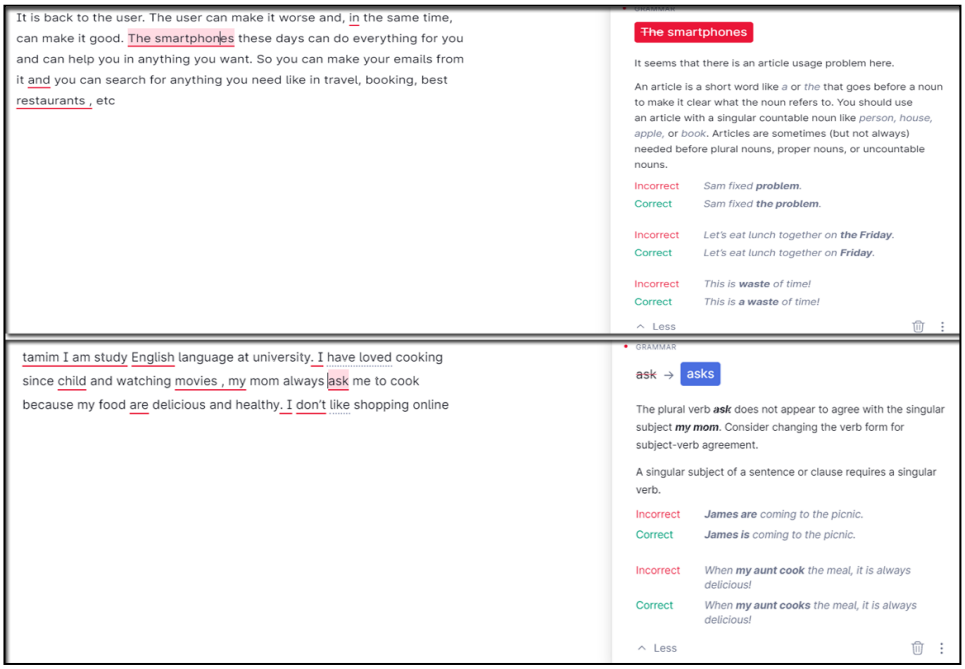

Fig. 4 Grammarly suggestions for correcting article and subject-verb agreement errors

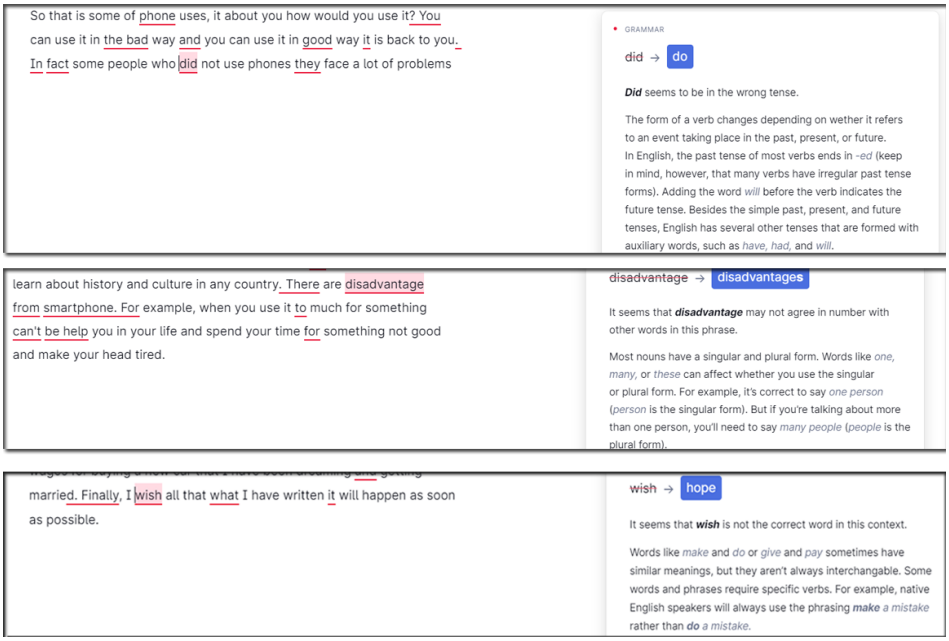

Fig. 5 Suggestions for correcting tense, singular/plural form, and word choice errors

The examples show that the Grammarly feedbacks were almost consistent. They started by displaying the mistake crossed out in red, suggesting correction in blue, giving a general metalanguage-based description of the mistake, explaining the rule to follow, and ending with a few examples. Articles subject-verb agreement errors, for instance, have no more elaborated or clear feedback. This fact entails other reasons why the participants improved in a specific category and regressed or showed no progress in others.

From the researcher's viewpoint, the findings can be justified by considering the nature of the verb tense and the word choice errors. Errors of these types are more related to content and semantics than linguistic structure. Therefore, correcting them requires a comprehensive understanding of context, more profound language knowledge, and a richer vocabulary. On the other hand, verb-subject agreement and article errors can be mastered by following fewer and less complicated rules.

Another justification for this finding is that the relative frequency of errors (and the CF thereof) contributed to the student's understanding of feedback and corrective suggestions. This relative frequency might cause a type of *focused* CF. In this situation, students are continuously exposed to a specific type of corrective suggestion, which can facilitate the process of learning and thus create a practice factor. Focused feedback promotes students' performance and is considered more effective than unfocused or comprehensive CF (Ellis 2009, Beuningen 2010, Ferris 2011). In the context of the present study, this hypothesis is supported by the fact that the students' improvement was witnessed in the two most committed error categories. Moreover, the slightest improvement was noticed in singular/plural errors which were the fewest committed errors and thus received minor corrective suggestions.

As far as the researcher knows, this finding is unprecedented. Moreover, it contradicts one of the pioneer studies in the field (Ferris 2006). Therefore, more studies are needed to support the claim accompanying focused versus comprehensive feedback, treatable versus untreatable errors, and global versus local error dichotomies. Such studies should also take account of the limitations of the present study. They should be conducted in more extended periods, utilise larger samples, and adopt delayed post-tests to assess the long-term effect of Grammarly on students' written accuracy on specific error categories.

The current study's findings imply the efficacy of using AWCF in teaching academic writing to EFL learners. Teachers can use Grammarly as a writing assistant inside and outside the classroom to enable ongoing CF for students. However, as there are still some reservations regarding the clarity and accuracy of AWCF, the researcher sides with the suggestions of the previous research that AWCF should be an assistant teaching tool rather than essential. Therefore, teacher interference should always be present to clarify ambiguity and correct inaccurate suggestions. As far as the students are concerned, enabling Grammarly and utilising its different potentials would be a valuable suggestion. However, using the program should be associated with students' understanding of its limitations and their own repeated mistakes to focus on them and gain the most of the applications.

5. CONCLUSION

Many previous studies and theories found WCF beneficial for students' academic writing. However, there is no consensus on how WCF can foster writing, which aspects it develops, or whether the perceived improvement will remain in the long term. The present study attempted to contribute to filling such a gap by raising a null hypothesis

that Grammarly would not affect the written accuracy of students who used it for fourteen weeks. Adopting a pre and post-test, the researcher found that the performance of the experimental participants was significantly better than that of the control group members. Moreover, the researcher found a considerable drop in the number of errors in specific categories, namely article usage, subject-verb agreement, and, to a lesser extent, singular plural forms. Notwithstanding, no improvement regarding other types of error, verb tense and word choice, was found.

These results imply the importance of integrating Grammarly in teaching plans as an instructive complement and accustom EFL learners to use it in a broader range. The study suggests conducting longitudinal research to investigate Grammarly's impact in the long term. Also, it will be more advantageous to explore its effect in specific categories of grammatical errors and other aspects of writing, i.e., diction and mechanics.

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TESTING CORPUS LINGUISTICS METHODS IN ESP VOCABULARY TEACHING

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Abstract. *Corpus-based methods have been progressively popular and required in teaching language, especially as regards English for Specific Purposes. When it comes to practical application and testing of the e.g. corpus-derived vocabulary lists, the scarcity of the resulting experiences has also been evident. Our idea, therefore, was to conduct experimental research with our target language learners and test the efficiency and effectiveness of corpus linguistics methods by incorporating them in the course design, as opposed to the group of students that continued the semester as per the earlier designed course. The study was conducted with the students of Marine Engineering study programme during one academic semester. Their knowledge of both general and technical vocabulary was tested at the beginning and end of the semester. The conducted and presented statistical analysis was upgraded by semi-structured interviews for providing the students' perceptions and feedback. The results generally point to a positive correlation with innovative teaching methods. Moreover, positive reactions of the students noted during and after the research period bring about the additional and better motivation of both the students and the teachers when it comes to introducing innovative corpus methods in language teaching. In addition, some limitations of the study have been pointed to, as well as recommendations for further and similar research endeavours.*

Key words*: vocabulary, corpus, word list, students, DDL method*

1. INTRODUCTION

We have been witnessing more validation and proactive conduct in applied linguistics research, calling for further research and testing with language learners (Oleskeviciene et al., 2021). By obtaining as specific and as measurable results as possible, as well as feedback and evaluation of applied methods and materials, the general idea is to optimize the teaching and learning process and all their aspects (Đurović and Vuković Stamatović, 2021). In particular, our research aims to explore the application of corpus linguistics methods for the enhancement of vocabulary teaching/learning for a very specific professional area such as marine engineering, which has proved to be extremely demanding vocabulary-wise (Đurović et al., 2021). We also have to bear in mind that this kind of research does

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not provide us with ready-made solutions or finally recommended course design, but with an insight into new possibilities in the language teaching and learning process (Dörnyei, 2011: 16, 17).

The in-classroom research depends on a number of variables and methods to be explored, tested, and measured. Depending on the type of data obtained, we generally come across two research paradigms – quantitative and qualitative research, with a variety of mixed data collection methods such as observation, questionnaires, and various interview structures. The two paradigms have been adding to one another, the advantage of which we are going to use in our research and presentation of results, following the general recommendations and trends for this kind of research (e.g. Cresswell et al., 2003; Dörnyei et al., 2005; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005a). This way, we can use the advantages of both approaches and, at the same time, overcome the limitations of one or the other.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The accelerated production of word lists, ranging from general to more or less specialized ones, seems not to be even closely followed by the abundance of their testing, available results and specific recommendations thereof. One of the reasons might be the fact that vocabulary is not to be taught or learned in isolation, but should be carefully incorporated into course designs. Also, as each word list is created to serve a certain target group of language learners, individual pedagogical implications and recommendations can serve only as a guideline, whilst a course design for a certain group of language learners, especially when it comes to ESP, is to be specifically tailored to address their professional language needs. Bearing in mind all the above as related to our specific teaching and learning setting, as well as contemporary teaching methods promoting student autonomy and digitalization, we decided to test the efficiency of our corpus linguistics methods (with the list produced and the very corpus) in the teaching process and as opposed to some "standard" ones. An issue would be the limited number of target learners, as was in our case, thus limiting our research to a pilot-one, with recommendations for possible extensions.

3. METHODOLOGY

For obtaining the most frequent and most technical vocabulary needed by marine engineers, we collected a series of instruction books and manuals from various types of ships, such as container ship, tanker ship, supplier and cruise ship. The final professional corpus comprised main engine and auxiliary machinery instruction books and manuals totaling 1,769,821 running words (tokens) (Đurović, 2021). The specialized word list was produced by AntWordProfiler 1.4.0w software (Anthony, 2014). In order to deduce the general English vocabulary from our vocabulary frequency count, we used the first 3,000 BNC/COCA[1] words[2] (Nation, 2012).

[1] The referent General English (GE) frequency word lists obtained from the British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA). Each of the 25 lists contain about 1,000 word families each, and, for this kind of research, they are usually accompanied by additional lists of the most frequent proper names, abbreviations, transparent compounds, and marginal words.

In addition to consulting experts in the process, mainly certified Chief Engineers, we were also led by official requirements laid down by the International Maritime Organization, its convention on Standards of Training, Certification, and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW A-III/1, 2010), and, more specifically, its Model Course for Maritime English (Model Course 3.17 – Maritime English, 2015). Considering that most of the requirements for marine engineers are related to adequate reading comprehension of technical publications, our research focuses on receptive vocabulary knowledge, primarily that of technical vocabulary.

In order to examine the possible application and effects of corpus linguistics methods and tools in teaching English for Marine Engineering Purposes (EMEP), we used an adapted Data-driven learning method (DDL) which anticipates the direct exposure of the students to specific corpus linguistics data, in this case, the most specific and professional genre of the marine engineering discourse community. According to the actual curricula of the target learners and their technical subjects of the previous and the running semester, the corpus was based upon 7 selected instruction books related to marine main engines.

