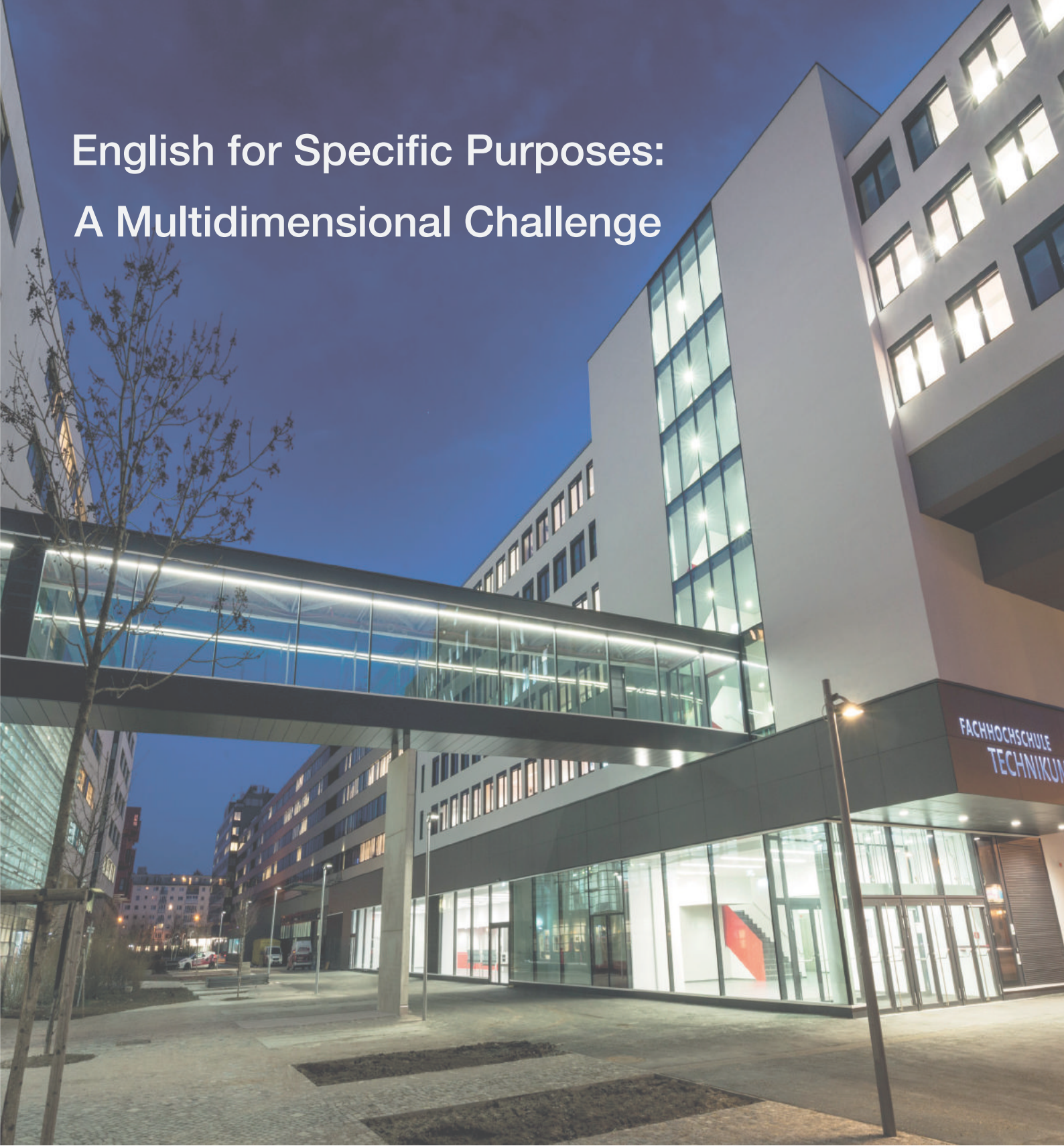
English for Specific Purposes: A Multidimensional Challenge



25 – 26 May 2018
9th Austrian UAS Language Instructors' Conference

FH University of Applied Sciences
TECHNIKUM WIEN


Pearson


HELBLING


Hueber
Freude an Sprachen


Cornelsen


BRITISH
COUNCIL


Edu
stream

Keynote Speakers

Conference Papers

Nigel Harwood

Researching textbooks and teaching materials in English for academic purposes contexts: studies of content, consumption, and production

Textbooks and instructional materials are at the heart of language teaching and learning. Yet, as Samuda (2005: 232) argues, language textbook and materials design is often mistakenly seen as unworthy of serious study: the development of teaching materials is supposedly "an essentially atheoretical activity". However, materials writers can draw on many theoretical models and frameworks to shape their product, whether the materials in question are commercially produced textbooks or teacher-designed worksheets for in-house use only. Similarly, researchers evaluating materials can draw on an array of approaches and methods to examine these products. Given the central role they play in most language classrooms around the world, it is important to study materials carefully and systematically to ensure their effectiveness. Furthermore, existing textbook research has been criticized for its lack of theoretical and methodological rigour (e.g., Harwood, 2010, 2014, 2017; Tomlinson, 2012) and there is thus a need to extend and strengthen the research base in this area.

I argue it is important to study materials at three different levels—the levels of content, consumption, and production—drawing on Gray (2010) in differentiating thus. At the level of content, we can investigate what materials include and exclude in terms of topic, pedagogy, pragmatics, and culture. Unlike studies of content, which analyse materials outside the classroom context (at the level of the printed/photocopied page), at the level of consumption we can examine how teachers and learners use materials. Studies of consumption are important because the manner in which a teacher uses their materials can deviate markedly from what is on the page of the textbook or the worksheet, as teachers adapt, supplement, and/or omit activities and exercises. Finally, at the level of production, we can investigate the processes by which materials are shaped, authored, and distributed, looking at materials writers' experiences, the affordances and constraints placed upon them by publishers or their institutions, and the norms and values of the textbook industry as a whole.

Having explained and justified my three-level distinction, I present examples of all three different types of research which focus on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) textbooks and materials. In order to exemplify textbook consumption research further, I focus on a recently completed study located in EAP language centres at three UK universities. The study involved eight experienced EAP teachers and their students. Some teachers were using textbooks they or their institutions had chosen; others were provided with in-house materials; others still designed their own worksheets or sourced the materials from a range of printed and online resources. Data collection featured repeating observation-interview cycles, as I interviewed teachers pre-observation about their lesson plans, discussing what materials they planned to use and why, and then observed the way the materials were implemented in class. During post-observation interviews, teachers discussed and explained what had happened, and the extent to which the way they had planned to use the materials aligned with what they enacted. Some of the learners were also interviewed to determine their beliefs about the effective use of EAP materials in general and by their teacher in particular. Similar to Wette's (2009, 2010, 2011) studies of experienced teachers' textbook use, I found teachers' plans to be highly provisional, their use of materials mediated by the students' responses which could not be fully predicted before the class began. The implications of the findings of my research for EAP and ESP textbook writers, publishers, and for teacher training programmes will be discussed.

Otto Maderdonner

Preparing for a new generation of learners – Content and Language Integrated Learning

Starting in autumn 2018, the University of Applied Sciences Technikum Wien will be seeing the influx of students born in the new millennium. Billed as Gen Z, they were born into a world marked not only by the omnipresence of mobile technology, but also by political, economic and ecological crises. Furthermore, they have gone through an educational system that often fails to deliver the skills they require in today's fast-paced world.

On a positive note, Gen Z comes with possess English language skills that significantly exceed those of previous generations of students, as they have benefited from the communicative approach that was widely adopted in Austrian secondary schools in the 1990s, and from English-language multi-media content available on the internet 24/7.

Thus, practising communicative skills and disseminating knowledge in lecture form are no longer the approaches of choice. First, because Gen Z students come with demonstrate language skills that qualify them as independent users, and, second, because they are not patient enough to absorb long-winded explanations. They prefer to draw on non-traditional sources of information to construct – or deconstruct – their ideas and concepts. However, this approach brings about three major challenges for instructors.

The first challenge is the internet itself – a post-truth world where useless, irrelevant, or deceptive facts are proliferating. Therefore, even though Gen Z may be at ease with large amounts of data, they have difficultya hard time picking choosing the pieces of useful, relevant and trustworthy information they need for their class work. Furthermore, they generally prefer a low level of challenge, and, therefore, they are likely to come up with slipshod solutions rather than well-researched in-depth information.

The next challenge is the skills gap that exists between those students who regularly draw on English-language sources for their work as well as entertainment, and those who do so more rarely or not at all. In order to bridge that gap, the instructor has to be on the side of the students, offering language support comparable to worksheets in the old days. However, traditional worksheets may not be effective, as students' learning activities tend to be self-paced and short-term, and often include cutting corners to get quick results. Therefore, we need to design a support system that yields quick but sustainable results by offering small portions of practice at a time. Moreover, it should be motivating enough to make the students come back for further learning.

The third challenge is to take the students' mostly informal language skills to a level that meets professional requirements. The ability to shift registers becomes more important as students engage in more complex tasks, both spoken and written. For this purpose, the instructor has to guide them in the process of varying their language use across contexts.

Guidance is necessary not only for students to develop advanced communication skills, but also for leading them on the path towards autonomous learning. Once students are autonomous learners, the instructor needs to reinvent him/herself to accommodate the wants and needs of Gen Z students. To do so, the instructor takes the slippery path of:

- democratising the processes of designing, editing and completing high-quality content;
- being involved as a team member, just as parents play games together with their children;
- learning from the students, just as adults learn about new apps from their children; and
- acting not as a custodian, but as a constructive critic and authentic evaluator.

Adopting these principles means leaving behind many traditional concepts and values, which may be a difficult proposition for experienced professionals. In the not-too-distant future, however, student-centred approaches applied by tech-savvy instructors will prevail, and Gen Z students will be change agents in learning and teaching.

Pre Departure Orientation: A journey through the intercultural classroom

Janet Brown, MA and FH-Prof.Dr. Eithne Knappitsch

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Conference paper

Pre Departure Orientation (PDO): A journey through the intercultural classroom

Janet Brown, MA and FH-Prof. Dr. Eithne Knappitsch

Carinthia University of Applied Sciences

Abstract

The workshop aims to provide university teachers with practical tools to help create a more inclusive learning environment; one that will inspire and motivate students to reach both their personal and professional potential. Key factors influencing active student engagement and learning will be identified and strategies provided for dealing with the challenges of the diverse classroom and for improving performance.

The Intercultural Classroom

This following paper is based on the premise that "students learn best when they are active agents in their own learning" (Brown, 2016 in Rolls et al. 2018, p. viii) and addresses the question of how a diverse and intercultural classroom may impact the teaching and learning process, especially with respect to student motivation and performance. This paper aims to highlight the role of the teacher in fostering student success, especially with respect to choice of content, teaching and assessment methods. This paper concludes by presenting possible teaching strategies for dealing with the challenges of the intercultural classroom and hopes to help educators create a more collaborative and effective face-to-face learning environment.

While many universities today are offering English-taught programs as part of their internationalization strategy, this is not always accompanied by an awareness of how the resultant intercultural classes may affect the teaching and learning process. Nor does targeted training take place for lecturers teaching through the medium of English. Based on the experiences gained within our own university context, it appears that the willingness to teach through English as a medium of instruction may be limited as often little time or resources are available to support staff teaching through a foreign language. This paper hopes to address some of the concerns which teaching staff on international programs face.

From an intercultural perspective, we are aware of some of the challenges which colleagues face not only teaching through a foreign language, in this case English, but in a classroom where English is a foreign language often for all participants. Language is "inextricably linked with who we are and perceived to be" (Montgomery, 2010, p. 36) and how we are understood. As with any intercultural context, lack of intercultural awareness and training can significantly influence the effectiveness of interaction in the intercultural classroom, irrespective of teaching expertise and experience. The intercultural classroom creates a new and often unknown context with numerous variables influencing the learning space, not least of all the culture of its participants. Consequently, this paper will also argue that the effective teacher of the intercultural classroom must ideally be both an effective teacher and an effective intercultural communicator.

This paper is aimed at teachers whose diverse classrooms result primarily from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, as well as different academic and personal backgrounds, comprising what we frequently call local and international students, who have chosen to complete a university degree often away from home and in a different language. Nonetheless, the suggestions made in this paper can certainly be applied to diverse classrooms, in general.

The diverse classroom brings with it diverse skills, experiences and perspectives. The inclusive classroom aims to embrace and gain value from diversity to enrich the learning experience and might be considered a valuable goal for all our classrooms in today's diverse world. We strongly support the view that "student diversity is no barrier to successful learning, provided that teaching strategies place enough emphasis on language and communication" (Montgomery, 2010, pp. ix). Hence, teaching in an inclusive intercultural classroom requires planning, frequent reflection and adaptation as well as a shifting of perspectives by both the learner and teacher to further the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to ensure a positive learning environment for its participants.

Key factors influencing active student engagement and learning

Learning

"Students learn more when they are actively engaged with the work."

This is the first of fourteen principles for good learning (Angelo, 1993 as cited by Rolls, Northedge and Chambers, 2018, p. 17), which supports the claim that successful engagement increases motivation, "[…] is a means, not an end" (Shor, 1992, p. 51 in McMahon/Zyngier) and empowers students to influence their curriculum (Rolls et al, 2018) and learning process.

Yet to understand what influences active student engagement, it is beneficial to reflect upon what influences learning to help raise teachers' awareness of what the learning challenges are which learners face today. Tokuhama-Espinosa (2014) writes extensively about '*Making Classrooms Better*' and how we can better understand learning processes through wider understanding of our brain processes. She argues that student success is primarily influenced by three factors, namely, "strong learning communities, great teachers, and the influence of a student's own biology" (p. xxxvii), with the teacher frequently cited as playing the most significant role. This supports our claim that teachers can actively influence the learning outcome and benefit from support to provide quality teaching and promote positive learning communities, especially in the intercultural classroom.

According to Bennett (2013), culture is the process of coordinating meaning and action. Hence, the key to furthering student success in the intercultural classroom is creating an atmosphere which allows learner and teacher to co-create meaningful interaction. As **learning is a social activity** and the brain is a social organ which relies on social interactions to understand social situations, if we had a choice, we would choose to learn in groups (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014). Rolls et al. (2018) agree that social integration, and being part of a learning community, is one of the major influences of the learning process. As members of a learning community, we learn and share in a new culture, a new language, develop a new identity and learn how to belong. As social creatures within this community, we learn about ourselves and others by comparing ourselves to each other, thereby fostering more positive interaction and stronger relations.

Classroom relations and "[g]etting to know your students has been shown to be a key factor in student success" (Devlin et al., 2012 in Tolhurst/Bolton, 2018, p. 180). Feeling part of a community and feeling a sense of belonging has a positive impact on academic performance (Rolls et al., 2018, Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, Williams/Williams, 2011, McMahon/Zyngier, 2009). Strong **teacher-student relations** foster student-centered classrooms, which promote greater student success than teacher-centered traditional classrooms (Tokahama-Espinosa, 2014) and boost self-confidence, motivation and commitment. Encouraging collaborative support and sharing responsibility can partly shift learning responsibility from the teacher to the learner and help to build trust, openness and goodwill in the classroom.

Similarly, misconceptions and stereotypes about fellow students, including attitudes about their learning experiences or motives can hinder the formation of a collaborative learning culture and our ability to communicate with 'the other' (Montgomery, 2010). Consequently, the classroom should be set up in such a way that students (and the teacher) can engage and interact easily with each other face-to-face. This feeling of respect and community and emotional connection in turn helps **classroom management** and reduces the need for disciplinary action. This may allow for classroom opportunities and challenges to turn into learning opportunities (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014).

Clearly, within the intercultural classroom our ability to communicate across cultures is critical and it is important to be aware of the "ineffective[ness] of unconscious and ethnocentric communication

across cultural contexts" (Bennett, 2013, p. 5). In other words, within the intercultural classroom, we must develop our intercultural sensitivity and our ability to engage in conscious interculturally appropriate communication that is adapted to each other and our learning context. This will help to ensure that staff and student expectations are clear and should be regularly clarified and learning experiences reflected upon to allow teachers to adapt materials and methodologies accordingly.

The Teacher

Not only do strong class relations and learning communities affect learning outcomes, but also more specifically the teacher inspires us to learn more (Williams and Williams, 2011). We all remember our favorite teacher, who managed to motivate us more than other teachers could; activating us with passion for their subject matter and knowing us better than other teachers did, responding to our needs and enabling us to learn more through quality teaching. And we do, it seems, learn more, from teachers we like than teachers we dislike (Tolhurst/Bolton, 2018, Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014; Williams/Williams, 2011). Fortunately, students benefit from having many sources of motivation as motivation affects all learners, yet each individual learner is motivated differently (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014).

According to Williams and Williams (2011), the **teacher** is one of five factors which affect **student motivation**, as well as the student themselves, course content, teaching methodology, and the learning environment. This calls for a differentiated approach to teaching, where the teacher knows their students well enough to employ activities adapted to the learners' developmental stage and readiness for learning. McMahon and Zyngier (2009, p. 164) cite Hattie, who argues that it is the teacher who is responsible for up to 30% of student achievement, reiterating that "it is what teachers know, do, and care about which is very powerful in this learning equation" (Hattie, 2003, p. 2).