For the progress assessment, we used the Vocabulary Size Test (Nation and Beglar, 2007) in the original available versions A and B, and the same (multichoice) test concept for the technical vocabulary test, which was given to students at the beginning and the end of the semester.

4. Research Setting and Organization

Following the summarized experiences from relevant literature (e.g. Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016), the strategic framework of our research could be presented as follows:

Table 1 The strategy of the research conducted at the Faculty of Maritime Studies Kotor during the summer semester of 2020

Research Strategy	**Researcher Involvement**	**Research Setting**	**Unit of Analysis**	**Time-frame**
Mixed methods: quantitative and qualitative research	Moderate to high	Partly controlled	1st -year students of Marine Engineering	Academic semester
Data collection	**Involvement**	**Place and format**	**Sample detail**	**Duration of research**
▪ Multiple-choice tests ▪ Semi-structured interview	▪ Material preparation ▪ Preparation of assignments ▪ Consultations ▪ Corrections ▪ Feedback	▪ Classroom (minor share) ▪ Individual work at home (major share) ▪ Online consultations	▪ Experimental group (n=15) ▪ Control group (n=15) ▪ Total (n=30)	▪ 15 weeks ▪ additional weeks for testing and interviews

[2] A "word" here generally refers to a word family as a unit of measurement, taking into account the learning burden, i.e. effort put in learning a word head with its inflected and derivative forms.

As we can see from Table 1, our target ESP learners are the first-year students of the Faculty of Maritime Studies Kotor (University of Montenegro), the study programme of Marine Engineering. The research was conducted during the summer semester 2020, English Language II. As per the latest accreditation from 2017, the study program of Marine Engineering comprises four English courses the first of which is mainly general English, with English for Maritime Purposes (EMP), and, more specifically, English for Marine Engineering Purposes (EMEP) taught through the subsequent three. In aiming for the most numerous group learning ESP, i.e. EMEP, we opted for English Language II, skipping the English language I in order to avoid the interference factor of the beginners. Here we must also note the heterogeneous composition of the students enrolled, since they come from a variety of eligible high schools with various backgrounds and L2 proficiency, some of which have graduated from the maritime high school, already having some experience with the professional setting and technical ESP.

The first several working weeks were organized as per the usual syllabus for all the students, which covered mainly general maritime English. For the rest of the semester (15 working weeks in total), we opted for systematic sampling by dividing them into two groups according to odd and even numbers of their indexes, for the purpose of proportionality. Odd numbers were the experimental group, while the even ones were assigned to the control group. The control group continued as per the "traditional" way of teaching and learning, while the experimental group pursued the adjusted DDL method. Apart from examining the differences in vocabulary acquisition between the two methods – the standard one and the innovative corpus linguistics method, we can say that we also contrasted the two approaches to teaching/learning (technical) lexis, as mentioned in the relevant literature (e.g., Fuentes, 2007: 22). In particular, the control group had textbooks with exercises, as usually used in the English classes, anticipating the bottom–down learning approach, starting from the macrostructure to the target lexical units. Contrary to that, the experimental group started with specific lexical elements, applying the bottom-up approach.

During the research period, the students had a succession of five homework assignments. The first one covered twenty-five technical words from the word list of marine technical manuals (Đurović, 2021) for which the students were required to find five exemplar sentences from at least three instruction books offered, as well as to find and provide their translation. For the continuation, we reduced the burden to three examples and a total of 20 technical terms (including transparent compounds) with one-week deadlines for the submission of assignments. As for the final – fifth assignment, we decided to test another corpus linguistics and teaching method – working with parallel corpora. For this assignment, the students were provided with additional material, two textbooks used for their technical subjects Marine Engines I and Marine Engines II in the Montenegrin language (Pažin, 1998; Nikolić, 2005). For this assignment, they were required to find three examples of the word use in instruction books, and, once translated, also find three examples of their use in the textbooks in Montenegrin. All the materials and detailed assignments with explanations and examples were available on the Moodle platform, which the students had been regularly using throughout the study process at the Faculty of Maritime Studies Kotor. The work of the students was closely monitored and assisted throughout the process.

An additional challenge was brought by the COVID-19 pandemic. Luckily enough, the idea of the research was to encourage individual work of the students, monitored and assisted by the teacher, so the research itself was not significantly affected by the current situation. Also, regular consultations with the students were held through the Zoom platform and the Viber group.

In considering the appropriate number of words to be addressed per each homework, we were led by the available amount of time, the learning burden, and also the previous research results, although unfortunately not too numerous when it comes to the application of words lists in the teaching process. For example, Van Benthuysen (2001) assigned his students 75 words of the University Word List (Xue and Nation, 1984), and tested their knowledge of the form, meaning, and use every two weeks. Dang and Webb (2016), on the other hand, suggested the division of the 800-word list into the sublists of 50 words. Nation (2000, 2016) mentions about 1,000 words easily acquired by native speakers learning their mother tongue, whereas the same vocabulary size is a significantly more difficult task for non-native speakers. According to all the above stated, and with constant consultations and monitoring of the students and their work, we opted for the above methodology and organization of the research.

5. Sample Size, Limitations and Relevance

In terms of the number of participants, few limitations to the research were imposed at the very start. The number of regularly enrolled students in the first-year study of Marine Engineering is 60. In selecting the English course through which to conduct the research, we were led by the number of students (more reliable results), as well as the convenience of the technical part of the curricula. Nevertheless, we were not able to take into account the ideal number of students. Considering the factor or regularity in terms of their attendance, the tests taken at the beginning and the end of the semester, as well as dedication to homework assignments, we had to exclude a significant number from the final count and analysis in order to avoid the nonresponse error. Finally, our convenience sampling ended up with a total of 30 students, 15 students per each of the groups. Considering that the total number of research sample elements meets only the lowest recommended thresholds for this type of research (Dörnyei, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016), we are referring to it as a small-scale or pilot research. For overcoming this initial limitation, we integrated the qualitative research in the form of a semi-structured interview of 12 experimental-group students. In addition to qualitative results presented through some standard statistical analysis and presentation, this way we sought to obtain students' feedback and perception on the innovative methodology for learning technical vocabulary.

Bearing in mind the relevance component of the research, we were led by the general recommendations of the authors and researchers. When it comes to quantitative research, the sample is recommended to include 30 to 500 research units, while in experimental research conducted in a controlled environment, successful research can be conducted even over the sample of 10 to 20 units (Roscoe, 1975; Dörnyei, 2013; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). If we try to consider the representativeness of our sample for the population of marine engineering students, the relevance would be neglectable, although the sample size in scientific research is acceptable to cover only 0.1% (Dörnyei, 2013: 99). Lead by the pragmatic reasons for organizing this kind of research, we opted for the convenience sampling method (Kemper et al., 2013; Dörnyei, 2013).

Having a very limited sample at hand, we also took careful consideration over the statistical method that could be applied. Based on the experiences and findings summarized by Dörnyei (2013: 99, 100, 231), correlation research requires at least 30 participants, and for comparative and experimental analysis at least 15 per group are needed. As regards multi-variant procedures, about 100 participants are the recommended threshold, which was

the reason not to include it in our quantitative data analysis. Another guiding line set for the application of parametric tests such as Pierson's coefficient is a relatively normal distribution, which was the reason to explore the normality of the obtained results (Figures 1 and 2). There is always a possibility of non-parametric tests. However, we wanted to pursue research that would be of a pilot or illustrative character with the replicable methodology that could be applied in other and possibly wider and more comprehensive studies, which would also be an important research aspect (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016: 353).

6. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS RESULTS

Based on the testing results achieved at the beginning and end of the research interval, we provided a statistical analysis of the collected data. According to the maximum score, the results are presented on a scale of 0.00 to 100.00. The statistical mass or the sample is the first-year students of Marine Engineering, nominally marked by the statistical units of 1, 2, 3, etc. The numerical data represent the students' test results, the comparison of which tends to provide the relationship between the factors, i.e., between the two teaching/learning methods for the target ESP lexis. Table 2 presents the results of the general vocabulary size test at the beginning and end of the research period (GVTE1, GVTE2), the results of technical vocabulary size tests (TET1, TET2), and the same for the control group (GVTC1, GVTC2, and TVTC1, TVTC2).

Table 2 The results of the experimental and control group achieved on general and technical vocabulary size tests, ranging from 0.00 to 100.00

GVTE1	GVTE2	TVTE1	TVTE2	GVTC1	GVTC2	TVTC1	TVTC2
66.00	70.00	88.00	92.00	44.00	54.00	35.00	60.00
65.00	69.00	45.00	76.00	32.00	32.00	60.00	56.00
65.00	65.50	74.00	81.00	42.00	41.50	33.00	35.00
50.00	66.00	80.00	89.00	41.00	46.00	50.00	63.00
57.50	59.00	32.00	55.00	36.00	38.00	42.00	46.00
30.00	33.00	36.00	49.00	60.00	62.00	60.00	66.00
42.00	54.00	39.00	47.00	61.00	61.00	50.00	60.00
41.00	51.00	41.00	51.00	38.00	69.00	30.00	60.00
46.00	46.00	63.00	75.00	46.00	44.00	70.00	79.00
53.00	61.00	50.00	67.00	30.00	31.00	39.00	42.00
44.00	48.00	30.00	51.00	36.00	37.50	35.00	45.00
44.00	45.00	31.00	45.00	45.00	47.50	35.00	42.00
37.00	24.00	36.00	46.00	34.00	46.00	37.00	49.00
23.00	26.00	25.00	27.00	36.00	51.00	33.00	45.00
21.00	26.50	27.00	33.00	23.00	24.00	14.00	20.00

Each of the tests can here be perceived as an independent variable. The results point to the heterogeneous composition of elements in relation to the variables, i.e. the tests scores. Some basic descriptive statistics for individual variables, including minimal, maximal and mean values, standard deviation, and variance are given in Table 3.

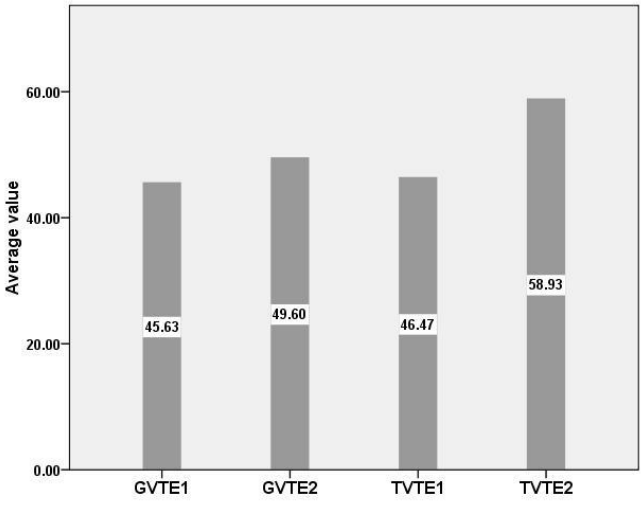
Table 3 The basic statistical indicators for each model variable

Descriptive statistics						
Variable	Students	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance
GVTE1	15	21.00	66.00	45.6333	14.28594	204.088
GVTE2	15	24.00	70.00	49.6000	16.06260	258.007
TVTE1	15	25.00	88.00	46.4667	20.28323	411.410
TVTE2	15	27.00	92.00	58.9333	19.88347	395.352
GVTC1	15	23.00	61.00	40.2667	10.22229	104.495
GVTC2	15	24.00	69.00	45.6333	12.43478	154.624
TVTC1	15	14.00	70.00	41.5333	14.21200	201.981
TVTC2	15	20.00	79.00	51.2000	14.39345	207.171

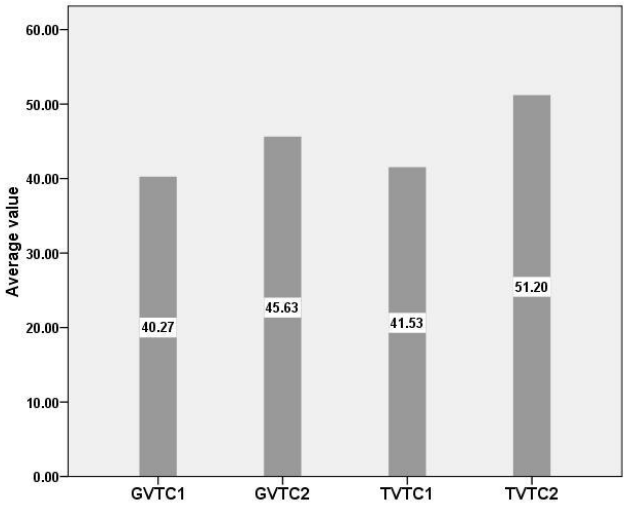
Upon the standard deviation values (Table 3), we can conclude that the biggest difference in scoring was noted on the first technical vocabulary test. Such findings do not come as a surprise, considering the differences in the technical background of the students coming from diverse high schools. We can observe that such diversity is somewhat milder at the end of the semester, which meets one of our goals, also anticipating an initial effort of the students who start to familiarize themselves with this profession not sooner than at their domain studies.

The score means are presented in Graphs 1 and 2.

Based on Graphs 1 and 2, we can easily conclude that the average values of both tests results were better at the end of the semester, i.e. the students have made certain progress both in terms of general English, and ever more effective in technical English vocabulary acquisition. This was also to be expected, considering that a special learning emphasis was put on technical vocabulary, as per the two previously described methods.



Graph 1 Score means of the experimental method



Graph 2 Score means of the control method

We also note a more effective scoring in the case of the experimental group, working upon the DDL method (12.4% to 9.67%). Here we must also mention a significant difference in the preparation process for taking the (technical) vocabulary test at the end of the semester. At the time preceding the tests as our measurement research instruments, the control group students had their second regular progress test of the summer semester and prepared for the final exam. In contrast to the experimental group, students who collected their subject points by doing their homework assignments, the control group students did additional reviews and prepared for the approaching regular test and final exam, including the parts dedicated to lexis. Based on the facts, we can assume that the difference in favour of the experimental group would be even more substantial in case they had an additional motivation such as the preparation for the final exam.

In terms of the results achieved in the successively taken tests, we also need to note a few additional limitations or the "parasite" factors, regardless of the efforts to eliminate them to the best of our abilities. In addition to possible variations in personal motivation and mood of the students, additional motivation and preparations mentioned, we must also mention the factor of practice or maturation (Dörnyei, 2011: 53). According to it, as a rule, the repeated process results in better scores. Although we had a range of about 15 weeks between the first and the second tests were taken, it is possible that some of the students searched for some of the meanings after the first test and memorized them, or just avoided some incidental mistakes from the beginning. In order to reduce this parasite factor to the minimum, we emphasized that the results were not to be graded and that all that was required was a responsible approach to the test, and that the successfulness of the method is measured, and not their personal achievements.

Having in mind that one of the basic goals of pedagogical research is to determine possible relationships between pedagogical phenomena (Mužić, 1977: 490), in the continuation we examined the correlation among the variables, i.e. the tests results. Based on the standard calculations, the differences in values are presented by the correlation coefficient of -1

(maximum or perfectly negative correlation) to +1 (maximum or perfectly positive correlation), where the zero value negates the existence of any correlation among the results. The most commonly applied statistical indicator for the correlation strength, in this case, is the so-called Pearson correlation coefficient[3] (e.g. Mužić, 1997; Dörnyei, 2007; Bauk, 2019, Drašković et al., 2017).

Table 4 presents the correlation results of all the variable pairs in the model, as per the 15-student models of the experimental and control group who took part in coherently different methods of English vocabulary acquisition.

Table 4 Correlation among the variables

Correlation coefficient									
		GVTE1	GVTE2	TVTE1	TVTE2	GVTC1	GVTC2	TVTC1	TVTC2
GVTE1	Pearson corr. coeff.	1	.914**	.661**	.836**	.015	-.150	.267	.187
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
GVTE2	Pearson corr. coeff.	.914**	1	.681**	.829**	.080	-.068	.253	.227
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
TVTE1	Pearson corr. coeff.	.661**	.681**	1	.925**	.173	.082	.245	.379
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
TVTE2	Pearson corr. coeff.	.836**	.829**	.925**	1	.097	-.075	.403	.413
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
GVTC1	Pearson corr. coeff.	.015	.080	.173	.097	1	.725**	.543*	.615*
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
GVTC2	Pearson corr. coeff.	-.150	-.068	.082	-.075	.725**	1	.190	.585*
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
TVTC1	Pearson corr. coeff.	.267	.253	.245	.403	.543*	.190	1	.821**
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
TVTC2	Pearson corr. coeff.	.187	.227	.379	.413	.615*	.585*	.821**	1
	Students no.	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15

** Correlation significance at the level of 0.01
* Correlation significance at the level of 0.05

As presented in the Table 4 legend, the values marked with (**) have the correlation significance at the level of 0.01, which points to high reliability in positive correlation, i.e. the possibility of error is ≤ 1%. For the values marked with (*), the correlation significance is at the level of 0.05%, which is generally an acceptable conventional level of error in social sciences research. This means that in 95 out of 100 cases we can claim that there is a significant correlation between the two variables, or, in this case, the examined tests. A statistically significant correlation ($0{,}50 \leq r \leq 1$) in all the cases analysed here is positive, which would practically mean that the level of progress in vocabulary acquisition, or (more simplified) test scores are similar in relation to all the variables. More precisely, the results obtained by this experimental study showed that there is a strong bivariant correlation among the scores in the following test pairs:

[3] 0.10-0.29 – weak correlation
0.30-0,49 – moderate correlation
0.50-1.00 – strong correlation, where extreme values cannot be reached by any two variables which are not identical

GVTE1 versus GVTE2, TVTE1 and TVTE2;
GVTE2 versus TVTE1 and TVTE2;
GVTC1 versus GVTC2, TVTC1 and TVTC2;
GVTC2 versus TVTC2.

According to the additional analysis, we note that the general vocabulary tests at the beginning of the semester have the highest positive correlation compared with all the other tests by both groups. Bearing in mind the limitations of the research, we can interpret it as a dominant impact of general vocabulary knowledge on the process of acquiring new words, or, in a broader sense, the influence of previously acquired lexical knowledge on the acquisition of new vocabulary.

In addition to basic statistical indicators, we examined the distribution normality of dependent variables, i.e. the deviation ranges of achieved results compared to the expected normal values. For this purpose, we used SPSS (ver. 17.0), i.e. functions of Descriptive Statistics, Explore and Normal Q–Q Plot (Coakes, 2013). The results from examining the normality of achieved test results are presented in Figures 1 and 2. The abscissa values refer to the scores and the ordinate ones to the characteristic values of the Gaussian normal distribution.

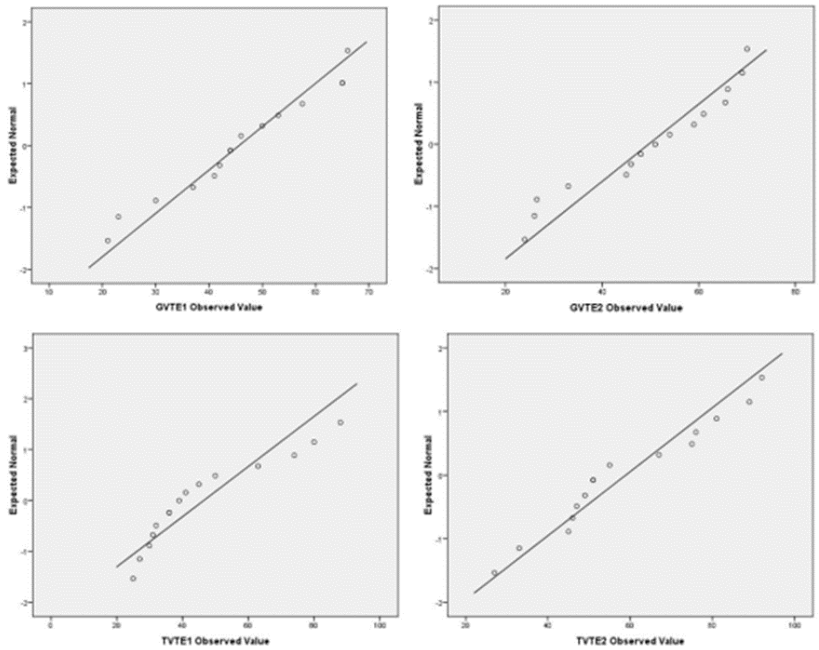


Fig. 1 The assessment of normality of the results in the case of the experimental group

According to the presented Normal Q–Q Plots, we can conclude that there are no significant deviations, especially in terms of GVTE1 and GVTE2. In the cases of TVTE1 and TET2, the deviations are somewhat more distinctive, but without any points to be considered untypical.

Based on the obtained Normal Q–Q Plots, we can also conclude that there are no significant deviations from the normal distribution, except for the two untypical dots in the case of GVTC1 (general vocabulary test at the end of the semester), pointing to the two students achieving significantly poorer results compared to the rest of the students. This part of the analysis was of our special interest due to the heterogeneous composition of the enrolled students, both in terms of their general English and especially technical English skills. Therefore, we were satisfied with the elimination of this deviation on the later tests, which pointed to possibly quick harmonization of the knowledge level in both English vocabulary spheres, certainly with additional efforts put by those with no technical background.

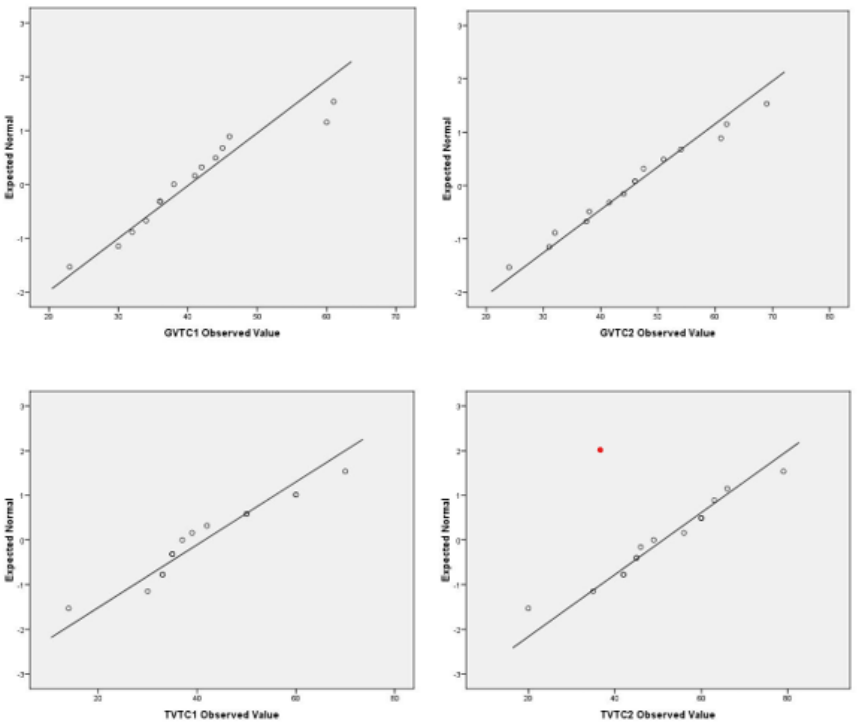


Fig. 2 The assessment of normality of the results in the case of the control group

6.1. Discussion on quantitative research

One of the ideas and advantages of this kind of innovative method is that it encourages individual work, overcoming some limitations and differences in learning strategies applied. We would also like to mention various approaches to doing homework assignments as a consequence of those. Those would include additional motivation, also encouraged by various factors, one of which is the language teaching approach and communication with the students. As mentioned afore, one of the students added pictures of some components related to the assigned words and examples. Other students also had individual approaches to their homework assignments, some of which required additional attention, corrections, and revisions. Generally, the organization and conducting of this way designed research

required great dedication and effort by the teacher in terms of time for homework corrections, review, and regular and timely feedback. That is why this kind of testing of possible corpus linguistics methods is better handled in smaller groups the work of which is monitored intensively and individually, while larger-scale research would require a more demanding organization as regards the number of language teachers and/or experts. At the same time, a more prospective generalization of results could at the same time be to the detriment of intensive and equalized teacher-student interaction.

In order to overcome the generalization issues of the research, we added the qualitative component to the research, conducting a semi-structured interview with experimental group students.

7. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

This part of the research aimed to obtain the general perception of the participants and our target group, at the same time, in relation to the innovative teaching material and its application through data-driven teaching/learning. By codifying 12 students' responses to the semi-structured interview we received their most positive and negative impressions related to the class organisation during the experimental period, as well as to specific research parts and teaching tools and tests used. Taking into consideration some of the most contemporary recommendations for conducting qualitative research, in order to reach its validity and overcome some main threats, we were led by general recommendations both from theoretical textbooks and specific research papers (e.g. Maxwell, 1992; Holliday, 2004; Gyllstad et al., 2009; Dörnyei, 2011; Barfield, 2012; Jurkovič, 2013). In that, we also came to the conclusion about the advantage of having a researcher that has been teaching the target group, i.e. being "close" in having professional experience with the interviewers. This facilitates the primary principle of this kind of research in relation to the ethical issues (privacy protection), but also a relationship with the interviewees and one's influence on them. This emphasizes the advantage of working with smaller groups, where working with the candidates can be more intensive and reach higher internal validity. The same approach cannot be applied to larger groups or atseveral universities, which, in return, affects the external validity of the research and the generalization of results and conclusions.