"Being approachable, available and helpful have also been shown to be key factors in student success" (Devlin et al., 2012 in Tolhurst/Bolton, 2018, p.190) based on students feeling supported which encourages learners to ask for support. A good teacher cares and offers support in and outside of the classroom (McMahon/Zyngier, 2009, Tokahama-Espinosa, 2014, Rolls et al, 2018). However, education is much more than a personality contest. The role of teachers seems to be shifting from being preprogrammed knowledge dispensers to managers of student learning and the learning environment (Williams/Williams, 2011).

Although most teachers enjoy their work and student interaction, it is also a fact that expectations are high. Teachers are "expected to enable [students] to succeed" (Montgomery, 2014, p. 5), irrespective of workload and often frustrating circumstances. Others are not sure how to create an engaging learning environment and feel anxious in front of their students. Fortunately, new circumstances and more diverse classrooms can provide teachers with an opportunity to embrace change and become great teachers who shift responsibility for learning from teacher to learner by engaging with the learner and enabling them to actively contribute to the curriculum, its goals and how it is covered.

This paper takes a **constructivist approach**, assuming that the learning process is an ongoing constructivist process (see Principle 4 of principles which great teachers know in Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, pp. 24). In other words, active learning and developing new knowledge results from activating and building on existing knowledge and experience. Learning is not a passive and receptive process but takes place in stages facilitated through our language, the task and the context. The good teacher will ensure that the materials and methods employed relate to real life as this promotes learning and recall (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014) and that complexity is adapted to match student readiness, like scaffolding (Wood/Brunner, 1976 in Rolls, 2018). For example, reducing complexity of language by using familiar concrete language and explaining concepts in more than one way to build a bridge to more unfamiliar and complex concepts and academic discourse.

This, of course, assumes that **the good teacher knows their students** (Rolls et al., 2018, Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, Williams/Williams, 2011), including their needs and can link the content, learning objective and methodology to the cognitive, social, emotional and physical stage of development of their individual learners because "if we don't know our students, we will never fulfill their potential to learn" (Tolhurst/Bolton, 2018, p. 28). Good teachers reflect upon the success of their classes in relation to the focus, goals and purpose as defined for the class and subsequent classes and support materials are adapted accordingly (Rolls et al., 2018).

Rolls et al (2018, pp. 20) see the teacher as a "mentor, guide and expert", whose role involves stimulating discussion and engaging students in dialogue, enabling them to express themselves through ongoing support. It is advised to "take pleasure in your relationship with students" (p. 20), to communicate, listen, respond and adjust. Practice can improve our relationships with our students as can remembering "you teach the student not the subject". (p.20)

Content and the curriculum

This brings us to the question of curriculum. Tolhurt and Bolton (2018) claim that:

> "The first step towards building an inclusive learning environment involves designing a curriculum that is meaningful and accessible to all students […] which […] can be characterised as one with clear goals and intellectual challenge, which is student-focused, explicit and relevant, and embeds intentional support." (p. 181)

The great teacher designs an "authentic curriculum which connects to the lived experiences of all students […] that is relevant to their lives and interests taught by caring educators with a passion for teaching and respect for their students" (McMahon/Zybier, 2009, p. 176).

Effective activities ideally consider the different abilities, past experiences and existing knowledge of the learners, are neither too hard nor too easy, but challenging and support the learning process by being "active, social, collaborative, and authentic" (Tokihama-Espinosa, 2014, p. 238). Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat (Tokihama-Espinosa, 2014), which means that challenging tasks keep students activated, while fear and anxiety hinder learning. For example, simply reading and contemplating a text will not focus students' attention as much as creating an intriguing task and specific questions to accompany the reading and stimulate reflection and analysis.

According to Northedge (2018), well-designed **materials** activate thinking, have clearly defined learning outcomes and instructions, formulate engaging and meaningful questions and offer feedback to ensure students remain motivated. New ideas and theory are best introduced once students' thinking has been activated and is focused on the subject matter to construct new knowledge in dialogue with the academic community.

This is why it is important to ensure that classroom materials, examples and visuals incorporate a variety of contexts relevant to your students' backgrounds and interests. Assignments and tasks will incorporate their diverse backgrounds, yet beware of over-generalizations and stereotyping. Perhaps allowing students to engage in discussions in their native language may be appropriate depending on the aim of the exercise, for example, to share experiences and build a more comfortable collaborative atmosphere.

"Learning happens as a by-product of participating meaningfully in knowledgeable discourse" (p. 77) and it is the activities which enable meaningful participation. Rather than designing a course around a list of topics, one recommendation is to consider how to develop ideas through a series of cases (Northedge, 2018).

Methodology

Milton Bennett defines culture as telling us what to pay attention to (Bennett, 2013). Within our university culture, the teacher is responsible for sharing with students what to pay attention to and what is acceptable and expected within their university teaching and learning culture. The teacher mediates student thinking and knowledge acquisition by creating opportunities to find meaning and make sense of the world together in relation to a clearly defined and communicated purpose and focus (Rolls et al., 2018). "The search for meaning is innate in human nature" (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014), which is why asking the right questions and allowing enough time to reflect upon those questions and formulate personalized answers to the problems discussed can lead to deeper learning and understanding.

This can easily be done by sharing good practice examples. Northedge (2018, pp. 64) shares a claim by Deyck (1994, p. 40) with us: "One way to improve teaching and learning is to improve the **examples** we use so that they more effectively communicate difficult concepts." Northedge argues that it is these good (and diverse) examples which should act as the basis of our teaching and support the teaching-learning dialogue. New ideas and methods as well as new ways of understanding support thinking and knowledge development as our brain seeks novelty (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014).

We learn through our senses and emotions are critical to learning (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014), so it is important to use a variety of examples and methods to encourage student engagement and use positive emotions and praise to reinforce positive behavior and learning.

Testing, Evaluation and Assessment

It is important to ensure that enough time is allocated not only to cover course content, but to use a variety of teaching methods and forms of assessment to ensure that academic discourse skills are developed. Unfortunately, "[w]e haven't managed to match our evaluation systems to the types of skills we hope to cultivate in society" (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, p. 264), which is why it is important we consider new forms of assessment.

According to Tokuhama-Espinosa (2014), we should ideally be spending valuable class and contact time on furthering learners' ability to direct and reflect on their own learning and guide learners to fulfill their individual learning aims. Understanding the learners and their backgrounds can help to understand their learning needs and feed into the development of course materials as well as building on strengths and supporting weaknesses identified through effective assessment and communicated through effective feedback.

Tolhurst and Bolton (2018) write about how to support diversity in the university classroom and emphasize the importance of fair assessment which promotes independent learning and values the strengths of a diverse classroom. There must be a clear connection between the assessment task and learning goal. Assessment should serve to develop skills and knowledge and be manageable in the time allocated. Additional time should be found at regular intervals for student feedback on course design and delivery to promote student inclusion and learn about the teaching. Student feedback can be used to further develop class strengths and take corrective action regarding areas of concern.

An assessment task must encourage inquiry to foster deep thinking, for example, applying learning to a case study. To obtain optimal results from an assessment tool, Tolhurst and Bolton (2018, pp. 194) make the following recommendations:

BEFORE the assessment deadline:

- Provide a model of the task
- Be explicit about assessment criteria
- Build in a draft version, including feedback, to ensure students are clear about purpose, structure and expectations
- Allow students to assess the strengths and weaknesses of their own work, or give feedback on peer's work

AFTER the assessment deadline:

- Provide specific feedback on task content and structure
- Identify weaknesses with coherence, providing sample version of part
- Ask student to identify plan of action to improve performance based on teacher feedback, focusing on most important points
- Allow student to repeat task to ensure teacher feedback "has immediate relevance".

Poor performance

Tolhurst/Bolton (2018) see **plagiarism** and other forms of cheating or absence as a possible coping mechanism employed when faced with challenging content, processes, or schedules associated with formal learning (Moore, Armstrong, and Pearson, 2008). This in turn may be a sign that it is indeed the teacher and/or the educational institution "failing to enable the student to achieve their potential" (McMahon/Zyngier, 2009, p. 165).

Montgomery (2010) further raises awareness of cultural differences in our understanding of concepts such as plagiarism and cheating (p. 35) as rules are context-specific and not always explicit or clearly understood and need to be learned, by both home and international learners. According to Leask (2004, as cited in Montgomery, 2010, p. 35), there is no evidence of international students plagiarizing more than home students. Montgomery calls for reflection and changes in our teaching, learning and assessment policies rather than over-simplified "blame-shifting".

While student success is often associated with great teachers, student failure or "lack of student engagement" is frequently linked to the student (McMahon/Zyngier, 2009). McMahon and Zyngier (2009, p. 167) warn of the lack of "student voice" in developing curricula with critical voices generally considered "disruptive [..] or disengaged" and often belonging to marginalized students. Considering that teachers and learners must both believe in their ability to learn (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014), one might draw the conclusion that lack of such belief could lead to disengagement.

The teacher's perception of student ability has also been found to be related to language proficiency (Montgomery, 2010). It was found that poor language proficiency was often linked to the perception of lack of subject knowledge and poor academic ability (p. 36).

Teaching Strategies to Promote Learning

The world as we have created it is a process of our thinking. It cannot be changed without changing our thinking.

Albert Einstein

Student engagement

Active student engagement is believed to be one of the key principles of effective teaching and learning (Tokuhoma-Espinosa, 2014), whereby "an engaged classroom is like a suspense film, keeping students hooked throughout the entire class period" (p. 242). Student involvement motivates student learning. McMahon and Zyngier (2009) argue that student engagement serves four purposes: firstly, to "re-engage alienated students by providing them with a stronger sense of ownership" (Mitra, 2003, p. 290), secondly, to bring student "knowledge and perspectives" into the classroom (Mitra, 2006, p. 459), thirdly, "involving students" shifts the blame for failure away from students (Mitra, 2006, p. 459), and fourthly, "enables young people to develop positive identities as learners" (Ruddick and Dimitriou, 2003) (p. 168). These arguments strongly support the demands placed on the intercultural classroom.

Intercultural sensitivity

To conclude, this paper has looked at how student engagement can improve our teaching and learning in the intercultural classroom. Furthermore, we would like to highlight the importance of mindset and attitudes towards the learner and their potential. As we have learnt, the teaching-learning process is "a meeting of minds" (Montgomery, 2010, p. 5) and our attitudes towards our students' ability to learn are fundamental to learning. However, the level of competence which we aspire to or expect our students to aspire to may no longer be realistic and conform with today's globalized campus and living space.

Montgomery cites Kramsch (1998, p. 30) who argues that the native mono-linguistic mono-cultural speaker is a "slowly disappearing species or nationalistic myth" and she would like to see a world where "we make the intercultural speaker the unmarked form" where "intercultural learning become the norm [and goal] of the internationalized university" for all students.

Montgomery is a strong proponent of intercultural learning and its integral role in promoting "innovative and collaborative teaching and learning environments" (p. 40). Montgomery expresses some concern over our feelings of superiority in the West, and how we are failing to see the complexity and diversity of our higher educational systems. What we need is a new perspective on learning and the internationalization of higher education. Montgomery does not support conforming to the practices of the dominant culture, but rather favors "interactive pedagogies" which take a collaborative approach and critically reflect each other's backgrounds as a valuable component of the curriculum.

We need to be enabling more meaningful and authentic intercultural interaction and move away from an oversimplified view of 'us and them', 'home and international' students and allow for "troublesome space[s]" to form, where transformative learning takes place through misunderstandings and reflection (Montgomery, 2010, p. 132). "People who have a great degree of openness to experiences learn faster than those who don't" (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, pp. 235-236). Yet welcoming novelty demands a mindset that "takes fear out of the equation".

The learner-centered intercultural classroom is more effective as it requires a shift from teacher-driven and content-centered learning to seeing the classroom as student-centered and process driven

(Williams/Williams, 2011). Let us adopt "inclusionary practices" (Mcmahon/Zyngier), a positive mindset and high expectations with academic and social support systems.

Northedge (2018) recommends shifting our teaching focus from the subject and content to the student and learning, the how rather than the what. In line with Bennett's view on managing diverse groups, we are calling for innovation and focus to reconcile unity and diversity (Bennett, 2013) in the intercultural classroom. If we see diversity as a threat to unity there will be neither focus nor innovation. The modern classroom offers an ideal setting to promote learning, especially intercultural learning for both teacher and learner. As students, learners are of equal status and create an ideal environment for student interaction and growth. Through mutual respect, adaptation and learning, the intercultural classroom can overcome the challenges which students and teachers alike face.

Unfortunately, it appears that many of the staff teaching international and diverse groups have had little if any preparation or guidance on how to safeguard a successful learning experience or how teaching and assessment methods could be adapted to ensure a more collaborative learning atmosphere. We are continually hearing about innovative teaching methods and learning tools, yet seldom are these tied to internationalization of the curriculum and classroom. There appears to be a lack of positive mindset regarding the overall benefits which could be reaped from more inclusive teaching, learning and assessment tools and the intercultural classroom (Montgomery, 2010).

Yet we believe that diversity should be seen as integral to the complex teaching and learning experience of the intercultural classroom. The intercultural learning culture emphasizes social interactions and practices which highlight learner similarities rather than differences. Our increasingly mobile world as led to an amalgamation of lifestyles. Hence, international learners today have very similar issues. This social context can serve to link informal to formal learning. The key to a productive intercultural classroom is to encourage intercultural learning and interaction. This can be done through teachers building it into the curriculum and rewarding it through learner-centered assessment tools.

In conclusion, we adapt the words of Tokuhama-Espinosa (2014) and apply them to the intercultural classroom:

> "Award-winning [intercultural] teachers are humane and care about their [diverse] students. They believe in their students [and themselves] and in their ability to learn. They stretch their students, pushing them to be more than they themselves [and others] think they can be. They know what they're doing and have deep knowledge about their subject[, themselves and their students]. They push their students to think deeply and profoundly about themselves [and others] and their beliefs regarding the topic [and the world] so as to [co-]construct their own learning […] and we can all learn to teach better."
>
> ([ideas added in square brackets by author]Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, p. 114)

References

Bennett, M.J. (2013) Basic Concepts of Intercultural Communication, Intercultural Press. Boston

McMahon, B.J. / Zyngier, D. (2009) Student Engagement: Contested concepts in two continents. Research in Comparative and International Education. Vol. 4 No.2. SAGE Journal

Montgomery, C. (2010) Understanding the International Student Experience. Palgrave Macmillan. London

Rolls, N./Northedge, A. & Chambers, E. (2018) Successful University Teaching in Times of Diversity. Palgrave. London

Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2014) Making Classrooms Better. Norton. NY.

Tolhurst, F. / Bolton, K. (2018) Supporting Demographic Diversity in Rolls, N./Northedge, A. & Chambers, E. Successful University Teaching in Times of Diversity. Palgrave. London

Williams, K.C. / Williams, C.C. (2011) Five key ingredients for improving student motivation. Research in Higher Education Journal.

The Active Use of Comics in Presentations

Tanja Psonder, Gerhild Janser-Munro

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

The Active Use of Comics in Presentations

Tanja Psonder, Gerhild Janser-Munro
FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria

Abstract

This conference contribution briefly introduces the active application of non-fictional comics in presentations with a technical focus. It aims at showing how simply either abstract or concrete comics can replace the traditional presentation formats, furthermore, add structure to the content and make the presentations livelier. Additionally, the paper looks into the necessary preparative steps and first findings.

Introduction

Comics form part of popular culture and predominantly appeal to the younger generations. Taking this assumption as a starting point, comics were first examined for educational potential in the second half of the last century but were considered as inapt, even blacklisted and hence not used as a means of instruction. Fortunately, comics have recently recovered as a topic of interest in education and are considered as an appropriate form of expressing ideas in an oral and written setting. Having students create their own comics may improve their motivation, their higher literacy and their conceptual understanding. Reading comics, on the other hand, involves a complex multi-modal literacy and using them actively in the classroom helps students develop as critical and engaged interpreters of multi-modal texts.

As comics are sequential art, they clearly differ from cartoons. The sequence of related images makes up a story and, hence, holistically acquaints the audience with the content. Furthermore, comics add structure to the content and link well the individual parts. As a final step, this whole picture that is generated is then complemented by the explanatory words which directly leads to the application of comics in the field of presentations as a valuable tool. Nick Sousanis (Sousanis 2015) argues that the great potential of comics lies in their concreteness. Images are whereas words are always about something. Comics tell the audience a story and this element of story-telling is a crucial one in giving a convincing and powerful presentation that attracts the audience. In comics, words and images are joined in a mutual relationship that visually and verbally intermingles. This cohabitation generates a multiple resonance, a dynamic cycle of read-look, look-read that clearly adds liveliness and interpretation to the presentation.