For this part of the research, we used one of the most frequently applied and most suitable quantitative methods – semi-structured interviews. The interview questions were developed upon the following variables and categories:

Table 5 Interview variables and categories

Variables	Categories
Student satisfaction	Participation in research during classes The most likable/easiest part of the research The least likable/the most difficult part of the research
Comparative impressions	Time spent Language teacher involvement / individual work
Opinions and suggestions	Method efficiency and additional suggestions Usefulness of the frequency vocabulary list from ship instruction books and manuals Other technical literature Additional suggestions for teaching/learning technical vocabulary

The interviews with 12 students of the experimental group were recorded. Through the process of reduction and coding, we came up with the results as presented in Table 6[4]:

Table 6 Data/information obtained from interviewing experimental group students

Category	Responses (number and %)	Indicative comments
1. General impression of the research – likability	12 students (100%)	”I liked working this way because I go more in-depth and to the essence and learn more than generally anticipated. “
1.1.Most liked / easiest	Tests – 2 students (16,5%), especially the technical vocabulary test at the end Working with instruction books (Homework assignment (HA) No. 2, 3, and 4) – 4 students (33,5%) HA no. 5 – 3 students (25%) Individual and regular work, self-organizing time – 3 students (25%) All great, new and interesting, not too difficult– 2 students (16,5%) Learning specific words – 1 student (8,5%) Nothing in particular – 1 student (8,5%)	“Homework assignments. Because I could do them in my own time and check more than once. “
1.2.Least liked /most difficult	Technical vocabulary test at the beginning – 2 students (16,5%) Translation of technical words – 1 student (8,5%) Homework assignments, looking for words was time-consuming – 1 student (8,5%) HA no.1 First part was the most abundant and most difficult and time-consuming - 4 students (33.5%) HA no. 5 Looking for different examples – 1 student (8,5%) Don't know – 1 student (8,5%)	“I would prepare better for next time, I could have done better “ “Too many unknown technical words in the beginning “
2.Efficiency	(Extremely) Efficient method for learning technical vocabulary – 12 students (100%)	“I think this is the right example of how maritime English should be learned, from instruction books that were given to us in this research, because we are going to deal with the similar onboard. “

[4] Translated from Montenegrin by the authors.

3.Usefulness of the available word list of the most frequent instruction books' technical vocabulary	Yes – 11 students (91,5%) No – 1 student (8,5%)	"I think it would be better without the word list because this way we have to work harder to find some words, and while looking for them, we learn some new. " "...it would be useful to extract the most frequent technical vocabulary. Instruction books are of great importance to us, because without knowing them, it will be more difficult to find a job for us. " "...and during the studies, especially when we go onboard, words with translations to our language... "
4. Availability of additional marine engineering literature	Instruction books (the same) – 4 students (33,5%) Additional diagrams and schemes of marine systems – 4 students (33,5%) More texts describing operation (instr. books are difficult to follow) – 2 students (16.5%) Include a technical journal – 1 student (8,5%) Instruction book in the national language – 1 student (8,5%) A textbook in the beginning, instruction books later on (due to difficulty) – 2 students (16,5%) Bilingual dictionary (possibly illustrated) – 3 students (25%)	"I think it would also be useful to use some diagrams of the systems (fuel supply to the engine, water pump, cooling system…), and then, for example, to translate them, because we would learn the names of the parts and the way it works."
5. Time spent in comparison with „traditional" methods	More time needed – 5 students (41,5%) The same or less – 6 students (50%) Don't know – 1 student (8,5%)	"Certainly, more efficient and interesting, would have been easier if we had had the words translated " "More time was needed...but we learned a lot...it is easier to get ready-made translations and examples from the teacher, but this way we are "forced" to read professional material. "
6. Inclusion of the experimental method in the traditional second language classes	Yes (combined if possible) – 8 students (66,5%) No – 2 students (16,5%) Don't know – 2 students (8,5%)	"It would be easier, but this way we learn more, this way is more efficient" "I think this is better to be done through home assignments because in the classes the students would write it down without thinking, a this way at home we even have the liberty to call a seafarer and learn more translation options." "I think that working with a teacher would help a lot to those who face the Maritime English language for the first time, because the teacher can explain it and present live"

		”It's better to have combined learning,...some in the classes, some on our own....“
7. Suitability of the applied method in learning without a teacher	-Yes (definitely), especially after the graduation – 10 students (83,5%) (words from a dictionary are hard to remember), even better if we have the examples or at least translations (so we don't look for them ourselves) - Don’t know – 1 student (8,5%)	“It's always better with a teacher due to the authority and consultations “ “It keeps a better focus than the classical method “ “Definitely,...because some technical words change their meanings in different contexts. Through the examples, I could understand in which cases.... “It's easier to look for it in the dictionary, but this way is more efficient because we see the exact place where it is mentioned, in which part of the engine “
8. Additional suggestions for teaching/learning technical vocabulary	no (additional suggestions), I wouldn't change anything – 6 students (50%) more HAs as no. 5 – 2 students (16,5%) I hope we will get the word list with translation, at least before we graduate from the Faculty Add instruction books in our language with each assignment (for translations) Less words by the assignment, but more assignments	“I stated them through my answers, and, considering this kind of research, you can always count on me.“ “I don't have any, except more interesting research in classes.“

7.1. Discussion on interview results

Based on the newly generated categories, after the answers were analysed, reduced, and coded, we can tell that they to a certain extent correspond with the preliminary categories of questions. Also, the most numerous categories related to the variable of students’ opinions and suggestions, which was of extreme importance to us and which should always be taken into account with similar experimental research (Rubin and Rubin, 2005: 15).

In the next level of coding, we could point out the positive and negative perceptions of the research, i.e. the implementation of this specific method of data-driven learning. The most positive reactions in this regard would refer to the participation in the research, alternative teaching/learning methods (compared to the traditional ones), the interesting aspect, usefulness, and efficiency of the method. The most negative reactions are related to more demanding and complex home assignments, which required more time. Also, a good deal of negative reactions arose from facing new and demanding approaches, thus the most difficult assignment was considered to be the first and the fifth one. The most difficult part, i.e. the part they liked the least was also the first technical vocabulary test, presumably, especially for the students dealing with the technical maritime engineering vocabulary for the first time.

We also learned about the students' views of the best way to organize the language/ vocabulary classes in the future. The majority (66,5%) was in favour of a combined method, i.e. the combination of the traditional method with textbooks and the DDL method applied, while all of them were pro the inclusion of the corpus method.

The recorded responses also confirm the findings of a series of other research on various learning strategies and overcoming of their limitations (e.g. Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001; Hamzah et al., 2009; Jurkovič 2011; 2013; Baskin et al., 2017). Therefore, the students' autonomy and individual work should especially be accounted for in the teaching/learning process in order to enable them to do at least a part of the assignments by themselves, in their own organization and pace, in accordance with the set deadlines (Stanojević and Janković, 2021). This is also emphasized by one of the five basic objectives for the Engineering Officers language course (IMO Model Course 3.17 Maritime English, 2015: 150) as crucial for developing learning skills for the continuation of self-directed learning "at sea".

What is also obvious is that the students liked the combined teaching materials. They all positively reacted to the inclusion of instruction books into language classes, with the majority voting for combined textbooks and technical materials (75%), whilst three respondents (25%) thoughts that the class should be entirely based on the ship's technical manuals.

As regards the available technical word lists, 91.5% were positive, while one of the students (8.5%) believed that it would be better not to have a hands-on list but to search for the needed vocabulary, as needed. Three of the students (25%) expressed their desire to have a bilingual dictionary of marine engineering. These findings confirm the need for a bilingual glossary or dictionary of marine engineering, in our case, in English and Montenegrin.

In addition to positive reactions to the possible inclusion of DDL method and the technical vocabulary list in regular English courses (83,5%), the same percentage of the students emphasized the efficiency of the method and the vocabulary list that would be available after their graduation and during their professional career.

7.2. Limitations of the study

We have already discussed the sample size issue in terms of the final results taken into account for the statistical analysis. Here we must note some of the limitations generally pertaining to qualitative research in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2013: 41). First of all, the responses were not given anonymously, which could affect the objectivity in giving answers and data, in addition to possible subjectivity in data analysis and interpretation, considering the fact that they talked to their teacher who will be further involved in their assessment. This also leads to the so-called Hawthorne effect, causing the interviewees to act differently (less spontaneously and naturally, possibly less sincerely) knowing that they are involved in research and not being anonymous therein.

What proved obvious was their positive reflections on the efficiency of the method, although we believe that their final performance could be much better, especially considering the receptive nature of the required vocabulary skills which had been worked upon in the weeks preceding the final tests. However, the disconcordance between the participant's perception of the improvement in their lexical skills and the achieved results is also not a novelty in this kind of research (e.g. Fuentes and Rokowski, 2002: 12). In our case, one of the reasons for their underachievement (the mean on the final vocabulary test of the experimental group was 51.2 out of 100) was already mentioned and refers to the lack of motivation, since it did not affect their personal grade. What could also be the case is that their perception of efficiency referred to the process of learning vocabulary,

whilst the lack of review and preparation for the test, unlike for the control group, affected their final results. Anyhow, what is extremely important here was their positive reaction towards the method applied which positively influenced their autonomy and self-confidence. The disadvantages and possible improvements are the very reasons for conducting pilot research, which could be addressed for subsequent research, both in the class organization and assessment.

Here we are noting again that our research sought to explore the possibilities of enhancing the technical vocabulary teaching, i.e. the part of classes related to lexis, which does not imply a finally designed language course whatsoever. Our main goal in any of the courses will remain productive language knowledge, including vocabulary skills. This was also pointed out by the students themselves, who asked for the translations, descriptions of certain systems, and similar (Table 6). What we need to bear in mind at all times is that words as meaning carriers are not personalized (Barfield, 2012), i.e. they get their semantic purpose not sooner than in spontaneous or organized communication. Contemporary content-based teaching methods such as DDL are offered as a possible response to overcoming the gap between the scholar and active knowledge, by connecting the development of lexical skills (technical vocabulary) with its contextual application, including testing.

8. CONCLUSION

The goal of the conducted research was to test the possible application of contemporary corpus linguistics methods through the Data-driven learning method in the process of teaching/learning technical vocabulary. The method applied exposed the students to authentic technical material and provided them with a specifically developed word list from the corpus of selected ship instruction books and manuals. The research confirmed that innovative and intensified communication with students brings about new forms of interaction and useful feedback. The students' perceptions and opinions, along with keeping pace with their professional requirements, as well as contemporary scientific and methodological trends, should be our main guiding line.

The method applied encourages individual work and learner's autonomy, which is of special importance for their future professions, lifelong learning, and professional advancement. This method also helps overcome limitations due to different language learning strategies individually preferred by the students.

Taking into account the limitations of the research, in terms of the number of students involved and duration of one academic semester, the pilot study we conducted shows significant positive effects of the methods applied and their advantages in comparison to traditional (vocabulary) teaching methods. To overcome the limitations of the statistical analysis, we upgraded it with the quantitative part of the research anticipating semi-structured interviews conducted with experimental group students. Based on their feedback collected through the interview, we were able to obtain their perception, comments, and suggestions.

What brought us personal satisfaction and additional motivation from this research are the positive reactions of the students in regard to experimental and innovative teaching methods. The valuable information gathered this way is a valuable encouragement and support to the teachers in their endeavours of introducing authentic materials and modern approaches to language teaching. We also hope that the presented approach and testing of advanced technical vocabulary teaching would serve our fellow ESP teachers in designing their innovative methodologies and possibly develop similar but wider-range research.

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Review research paper

TRIGGERS OF SPEAKING ANXIETY IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: INSIDERS' PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract. *Learning a new language presents a host of challenges for non-native speakers. Foreign language anxiety of non-native speakers is one of the main issues in teaching and learning a foreign language. Non-native students of foreign languages and their teachers may not be aware of their different views on foreign language anxiety, therefore an attempt at fostering dialogue and mutual understanding must be made with a view to informing all parties concerned. This paper will examine only speaking anxiety of non-native learners of five different foreign languages for specific purposes (FLSP). The aim is to identify FLSP students' and teachers' perspectives on the causes of FLSP speaking anxiety as well as any differences in their viewpoints. A survey was conducted with FLSP students and teachers from all four Slovenian universities in winter 2020/2021. The results show the discrepancies between FLSP students' and teachers' views on the triggers for speaking anxiety of non-native speakers as learners of FLSP.*

Key words: *foreign language anxiety, foreign languages for specific purposes, non-native speakers, perspectives, causes*

1. INTRODUCTION

As more and more attention nowadays is paid to foreign language (FL) learning, FL anxiety has been classified as a crucial challenge for language learners. FL anxiety has been one of the major issues addressed by many language teachers and discussed by many scholars since the mid-1980s (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Horowitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Yan Xiu & Horwitz, 2008; Young, 1990), who have found it to be an important factor affecting FL learners' speaking abilities. The interest in the relationship between FL anxiety and FL performance dates back to the 1960s (Horwitz, 2001), however, studies in the 1960s or 1970s failed to find consistent correlations between FL anxiety and FL performance (Scovel, 1978). This inconsistency has been largely resolved since Horwitz and her colleagues developed the seminal FL classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) in the 1980s (Horwitz et al., 1986), with which studies systematically found negative correlations between FL anxiety and FL performance.

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FL anxiety is a universal phenomenon (Djafri & Wimbarti, 2018) that is not only found in the English classroom (Sila, 2010). Horwitz et al., (1986) believe that anxiety undermines the process of FL learning. Language researchers almost agree that anxiety arising from the language learning process is one of the most important obstacles that learners of English encounter in learning a FL (Alrabai, 2014). Horwitz et al. (1986, 128), as pioneers and key scholars in FL anxiety research, have provided the following definition: "FLA is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom language learning which arise from the uniqueness of the language learning process." They emphasised that FL anxiety is related to communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). Krashen (1982) explains that anxiety associated with a FL can act as a barrier that prevents information from reaching the language acquisition area in a learner's brain. In addition, several studies have been conducted on FL anxiety which emphasised that language learners who experience anxiety in FL learning may not enjoy it, which negatively affects learners' performance and achievement (Riasati, 2011).

The seminal work of Horwitz et al. (1986), marked the beginning of the Specialized Approach, which conceptualized, measured, and studied FL anxiety specifically in relation to FL learning. Subsequently, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was formally developed by the same authors. As shown by MacIntyre's (2017) review and a most recent meta-analysis on FL anxiety (Botes et al., 2020), the research on FL anxiety has been fruitful, and it still keeps attracting scholarly interest.

A number of studies went even further and reported on practical anxiety-relieving interventions conducted in natural classroom environments (e.g., Kralova et al., 2017). However, these studies have centred upon what teachers can do to alleviate students' FL anxiety. From learners' perspective, their use of affective strategy to "regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes" has always been an important part of their language learning process (Oxford 1990, 135). Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1990) for instance measures students' strategies for FL anxiety alleviation by incorporating only five items to examine either learners' general feelings in language learning or a couple of different types of affect, such as anxiety and fear. Such taxonomy might be inadequate if we aim to closely examine how learners cope with a specific affective challenge in FL learning, such as FL anxiety. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that, like SILL, the instruments employed in previous research are usually comprehensive in scope, and thus each category of strategy represented in them may not be exhaustive.

In response to this situation, some studies have utilized such qualitative methods as interviews and open-ended questionnaires to elicit learners' actual use of FL anxiety-reducing strategies and found that not only affective, but also cognitive and behavioural types of strategy have been employed to cope with FL anxiety (Kondo & Ying-Ling, 2004; Hurd, 2007; Hurd & Xiao, 2010; Guo et al., 2018). This has been further verified by a number of studies that investigated links between FL anxiety and social and language-learning metacognitive strategies (Chow et al., 2017) and studies on self-regulated learning (Bown, 2006; Bown & White, 2010), evidencing that thoughtful control of affect and cognition is a salient feature of self-regulated learning (Winne, 1995; Guo et al., 2018). At the same time, also significant differences emerged from the comparison of students and teachers' perceptions of FL anxiety. One of the major differences was associated with the views about a lack of English vocabulary as a reason for students' speaking anxiety (e.g., He, 2013).

Studies on FL speaking anxiety have been mostly carried out on FL for general purposes (e.g., Alber-Morgan & Riley, 2007; He, 2013; Zhang & Zhong, 2012) while they have rather neglected FLSP. When the two common threads of all conceptualizations of FLSP are taken into consideration, namely the central role of FLSP learners' needs and their reasons for learning an FLSP, it is evident that teaching/learning a FL for general purposes and an FLSP are different: a FL for general purposes is less specific and less purpose driven than an FLSP (Widdowson 1984, 1). The assumption was thus made that the reasons for FLSP speaking anxiety would be different from those encountered by learners of FL for general purposes (He, 2013; Zhang & Zhong, 2012). Although many studies have addressed FLSP, there is no study that examines both students' and teachers' views of the causes of speaking anxiety in FLSP as well as identifies any differences in their views with a view to factoring in our new reality now that coronavirus has sent the world education systems online. This is important because knowing both perspectives could help reduce speech anxiety in FLSP.

2. METHODOLOGY

Given the shortage of FLSP empirical research into FL anxiety, this paper attempts to investigate FLSP learners' and teachers' viewpoints on the causes of speaking anxiety in an FLASP as well as any possible differences in their opinions. The study attempted to address the following two questions:

1: What kind of perspectives on the reasons for speaking anxiety do FLSP students and their teachers have?

2: Are there are any differences between FLSP students' and their teachers' perspectives on the reasons for speaking anxiety in an FLSP?

The study design was a questionnaire survey. The inclusion of FLSP teachers and students was considered necessary to ensure independent, possibly differing perspectives on the same issue of speaking anxiety in an FLSP.

2.1. Participants

The participants were selected because they are the most deeply involved in the daily teaching/learning of FLSP and thus most closely related to the issues addressed in this research. FLSP teachers were sent an invitation to participate in the research and to invite their students to partake in it in the form of an e-survey. Altogether 190 participants from all four Slovenian universities took part in the questionnaire survey in the winter 2021, namely 160 FLSP students and 30 FLSP teachers. All the students were learners of FLSP, more precisely 104 were learners of English for Specific Purposes, 23 were learners of Italian for Specific Purposes, 21 learned German for Specific Purposes, 9 studied French for Specific Purposes and 3 Spanish for Specific Purposes. At their faculties, the carrier content of their FLSP study involved different disciplines, such as economics, business, and management (N=149) and political studies, sociology, communication studies and journalism (N=11).

To look at the profile of teacher-respondents, they have all been awarded the habilitation required for FLSP teachers at the tertiary level in Slovenia. Among them, 19 are teachers of English for Specific Purposes, 8 teach German for Specific Purposes,

1 teaches Spanish for Specific Purposes, 1 French and 1 Italian for Specific Purposes. Professionally, FLSP teachers are employed at all four Slovenian universities.

2.2. Instrument and procedure

For the purpose of this study, namely for the FLSP context, we adopted a 5-point Likert scale called The Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (He, 2013). To adapt a 13-item questionnaire (He, 2013) to the specifics and complexity of FLSP speaking, four new items were added based on Čepon's (2016a) findings on important reasons for students' speaking anxiety in business English, namely items 4, 10, 16 and 17 as described below. The final version of the questionnaire contained the following 17 structured items: 1. I feel embarrassed to speak FLSP, because I think my pronunciation and intonation are poor; 2. I am often worried that if I cannot speak FLSP well, I will not get a decent job in future; 3. I feel that not knowing enough vocabulary is the biggest problem preventing me from speaking ESP easily; 4. A lack of knowledge of my academic discipline is preventing me from speaking FLSP; 5. I become anxious when I get stuck on one or two words in speaking FLSP; 6. I feel more nervous when having to give important information orally in ESP; 7. I would not be so anxious just to learn to read and write in ESP rather than having to learn to speak as well 8. I do not mind thinking aloud in ESP, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to speak to others in it; 9. I am nervous if I have to speak ESP when I am not familiar with the topic; 10. I get anxious when I have to discuss my academic discipline in general, because I have not mastered it yet; 11. When speaking ESP, I often know all the words I need, but still fail to express myself easily due to anxiety; 12. I feel nervous when having to be tested orally in FLSP; 13. I get worried when I have little time to think about what I have to talk about in FLSP; 14. I get anxious when I find I cannot speak in FLSP fluently; 15. Others will look down on me if I make mistakes in speaking FLSP; 16. I get anxious when I have to react unprepared to a group interaction on topics from my academic discipline; 17. I feel nervous or get anxious when I have to carry out complex professional speaking activities based on the knowledge of my academic discipline. To ensure the best comprehensibility, FLSP anxiety scale was translated into the Slovene language. Reliability was 0.91.

In order to enable FLSP teachers to judge their students' anxiety levels and feelings as independent stakeholders, a teacher's version of the questionnaire was provided. The two versions are almost the same except for some wording. The respondents were contacted through professional contacts and via members of the Slovenian Association of LSP Teachers. The survey was active from 24 January until 9 March 2021.

2.3. Data Analysis

The response frequencies and the means of all the items were tabulated. Rank-orders of the means for both student and teacher groups were obtained to examine the importance of the reasons to each group. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was also conducted to find specific differences in the emphasis of the reasons between student and teacher groups. This method was used to compare the two groups (students and teachers) in terms of their means on each of the 17 items.

3. RESULTS

If we look at the reasons for speaking anxiety observed by FLSP students, the anxiety scale items show that the students perceive as the most important insufficient knowledge of the academic discipline (item 10) with a 4.0 mean score and a lack of familiarity with the topic (item 9) with a mean of 3.9 score. This suggests that for FLSP students a key reason for speaking anxiety is a lack of the specialist carrier content. Among the top reasons for speaking anxiety are also the performance of complex professional speaking activities based on the knowledge of the carrier content related to their academic discipline (item 17) with a mean of 3.7 score and the necessity to speak unprepared (item 16) with a mean of 3.6 score. Five reasons received a 3.4 mean score: speaking in an FLSP (item 7), speaking to others in an FLSP (item 8), an oral test (item 12), too little time to prepare for speaking (item 13) and giving important information orally (item 6). Six reasons received a 3.2 mean score: presumption of poor pronunciation and intonation (item 1), worry about not getting a decent job in future without speaking an FLSP well (item 2), not knowing enough FLSP vocabulary (item 3), a lack of the knowledge of the academic discipline (item 4), pressure from a peer group (item 15) and getting stuck on one or two words when speaking in an FLSP (item 5). At the end of the list, there are two reasons with a 3.0 mean score which dealt with foreign language proficiency (items 14, 11).

Speaking anxiety observed by FLSP teachers shows that the top three reasons with a mean of 4.4 score were: oral test (item 12), students cannot speak FLSP fluently (item 14), and pressure from a peer group (item 15). Four reasons received a 4.2 mean score: giving important information orally, speaking to others in an FLSP (item 6), thinking aloud (item 8), being unfamiliar with the topic (item 9), and performance of complex professional speaking activities (item 17). In the middle of the list with 4.0 mean score are: too little time (item 13), a lack of the knowledge of academic discipline (item 10), and speaking unprepared in an FLSP (item 16). Next group of reasons with 3.6 mean score consists of following reasons: speaking as the most difficult skill in an FLSP (item 7) with 3.7 mean score, and presumption of poor pronunciation and intonation (item 1), inability to express oneself easily (item 11) and not knowing enough vocabulary (item 3). Getting stuck on one or two words (item 5) received a 3.4 mean score, and, at the end of the list, there are two reasons with a 2.8 and 2.7 mean scores, respectively, namely a worry about not getting a decent job in the future without speaking an FLSP well (item 2) and a lack of the knowledge of an academic discipline (item 4).

MANOVA at item level revealed significant differences on nine out of the 17 items between FLSP students and their teachers. The calculations of items 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 16 did not show significant differences between FLSP students and teachers at 0.05 level. Both FLSP students and their teachers argued that a lack of the specialist carrier content is the main reason for speaking anxiety.

Teacher scores were significantly higher than those of students on seven items. Among them, four reasons (items 6, 8, 13 and 14) are related to the situation in which the students have to speak quickly and fluently to others, presenting important information. FLSP teachers placed significantly more emphasis than students on oral tests (item 15) and situations when students have to carry out complex professional speaking activities based on the knowledge of the academic discipline. Significantly higher mean scores on these items indicate that FLSP teachers were more likely than their students to regard these reasons as important causes of speaking anxiety.