According to Josh Elder (Elder 2014), the three E's of comics summarise best the power of comics as an informational tool. These are engagement, efficiency and effectiveness. First, the audience need to actively create meaning from the text combined with images and therefore need to engage actively. Second, the format of a comic is considered very efficient in disseminating information within a short and limited time span. And last, converting text and images into meaning results in a 'better recall and transfer of learning'.

Application & Task Preparation

Advanced presentations training in English forms a major part of the communicative skills training at Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria. As students on master's degree level doubtlessly have made their experiences in multiple and differing presentation environments, the aim is to familiarise them with a different presentation approach. The student cohort selected for the task was a group of architecture students in their first year, as this new access perfectly well connects to their career field in so far as the creative component, the drawing, is not only included but even focussed on. We all know the common saying 'a picture says more than a thousand words' and this in our minds served as a starting point for the presentation assignment. The conclusions drawn here in this contribution exclusively refer to the work with architecture students. From other engineering areas there is no feedback available at the moment. The conclusions drawn from the cohort of architecture students as well as other feedback received will be used, implemented and developed further in presentation courses for engineering students, e.g. students of Information Management amongst others.

The students were requested to present a given topic in the form of a comics presentation that should replace a standard power point, prezi or poster presentation. They were provided with various examples of comics, among them some which are produced for science communication. Although this special genre (Tatalovic 2009) is unfortunately mostly ignored by researchers and educators, these non-fictional science comics explain real-life phenomena by using fictional elements and techniques very well.

Architectural presentations, in general, strongly rely on highly-qualitative visual input. A lot of information can be directly generated from the image while the spoken word discreetly complements the global picture. This structure is reinforced by converting the topic into single, sequentially-related images that together form the global picture and translates the meaning into ideas and words.

The preparative steps, nonetheless, resemble those of a standard presentation as you start off doing some research and collecting material. The essential difference between a conventional presentation and a presentation based on comics is that the chosen images are not an add-on to the spoken word but homogeneously complement the oral part. In comics presentations, the value of the visual component even goes one step further as the images take over the structure, the sequence of the talk and clearly show it to the audience. Hence, the audience is able to follow the talk more easily. As words and pictures are equal partners in this union as Nick Sousanis (Sousanis 2015) calls it. Text becomes an integral element of the composition as both parts are inextricably interwoven.

The organisation of a comics presentation does not differ significantly from the organisation of a standard presentation. It also follows the trinity of prepare, design, and deliver. During the preparation process, the presenters ask themselves the same questions such as what is the purpose of the presentation, what does the audience expect and what content do I want to deliver. The big difference, however, is that they do not sit down and start making notes but they take down their ideas in the form of simple images, sketches that transport their reflection process and will be later converted and finalised into a clear picture. Hence, the focus is shifted to the visual component as the images form the core from the very beginning till the final presentation. Due to the drawing process, the active discussion with the content is highly intensive and significantly contributes to a strong identification with the presentation itself. Last but not least, the delivery of the presentation also follows what

we known from technologically supported presentation formats. Students can either digitalise their comics or present their hand-drawn versions.

Conclusions

All in all, the feedback on the comics presentation assignment has been a very positive one so far, as the students enjoyed the creative focus. They clearly highlighted the fun component and the fact that they could add something to their presentations in which they see themselves as experts. Architecture students, in general, are well aware of the fact that holding presentations form a major part of their daily work as a future architect. Hence, they put a lot of effort in the organisation and delivery of presentations. For that reason, the students evaluated the use of comics in their presentations as a complex and effective tool that requires to actively construct meaning by interacting actively with both the written and picture-based information which led to a highly satisfactory outcome. Further conclusions but this time drawn by the instructor was that as the students transferred their ideas into pictures and produced them themselves, they were more deeply familiarised with the topic which resulted in very fluent and coherent deliveries.

References

Elder, J. 2014. *Reading With Pictures: Comics That Make Kids Smarter.* Kansas City: Andrews McMeel Publishing.

McCloud, S. 2001. *Comics Richtig Lesen. Die unsichtbare Kunst*. Hamburg, DE: Carlsen.

Sousanis, N. 2015. *Unflattening*. Cambridge, USA: Harvard University Press.

Tatalovic, M. 2009. Science comics as tools for science education and communication: a brief, exploratory study. *Journal of Science Communication,* 1-17. Retrieved from: https://jcom.sissa.it/sites/default/files/documents/Jcom0804(2009)A02.pdf

https://www.comicsgrid.com/articles/10.5334/cg.ax/

https://teach.com/blog/why-comics/

http://www.tagesspiegel.de/kultur/comics/nick-sousanis-dissertation-in-comicform-die-entflachung-der-welt/12211020.html

The Impact of Using an Educational Web 2.0 Tool IHMC CmapTools on the Achievements of ESP Students

Eglė Selevičienė

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

<The Impact of Using an Educational Web 2.0 Tool IHMC CmapTools on the Achievements of ESP Students>

<Eglė Selevičienė>

<Mykolas Romeris University, Vilnius, Lithuania>

Abstract

< *IHMC CmapTools* freeware environment is the result of research conducted by American scientists A. Cañas and J. Novak, empowering users to represent their knowledge using concept maps, to share them with peers and to publish them. The strategy of using concepts mapping in education is usually based on Ausubel, Novak, and Hanessian's assimilation theory of learning. Within this theoretical framework the learner shifts away from learning in a rote fashion and moves to learning in a more meaningful way. Rather than memorizing information, the learner searches out the relationships among concepts and organizes a structure to the new knowledge that is unique to him or her. Research to date supports the efficacy of *CmapTools* for concept mapping in different areas of education, including teaching and learning English as a second language for specific purposes.

This article reports on the results of a quasi-experimental research aimed at determining the effectiveness of *CmapTools* on ESP students' achievements in terms of specialized vocabulary acquisition; the study was conducted in 2 higher education institutions in Lithuania during the second semester of academic year 2016-2017 with the participation of 107 students enrolled in two compulsory ESP courses. Descriptive analyses and *t*-tests were employed to compare the mean scores of 2 ESP vocabulary achievement tests in experimental and control groups and to determine the relationship between the independent variable of the treatment of applying *CmapTools* in ESP classes for the students of the experimental groups and dependent variable of their achievements (scores).>

<1. Introduction>

< Learning any foreign language is closely related to knowledge of vocabulary. Richards *et al* (2001) believe that "vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write" (2001:255).With regard to ESP research, many scholars (Esfandiari and Hezari, 2017; Madini, 2017; Tskhvitava, 2016; Khalili *et al*, 2015; Khoshsima *et al,* 2015; Hamad, 2014; Selevičienė and Burkšaitienė, 2014; Wanpen *et al*, 2013; Mukoroli, 2011; Xhaferi, 2008, etc.) acknowledge that acquisition of ESP vocabulary can be considered a major linguistic obstacle to ESP learners, as they have very specific linguistic needs in their communities of practice. Thus, finding a relevant teaching and learning strategy to assist them in this problematic task may become the crucial issue of ESP teachers too.

One of the strategies, which has successfully been applied for teaching ESP vocabulary and thus captured the attention of researches, is the utilization of graphic organizers. According to McElroy and Coughlin (2009), as cited in Zaini *et al* (2010), "graphic organizers are a set of learning strategies which involve translating words expressed in linear form into visual structures. When written material or difficult concepts are expressed graphically, the students can develop alternative structures for understanding the course concepts" (Zaini *et al*, 2010:1). Lovitt (1994) defined graphic organizers as diagrammatic illustrations used to organize and highlight content information

and or vocabulary. According to Nicholas (2008), these illustrations may come in many types, including concept, semantic, cognitive and story maps, Venn diagrams, etc., all created to meet one major ultimate goal: to help students organize the information they have acquired, make connections to previously known information, and begin to interact with the text. They help students focus attention on what is important because they highlight key concepts and vocabulary, and the relationships among them, thus providing the tools for critical and creative thinking. Moreover, as Ellis (2004) suggests, graphic organizers can be a very powerful tool for assessing students' knowledge of the content (e.g., social studies, science), thinking skills such as the ability to structure information, and some habits of the mind such as creativity, and commitment to quality (Ellis, 2004:7).

A growing body of research investigating the feasibility of graphic organizers as a supplement for ESP vocabulary teaching and learning indicates, that out of all types of graphic organizers, strategies involving concept and semantic mapping have been found to be particularly popular and effective (Hamdan and Alharbi, 2017; Khoshsima *et al,* 2015; Balula *et al,* 2014; Zahedi and Abdi, 2012; Al-Otaibi, 2011; Al-Jarf, 2010). The traditional way of constructing both concept and semantic maps is paper-and-pencil based; however, technology advancement has contributed to the creation of a number of Web-based mapping tools, such as *CmapTools, FreeMind, SemNet, Learning Tool, TextVision, SmartIdeas, DEMCO, etc*. Researchers suggest, that they can likewise be effectively used by educators to present and teach ESP vocabulary in their classrooms.

To illustrate, the study conducted by Al-Otaibi (2011) aimed at investigating the efficiency of semantic mapping software *FreeMind* in improving ESP students' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. The participants, who were all enrolled in a nursing study programme at Saudi university, were assigned to either control group, which received traditional in-class instruction that depended on the textbook only or the experimental group, which received a combination of traditional in-class and semantic map instruction. A pre-and post-test were administered to assess the participants' vocabulary and reading skills before and after the eight–weeks-long intervention. The results showed that computer-supported semantic mapping expanded students' vocabulary and enhanced their recall ability; however it was ineffective in improving student reading comprehension.

In another example, Al-Jarf (2010) tried to find evidence how *FreeMind* software helps pre-medical students to categorize, visualize and recall relationships among medical terms under study. She demonstrated how this tool can be used to combine different prefixes and/or suffixes to the same root, different roots to the same prefix/and or suffix, sorting out, classifying, grouping terms according to the prefixes, roots or suffixes they contain, and interpolating prefixes, roots and suffixes. By focusing on roots, prefixes, suffixes and derivatives and then looking for branches that radiate out and show connections between the terms, the students map medical terminology knowledge in a way which will help them understand and retain new medical terms.

The major focus of the case study conducted Balula *et al* (2014) was to explore how implementing a teaching and learning strategy based on the use of concept mapping supported by software *CmapTools* can help to improve Portuguese students' linguistic competences in the contexts of Business English. The participants of the study were invited to construct and peer-review several concept maps using *CmapTools*. The results of the study proved that the use of concept mapping supported by *CmapTools* software enhanced the development of their linguistic competences including the use of business English terminology, communication and collaboration competences.

This current paper will further focus on the usage of *CmapTools*, "a client-server based software kit developed at the Institute for Human and Machine Cognition (IHMC) that is designed to support the construction of concept maps by users of all ages, and to enable collaboration and sharing during that process" (Cañas *et al*, 2004:126). The software was selected because it is free, besides, as

scholars (Soleimani *et al*, 2016; Omar, 2015; Alonso, 2008; Hu, 2006; Cañas *et al*, 2004) suggest, it is a very intuitive, non-intrusive and user-friendly program. The following chapters will discuss its theoretical underpinnings and key characteristics, will refer to past studies discussing the effectiveness of using *CmapTools* within the domain of teaching and learning ESP and will describe the outcomes of a research aimed at determining the effectiveness of a strategy using the software on ESP students' achievements in terms of specialized vocabulary acquisition.>

<2. Theoretical Underpinnings and Key Characteristics of CmapTools>

< The theoretical foundation of concepts mapping both paper-and-pencil and computer-supported rests upon the constructivist view of education and the Ausubel, Novak, and Hanessian's assimilation theory of learning. "Within this theoretical framework, the learner shifts away from learning in a rote way and moves to learning in a more meaningful, connected manner. Rather than memorising information, the learner searches out the relationships among concepts and organizes a structure to the new knowledge that is unique to him or her" (Daley *et* al, 2007:38). According to this theory, concept map must have three distinctive characteristics: hierarchical structure, cross links and certain examples. The hierarchical structure is considered to be the most important characteristics among them. Cañas and Novak, the founders of *CmapTools* software, state that "within any domain of knowledge, there is hierarchy of concepts, where the most general concepts are at the "top" of the hierarchy and the more specific, less general concepts are arranged hierarchically below." https://cmap.ihmc.us/docs/conceptmap.php. The authors believe that when learning to construct concept maps, keeping the concept maps hierarchal with a single root makes it easier for the learner to grasp how concept maps are built. In general, as Novak (1990) suggests, "the process of constructing concept maps starts from skimming the text and moves to finding the main concepts, subsuming them, relating the sub-concepts to the main ones, and finding the cross-links between concepts, which is developed through both top-down and bottom-up processes" (Novak, 1990).

With *CmapTools* software the linking of concepts is facilitated "through simple drag-and-drop operations." (Cañas *et al*, 2004) The software allows users to construct their concept maps in their personal computers, share them on *CmapServers*, collaborate with other users anywhere on the Internet and publish their concept maps. Additionally, users can establish links to a variety of related resources (e.g. texts, videos, images, sound clips, etc.) that complement or further explain the information in their concept maps. The links are portrayed as special icons underneath the concepts or linking phrases.

According to Ng (2015), *CmapTools* software is used around the world in all domains of knowledge and by users of different ages to express their understanding graphically. In particular it is used at universities and schools, government organizations and small companies etc., both individually and in groups, for education, training knowledge management, brainstorming and information organization. The following chapter will review the available studies regarding the effectiveness of using the software within the domain of teaching and learning ESP.>

<3. CmapTools in ESP Teaching and Learning Contexts>

< A careful look at available studies discussing the usage of *CmapTools* in ESP teaching and learning contexts (Soleimani *et al*, 2016; Omar Abdul-Majeed, 2015; Balula *et al,* 2014; Hunter, 2013; Soleimani *et al*, 2012; Dias, 2010, 2011; Liu *et al*, 2010) suggests that the uptake of *CmapTools* as a tool for teaching ESP is generally growing.

Dias (2010, 2011) was probably the first researcher to investigate the effectiveness of *CmapTools* on ESP students' achievements. The setting of her action research was a classroom at the university in Brazil and the subjects were eight students from different fields of study (engineering, social studies and language) who were taking the discipline "*ESP for reading*". Concept maps were chosen as a strategy to empower them to be more effective readers and knowledge creators and *CmapTools* was applied to visualize what they had read or understood after reading authentic texts. Throughput the semester the researcher noticed that the creation of concept maps supported by *CmapTools* software empowered the students in a variety of ways: they learned to organize and structure knowledge acquired from texts in the visual code; through the representation of texts graphically shown on the computer screen and the relationships between concepts being more evident, their comprehension and retention of text frameworks was enhanced. Moreover, the students became aware of the fact that they could read well in English for their academic/ career needs, once they applied appropriate strategies. Thus their self-esteem may have increased as they felt they were able to comprehend texts written in English in a more efficient way.

The study conducted by Soleimani *et al* (2016) investigated the scaffolding effects of applying *CmapTools* on Iranian ESP learners' academic achievements. 77 Iranian ESP students in upper-intermediate level were randomly selected and taught while using concept maps supported by *CmapTools* software. Conducting independent samples *t*-test, the performances of groups on pre-test and post-test were compared. The results confirmed the scaffolding impact of *CmapTools* on learners' reading comprehension achievements.

In another example, Omar Abdul-Majeed (2015) examined the efficacy of using concept mapping technique strategy supported by *CmapTools* on pre-medical Saudi students' reading comprehension. The results of his study have shown a significant improvement in the level of performance of the students after their completion of the seven-week treatment period involving *CmapTools* software to construct concept maps to aid their reading comprehension.

Hunter (2013) investigated *CmapTools* as a tool for teaching academic writing to students of management. Based on a case study of efficient usage of *CmapTools*, where *EAP* students discover intellectual leverage in argument mapping, the author stated that *CmapTools* justifies its place among the essential tools for instructional discourse, especially in *EAP* settings where the identification of rhetorical orchestration is complicated and where it is difficult to directly encode learners' reasoning about dealing with a problem into the text.

The purpose of research conducted by Liu *et al* (2010) was to investigate the effects of a computer-assisted concept mapping learning strategy on EFL college learners' English reading comprehension. One hundred ninety four freshmen, enrolled in the English course, were divided into low-level and high-level groups resting on their English proficiency. A computer-supported concept mapping learning strategy was introduced to the students in the experimental class to improve their reading ability. It was found that the computer-supported concept mapping learning strategy had greater reading effect for the low-level group than for the high-level group. Moreover, the results indicated that the computer-supported concept mapping learning strategy enhanced learners' use of other English reading strategies of listing, enforcing, and reviewing.