4. DISCUSSION

If we compare these findings with the research of speaking anxiety in FL for general purposes so far (e.g., He, 2013), we can conclude that there are not major differences in the perceptions regarding the reasons for speaking anxiety. He (2013) found that speaking on an unfamiliar topic was a very prominent reason for speaking anxiety in a FL for general purposes. This reason was also strongly emphasized by both FLSP students and teachers in this study. However, in comparison with the students of FL for general purposes, the academic knowledge of the carrier content is more crucial for FLSP students where the presentation of certain language items (i.e., real content) should rely on topics from a particular discipline (i.e., carrier content) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

The results of this study point towards insufficient knowledge of the carrier content, both in the mother tongue and a foreign language, as the key reasons for pre-experience FLSP students' speaking anxiety. More precisely, the necessity to discuss the carrier content in a FL before having really mastered it in their mother tongue, speaking on an unfamiliar topics in a FL, speaking unprepared in an FLSP about topics from the academic discipline and carrying out complex professional speaking activities based on the knowledge of the academic discipline. On the contrary, FLSP teachers' perspective is that the most important students' reasons for speaking anxiety in an FLSP are being tested orally in an FLSP, not speaking FLSP fluently and social pressures from a peer group. That is to say, FLSP teachers are not of the opinion that a lack of the knowledge of the carrier content could be an important trigger of FLSP students' speaking anxiety. The results of MANOVA show that the most differently scored item is "Students think that a lack of the knowledge of their academic discipline is preventing them from speaking FLSP." The study identified 17 reasons leading to speaking anxiety of FLSP students.

One possible explanation for lower levels of consonance between FLSP teachers' and students' perceptions of the carrier content as a trigger for FLSP students' speaking anxiety could lie within the postulations of FLSP instruction, which requires teachers to accentuate the real content of FLSP instruction (i.e., foreign language) and not the carrier content (i.e., academic discipline; subject matter) for which they would have to possess genuine, real-world knowledge of the specialist subject content (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Consequently, the apparent disregard of FLSP teachers of the effect of inadequate carrier content on the raised levels of speaking anxiety may stem from a variety of reasons, such as taking the levels of the carrier content knowledge of FLSP students for granted, using learning activities that don't involve technology for technologically adept Millennials, employing activities not meaningful in carrier content, or not authentic and relevant enough for students' specializations (Buitrago Tinjaca & Contreras, 2008; Gibson & Sodeman, 2014).

The current findings indicate that the combined effect of FLSP students' unfamiliarity with the carrier content as well as concomitant insufficient real content is a major trigger for the speaking anxiety for both groups of respondents. However, all FLSP students' mean scores of the causes of their speaking anxiety are quite low while teacher-respondents reported higher values of the causes of speaking anxiety. One of the possible explanations for these disparities could be the rise of online teaching/learning during the covid-19 pandemic in 2020 and 2021 when schools and ways of instruction in Slovenia have undergone considerable metamorphosis. All four Slovenian universities moved instruction online as early as February 2020, therefore at home FLSP students were able

to access all sources for an FLSP that were normally not put at their disposal in classrooms during face-to-face instruction. Given the ongoing current extraordinary circumstances at the beginning of 2021, the levels of speaking anxiety reported in the study could be lower because the students were able to rely on all assistive devices at their disposal, such as online translation tools, online dictionaries and pronunciation tools as well as their textbooks and notes which were accessible at all times at their homes. Consequently, learning a FL, that is to say learning a real content of FLSP instruction, did not seem as problematic as it used to for some FLSP students during in-school instruction. The logical assumption is thus that online delivery of FLSP lessons must have alleviated the particular type of FLSP students' speaking anxiety that stems from a lack of real content of FLSP instruction which is an insufficient knowledge of a FL. As a result, also the levels of another type of their speaking anxiety that arises from a lack of carrier content must have decreased, therefore the cumulative levels of FLSP speaking anxiety noted in this study were lower. On the one hand, some FLSP learners may feel less motivated and distracted at home, but on the other hand a virtual classroom seems to make some of them enjoy getting to work at their own pace, setting their own schedule and being free from the environment of school (Stoeber & Pekrun, 2004).

If truth be told, and unlike FLSP students, most FLSP teachers had quite low levels of digital literacy at the onset of the pandemic and were thus rather unprepared to adapt quickly to new technologies for virtual FL classes. Logically, this must have had some unfavourable effects on their perceptions of their students' FL ability, hence higher mean scores of the causes of students' speaking anxiety from teacher-respondents.

When the pandemic set the stage for a sustained shift towards online learning in all Slovenian universities in 2020, it must have been more difficult for FLSP teachers to embrace digital technologies and get used to virtual instruction than it was for their students (Vrača, 2020). As a consequence, FLSP teachers could have expected higher levels of FL anxiety in their remote students. Based on the findings of 2021 study, and in the light of the pandemic, it is possible to infer that FLSP teachers could have subconsciously made attributions about their students' FL ability and higher levels of speaking anxiety based on their own raised levels of technology-related anxiety.

The evidence from previous research shows that negative anxiety-coping strategies could be transformed into effective strategies (e.g., Kao & Craigie, 2013) on condition that FLSP teachers could find creative ways to reinforce their students' existing anti-anxiety coping behaviours and eliminate those that are maladaptive. Primarily, this could be achieved by creating an environment conducive to minimizing speaking anxiety, but also with a focus on developing the necessary skills for coping with speaking anxiety and trying to customize the instructional activities to the affective needs of the learners (Young, 1991). With a view to minimizing speaking anxiety, FLSP teachers could more often discuss FLSP topics that the students are familiar with or knowledgeable about both in English and in their mother tongue, as well as prepare an FLSP curriculum and learning materials based on the carrier content covered in other subjects in English and in Slovenian. Another strategy to reduce cognitively mature FLSP students' speaking anxiety could be promoting conversations about non-FLSP topics (e.g., concerning the current state of world affairs in 2021), allowing sufficient time for answering, waiting for the students to speak until they have exhibited an eagerness to do so as well as using a variety of types of speaking (Krashen, 1982; Muntiningsih, 2015). Since Millennials were born into a technological world and stand out for their technology use, Juneja (2021) suggests that a pedagogical integration of technology and learning into Computer-

Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) has the potential to enhance teaching and learning with the help of modern ICT. The cumulative impact of meagre carrier content and inadequate real content of FLSP instruction, plus a lack of FLSP vocabulary, is not just anxiety inducing, but may render some cognitively mature FLSP students incapable of expressing themselves as young professionals, intellectuals and individuals. Eventually, they may become almost »incapable of communicating their inability to communicate« in an FLSP class (Granger, 2004).

According to He (2013), oral-test anxiety may cause a negative performance in FLSP, inhibit students from studying efficiently, and decrease their interest in FLSP, therefore, teachers should include students' classroom performance in their semester assessment. Similarly, fear of oral tests appeared at the top of the teachers' lists in the study by He (2013) and in the middle of the students' list of the importance of reasons for speaking anxiety in FLSP. A significant difference in this aspect – oral exam anxiety – suggests something important that can only be guessed at. All language teachers have witnessed the struggles of students during an oral exam, so it is not surprising that teachers rank it high. If the students do not, it could suggest that when they think about speaking anxiety, the feelings that last longer are emphasized. In other words, speaking anxiety before and during an oral test may be quite severe, but is ephemeral, while the threat of having to speak in a FL on any particular day in class in front of the peers and the teacher is not so short-lived and transitory. Some of the anxiety-reducing strategies could include reminding FLSP students that speaking in an FLSP class is a vital part of FL learning, and not a test situation. In other words, the realization that speaking is but a means of achieving FLSP knowledge, and not the ultimate goal of FLSP classroom interaction, might have a calming effect on high-anxiety FLSP students. Similarly, as pronunciation is often overstressed in language teaching, knowing that intelligible pronunciation and not perfect, or native like, pronunciation is the goal in an FLSP classroom, could reassure more anxious FLSP students (Gilakjani, 2012).

Additionally, as an anxiety-reducing technique, FLSP teachers should employ proactive focus on linguistic form (FoF) and avoid overcorrection. Instead of direct correction, teachers should use implicit unobtrusive exchanges in the form of immediate contingent auditory recasting, as this appears to have little anxiety-evoking effect on FLSP students (Doughty, 2003). Unsurprisingly, FLSP students often claim they usually feel uncomfortable when being the focus of attention in FLSP class, especially when they are not prepared enough and cannot speak accurately and fluently. A strategy that is likely to decrease their speaking anxiety is not to put anxiety-prone students in the limelight before they are ready for an oral task, as well as providing a relaxed atmosphere where language errors are considered natural in the process of FLSP learning, implementing group and project work, and focusing on fluency rather than accuracy (Amara, 2018).

The results of the present study on FLSP students' concern over a negative evaluation from their teachers or peers corroborated the findings of earlier studies (Horwitz et al., 1986). That is to say, the worry about others' negative evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the fear and expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively ranks high among the main reasons for FLSP speaking anxiety in our study. The strategies to minimize social pressures from a peer group should encompass a shift in attitude in order to make FLSP students change the way they regard one another. More precisely, using dialogue to substitute a competitive condition in an FLSP class with a collaborative condition, as well as using reflection to place more focus on the group and on viewing

peers as members of the same learning community (Pais Marden & Harrington, 2020). Thus, teachers should create a supportive learning classroom community as well as the one that provides optimal motivation and a collaborative atmosphere. According to Shinde & Shinde (2022, 6), the students' views on use of cooperative learning techniques, such as for instance jigsaw class, are positive as it not only lowers their anxiety levels, but »also intends to disclose student's own understanding of a concept, as well as reveal any misunderstandings.»

Despite the fact that our study showed that the knowledge of the carrier content was paramount for FLSP students, the question arises as to how and when pre-experience FLSP students should acquire the genuine real-world, specialist subject content knowledge related to various academic disciplines in a FL and in their mother tongue? It is evident that FLSP students experience speaking anxiety because they are not able to fully comprehend that FLSP was meant to be different from general FL instruction. Namely, FLSP integrates discursive competence of a certain discipline/profession in a FL with disciplinary knowledge and with professional practice.

One of the limitations of the study is that it does not use randomly selected participants. Another shortcoming could be that it encompasses only 16 Slovenian faculties, regardless of the fact that they are from all four Slovenian universities. Thus caution should be exercised with regard to the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, regarding the research method, only quantitative data through self-report instruments have been collected at a particular point in time, reflecting only how much the learners are affected by various dimensions of the reasons for speaking anxiety.

It must be noted that the construct of anxiety is dynamic rather than static on account of the complex interplay of individual internal variables and various socio-cultural and contextual factors (Kruk, 2017). Thus, learners' use of anxiety self-regulatory strategies may also be affected by these variables and may display a dynamic nature, which requires more in-depth studies with both quantitative and qualitative data collection tools. Finally, the current study does not investigate the variable of strategy, however some strategies from previous studies have been mentioned (e.g., Čepon, 2015). Future studies could assess whether students' use of anxiety self-regulatory strategies in a FL have accomplished its desired effect by measuring changes in their anxiety levels and language attainment.

5. Conclusions

The study showed that FLSP students and teachers hold different perspectives regarding the reasons for speaking anxiety in an FLSP. FLSP students perceived insufficient specialist subject content knowledge as the main reason for their speaking anxiety, while FLSP teachers' perceptions gave priority to oral-test anxiety, the students' inability to speak fluently and speaking anxiety arising from a feeling of apprehension of being looked down upon by classmates/peers for making mistakes. To conclude, insufficient knowledge of the carrier content is a decisive reason for FLSP speaking anxiety that the teachers should acknowledge more extensively.

These findings are likely to provide insightful information and have practical implications for tertiary FLSP education. The difference in perceptions of the reasons for speaking anxiety between FLSP students and teachers calls for further mutual understanding with a view to becoming better informed of each other's viewpoints.

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Review research paper

USING STUDENT FEEDBACK AND TEACHER REFLECTIONS TO DEVELOP COURSES: CASE STUDIES IN BUSINESS ENGLISH AND TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY ENGLISH COURSES

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Abstract. *The provision of high-quality courses and the utilization of effective behaviours, methodologies, and approaches are essential targets that educators should aim for. In order to achieve these goals, it is imperative that teachers reflect on their practices and regularly update their curricula. Drawing on students' perceptions and feedback are also of key importance when developing courses and adapting teaching practices. This paper reports on two case studies situated in Japan in which teachers engaged in self-reflection, sought and analyzed student feedback, and revised courses as a result of those processes. The article's primary purpose is to examine how student feedback and teacher reflections can be utilized to improve the quality of courses and teaching practices, enabling a more engaging and fulfilling learning experience to be provided. Consistent with previous research, the case studies outlined in this article demonstrated that proactive instructor responses to ongoing feedback and reflections could improve class content, student/teacher engagement, and students' overall learning experience. Thus, despite the many factors that may discourage educators from implementing changes to their courses and approaches, this article has shown that if constructive student feedback is acted on and sufficient effort is made to implement changes, then courses can be successfully adapted to the benefit of both students and teachers.*

Key words: *student feedback, teacher reflections, business English, tourism English, course development*

1. INTRODUCTION

The courses that teachers provide and the practices they employ all have a major impact on students' language learning, influencing both responses to instruction and attitudes towards communication (Mondada & Doehler, 2005). Consequently, the provision of high-quality courses and the utilization of effective behaviours, methodologies, and approaches are essential targets that educators should aim for, especially as it is increasingly being acknowledged that access to quality language education is a human right (Little, 2019). In

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order to achieve this, it is imperative that educators reflect on their practices and regularly update their curricula.

However, despite an apparent growth in the number of teachers conducting action research as a way of engaging in the reflective practice (Korpaš, 2021), effective reflection can be a difficult process and a reluctance to challenge their own approaches can prevent it from being achieved or even attempted (Craig, 2012). Furthermore, even in cases where reflection has taken place, some teachers may lack confidence in, or knowledge of, the best way to address any issues they have identified. There are also situations in which the possible benefits of implementing changes to courses and approaches are viewed as not worth the effort needed (Kavanagh, 2012). As a result, teachers revert to their usual practices and maintain the status quo (Laurier et al., 2011), often to the detriment of students.

Also, of key importance when developing courses and teaching practices is the need to draw on students' perceptions and use them as an invaluable source of information which can inform future changes (Sellick & Bury, 2018). However, in many cases, especially those in Confucian Heritage Cultures (CHC), such as Japan, where classrooms typically focus on the didactic transmission of information from teacher to student (Gorsuch, 2000), students have few opportunities to express their opinions and they are rarely encouraged, or permitted, to challenge the teacher or their classmates (Hayashi & Cherry, 2004). This, combined with the collectivist cultural norm prevalent in Japan, where the opinion of the group is valued more highly than that of the individual (Harumi, 2011), has led to a perceived lack of confidence or willingness to take risks among Japanese students (Hayashi & Cherry, 2004), including providing feedback on courses and offering potentially contradictory views. As a result, students often seek to maintain group harmony and avoid confrontation.

In view of this, this paper presents a six-stage methodological approach that can be used to enable teachers to reflect on the courses they teach and adapt them in order to offer better teaching and learning environments. The methodological approach is supported and illustrated by two case studies in which teachers engaged in self-reflection, sought and analyzed student feedback, and revised courses as a result of those processes. The case studies were located in two universities in Japan. While it is well-known that reflection and adaptation of courses are essential premises of effective teaching, many teachers may not be aware of methods that can be employed to achieve this. This article aims to address that gap.

2. Literature Review

In Japan, as in many other countries, the number of colleges and universities has risen drastically over the last 30 years. This has created an environment of intensified competition in the tertiary sector. In the search for ways of attracting students, faculty members and educational institutes are recognizing that competitive advantage can be gained through excellence in teaching (Byrne, 2000). It has also been noted that student expectations regarding their learning are rising as they seek more engaging class environments (Page & Mukherjee, 2000). As a result, it is imperative that educators, both in Japan and internationally, create curriculums that are engaging, relevant, demanding, and fulfilling. It is also essential that all students are included and provided with the opportunity to succeed and reach their full potential (Bury & Masuzawa, 2018). However, this is not an easy task, especially in the Japanese education system where it can be difficult to effect positive change (Hosoki, 2011), and developing the skills necessary to provide diverse courses and to employ a flexible, multi-faceted approach depends on a teacher's ability to reflect on their practice and the materials they have employed, and then adapt accordingly.

Engaging in reflective practice has a range of benefits for educators, the institutes they work in, and their students. Reflecting on in-class practice can encourage teachers to engage in practitioner-research, which can enable a move towards becoming 'holistic TESOL professionals' (McKinley, 2019) and academic 'all-rounders' (Macfarlane, 2011). It also promotes the differentiation of teaching methods and encourages teachers to experiment with new approaches, which leads to more diversified in-class activities (Bell et al., 2010). This is essential when developing effective teaching practice and enhancing students' learning experiences. It also challenges teachers to avoid becoming too engrained in one approach, which can cause the courses they teach to stagnate and quickly become outdated. Furthermore, reflection and active investigation into how teaching practice can be improved allows teachers to better understand their own values and personalities and the motivations and principles which drive their work, enabling them to construct their own living educational theory (Whitehead, 1989). However, the concept of reflective practice is complex and often not clearly defined, with the literature on reflective practice in education revealing tremendous variation (Jay & Johnson, 2002).

In general terms, Dewey (1933) defined reflection as "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 9). More specifically in the field of education, where the goal of reflective practice is acknowledged to be the process educators go through when attempting to enable effective learning, Valli (1997) states that teachers need to "look back on events, make judgments about them, and alter their teaching behaviours" (p. 70). While useful in helping teachers understand what reflection is, these definitions do not outline methods that can be employed by teachers to actually achieve successful reflection. Schön (1983) refers to a cycle of "appreciation, action, and reappreciation" (p. 50) as a central process of reflection, but this is lacking in detail and does not fully describe a practical approach that can be undertaken to improve the courses we teach. This article addresses that issue in the Methodological Approach section.

While an essential component of the process of course development, teacher reflections should not be sole source of information that revisions be based on. The way in which courses are viewed by all of those engaged in them is key to their success and investigating both teachers' and students' attitudes and perceptions can lead to more relevant, enjoyable, and motivating courses being provided (Kimura et al., 2001). Thus, in addition to the process of teachers engaging in self-reflection, eliciting feedback from students and then analysing and adapting courses based on that feedback is an essential step in creating better courses.

Seeking, analyzing, and then implementing change based on students' attitudes and perceptions can encourage learners to interact with course materials more and is also key to developing empowerment. Empowering pedagogies typically promote increased participation in the learning process (Willis, 2003) and enable interpersonal relationships between students and teachers as well as among students to be built (Lynch & Baker, 2005). It also shows students that their opinions are valued and this can enhance student teacher relationships (Cowie, 2011). Furthermore, acknowledging students' perspectives can increase positive attitudes toward learning, which will consequently enhance student engagement (Bury & Sellick, 2015). It is therefore essential that students are encouraged to offer their own opinions and are given the opportunity to engage with materials relevant to them. In the context of this article, this is important as while people are often willing to state what they want to learn and how in Western society (Barnett, 2004), this is not necessarily true in Japan (Bury & Oka, 2019).

3. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The development of the courses outlined in the two case studies in this paper was undertaken in six stages: teaching the courses, teachers reflecting on their experiences, eliciting and analyzing student feedback, combing the findings, filtering the findings, and making changes to the materials and teaching approaches based on those findings. It must be acknowledged that this sequence should not end at this stage, but should continue to be repeated in order to enable a constant evolution of courses that makes them attractive, fulfilling, and rewarding (see Figure 1).

At this stage, two of the steps warrant further explanation. The teacher reflection process included observations of student behavior, analysis of which activities engaged the students most, examination of personal experiences, the writing of teacher journals, and assessments of the different factors of the pedagogies employed, e.g. amount of teacher talk compared to student talk, the amount of time allocated to communicative activities, and effective classroom management. The process of eliciting and analyzing student feedback included observing student behavior, informal discussions with students, analysis of submitted work and in-class participation, weekly student self-evaluations of whether they had achieved the goals of the class, and more formal mid-semester and end of semester student questionnaires.

By describing and outlining the development of the courses and the processes conducted when attempting to seek ways of delivering more efficient and effective practice, solving current problems of delivery, developing pedagogical strategies, and building teachers' capacities to self-evaluate and examine their own practice, this paper can be classified as an example of action research, particularly technical action research and practical action research (Grundy, 1982).

Both case studies included in this article report on the development of four related courses: Business English Communication I-IV and Tourism and Hospitality English Communication I-IV. Having outlined the context in which the courses were developed and taught, four main aspects relating to each case study will be discussed. An overview of the process undertaken in the development of the courses can be found in Tables 1 and 2.

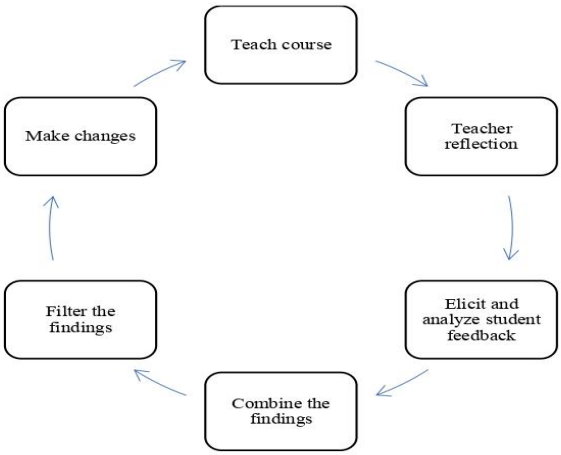

Fig.1 Process of course development

4. Case Studies

4.1. Case study 1 – Business English Communication I-IV

4.1.1. Context

The courses included in this case study were taught at a national university in the Kanto region of Japan. The university consists of nine faculties spread over four campuses, and the popularity of the undergraduate program has established its reputation as one of the most prestigious universities in Japan. The graduate school offers master's programs and doctoral programs and the university has achieved a high degree of participation in international cooperative research achievement projects over the years, with many research scholars and students studying on its various campuses.

Due to logistical issues, the courses reported on in this case study are open only to enrolment by students from faculties located on the main campus. Most notably, students from the faculties of Letters, Education, Law and Politics, Economics, and Science are well-represented participants in these courses. Both domestic students and international students are able to enroll. The English level of the students varies, and TOEIC scores can typically be seen ranging from 250~730.

All of the courses are elective and comprise of seven face-to-face lessons and a final assessment. The courses are taught over four terms that make up two semesters. The main focus of each course is on business communication, so the class is limited to 20 students. There is no set textbook and all materials are created and developed by the instructor.

4.1.2. Use of case studies

The courses make regular use of case studies, including one at the end of each course unit to solidify the lesson topic and support students' understanding of the English used in specific business sectors. The aim of the utilization of case studies is to reinforce the core materials and also give students a significant opportunity to practice within a controlled situation. Initially, the students examined and investigated a case study and the scenarios set within it. They then formed focus groups and provided solutions to the issues and problems outlined in the case study.

Student feedback indicated that it was difficult for each student to agree on a plan as a group. This supported teacher observations that many groups came to an impasse and could not move forward as all members could not categorically agree. Also, there were reports of students proving uncommunicative or inhibited when interacting and thus being unable to fully participate or convey meaning or opinions. Another major issue that student feedback indicated was a significant difference in English levels, meaning that students could not effectively formulate and share their ideas.

Acting on this feedback and the teacher reflections, revisions were made to the course, with tighter group roles being emphasized and meeting rules being introduced and applied. This allowed the case study approach to continue to be conducted in groups as clearer roles enabled students to understand what was expected of them. Also, students with more advanced English levels were given leadership roles, which included supporting lower-level students, scaffolding the development of their answers, and encouraging their participation. As an extension, the discussions were supplemented with an online group forum, which allowed more reticent students the opportunity to express different ideas while at the same time giving them time to process their thoughts.

4.1.3. Focus on business-specific vocabulary

As the courses focus on encouraging and enabling students to interact, communicate, and operate within the world of business, the teaching of business-specific vocabulary is an integral part of the teaching materials. When the courses were first taught, ten business vocabulary items were introduced in each class and then tested via quizzes in the following class. The scores from the quizzes contributed to the students' final grade.

Upon reviewing student feedback, it became clear that the vocabulary examples were too complex and specific for long-term use. Once the items had been tested, students indicated that they felt there was little need or opportunity to use them again, both inside and outside of the classroom. In addition, there was a feeling that the in-class quiz and following explanation took up too much class time, especially during a course consisting only of seven weeks of face-to-face teaching. This supported the instructor's reflections that the primary focus of class time should be on communication and interaction rather than quizzes.

In response to this, the target vocabulary was simplified and made less specific while still retaining a business English focus. This allowed students to incorporate the new language more effectively in their interactions, both in these and other courses. Guided discovery techniques were also introduced, which have been shown to increase student autonomy and proactivity (Hair, 2014). However, this was not always successful as some learners resisted this method, preferring to be led by their teacher. In addition, the graded vocabulary quizzes were added to homework assignments submitted online, thus enabling more interaction within the face-to-face classes to take place.

4.1.4. Utilization of role play interactions

Effective communication is a crucial factor in the overwhelming majority of business contexts. As role plays enable students to both interact more and also assume roles that they may not be able to in their everyday lives, they play an essential role in the design of these courses. In the classes, students regularly interact in pairs or groups and practice communicating in a range of contexts within the business sector.

Student feedback was often positive and it was stated that one of the main reasons for selecting the course was the opportunity to practice interacting orally in specific business situations. This supported the instructor's view that these communication opportunities were crucial in consolidating understanding of specific business situations. However, it was also noted that the interactions often felt unnatural, with students often providing generic answers or simply reading from a given example. In addition, students were often unable or unwilling to expand on their ideas and fully develop their conversations.