The literature review suggests that the usage of *CmapTools* in *ESP* teaching and learning contexts basically concentrates on developing *ESP* students' reading strategies, which may be due to the fact that the *ESP* approach has always emphasized "the development of print literacy and has used authentic texts mostly taken from the academic domain, such as abstracts, chapters of books, articles, diagrams, tables, maps" (Dias, 2011:899). The following chapter will describe the findings of the research aimed at determining the effectiveness of a strategy using *CmapTools* on ESP students' vocabulary achievements.>

<4. Method>

<The goal of this study was to research the following question: *does the strategy of using CmapTools have any significant effects on ESP students' vocabulary achievements*? This determination was achieved by analysing ESP students' vocabulary achievement tests results (scores). The study which employed a quantitative design was conducted in two higher education institutions in Lithuania. The participants were 107 first year full-time undergraduate ESP students enrolled in two study programmes: *Law and Customs Activities* at Mykolas Romeris University (n=61) and *Information Systems* at Vilnius College (n=46). This current research utilized a convenience sampling strategy, when four intact groups of students taught by the researcher and three other full time EFL teachers with experience in teaching ESP within various fields, served as respondents. A quasi-experimental design was employed, whereby students from aforementioned intact audiences were assigned to 2 experimental and 2 control groups. Experimental groups in each institution were exposed to a treatment using concept mapping strategy supported by *CmapTools* software and the vocabulary achievement results were tested, whereas control groups received no treatment and were equally tested in order to compare the effects of the treatment.>

<5. Data Collection Procedure>

< Following Bean's *et al* (1986) recommendations that any graphic organizer instruction should take at least a semester and instructors should take a cumulative, long-range view of the positive impact of such instruction, the study was accomplished during the 2nd semester of the 2016 and 2017 academic year (February to June). The materials of the study can be categorized into four types: 1) subject-related textbooks, Moodle and internet resources; 2) *CmapTools* software, *CmapTools* help files and tutorials; 3) teacher and student-constructed concept maps and 4) three tests (a placement test and two vocabulary achievement tests).

In the pre-treatment phase, at the very beginning of the semester, all the participants of the research were administered a placement test to make sure they were all at the same level of language proficiency. Once the administration of the test was finished, the distributions of test scores of the two groups were compared. The comparison showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the placement test evaluations of the participants in the experimental and control groups in both institutions.

Novak (1998) cautions that concept mapping should begin only after an instruction process and that teachers need to consider the time and instruction needed to teach students how to concept map. Resting on his suggestion that time frame could be one class period, one session was devoted for introducing the participants in experimental groups to Novakian concept mapping strategy with the explanations on when and how it can be used. The students tried to construct their paper-and-pencil concept maps and were given a chance to reflect upon the concept mapping idea and to ask questions. Moreover, they were taught how to utilize the *CmapTools* software previously installed onto class computers, addressing the basic functions of the tool, such as creating a new cmap (adding concepts, propositions and inserting linking words to tie the two concepts together), adding resources (images, videos, texts), establishing links, saving a file, creating a new folder, exporting the cmap and assessing it online, etc. The students were also asked to download the software onto their personal computers and to practice it individually before they start their regular sessions. They were also encouraged to study the help files and tutorials on working with *CmapTools* provided at https://cmap.ihmc.us/docs/cmaptools-help and https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TMNq_oCFyi8. These files and tutorials give clear and sufficient step-by-step guidance on how to master the tool.

After assuring that all of the participants in experimental groups brushed up on their skills required for working with the tool, the treatment-phase and regular sessions commenced. The introductory

phases for the sessions were similar for the participants in both experimental and control groups. In majority of the sessions (if these were not devoted to other syllabus activities, e.g. delivering presentations, accounting for home reading, etc.), students were introduced to a new topic or subtopic and were exposed to an appropriate text preceded by a vocabulary list. After analysing the vocabulary list, they were asked to read the text silently and do follow-up activities, as required by the textbook: answering questions, matching terms with their definitions, doing true or false exercises, discussing issues, etc. However, while working on certain teacher-selected topics or subtopics, instead of performing the aforementioned tasks, students in experimental group were asked to construct relevant concept maps using *CmapTools*. The activity usually followed a several-step procedure: reading a teacher-defined quantifiable focus question, studying a teacher-made list consisting of around 10 text-related concepts and several linking words to be used in the map; completing either a teacher-generated map or trying to construct a map individually by tying suggested concepts with linking words; comparing and discussing maps with the peers, getting feedback from a teacher and assessing the map online. Once four topics within the syllabus were covered, a teacher-designed vocabulary achievement test was then administered to each student in experimental and control groups; the differences between test achievement scores were analysed and compared between groups. Subsequently, in the following regular sessions experimental groups were again exposed to *CmapTools*-supported activities, whereas control group received ordinary classroom instructions. In the post-treatment phase at the end of the project, a second vocabulary achievement test was administered to all the participants of the study and the differences between test achievement scores were again analysed and compared between participating groups. The following chapter will present the data analysis and will discuss the results.>

<6. Data Analysis>

< In order to analyse the results of this study, *IBM SPSS Statistics version 22* was utilized. The treatment of applying *CmapTools* software with the students assigned to experimental groups at Mykolas Romeris University and Vilnius College was considered independent variable, whereas ESP vocabulary acquisition defined as the scores of all the participants' ESP vocabulary achievement tests were used as dependent variables of the study.

The normality of distribution of continuous variables was tested by *one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov* test. Continuous variables with normal distribution were presented as mean (standard deviation), whereas non-normal variables were reported as median. Means of two continuous normally distributed variables were compared by *independent samples Student's t test. Mann-Whitney U* test was used, respectively, to compare means of two groups of variables not normally distributed. A value of $p< 0.05$ was considered significant throughout the research.

6.1 Placement test

The general language level of the participants theoretically was B2 based on CEFR as required by the syllabus, however in addition to this, photocopiable *Open Mind Placement Test (Macmillan Publishers Limited 2015),* freely available online was administered for all the participants at the very beginning of the semester to make sure all of them were literally at the same level of language proficiency. As the participants were assigned to either experimental or control groups, the homogeneity of the placement test scores was initially tested within both of them. As the data were not normally distributed (p=0.008), a non-parametric *Mann-Whitney U* test was applied to examine whether two independent samples were selected from populations having the same distribution. It was established that there was no statistically significant difference in the placement test evaluations of the research participants in the experimental and control groups (p=0.076) ($p>\alpha$). As groups of research participants were formed from two higher education institutions, the evaluations of the test were compared within each institution too. No statistically significant differences were

found in placement test evaluations either: *p*-values in both institutions were $p=0.073$ $(p>\alpha)$ at Mykolas Romeris University and $p=0.872$ $(p>\alpha)$ at Vilnius College respectively, thus we can conclude that both groups were on equal level of language proficiency before the treatment.

6.2 ESP Vocabulary Tests Results in Experimental and Control groups at Mykolas Romeris University and at Vilnius College

To determine the impact of *IHMC CmapTools* on ESP vocabulary acquisition of participants assigned to experimental groups, mean scores of the two ESP vocabulary achievement tests were compared. The first ESP vocabulary test was administered to both experimental and control groups at the beginning of the treatment, whereas the second test was applied at the end of the course. As groups of research participants were recruited from two higher education institutions, test results were initially compared within each institution separately.

It was determined that mean scores for vocabulary test No1 in each group at Mykolas Romeris university were normally distributed ($p= 0.419$), therefore independent samples *Student's t* test was used, and *p*-value< 0.05 was considered significant. The analysis of test results indicated, the experimental group (n=32) (5.19±1.942) outperformed the control group (n=24) (3.88±2.173) in vocabulary test No 1. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested using *Levene's Test* of *Equality of Variances*, which is often run before a comparison of means. In our case *p*-value=0.021 $(p<\alpha)$, which indicates there is a significant difference between the achievements in vocabulary test No 1 of the participants in the experimental group comparing it to the control group.

The examination of mean scores for vocabulary test No2 in each group at Mykolas Romeris university, following the same principles of statistical data analysis, reported that the mean scores for experimental group (n=32) and control group (n=25) were 5.38±1,827 and 4.60±1,915 respectively. Despite the fact that students in the control group, who did not receive treatment, scored lower (4.60) than their peers in the experimental group (5.38), no significant difference was determined (*p-value*=0.125) $(p>\alpha)$.

Meanwhile, the analysis of mean scores for vocabulary tests No1 and No2 in experimental and control groups at Vilnius College, following the same procedures of statistical analysis, found significant difference between both vocabulary tests achievements of the participants in the experimental group comparing it to their counterparts' achievements in control group: (*p*-value=0.012) $(p<\alpha)$ and (*p*-value=0.000) $(p<\alpha)$.

6.3 Variability of Vocabulary Test Scores between Experimental and Control Groups in Terms of the Whole Research

The analysis of mean scores for both vocabulary tests in experimental and control groups was also conducted within the broad context of the research. As it was established that mean scores for vocabulary test No1 in both experimental and control groups were normally distributed ($p=0.247$), independent samples *Student's t* test was run accordingly, and *p*-value < 0.05 was considered significant. It was found that the mean score for experimental group (n=56) was 6.29± 2.432, while for the control group (n=43) it was only 4.98±2.144. The reported *p*-value=0,000 was lower than the critical *p*-value which means there was a significant difference between the achievements of the participants in the experimental group comparing it to the control group. Therefore, based on the results obtained from *t*-test, we can conclude that the results of vocabulary test No1 were higher within experimental group than within the control group within the broad context of the research The results of vocabulary test No 2 were in turn analysed following the same principles of statistical data analysis. As the data set was not normally distributed (*p*-value=0.010), *Mann-Whitney U* test was performed. It was found that the mean score for experimental group was 6.44± 2.229, while for

the control group it was 5.16±1.812. The results also revealed a statistically significant difference (p-value=0,011) ($p<\alpha$) in favour of the experimental group.

In conclusion we can state that although the obvious dynamics in terms of ESP vocabulary achievements can be seen in both groups as the result of the learning process, the progress in the experimental group, which received treatment by using *CmapTools* is more evident than in the control group. Therefore, we can state that this study provides evidence for the effectiveness of *CmapTools* supported concept-mapping strategy for improving student's knowledge of ESP.>

<7.Discussion>

< The goal of this present study was to research whether the strategy of using *CmapTools* in ESP classes in higher education has any significant effects on ESP students' vocabulary achievements. This determination was achieved by conducting a one-semester-long treatment in two higher education institutions in Lithuania and analysing the results obtained from two ESP vocabulary achievement tests in experimental and control groups involved in the study. The findings demonstrated that experimental groups which practiced learning ESP vocabulary through the use of *CmapTools* procedures outperformed the control group: the means of experimental group scores were higher in both tests, and this difference was statistically significant. The results of this study come in line with the findings of studies conducted elsewhere. To illustrate, Balula *et al* (2014) explored whether implementing a teaching and learning strategy based on the use of concept mapping supported by *CmapTools* can help to improve university students' business English competences. The results of their case study proved that the use of concept mapping supported by *CmapTools* enhanced the development of the participants' linguistic competences including the use of business English terminology, communication and collaboration competences.

The findings of this present study may have implications for the teachers and learners of ESP vocabulary. They may be beneficial for ESP teachers who are planning to integrate free and student-friendly technologies into their course or are searching for unique and effective strategies to clarify their learners' understanding of specified material and to alleviate the acquisition of specified vocabulary. They may equally be useful for ESP learners searching for efficient methods of organizing a structure to the new knowledge and continued collaboration with their peers.

Although the results of this present study showed the effectiveness of concept-mapping strategy supported by *CmapTools* on ESP students' vocabulary achievements, there may be several limitations that may have contributed to the relatively better performance of students who received treatment in this study. One limitation was that the treatment was conducted at two different institutions and involved different teachers. Even though the teachers of experimental groups received training on utilizing the software, there may have been discrepancy in the way the instruction was delivered to the students resulting in differences in achievement. Moreover, the study was limited to researching the effectiveness of *CmapTools* as a representational and instructional tool, however it did not explore and discuss methods of assessing and scoring student-generated cmaps. Therefore, future studies related to the usage of *CmapTools* for teaching and learning ESP can take a look at ways of scoring student-generated *cmaps* as well as teachers' practical considerations and suggestions on their effectiveness and suitability.>

References

<1. Al-Jarf, R. (2015). A model for enhancing EFL freshman students' vocabulary with mind-mapping software. *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 3 (3), 509-520. Accessed 3 April, 2018. UDC 811.111'243/'366

2. Alonso, M. E. (2008). Patagonia Argentina: an educational experience applying CmapTools, developing a didactic resource and its use as a tool for meaningful and collaborative learning. *Concept Mapping: Connecting Educators Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Concept Mapping, Tallinn, Estonia & Helsinki, Finland.*

3. Al-Otaibi, G. M. (2016). The effect of semantic mapping on students' vocabulary. *Arab World English Journal*, 7(1), 279-294. Accessed 3 April, 2018. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol7no1.16

4. Balula, A., Martins, C. & Marques, F. (2014). Enhancing business English terminology through concept mapping. *Proceedings of EDULEARN14 conference,* 7th-9th July 2014, Barcelona, Spain. Accessed March 21, 2018. http://www.academia.edu/11592467/Enhancing_Business_English_Terminology_Through_CoConce_Mapping.

5. Bean, T. W., Singer, H., Sorter, J. & Frazee, C. (1986). The effect of metacognitive instruction in outlining and graphic organizer construction on students' comprehension in a tenth-grade world history class. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 18 (2), 153–169. Accessed March 21, 2018. http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1080/10862968609547562

6. Cañas, J. A., Hill, G., Carff, R., Suri, N., Lott, J., Gómez, G., Eskridge, T.C., Arroyo, M. and Carvajal, R. (2004). CmapTools: a knowledge modeling and sharing environment. *Concept Maps: Theory, Methodology, Technology. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Concept Mapping with A. J. Cañas, J. D. Novak, F. M. González, Eds.* Pamplona, Spain.

7. Čekanavičius, V. & Murauskas, G. (2000). *Statistika ir jos taikymai*. Leidykla TEV, Vilnius.

8. Daley, B., J., Cañas, A. & Stark-Schweitzer, T. (2007). CmapTools: integrated teaching, learning, and evaluation in online courses. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 2007 (113), 37-47. Accessed April 03, 2018. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ace.245/abstract

9. Dias, R. (2010). Concept Map. A strategy for enhancing reading comprehension in English as L2. *Concept Maps: Making Learning Meaningful. Proceedings of Fourth International Conference on Concept Mapping*, Chile, 2010. Accessed March 21, 2018. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.412.4232&rep=rep1&type=pdf

10. Dias, R. (2011). Concept maps powered by computer software: a strategy for enhancing reading comprehension in English for specific purposes. *RBLA, Belo Horizonte,* 11 (4), 895-911. Accessed March 21, 2018. http://www.scielo.br/pdf/rbla/v11n4/a05v11n4.pdf.

11. Ellis, E. (2004). *Q & A. What's the big deal about graphic organizers?* At http://www.Graphic Organizers.com (251) 961-2407. Accessed March 26, 2018

12. Esfandiari, R., Hezari, M. (2017). The effect of three vocabulary techniques on the Iranian ESP learners' vocabulary production. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning.* 20 (Fall & Winter), 93-108. Accessed April 4, 2018. http://elt.tabrizu.ac.ir/article_6800.html

13. Hamad, M.H.E. (2014). Investigating of ESP vocabulary difficulties encountered by EFL learners. *MA Thesis.* Sudan University of Science & Technology, College of Graduate Studies. College of Languages-English Department. Accessed April 4, 2018. http://repository.sustech.edu/handle/123456789/9925

14. Hamdan, H., H. & Alharbi, N., A. (2017). The effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy on vocabulary achievement of EFL Saudi female preparatory-year students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 4 (7), 14-46. Accessed 4 April, 2018. www.jallr.com/index.php/JALLR

15. Hu, D. (2006). The effects of scaffolding on the performance of students in computer-based concept linking and retention of comprehension. *Doctoral Thesis. Faculty of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia.*

16. Hunter, L. (2013). CmapTools as an essential for teaching academic writing, *JALTCALL.* Accessed March 21, 2018. http://www.slideshare.net/rolenzo/cmap-tools-as-an-essential-for-teaching-academic-writing.

17. Khalili, S., Tahririan, M.H. & Bagheri, S. (2015). Vocabulary instruction through blended learning and multimedia software in Iranian ESP classes. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*. 16 (Fall & Winter), 37-54. Accessed April 4, 2018. http://elt.tabrizu.ac.ir/article_4409.html

18. Khoshima, H. & Saed, N., Hakimzade, A. (2015). Concept mapping strategy and EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition and retention. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies.* 2 (1), 671-688. Accessed 3 April, 2018. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/308904850_Concept_Mapping_Strategy_and_EFL_Learners%27_Vocabulary_Acquisition_and_Retention

19. Liu, P. L., Chen, C. J., & Chang, Y. J. (2010). Effects of a computer-assisted concept mapping learning strategy on EFL college students' English reading comprehension. *Computers & Education*, (54), 436–445. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2009.08.027

20. Lovitt, S. V. (1994). Strategies for adapting science textbooks for youth with learning disabilities. *Remedial and Special Education*, 15 (2), 105 – 116

21. Madini, A. A. & Alshaikhi, D. (2017). Virtual reality for teaching ESP vocabulary: a myth or a possibility. *International Journal of English Language Education*. 5 (2), 11-126. Accessed April 4, 2018. doi:10.5296/ijele.v5i2.11993

22. Mukoroli, J. (2011). Effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL classroom. *MA Thesis. SIT Graduate Institute/SIT Study Abroad DigitalCollections@SIT.* Accessed April 4, 2018. http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/ipp_collection

23. Ng, Wan (2015). *New Digital Technology in Education. Conceptionalizing Professional Learning for Educators.* Springer International Publishing Switzerland.