Responding to this feedback and teacher observations, more authentic dialogues were designed, and students were encouraged to not look at the example exchanges while conversing. In addition, expansion and extension strategies, such as confirmation and repetition, were introduced to promote more progressive ideas and answers. The benefits of implementing these strategies were clear, with students appearing more confident when attempting individual versions of each dialogue.

4.1.5. Testing and assessment procedures

Initially, these business English courses were assessed in four ways: class participation, group work activities, online participation activities, and a short test in the final lesson.

Student feedback indicated that a more substantial final assessment would be preferred, in particular a more extended test. Furthermore, more emphasis on specific skills being assessed instead of general class or online participation was requested. This was a feeling that matched the instructor's own reflections as it had been felt that some students tended to contribute less and allow stronger students to take the lead while still achieving an overall respectable group score.

Consequently, more focus was placed on assessing core business skills. Assessment scores for group and individual presentation performances, group and individual meeting role-play performances, assessed email writing, and overall communication and participation during role-plays and discussion were put in place. In addition, a more substantial final test was introduced. The final test was also allocated a more significant percentage of each student's final grade. The effectiveness of these changes was reflected in the final grades of each course, giving a much more accurate value to each student's effort, interaction and development throughout the course as perceived by the teacher. This positive outcome of the revisions made indicates how combining both teacher reflections and student feedback can enhance the learning environment and the accuracy and authenticity of grading.

Table 1 Overview of Case Study 1

Focus	Initial format / focus	Feedback & reflections	Revisions	Outcomes
1. Use of case studies	- Case studies were introduced and discussed to support the study point of each unit	- Groups could not always agree on a group plan of action - Some students were uncommunicative and unable to fully participate - Difference in levels and experience meant students could not always share or understand their ideas	- Discussion group roles were encouraged and meeting rules applied - Case study discussions were supplemented with an online group forum - Students with more advanced levels of English were encouraged to support lower-level students	- Lower-level students were supported and more scaffolding was provided - Lower-level and/or more reticent students could process and express their thoughts more effectively
2. Focus on business specific vocabulary	-10 items introduced in each lesson - Items tested in-class in the following lesson	- Vocabulary items too complex and specific - After testing, students felt little need or opportunity to use the items - Too much class time allocated to quizzes and explanations	- Introduced simplified business vocabulary items - Introduced guided discovery techniques - Vocabulary quizzes were moved online	- Students could incorporate new language into their lexicons more effectively - More time could be allocated to in-class interactions
3. Utilization of role play interaction	- Role plays were incorporated with students able to use examples for support	- Role plays felt unnatural - Students read from examples or gave generic answers - Limited development of conversations	- Students were encouraged to not look at example dialogues while conversing - Introduced extension and expansion techniques to encourage the development of ideas and answers	- Observed increases in students' confidence when personalizing dialogues
4. Testing and assessment procedures	- Students were assessed based on class participation, group work activities, online participation activities, and a short assessment test	- Students wanted a more robust test and more emphasis on assessment of core skills - Some students participated less in group work but still achieved the same group score - Stronger students needed to take more control of group work	- More focus placed on assessing core business skills - Introduced assessment scores for group and individual presentation performance, group and individual meeting role-play performance, assessed email writing, and overall communication and participation during role-plays and discussions - Introduced a more robust final assessment with a more significant percentage of the final grade	- Production of more accurate grades that better reflected students' trues performances

4.2. Case study 2 – Tourism and Hospitality English Communication I-IV

4.2.1. Context

The four courses included in this case study were taught at a private university in the Kanto region of Japan. The university is part of a wider educational organization, which consists of a junior high school, two senior high schools, a combined junior and senior boarding school, and a partner college in the UK. The university is unique in that it has a variety of different identities, with some very successful sports teams, a teacher education department that boasts one of the highest post-graduation employment rates in the country, a larger than average proportion of international students, and compulsory study abroad components for the majority of students that enroll.

The university consists of five faculties and the courses reported on in this case study could be enrolled in by students from three of those faculties: the Tourism and Business Management faculty, the English and IT faculty, and the Business and General Management faculty. The English level of the students varies greatly, with TOEIC scores typically ranging from 250~700.

While the courses are all elective, enrolment is strongly encouraged. The courses are conducted over four consecutive semesters, each lasting 15 weeks. In order to ensure a focus on communication and interaction, there is a maximum limit of 25 students. There is no set textbook and all materials are created and adapted by the teacher. Despite the courses being open to both domestic and international students, due to timetabling issues, the courses are usually taken by only domestic or only international students.

4.2.2. Use of case studies

In order to enhance students' understanding of the tourism and hospitality industry, the materials focus on a range of different case studies. These allow students to gain valuable insights and are effective in making the link between course materials and practical application more explicit.

When the courses were first taught, the students investigated the case studies and then wrote their individual solutions to the dilemmas and scenarios presented within them. However, feedback on this approach was not positive, with students indicating that it was difficult to find solutions alone, that they could not share their ideas or hear the opinions of others, and that activity was impersonal and uncommunicative.

Taking this feedback into account, the courses were revised to include in-class discussions that were conducted both in small groups and as a whole-class activity. The students were also able to report their solutions both in written and spoken forms. Furthermore, to make the responses that students produced more personal, the four responses outlined by McDrury and Alterio (2003), i.e. a 'viewpoint' response, a 'wonder if' response, a 'similar' response, and a 'what learned' response, were introduced. This helped make the students' responses more relevant and relatable to them.

4.2.3. Focus on tourism and hospitality specific vocabulary

As a major focus of the courses is on enabling students to communicate and function effectively in the tourism and hospitality industry, there is a strong emphasis placed on sector-specific vocabulary. Initially, 20 lexical items were introduced each lesson. These

lexical items were then tested at the start of the next lesson in vocabulary quizzes that contributed to the students' final grade.

Feedback from students suggested that 20 items in each lesson was too many and that once the items had been tested, they would quickly be forgotten as the students needed to quickly move onto the next set of 20 items. It was also indicated that the vocabulary quizzes took up a lot of class time. This matched the teacher's reflections which also added that achieving a relaxed, communicative atmosphere in classes could be difficult following a formal quiz taken under test conditions.

In response to the student feedback and teacher reflections, the number of vocabulary items introduced each lesson was reduced to ten. This enabled the students to focus more on those items. As there were fewer items to review, it also enabled more recycling of the target vocabulary to take place. Spaced retrieval schemes, which have been shown to enhance the consolidation of vocabulary knowledge and lexical retrieval (Bury, 2014), were also introduced. Furthermore, the vocabulary quizzes were moved online and incorporated into homework assignments, enabling a greater focus on communicative activities during class time.

4.2.4. Utilization of question and answer interactions

In the tourism and hospitality industry, the ability to interact effectively is essential. In the initial format of the courses, to practice and develop oral communication skills, students would ask each other a set of questions relating to the topic being discussed in the lesson in an interview style speaking activity.

Feedback from students indicated that they enjoyed the opportunity to speak and interact, but the interviews did not mirror real-world conversations. This was supported by the teacher's reflections which also added that the students were often producing short, formulaic responses to questions.

To address this, the courses were adapted to include more conversational interactions which encouraged students to develop and expand on their ideas. Also, a range of discourse moves that better represent authentic, real-life interactions were introduced, such as reflective statements, speaker referrals, and statements of interest (Bury, 2019). As a consequence, the interactions produced in class became more authentic and similar to those that students would participate in outside of formal learning contexts.

4.2.5. Emphasis on note-taking

Note-taking skills are commonly viewed as essential in business contexts. Therefore, when the courses were first introduced, the materials emphasized the development of these skills. Methods of improving note-taking skills were explored and activities that focused on their development were incorporated.

However, feedback from students indicated that, while useful, note-taking was not a skill specifically related to the tourism and hospitality industry. While this perception could be debated, the courses were adapted and the activities that focused explicitly on note-taking skills were removed with shorter note-taking activities being retained. This allowed more time to be allocated to tourism and hospitality specific skill development.

Table 2 Overview of Case Study 2

Focus	Initial format / focus	Feedback & reflections	Revisions	Outcomes
1. Use of case studies	- Students wrote individual reports of their solutions to dilemmas and scenarios	- Difficult for students to find solutions alone - Ideas could not be shared or heard - The activity was impersonal and uncommunicative	- Added in-class discussions about the case studies - Added the option to report solutions orally - Used more personal responses to relate to the case studies	- Students' responses were more relevant and relatable to them - Increased opportunities to communicate orally
2. Focus on tourism and hospitality specific vocabulary	- 20 items introduced each lesson - Items tested in-class in the following lesson	- Too many items - After testing, the items were easy to forget - Too much class time was allocated to quizzes	- Reduced the number of items to 10 - Quizzes were moved online as part of homework assignments	- Spaced retrieval and recycling schemes could be introduced - More time could be allocated to in-class interactions
3. Utilization of question and answer interactions	- Students would ask each other a set of questions relating to the topic in an interview style speaking activity	- Not like real-world conversations - Students often produced short, formulaic answers	- Included more conversational interactions - Introduced a range of discourse moves that better represent real-life interactions	- Greater development of answers and expansion of ideas - Interactions became more authentic
4. Emphasis on note-taking	- Introduced techniques and methods	- Not specifically related to tourism and hospitality	- Explicit note-taking activities were removed	- More time could be allocated to in-class interactions

5. DISCUSSION

Following the six-stage methodological approach outlined in Section 3, the two case studies presented in this article investigated five main themes: approaches to the inclusion of case studies in courses, approaches to the teaching and testing of vocabulary items, the structure and format of oral communication activities, testing and assessment procedures, and a focus on note-taking. Following the collection and analysis of student feedback and teacher reflections, aspects of the five themes were adapted.

It was found that establishing group roles enabled stronger students to adopt leadership roles and encouraged lower-level and/or more hesitant students to provide more input, thus improving participation. This increased engagement was also supported by the addition of an online group forum, which provided students with the opportunity to take more time when processing their thoughts. In addition, by introducing methods of producing more personalized responses, student solutions to the case study dilemmas became more relevant and relatable to them.

In terms of approaches to the teaching and testing of vocabulary, target items were simplified and reduced, allowing students to incorporate new language more effectively. The reduction of the number of target vocabulary items in each class and also moving quizzes online enabled spaced retrieval and recycling schemes that have been shown to enhance the consolidation of vocabulary knowledge and lexical retrieval (Bury, 2014) and guided discovery techniques that increase student autonomy and proactivity (Hair, 2014) to be employed as more class time was available.

Regarding the structure and format of the oral communication activities utilized in the courses, a range of changes were made that led to observed increases in students' confidence when conversing and personalizing dialogues, greater development of answers and ideas, and more authentic interactions being produced. The adaptations included encouraging students not to use the examples all the way through dialogues, introducing conversation

extension and expansion techniques, and introducing a range of discourse moves that better represent authentic interactions.

Amendments to testing and assessment procedures during the Business English Communication I-IV courses also proved significant. Based on student feedback and teacher reflections, the testing and grading methods were restructured, and this led to more accurate assessments of students' true performances, especially in relation to effort, interaction, and development of understanding of the key themes throughout the courses.

Finally, the Tourism and Hospitality English Communication I-IV courses were adapted to reduce the focus on note-taking skills. This allowed more time to be allocated to in-class interactions and for a greater focus on tourism and hospitality specific skills to be achieved.

The successful revisions to the courses were achieved by systematically working through the six stages in the model introduced in Section 3. This demonstrates that positive changes can be made to courses as a result of direct communication between teachers and students through feedback and also following the teachers engaging in effective reflection on the courses that they teach. While this has been acknowledged in previous research, this article has highlighted a practical way that that process can be undertaken.

6. Conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to introduce a practical method and process that can be used by teachers to improve the quality of courses and teaching practices, enabling a more engaging and fulfilling learning experience to be provided. The main elements of the model introduced include eliciting and analyzing student feedback and utilizing teacher reflections.

Consistent with previous research, the case studies outlined in this article demonstrated that proactive instructor responses to ongoing feedback could improve class content, student/teacher engagement, and students' overall learning experience. Thus, despite the many factors that may discourage educators from implementing changes to their courses and approaches, this article has shown that if constructive student feedback is acted on and sufficient effort is made to implement changes, then courses can be successfully adapted to the benefit of both students and teachers.

While it is inevitable that case study based approaches such as the one taken in this article cover specific, focused contexts, like Business English Communication and Tourism and Hospitality English Communication courses, it is hoped that this paper has highlighted a way that teachers can reflect on their own courses and adapt them to allow for the provision of enhanced learning environments.

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