24. Nicholas, F., S. (2008). The implementation and effective use of graphic oin the classroom: graphic organizers to the rescue. *Lynchburg College, SPED 640*, 11-18. Accessed April 4, 2018. https://www.lynchburg.edu/.../NicholasF-Implementation-Graphic-Organizers

25. Novak, J. (1998). *Learning, Creating, and Using Knowledge: Concept Maps as Facilitative Tools in Schools and Corporations*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

26. Omar, A. M. A. (2015). Improving reading comprehension by using computer-based concept maps: a case study of ESP students at UMM- Alqura University. *British Journal of Education*, 3 (4), 1-20. Accessed March 21, 2018. http://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/Improving-reading-comprehension-by-using-computer-based-concept-maps.pdf.

27. Selevičienė, E. & Burkšaitienė, N. (2015). University students' attitudes towards the usage of Web 2.0 tools for learning ESP. A preliminary investigation. *Socialinių mokslų studijos: mokslo darbai*, 7 (2), 270-292. Accessed April 4, 2018. https://www3.mruni.eu/ojs/societal-studies/article/view/4307/4038

28. Soleimani, H. & Nabizadeh, F. (2012). The effect of learner constructed, fill in the map concept map Technique, and summarizing strategy on Iranian pre-university students' reading comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, 5 (9), 78-87. Accessed April 4, 2018. doi:10.5539/elt.v5n9p78

29. Soleimani, H. & Saeedi, A. A. R. A. (2016). Improving the reading comprehension of Iranian ESP learners. A CmapTools study. *Innovating with Concept Mapping. Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference on Concept Mapping, Tallinn, Estonia*.

30. Tskhvitava, T. (2016). Vocabulary learning Strategies of English for specific purposes students at Agricultural University of Georgia. *Journal of Education in Black Sea Region.* 2 (1), 130-138. Accessed April 4, 2018. https://jebs.ibsu.edu.ge/jms/index.php/jebs/article/view/35/45

31. Wanpen, S., Sonkoontod, K. & Nonkukhetkhong, K. (2013). Technical vocabulary proficiencies and vocabulary learning strategies of engineering students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, (88), 312–320. Accessed April 4, 2018. 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.511

32. Xhaferi, B. (2010). Teaching and learning ESP vocabulary. BIBLID (16), 229-255. Accessed April 4, 2018. http://ojsspdc.ulpgc.es/ojs/index.php/LFE/article/view/135

33. Zaini, S. H., Mokhtar, S.Z. & Nawawi, M. (2010). The effect of graphic organizer on students' learning in school. *Malaysian Journal of Educational Technology*, 10 (1), 17-23. Accessed April 4, 2018. http://psasir.upm.edu.my/17085/

34. Zahedi, Y., & Abdi, M. (2012). The effect of semantic mapping strategy on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Procedia *Social and Behavioral Sciences* (69), 2273-2280. Accessed 3 April, 2018. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042812056650>

Workplace English: selected survey results and implications for the classroom

Hans Platzer, Désirée Verdonk

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Workplace English: selected survey results and implications for the classroom.

Hans Platzer, Désirée Verdonk

University of Applied Sciences Wiener Neustadt

Abstract

English for professional purposes is a comparatively well-researched area. Indeed, the fact that needs analysis is a mainstay of ESP has ensured that the individual functions or tasks in the workplace (such as meetings, negotiations, emailing etc.) have been fairly well described. However, most studies focus on individual functions, while those that describe how these tasks are interrelated do so on the basis of qualitative interview data. By contrast, this study aims to provide quantitative evidence for the clustering of specific functions or tasks in the workplace and discuss how this evidence might influence didactic practice. For this purpose a questionnaire survey was conducted among 716 in-service students to gauge their use of English in the workplace. The responses were subsequently subjected to a hierarchical cluster analysis. The data suggest that telephoning and emailing are closely related functions, which should be taught in an integrated manner with a focus on indirect language in the case of company-external messages. Moreover, the analysis confirms that meetings, negotiations, presentations, socialising and the genre of memos are closely connected in workplace practice, which should consequently be mirrored in task design. The relevant literature also indicates that more authentic materials are needed to support learners in relationship building and creating rapport in the context of spoken discourse. Finally, the figures indicate that staff in technical positions are significantly more likely to use English in their jobs than employees in business positions. Crucially, this does not only involve text types like technical descriptions, but also the traditional business functions of meetings, minutes and presentations.

1. Introduction

English for professional purposes has been examined from a number of different perspectives. From an economic point of view surveys on the use of English in the workplace have been conducted in an EU-wide context (CILT 2006; InterAct International 2006; European Commission 2012; European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture, no date) as well as in individual countries (cf. e.g. Hall 2008; Schöpper-Grabe 2008; Tritscher-Archan 2008; Weber 2005 & 2008; Archan & Dornmayr 2006; Archan & Holzer 2006; Platzer & Verdonk 2004 & 2012). These surveys focused less on linguistic issues and were rather devoted to the economic context of workplace English, i.e. its impact on the economy, its relevance for various industries or its role in vocational education.

However, the standard perspective on English for professional purposes is clearly a linguistic one. Written genres were examined among others by Zhang (2013), Bremner (2008 & 2010), Evans (2010), Bacha & Bahous (2008), Forey (2004) and Louhiala-Salminen (2002). One particular focus in this context is email communication (cf. e.g. Millot 2017; Warren 2016; Townley & Jones 2016; Economidou-Kogetsidis 2016; Francis, Holmvall, O'Brien 2015; Geiger & Parlamis 2014; Warren 2013; Evans 2012; Gimenez 2006). By contrast oral usage was examined by Evans (2010), Burns & Moore (2008), Cheng (2007), Cheng & Warren (2005 & 2006), Louhiala-Salminen (2002) and Crosling & Ward (2002). In this connection, Warren (2006) and Brown & Lewis (2003) focused on

conversation, Koester (2014) examined negotiations, Evans (2013) discussed presentations and Friginal (2013) telephoning data. However, most studies of spoken discourse focused on the language and structure of meetings (cf. e.g. Liu & Liu 2017, Warren 2014, Murata 2014, Lyons 2013, Rogerson-Revell 2008, Rogerson-Revell 2007a).

Finally, given the proliferation of teaching materials on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a number of studies have analysed professional English from a didactic point of view (cf. Walker 2011; Chan 2009; Zhang 2007; Edwards 2000). Nonetheless, a good number of papers are highly critical of ESP textbooks especially due to their substantial lack of authenticity. Key critics in this context include Warren (2014), Koester (2014), Evans (2013), Bremner (2010), Cheng (2007), Warren (2006) and Cheng & Warren (2005 & 2006).

As many of the above-mentioned studies have already surveyed the individual genres relevant in workplace communication, this study takes a novel, two-step approach. The first stage is a traditional questionnaire survey, which attempts to identify the needs of a sample of in-service students in the workplace. In a subsequent step, these results were then examined on the basis of a hierarchical cluster analysis. The aim of this analysis is to reveal which tasks cluster together, as groupings of such workplace needs can then be taught more effectively and authentically. Consequently, this study examines
(a) relevant clusters of English needs in the Austrian workplace;
(b) potential differences in the needs of technical and business staff;
(c) clusters of skills which our respondents feel they need particular support with.

2. Method

2.1. Setting and subjects

This paper is based on a questionnaire survey carried out among in-service business and engineering students at the Fachhochschule Wiener Neustadt (University of Applied Sciences Wiener Neustadt, Austria). In order to generate a sufficiently large sample, data were collected at four points, viz. in 2003, 2007, 2011 and 2016 (see Illustration 1). Sample sizes range between 123 to 231 subjects, with the total sample size coming to 716 respondents in total.

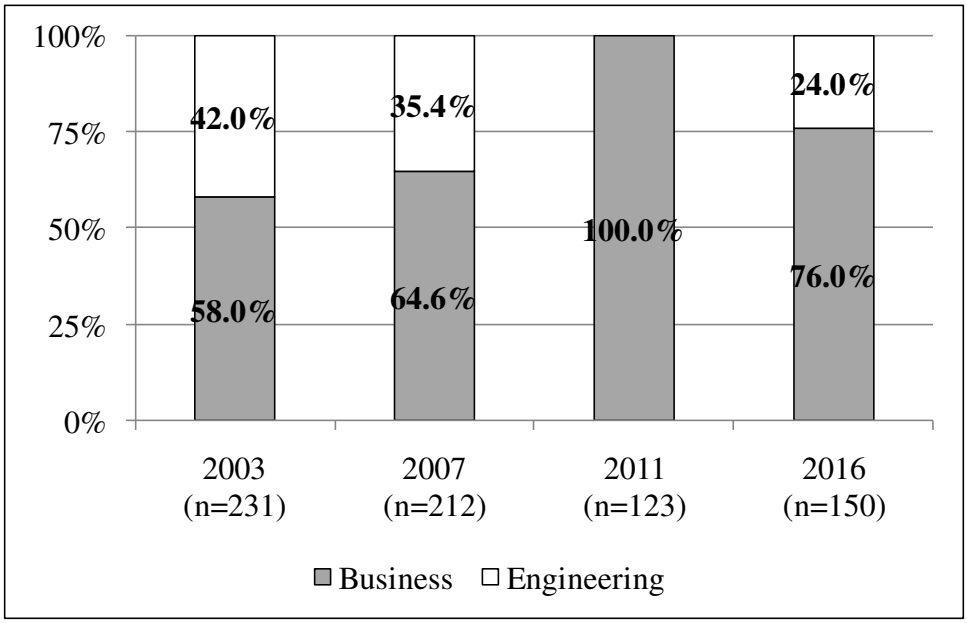


Illustration 1: Respondents by faculty and survey date

In each sub-sample the majority of students originate from the business faculty: in fact, in 2011 it was unfortunately not possible to sample any respondents from the engineering faculty at all (see Illustration 1). Overall, over two thirds of the sample (70.9%) are business students and somewhat under a third (29.1%) engineering students. This distinction is relevant for the following reason: as in-service students in engineering programmes invariably work in technical positions and the vast majority of business students work in business positions, we use the students' study programme as a proxy for their occupation. Potential differences in the needs of these two respondent groups will be the focus of section 3.2.

2.2. Weighting for company size

As both, Hall (2008, 218 & 227) and Schöpper-Grabe (2008, 237), observe that the use of foreign languages in professional contexts is closely associated with company size, the responses were duly weighted to reflect the distribution of the Austrian working population among the various company sizes (see Table 1). This procedure aims to ensure that our sample reflects the language use of the underlying population as closely as possible. In addition, combining the responses of sub-samples from four different years requires some consideration. In principle, such a combination is possible especially if the same survey instrument is used (as is the case here) and provided that key demographic factors can be controlled. Hence the weighting of respondents by company size also serves to ensure homogeneous sub-samples reflecting the underlying population characteristics.

Table 1: Number of employees and company size

Company size (=number of employees)	Staff numbers (Statistik Austria 2017)	Respondents (FHWN survey; n=716)	Weighting factor
0-9	24.4%	15.6%	1.563
10-19	10.6%	17.3%	0.613
20-49	12.6%	11.9%	1.059
50-249	19.0%	12.8%	1.482
250 (+)	33.3%	42.3%	0.787

3. Results and discussion

3.1. English in the workplace

3.1.1. Prevalence of use

English use among our respondents was consistently high at all four survey points, from a low of 60.8% reporting the need for workplace English in 2007 to almost three quarters (74.8%) in 2011 (see Illustration 2).

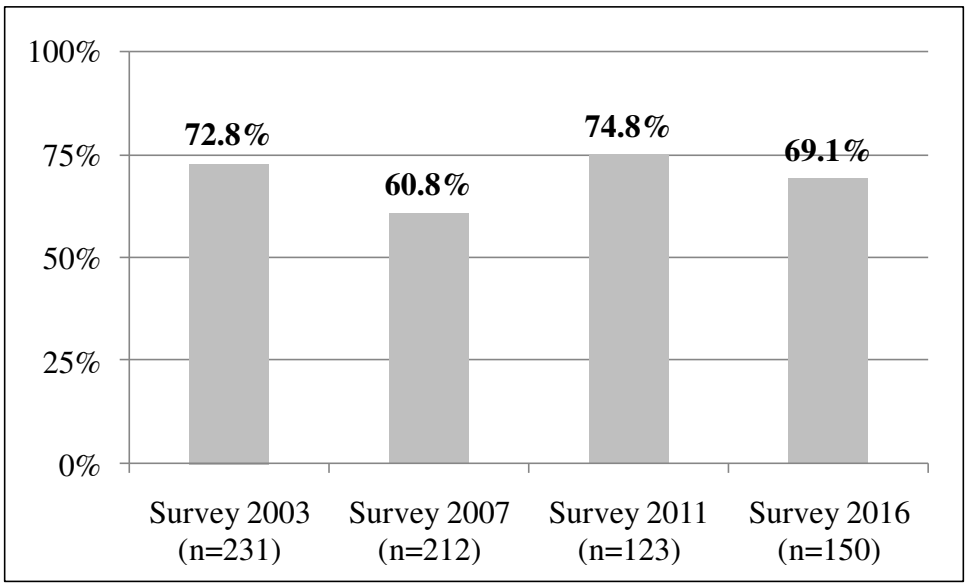


Illustration 2: English use by survey date

Among the respondents using English at work, over 40% require both speaking and writing skills highly frequently, i.e. daily or several times a week, and another quarter (26.7% speaking; 23.7% writing) use English with medium frequency, i.e. once a week, several times a month (see Illustration 3). That means two thirds of respondents who require English in the workplace use it comparatively frequently. Only among the final third (32.4% speaking; 34.5% writing) can we observe a fairly infrequent use of once a month or less.

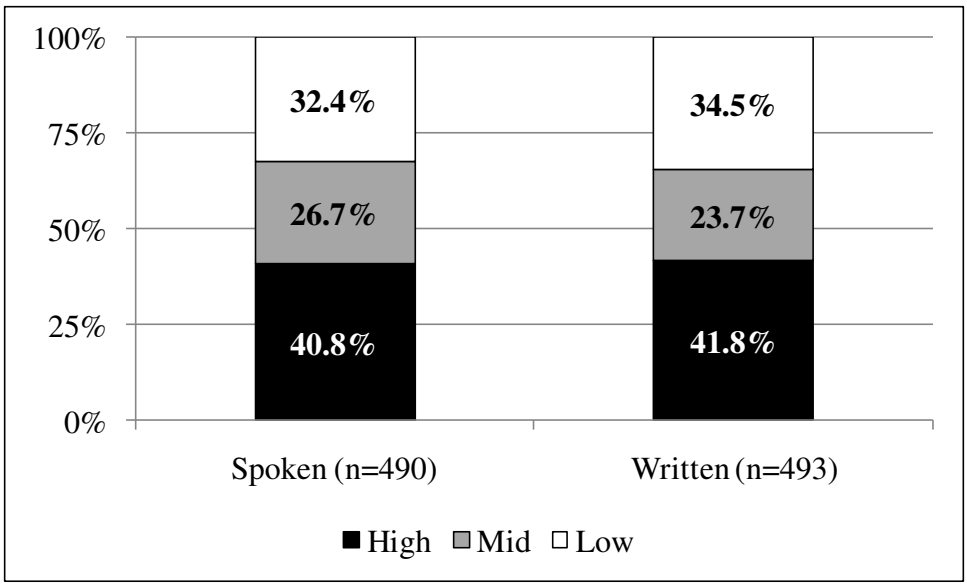


Illustration 3: Frequency of English use

Overall this means that about two thirds of our respondents use English and again two thirds of those require it comparatively frequently. Against this background we believe the case has been made for consistent foreign language instruction among this pool of students.

3.1.2. Clusters of language needs in the workplace

Once the need for ESP instruction has been confirmed, the key question arises which tasks to focus on. Consequently, our questionnaire survey covered 17 different items. The relevant responses were subjected to a hierarchical cluster analysis, using the chi squared between-sets-of-frequencies

measure. The purpose of this cluster analysis is to identify potential groupings of skills which might plausibly be taught in conjunction. Based on Illustration 4, four comparatively obvious clusters emerge (listed in order of appearance):

- Cluster A - Reading/Writing correspondence and telephoning.
- Cluster B - Reading/Writing technical descriptions.
- Cluster C - Reading/Writing minutes and reports.
- Cluster D - Negotiating, meetings, reading/writing memos, giving/following presentations, socialising and - somewhat surprisingly in this context - reading the trade press.

Based on their didactic relevance, we will first discuss clusters A and D, followed by a briefer account of clusters B and C.

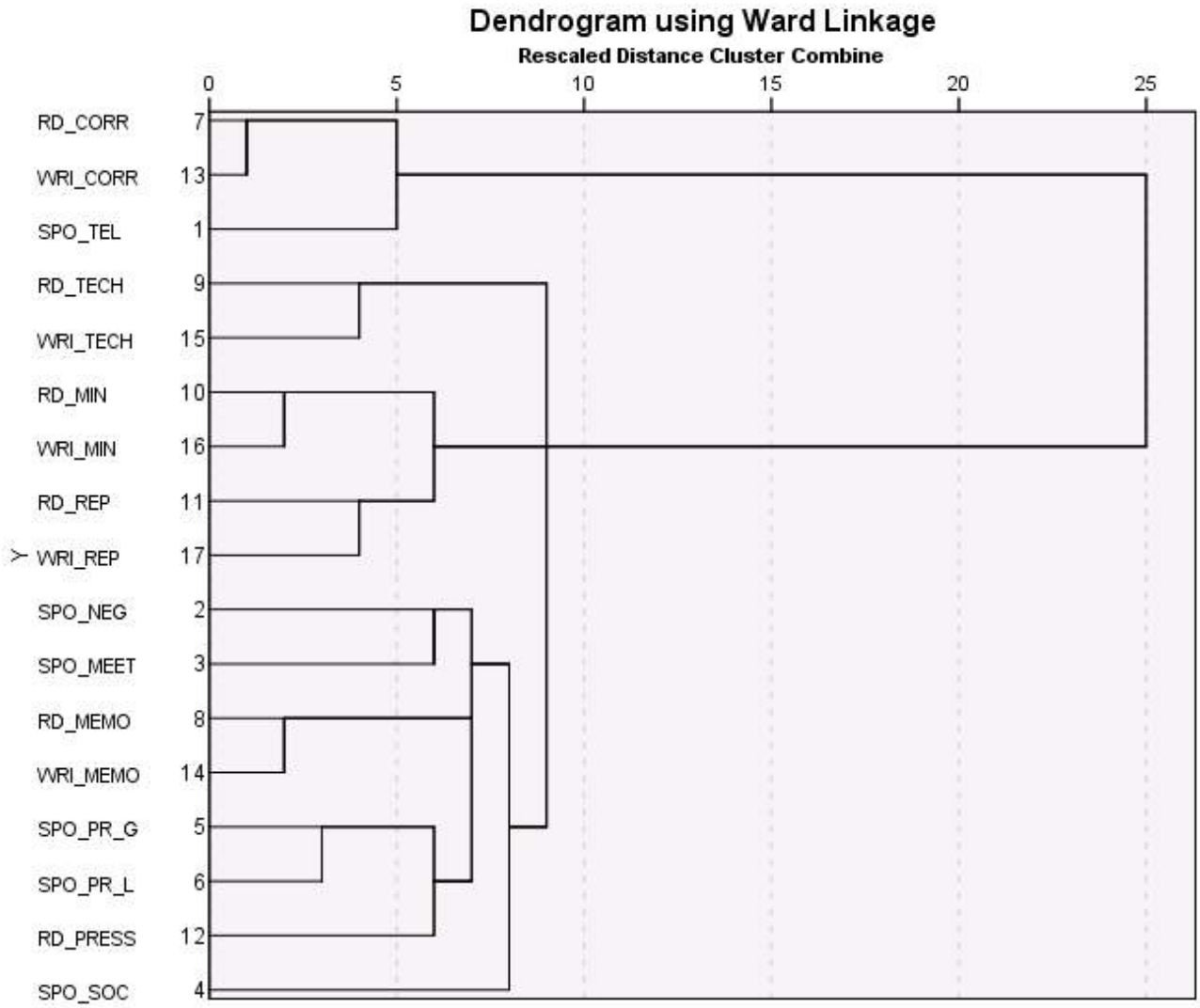


Illustration 4: Clusters of spoken/written tasks (productive and receptive)[1]

Cluster A - Correspondence and telephoning. This cluster covers the three most frequently cited functions, viz. telephoning (78.0%) and reading and writing correspondence (87.1%; 84.5%), i.e. email messages. The predominant position of emailing in business contacts is, of course, something of a commonplace with "email communication [...] far outweighing in importance the other text types and speaking situations" (Evans 2012, 205). This is echoed by Louhiala-Salminen (2002, 224), who observes that "email is the most used medium: 'the box' is the initiator of most activities". In terms of integrating telephoning and emailing into a teaching context, previous studies have identified the three following issues.

First of all, while email writing tasks are mostly presented in isolation in Business English (BE) textbooks (cf. eg. Evans 2012, 204 & 208-09; Townley & Jones 2016, 35; cf. also Bremner 2008), the close relationship between emailing and telephoning has been demonstrated in various empirical studies. Louhiala-Salminen (2002, 217) finds that in her data "spoken and written communication were totally intertwined". Similarly, Evans (2012, 209) observes that email messages do not "suddenly fall from the clear blue sky", instead they "are often preceded by several rounds of

---

1 Hierarchical cluster analysis, based on chi squared between-sets-of-frequencies measure.
RD = reading; WRI = writing; CORR = correspondence; MIN = minutes; REP = reports; PRESS = trade press (reading only); TECH = technical descriptions.
SPO = spoken; MEET = meetings; NEG = negotiating; PR_G = giving presentations; PR_L = listening to presentations; SOC = socialising.

telephone" calls (Evans 2012, 206). This interdependence of emailing and telephoning should, consequently, have implications for task design, such as embedding email writing tasks in a more complex discourse, e.g. with spoken input presented in the form of telephone conversations (cf. Evans 2012, 206). This integration of emailing and telephoning would clearly result in a more authentic task design than treating each function in isolation.

Secondly, the role of extended email chains and the resulting intertextual nature of emails has not been sufficiently appreciated in BE textbooks so far (Evans 203, 212; Townley & Jones 2016, 35). Evans (2012, 5) reports that email chains tend to involve 5.4 messages on average and that their structure and length varies depending on their position in the chain. A further key aspect in these chains concerns the writer's ability to effectively signal the intertextuality of the relevant texts, not just in terms of referring backwards to previous communication, but also "forwards … to forthcoming texts as well as to extratextual interactions" (Townley & Jones 2016, 79). In fact, the competence to handle such extended contacts with ease can have an impact on the corporate bottom line as the "number of emails exchanged has a positive influence on joint gain" (Geiger & Parlamis 2014, 67) in email negotiations. This is due to the higher number of email messages contributing to converging understanding and signalling engagement and commitment (Geiger & Parlamis 2014, 75). Such extended email chains should consequently form an integral part of teaching materials to compel learners to identify the appropriate content and style of the messages. This approach would result in more immediately authentic tasks, instead of relying on the traditional case study model, which mostly spoon-feeds the relevant information to learners (Evans 2016, 210-211), instead of requiring them to make decisions on content and style themselves.

A final issue concerns the sociopragmatic choices necessary in emails, in terms of e.g. formality, politeness and directness. In this context, the distinction between internal and external messages is essential. Louhiala-Salminen (2002, 223) is delightfully blunt, stating that in internal communication there is "no need to please the other party" and internal emails therefore tend to be "simple and straightforward … and less formal than external emails" (Evans 2012, 206-207). Similarly, such authentic internal messages may be "inaccurately and/or inappropriately written" (Evans 2012, 210), and accordingly Millot (2017, 70) contends that teaching often places too much emphasis on "normative features (e.g. formal versus informal language, or standard versus non-standard usage".

On the other hand, given that external emails require careful calibration regarding contextual, i.e. sociopragmatic, factors such as status and social distance (Evans 2012, 207), we decided to examine whether this type of external communication is relevant for our respondents. Illustration 5 demonstrates that such sociopragmatic concerns are clearly relevant as external client contacts are the most frequently cited form of addressee in over two thirds of cases (67.2%), while internal communication is mentioned by only a third of respondents. The ability of composing status-congruent messages with appropriate choices regarding directness, formality, mitigation and politeness is underlined by Economidou-Kogetsidis (2016, 15), who observes that "direct and unmodified emails can have a negative effect on participants' evaluation of the personality of the email sender". In the case of requests this can mean that the "recipient is less likely to comply with the sender's request" (Economidou-Kogetsidis 2016, 14). In fact, even fairly mechanical aspects of correspondence such as a missing entry in the subject field, no salutation or poor spelling and grammar (Francis, Holmvall, O'Brien 2015, 194) can be regarded as norm violations, which in turn result in a perception of incivility. As such perceptions can trigger incivility spirals, many organisations have decided to introduce netiquette codes as one potential solution to the problem of email incivility (Francis, Holmvall, O'Brien 2015, 198). From a didactic perspective, such netiquette guidelines are actually an attractive starting point for practising the requirements of external emails as they are likely to be accepted by learners as authoritative sources if they are

issued by real business organisations, and as an added bonus they represent authentic business usage.

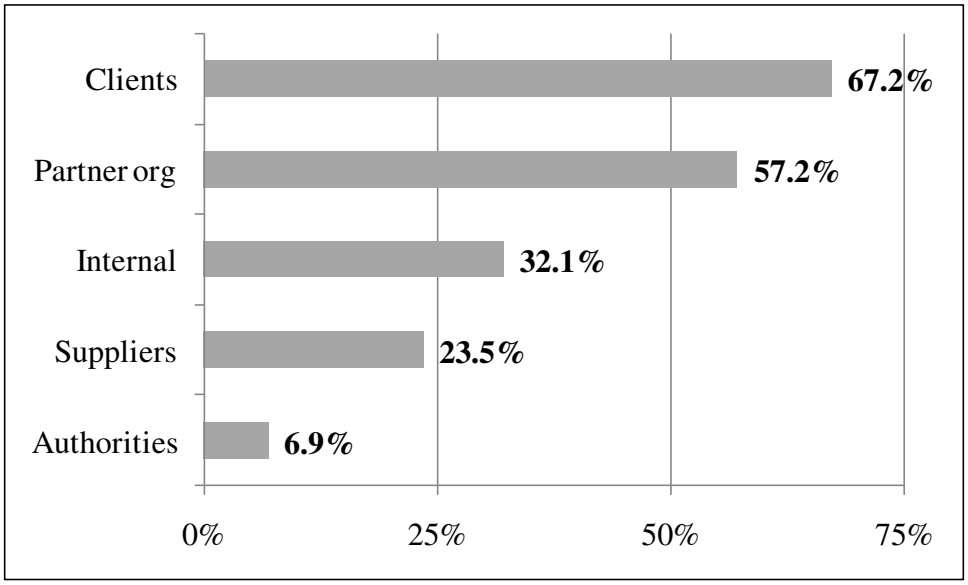


Illustration 5: Type of interlocutor (n=493)

Overall, an authentic and data-driven approach to telephoning and emailing skills should therefore focus on the following three points, viz. (a) integrating emailing and telephoning tasks to generate rich scenarios covering a variety of discourse modes, (b) asking learners to work on extended email chains to support their awareness of intertextuality, and (c) focusing on appropriate sociopragmatic choices in external email messages and at a minimum practising authentic corporate netiquette rules.

Cluster D - Negotiating, meetings, memos, presentations, socialising (and trade press). To begin with, a few observations are in order concerning the relative frequency of the various functions in this cluster. First of all, the prevalence of meetings scenarios in ESP textbooks is clearly justifiable with 38.5% of our respondents citing meetings as a function relevant for them. By contrast, socialising seems to be underrepresented in course books despite being mentioned by over a third (35.5%) of our participants. The remaining functions are decidedly less frequent with reading and writing memos accounting for 22.0% and 14.0% of mentions respectively, negotiating (21.0%) and following and giving presentations (20.8%; 17.9%). This is, indeed, the most striking piece of evidence: while presentations skills are a focus of ESP textbooks with scenarios and the relevant phraseology being ubiquitous in the relevant publications (Evans 2013, 195), only less than a fifth (17.9%) of our respondents actually give presentations. The amount of attention devoted to presentation skills, therefore, does not seem fully justified. This also tallies with Evans's (2013, 197) data, which revealed that "presentations were not a particularly prominent feature of spoken workplace communication" (Evans 2013, 197).[2] In terms of converting the above mentioned functions into teaching tasks, two issues are examined in the following, viz. (a) the integrated nature of these tasks in the workplace and its reflection in task design and (b) the need to focus on the interactional nature of meetings-related language, which is a key to relationship building, but widely neglected in the relevant textbooks.

In order to produce effective meetings-tasks, it is first of all essential to highlight the range and integrated nature of the relevant skills. For users of English in the workplace, the ability to meet this

2 Reading the trade press is mentioned by 23.6% of our sample. However since this skill is somewhat out of kilter with the general character of this cluster, we will discuss it at a later point, in section 3.2.

variety of demands is less a matter of explicit language use than simply adequate pre- and post-meeting preparation (Warren 2014, 20) - which just happens to take place in a foreign language. In regard to pre-meeting preparation substantial "written communication has taken place in advance" (Warren 2014, 21), e.g. in the form of memos, in addition to the preparation of slides (Warren 2014, 20) for presentations during the meeting itself. Such meetings may also take the form of negotiations, in which case the decisions need to be confirmed in writing in the form of memos, reports, minutes or emails during the post-meeting phase (Warren 2014, 20). As a result, effective participants in meetings "need to be adept at analysing a mass of interconnected written and spoken material" (Evans 2013, 205). Unfortunately, not enough attention is paid by textbook authors to the "preparatory documentation that precedes the meetings and the documentation … in the post-meeting phase" (Warren 2014, 21), and consequently Evans (2013, 205) calls e.g. for "presentation activities to be intertwined with other kinds of work (e.g., report writing, negotiations)". As a consequence, authentic task design might therefore start at the pre-meeting stage with a round of memos or telephone calls whose content would be integrated into slides for a presentation. The meetings phase would require converting the written mode (slides, memos) into the spoken mode, i.e. into presentations and the actual discussion or negotiation. These comparatively formal types of spoken interaction would need to be interspersed with more informal socialising and small talk. Finally, in the post-meetings phase, these spoken interactions could be re-converted into written genres, such as memos, emails, minutes or reports (see below for the last two genres).

A second point relates to the **transactional** versus **interactional** nature of meetings. There is no doubt that transactional aspects of negotiations and meetings, such as proposing and responding to proposals or agreeing and disagreeing, have been amply discussed in BE textbooks (cf. Liu & Liu 2017, 3; Koester 2014, 37; Warren 2014, 16). Based on her observational research, Rogerson-Revell 2008, 356) demonstrates that authentic meetings indeed fulfil their basic transactional functions appearing "orderly" and "harmonious" with non-native speakers contributing meaningfully. This effective working mode is characterised by a consistent focus on message content and ensured by the "linguistic and procedural formality" of meetings (Rogerson-Revell 2008, 357). Theoretically, therefore, the traditional functions and phraseology presented in BE textbooks should be sufficient for the **transactional** effectiveness of meetings.

Unfortunately, the lack of authenticity in most textbooks (Warren 2014, 16; Koester 2014, 37) has negative repercussions for the **interactional** effectiveness of meetings participants. This is due to the fact that textbook language tends to be too explicit, direct (Cheng & Warren 2005) and confrontational (Koester 2014, 45) so that interaction may be compromised. Similarly, participants at meetings report feeling insecure as soon as the discourse is no longer transactional and business-oriented, but becomes more interactional such as in a social conversation (Warren 2014, 17). This lack of facility in social contexts is problematic as most oral communication even in business contexts is "more informal" (Crosling & Ward 2002, 42), and similarly Brown & Lewis (2003, 97) report a "50-50 division between work-related and social-personal topics". In this context, the relevance of being able to build rapport and relationships based on relational talk is essential (Liu & Liu 2017, 12), as is the need for networking and sociability "before, during or after the formal business of the meeting" (Lyons 2013, 53).

Suggestions on how to remedy this competence gap in terms of interactional language have unfortunately been less detailed than the diagnosis of the problems. One strand of research has focused on the role of humour in business-social interaction. Rogerson-Revell (2007, 22) observes that humour "occurs repeatedly throughout … meetings" and she underlines its importance for signalling common ground and solidarity (Rogerson-Revell 2007, 5). A similar point is made by Murata (2014, 253), who suggests that humour enhances relationships, team spirit and solidarity. However, both argue that humour depends on the socio-cultural context (Murata 2014, 253; Rogerson-Revell 2007, 5) and also on the power relationships at play in the discourse (Rogerson-

Revell 2007, 22). Unfortunately, it is precisely these aspects that language users find hard to judge in the first place (Warren 2014, 19), and consequently the use of humour to foster relationships at a more personal level has to be regarded as - at best - a double-edged sword (Rogerson-Revell 2007, 24).

The second potential remedy requires the use of corpus-based, authentic teaching materials, which automatically result in more indirect language use with a more positive interactional impact. One illustration is Koester's (2014) negotiating device of hypothetical reported speech, which is actually a misnomer for imagined direct speech as exemplified in "So effectively if you and me say **'Well we don't know but we'll try it**…'" (Koester 2014, 36-37, Extract 2), with the phrase in bold representing the hypothetical, imagined speech. This use is widespread and integral to negotiations: it represents a "more indirect and strategic negotiating strategy" (Koester 2014, 45) and by being more indirect fulfils an essential relational function in terms of relationship building. Similarly, different types of metapragmatic expressions (Liu & Liu 2017, 6) have been identified in authentic negotiations, involving commentaries (*I am just kidding*), speech-action descriptions (*I will explain later*), message glosses (*The thing is like this*) and evidentials (*According to our previous meeting*). Many of these phrases act as mitigating devices to highlight a speaker's cautiousness and consideration, and their "intention to gain mutual understanding" (Liu & Liu 2017, 7). They consequently serve as useful tools for building relationships and rapport. Overall, the consistent use of such authentic, corpus-based language in teaching materials will automatically include indirect, mitigating expressions, which should in turn support the interactional nature of the discourse, creating rapport and supporting relationships.

Cluster C - Minutes and reports. While the above meetings-cluster contained the most loosely defined written genre, viz. memos, which may assume many different formal realisations, the present cluster contains the formally most closely defined genres, viz. reports (reading 43.0%; writing 27.8%) and minutes (reading 30.3%; writing 20.6%). The present grouping seems to suggest that respondents who require the one text type also require the other. Consequently, an effective teaching task might focus on contrasting the formal and linguistic differences of these texts. As the integration of different genres is a major focus in the present paper, one option is to set learners the task of composing the minutes of a meeting and then to transfer the same information into a report. This may be regarded as a potentially authentic task type and should additionally serve to contrast and underline the relevant genre differences. However, the grouping of reports with minutes in a separate cluster is not to say that these text types should not be integrated in context-rich meetings scenarios like those discussed above. Nonetheless, it may be worthwhile to clarify if learners indeed require the more specialised genres of reports and minutes, in which case these can be integrated into meetings scenarios. In all other cases, the more generally applicable genre of memos should suffice and thus require less text-type specific input.

Cluster B - Technical descriptions. The final cluster comprises reading and writing technical descriptions (38.6% and 20.0%, respectively), which obviously suggests that these are taught together. For a further discussion of these skills, see section 3.2. below.

3.2. English use among technical vs. business staff

Section 3.2. focuses on the different needs in technical vs. business professions. Based on a survey of 20,000 German employees, Hall (2008, 222-223) finds that a substantially larger proportion of staff in technical professions requires English in the workplace, viz. 77% of her respondents, versus only 58% of those working in business services (*Dienstleistungskaufleute*). A similar gap is evident in our sample (see Illustration 6). While two thirds of our in-service business students (66.3%) report using English, the proportion is three quarters (75.5%) among students of engineering. A chi-square test (with Yates continuity correction) indicates a significant difference between these two

groups at the 0.05 level, x^2 (1, n=716) = 5.420, p=0.020. In terms of mere quantity, this means that engineering students deserve at least the same, if not more, attention in terms of English instruction.

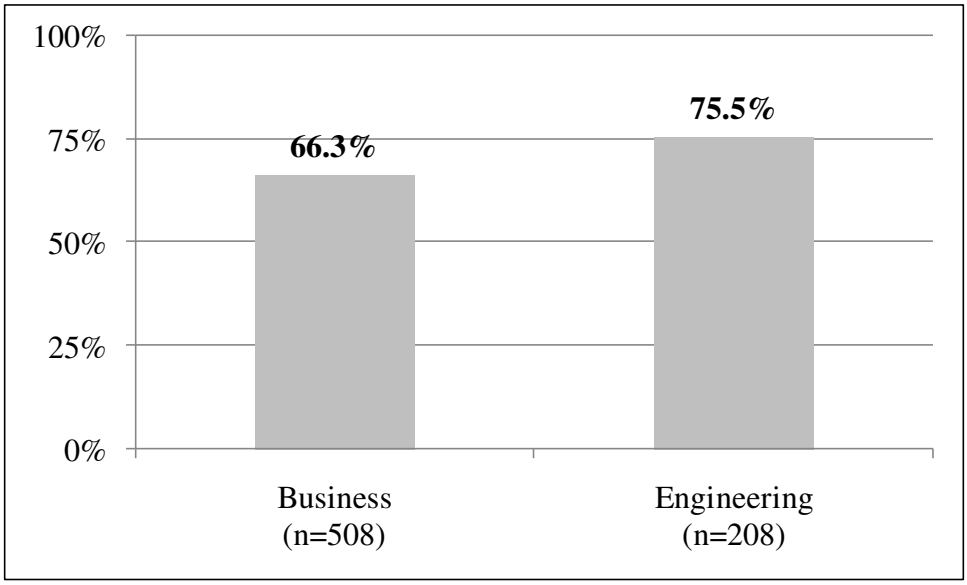


Illustration 6: English use by faculty

Furthermore, Illustrations 7 and 8 report differences between technical and business staff, with Illustration 7 focusing on more technical functions and Illustration 8 covering what are traditionally regarded as business functions. First of all, reading and writing of technical descriptions was already mentioned as a relevant cluster of skills in section 3.1.2. above. Not surprisingly, Illustration 7 reveals that more than twice as many technical staff than business staff require these skills. What comes as more of a surprise is that significantly more technical staff (33.8%) read the trade press than employees in business positions (18.8%). While ESP reading strategies are almost always discussed in the context of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (cf. e.g. Grabe & Stoller 2001), the current data may point to their relevance in technical English as well. Adapting the wealth of EAP reading tasks to specialised technical texts should, consequently, be profitable and effective in teaching technical English classes.

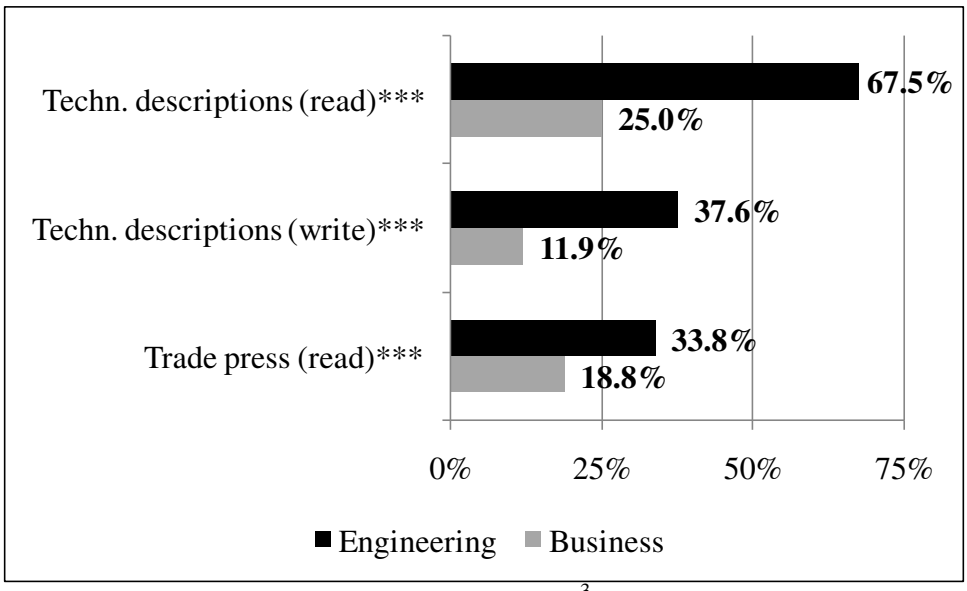


Illustration 7: English use by faculty (n=493)[3]

More interestingly still, Illustration 8 reveals that technical staff are also more likely to require English in traditional business functions. Almost half of engineers (49.7%) are involved in English meetings versus a third of business staff (33.3%), 39.7% of technical staff read memos while it is only a quarter among business staff (25.9%), and almost twice as many engineers give presentations in English than business staff do (26.8% vs. 13.7%). These figures suggest that not only are engineers deserving targets for English instruction in general, but that classes should definitely have a strong business-related component.

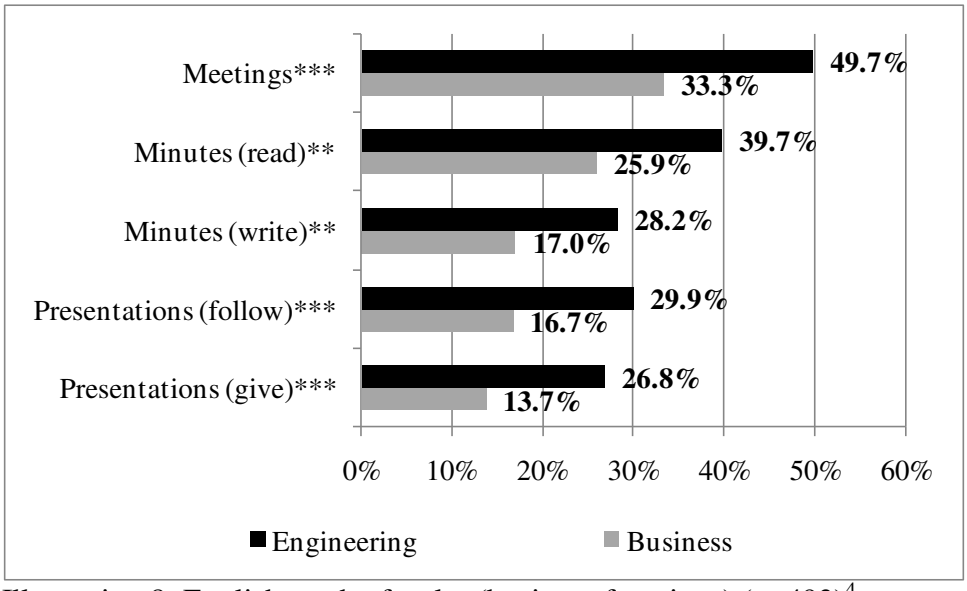


Illustration 8: English use by faculty (business functions) (n=493)[4]

---

3 ***Significant at the 0.001 level.
Reading technical descriptions: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 79.872, p=0.000.
Writing technical descriptions: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 42.591, p=0.000.
Reading trade press: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 12.573, p=0.000.

4 ***Significant at the 0.001 level; **Significant at the 0.01 level
Meetings: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 11.393, p=0.001.
Reading minutes: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 9.036, p=0.003.
Writing minutes: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 7.577, p=0.006.

3.3. Student requests for language support

In addition to surveying the language use of in-service students in their jobs, one section of our questionnaire also asked them to identify skills which they felt they needed support with in the context of language instruction. Again the responses were subjected to a hierarchical cluster analysis. The first cluster in Illustration 9 involves presenting (17.5%), meetings (19.6%) and negotiating (26.6%) skills. These skills conveniently overlap with cluster D in section 3.2.1. above. This means that focusing on the meetings-related skills required in the workplace (cf. Illustration 4) will also cover the areas which students feel they should be practising anyway, i.e. such instruction should be effective as it taps into students' intrinsic motivation.

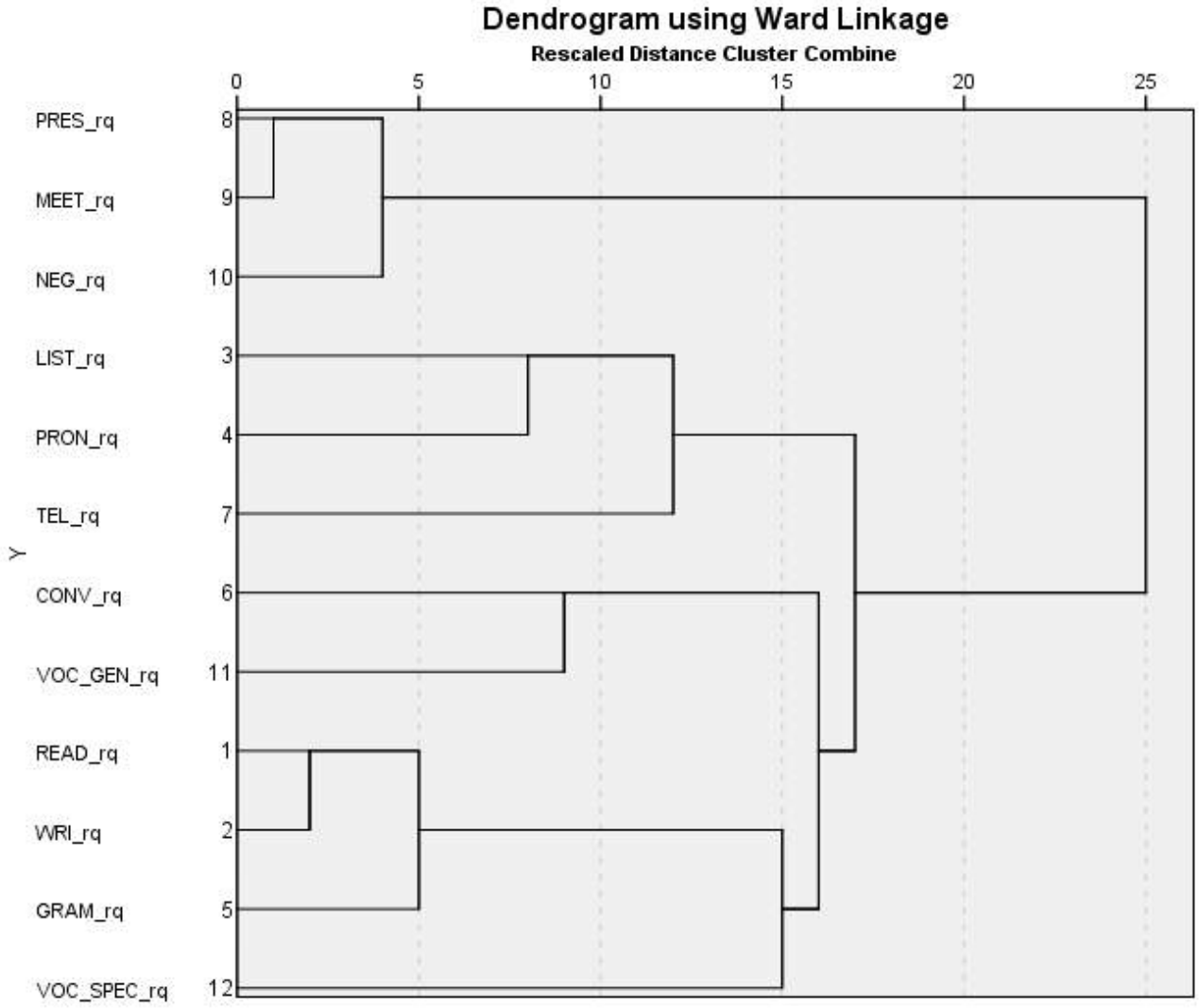


Illustration 9: Skills support requested by respondents[5]

The second cluster covers the spoken mode and includes listening skills (24.0%), pronunciation (29.2%) and telephoning (26.6%). Again, the didactic overlap of covering these issues is obvious. One point of interest in this context is that about a third of respondents seek input in regard to

---

Following presentations: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 10.611, p=0.001.
Giving presentations: Chi-square test with Yates continuity correction, x^2 (1, n=493) = 11.573, p=0.001.

5 Hierarchical cluster analysis, based on chi squared between-sets-of-frequencies measure.
CONV = conversation, GRAM = grammar, LIST = listening, MEET = meetings, NEG = negotiating, PRES = presenting, PRON = pronunciation, READ = reading, TEL = telephoning, VOC_GEN = general vocabulary, VOC_SPEC = technical vocabulary, WRI = writing.

pronunciation, which tends to be a somewhat neglected area. In fact, in the context of Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) the ubiquity of non-native accents is taken for granted (cf. Jenkins 2007, Kaur 2014), with the native speaker model being regarded as irrelevant. Both of these facts may explain the modest interest in pronunciation in ESP teaching. However, from a learner perspective this does not seem to mean that they do not actively require specific input and feedback in this area.

A further cluster includes the single most frequently cited item, viz. conversation (30.9%), and general vocabulary (26.0%). This makes particular sense in the context of Warren's (2014, 17) data on the insecurity of non-native speakers in social contexts and their difficulty in organising their "thoughts in real-time" especially when off-topic. To remedy this issue, basic fluency work (conversation) with a focus on quick access to productive vocabulary of an every-day nature would be highly effective, thus highlighting the relevance of this skills cluster.

By contrast, the traditional, global skills of reading (14.2%), writing (21.8%) and grammar (15.4%) receive the fewest mentions, i.e. they seems to be regarded as less relevant by learners. Technical vocabulary (26.6%) clusters with these skills at a fairly late stage, i.e. terminology seems to be regarded as something of a separate category, which suggests that learners may not be particularly concerned if this one category is sometimes addressed in isolation without recourse to any other skills or functions.

4. Conclusion

On the basis of the discussion above, we can draw the following conclusions in regard to didactic considerations in ESP:

- English instruction is definitely required for our student pool as up to three quarters of respondents reported using English at work, and two thirds of those used it comparatively frequently.

- A cluster analysis revealed the interconnected nature of telephoning and emailing in the workplace, which suggests that teaching tasks should also focus on the integration of these skills.

- In connection with emailing, it was found that learners require practice in dealing with extended email chains and not simply individual messages, with an added focus on indirect, polite language in external communication. Corporate netiquette codes may be an effective, and authentic, source for this purpose.

- Meetings-related tasks require a number of closely interrelated skills (i.e. meetings proper, negotiations, presentations, socialising, memos). Teaching tasks should therefore reflect this interaction of skills, with the relevant language input ideally based on authentic, corpus-based expressions. This should ensure a focus on interactive, relational functions to support the creation of rapport and relationship building.

- Technical staff are more likely to require English in the workplace than staff in business positions. This need for workplace English crucially involves traditional business functions such as meetings, minutes and presentations and not just technical English.

References

Archan, S.; Dornmayr, H. (2006) *Fremdsprachenbedarf und -Kompetenzen: Unternehmensbefragung zu Ausbildungsqualität und Weiterbildungsbedarf.* (ibw-Schriftenreihe Nr. 131). Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft.

Archan, S.; Holzer, C. (2006) *Sprachenmonitor: Zahlen, Daten und Fakten zur Fremdsprachensituation in Österreich*. (ibw-Bildung & Wirtschaft Nr. 38). Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft.

Bacha, N.; Bahous, R. (2008) "Contrasting views of business students' writing needs in an EFL environment." *English for Specific Purposes* 27: 74-93.

Bremner, S. (2008) "Intertextuality and business communication textbooks: Why students need more textual support." *English for Specific Purposes* 27: 306-321.

Bremner, S. (2010) "Collaborative writing: Bridging the gap between the textbook and the workplace." *English for Specific Purposes* 29: 121-132.

Brown, T.; Lewis, M. (2003) "An ESP project: Analysis of an authentic workplace conversation." *English for Specific Purposes* 2003: 93-98.

Burns, A.; Moore, S. (2008) "Questioning in simulated accountant-client consultations: Exploring implications for ESP teaching." *English for Specific Purposes* 27: 322-337.

Chan, C. (2009) "Forging a link between research and pedagogy: A holistic framework for evaluating business English materials." *English for Specific Purposes* 28: 125-136.

Cheng, W. (2007). "'Sorry to interrupt, but .': Pedagogical implications of a spoken corpus." In Campoy-Cubillo, M.; Luzon, M. (eds.) Spoken corpora in applied linguistics. Bern: Peter Lang. pp199-216.

Cheng, W.; Warren, M. (2005). "///well I have a DIFferent//æ THINking you know//: A corpus-driven study of disagreement in Hong Kong business discourse." In Bargiela-Chiappini, F.; Gotti, M. (eds.) Asian business discourse(s). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. pp241-270.

Cheng, W.; Warren, M. (2006) "I would say be very careful of.: Opine markers in an intercultural business corpus of spoken English." In Bamford, J.; Bondi, M. (eds.) Managing interaction in professional discourse. Intercultural and interdiscoursal perspectives. Rome: Officina Edizioni. pp46-58.

CILT 2006 = CILT (The National Centre for Languages); InterAct International (2006) *ELAN: Effects on the European economy of shortages of foreign languages skills in enterprise*. CILT (The national Centre for Languages): No place.

Crosling, G.; Ward, I. (2002) "Oral communication: The workplace needs and uses of business graduate employees." *English for Specific Purposes* 21: 41-57.

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2016) "Variation in evaluations of the (im)politeness if emails from L2 learners and perceptions of the personality of their senders." *Journal of Pragmatics* 106: 1-19.

Edwards, N. (2000) "Language for business: Effective needs assessment, syllabus design and materials preparation in a practical ESP case study." *English for Specific Purposes* 19: 291-296.

European Commission (2012) *Europeans and their languages. Special Eurobarometer 386*. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture (No date) *Languages mean business. Companies work better with languages. Recommendations from the Business Forum for Multilingualism established by the European Commission*. Brussels: European Commission.

Evans, S. (2010) "Business as usual: The use of English in the professional world in Hong Kong." *English for Specific Purposes* 29: 153-167.

Evans, S. (2012) "Designing email tasks for the Business English class room: Implications from a study of Hong Konk's key industries." *English for Specific Purposes* 31: 202-212.

Evans, S. (2013) "'Just wanna give you guys a bit of an update': Insider perspectives on business presentations in Hong Kong." *English for Specific Purposes* 32: 195-207.

Forey, G. (2004) "Workplace texts: Do they mean the same for teachers and business people?" *English for Specific Purposes* 23: 447-469.

Francis, L.; Holmvall, C.; O'Brien, L. (2015) "The influence of workload and civility of treatment on the perpretation of email incivility." *Computers in Human Behavior* 46: 191-201.

Friginal, E. (2013) "Evaluation of oral performance in outsourced call centres: An exploratory case study." *English for Specific Purposes* 32: 25-35.

Geiger, I.; Parlamis, J. (2014) "Is there more to email negotiation than email? The role of email affinity." *Computers in Human Behaviour* 32: 67-78.

Gimenez, J. (2006) "Embedded business emails: Meeting new demands in international business communication." *English for Specific Purposes* 25: 154-172.

Grabe, W.; Stoller, F. (2001) "Reading for academic purposes: Guidelines for the ESL/EFL teacher." In Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Boston: Heinle, Cengage Learning. pp187–203.

Grin, F. (2001) "English as economic value: facts and fallacies." *World Englishes* 20: 65-78.

Hall, A. (2008) "Fremdsprachen im Beruf - Wer benötigt Fremdsprachenkenntnisse und auf welchem Niveau?" In Tritscher-Archan, S. (2008) *Fremdsprachen für die Wirtschaft. Analyse, Zahlen, Fakten.* (ibw-Forschungsbericht Nr. 143) Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft. 217-233.

Handford, M.; Matous, P. (2011) "Lexicogrammar in the international construction industry: A corpus-based case study of Japanese–Hong-Kongese on-site interactions in English." *English for Specific Purposes* 30: 87-100.

Holme, R.; Chalauisaeng, B. (2006) "The learner as needs analyst: The use of participatory appraisal in the EAP reading classroom." *English for Specific Purposes* 25: 403-419.

Jasso-Aguilar, R. (1999) "Sources, methods and triangulation in needs analysis: A critical perspective in a case study of Waikiki hotel maids." *English for Specific Purposes* 18: 27-46.

Jenkins, J. (2007) *English as a lingua franca: attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kaewpet, C. (2009) "Communicaiton needs of Thail civil engineering students." *English for Specific Purposes* 28: 266-278.

Kankaanranta, A.; Louhiala-Salminen, L. (2010) "'English? - Oh, it's just work!': A study of BELF users' perceptions." *English for Specific Purposes* 29: 204-209.

Kankaanranta, A.; Planken, B. (2010) "BELF competence as business knowledge of internationally operating business professionals." *International Journal of Business Communication* 47: 380-407.

Kassim, H.; Ali, F. (2010) "English communicative events and skills needed at the workplace: Feedback from the industry." *English for Specific Purposes* 29: 168-182.

Kaur, P. (2014) "Accent Attitudes: Reactions to English as a Lingua Franca." *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 134: 3-12.

Koester, A. (2014) "'We'd be prepared to do something, like if you say…'" hypothetical reported speech in business negotiations." *English for Specific Purposes* 36: 35-46.

Lillqvist, E.; Louhiala-Salminen, L.; Kankaanranta, A. (2016) "Power relations in social media discourse: Dialogization and monologization on corporate Facebook pages." *Discourse, Context and Media* 12: 68-76.

Liu, P.; Liu, H. (2017) "Creating common ground: The role of metapragmatic expressions in BELF meeting interactions." *Journal of Pragmatics* 107: 1-15.

Lockwood, J. (2017) "An analysis of we-chat in an outsourced customers service account in the Philippines." *English for Specific Purposes* 47: 26-39.

Louhiala-Salminen, L. (2002) "The fly's perspective: Discourse in the daily routine of a business manager." *English for Specific Purposes* 21: 211-321.

Lyons, G. (2013) "Business travel - The social practices surrounding meetings." *Research in Transport Business & Management* 9: 50-57.

Millot, P. (2017) "Inclusivity and exclusivityin English as a Business Lingua Franca: The expression of a professional voice in email communication." *English for Specific Purposes* 46: 59-71.

Murata, K. (2014) "An empirical cross-cultural study of humour in business meetings in New Zealand and Japan." *Journal of Pragmatics* 60: 251-265.

Platzer, H.; Verdonk, D. (2004) "Fremdsprachen in der Beratung." In Egger, W. et al. (eds.) *Wirtschaftsberatung in Österreich. Struktur und Entwicklung*. Vienna: Neuer Wissenschaftlicher Verlag. 401-420.

Platzer, H.; Verdonk, D. (2012) "English for the workplace: An Austrian perspective." In Krzanowski, M. (ed.) *English for work and the workplace: approaches, curricula and materials*. Reading: Garnet. pp3-16.

Rogerson-Revell, P. (2007a) "Humour in business: A double-edged sword. A study of humour and style shifting in intercultural business meetings." *Journal of Pragmatics* 39: 4-28.

Rogerson-Revell, P. (2007b) "Using English for international business: A European case study." *English for Specific Purposes* 26: 103-120.

Rogerson-Revell, P. (2008) "Participation and performance in international business meetings." *English for Specific Purposes* 27: 338-360.

Schöpper-Grabe, S. (2008) "Go global - Zur Situation der Fremdsprachen in der deutschen Wirtschaft." In Tritscher-Archan, S. (2008) *Fremdsprachen für die Wirtschaft. Analyse, Zahlen, Fakten.* (ibw-Forschungsbericht Nr. 143) Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft. 235-247.

Statistik Austria (2017) "Wirtschaft, Leistungs- und Strukturdaten". Vienna: No publisher. http://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/wirtschaft/produktion_und_bauwesen/leistungs_und_strukturdaten/index.html (15.2.2018)

Taillefer, G. (2007) "The professional language needs of Economics graduates: Assessment and perspectives in the French context." *English for Specific Purposes* 26: 135-155.

Townley, A.; Jones, A. (2016) "The role of emails and covering letters in negotiating a legal contract: A case study from Turkey." *English for Specific Purposes* 44: 68-81.

Tritscher-Archan, S. (2008) "Fremdsprachenbedarf und -kompetenzen in Österreichs Unternehmen." In Tritscher-Archan, S. (2008) *Fremdsprachen für die Wirtschaft. Analyse, Zahlen, Fakten*. (ibw-Forschungsbericht Nr. 143) Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft. 171-189.

Walker, C. (2011) "How a corpus-based study of the factors which influence collocation can help in the teaching of business English." *English for Specific Purposes* 30: 101-112.

Warren, M. (2006). Features of naturalness in conversation. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Warren, M. (2013) "Just spoke to …": The types and directionality of intertextuality in professional discourse." *English for Specific Purposes* 32: 12-24.

Warren, M. (2014) "'Preparation is everything': Meetings in professional contexts in Hong Kong." *English for Specific Purposes* 36: 12-26.

Warren, M. (2016) "Signalling intertextuality in business emails." *English for Specific Purposes* 42: 26-37.

Weber, M. (2005) *Fremdsprachen in österreichischen Großunternehmen - Eine Bedarfanalyse.* (Unpublished Master's thesis, Univ. of Economics and Business Admnistration, Vienna).

Weber, M. (2008) "Fremdsprachen in österreichischen Großunternehmen - Eine Bedarfanalyse." In Tritscher-Archan, S. (2008) *Fremdsprachen für die Wirtschaft. Analyse, Zahlen, Fakten*. (ibw-Forschungsbericht Nr. 143) Vienna: Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft. 147-169.

Zhang, Z. (2007) "Towards and integrated approach to teaching Business English: A Chinese experience." *English for Specific Purposes* 26: 399-410.

Zhang, Z. (2013) "Business English students learning to write for international business: What do international business practitioners have to say about their texts?" *English for Specific Purposes* 32: 144-156 .

Specific features of ESP classes in developed and developing countries: a multiple case study at two universities in Austria and Bosnia and Herzegovina

Džalila Muharemagić

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Specific features of ESP classes in developed and developing countries: a multiple case study at two universities in Austria and Bosnia and Herzegovina

Džalila Muharemagić

University of Bihać

Abstract

The paper presents results of a multiple case study on specific features of ESP classes conducted at two universities, one in Austria as a developed country and one in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country. Drawing on current theoretical and practical research in ESP, the case study focused on the most important elements of ESP classes in terms of students and subject area needs, authentic materials, content language, teaching methodology and other didactic requirements, in order to determine to which extent the English language courses in B&H higher education fulfill the requirements of ESP methodology and principles and provide insight into ESP practices in developed countries, in this specific case Austria, comparing them to those in developing countries, i.e. Bosnia and Herzegovina. The results indicate strong differences between the universities in terms of institutional commitment to organization of the courses and development of language skills of students, while the working conditions and lack of systematic approach to needs analysis were similar at both institutions. The complete research was presented within master thesis defended at the Philological faculty of University of Banja Luka, Bosnia and Herzegovina in June 2017.

1. Introduction

Considering the fact that English language has become a lingua franca in almost all fields of academic, scientific and economic activity and cooperation, it comes as natural to understand that improvement of communication skills of citizens of developing countries will support development and internationalization of those countries. Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country entered the Bologna process and submitted a membership request for EU with an aim of becoming a part of global movements in economy, science and education, yet the true entrance to the globalized world is possible once its citizens have all the necessary skills for life and cooperation in a *global village* such is the world of today. Besides the essential skills required by a workplace, a business partner or customs of a certain culture, communication skills are indispensable element for success in any profession. Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina has a long tradition of development of communication and language skills of its citizens; however the question is to what extent this tradition is in line with the requirements of the modern language teaching and communication. On the other hand, starting from the same premises of importance of communication and lingua franca for different fields of human activity, it is natural to expect that developed countries, such as Austria, follow the latest findings in the language learning and communication. Having in mind English as a lingua franca in today's world, it is also necessary to mention the English for Specific Purposes as a special field of English language learning which is dedicated to purpose of language learning, i.e. different fields of human activity. Following the above stated premises, an idea was born to research and compare specific features of ESP classes at two countries, one developed and one developing and compare to what extent the countries differ in organization of the classes and fulfillment of the requirements of ESP methodology and principles in terms of students and subject

area needs, authentic materials, content language, teaching methodology and other didactic requirements. The research should provide insight into best practices in ESP courses design and implementation in developed countries for relevant bodies in Bosnia and Herzegovina working on the improvement of English language courses at higher education institutions. In addition, the results may be useful for interested stakeholders in Austria in getting the external perspective of the current situation of ESP at one of their universities.

2. The research - theoretical background and research methodology

In order to determine the latest findings in language learning and specific features of ESP, the theoretical background of the research is primarily based on several definitions of Languages for Specific Purposes and English for Specific Purposes such as the one of Strevens (1977), Munby (1978), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). These were followed by the research of Basturkmen (2010), Belcher (2009), Anthony (2007), Widdowson (1983), Douglas (2000), etc. Drawing on such theoretical background, the following specific characteristics were identified as relevant for the research: needs analysis, roles and challenges of an ESP teacher, syllabus design and development of teaching materials. In his paper from 1977, Strevens states the three main principles in defining Languages for Specific Purposes: purpose of language learning; content of the language determined by the restriction, selection, themes and topics, and communication needs; any methodology appropriate for the language learning situation. Although different in content, definitions of ESP given by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Dudley-Evans and St. John also emphasize purpose, methodology and content as main elements of ESP. It is important to state that the purpose itself is not exclusively reserved for ESP, but rather in ESP it is awareness of the purpose that differs it from General English and this is where needs analysis plays a role. A model of needs analysis used in the research to some extent, combines several approaches and is best explained by Basturkmen (2010:19). This includes the following: Target situation analysis, Discourse analysis, Present situation analysis, Learner factor analysis, Teaching context analysis.

The research was designed as a multiple case study which according to Yin (2003; according to Baxter and Jack, 2008:548) enables a researcher to explore differences within and among two or more cases, where the cases should be carefully selected enabling the researcher to forecast the results based on the theoretical background. Yin (2009) explains that the case study should explore a phenomenon in its realistic context through a specific situation by means of multiple research techniques and using theory as the basis for the research. The phenomenon of this study is ESP teaching in its realistic context of higher education in developed and developing countries, while the specific situations are two universities in Austria and Bosnia and Herzegovina with its specific ways of organization of ESP classes. Finally, as stated in the previous chapter, the research is based on the contemporary theoretical findings in the field of Languages for Specific Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. The two specific universities were carefully selected considering that both were public universities founded by the state, i.e. developing and developed country at a relatively similar time – University of Applied Sciences Technikum Wien was founded in 1994 and University of Bihać in 1997; both universities have approximately similar number of students (cca 4000) and offer studies in almost similar fields – technical and biotechnical sciences and economics among others. As is specific for case study, the research used a multiple research techniques for collection and analysis of data: class observation, qualitative content analysis, surveys and semi structured interviews.

Class observation was done at both universities during summer semester of academic year 2015/16 for 40 classes at University of Bihać and 36 classes at UAS Technikum Wien (class duration of 45 minutes given in units of 1,5 hours and 2 hours). Observation was done in an authentic work and time environment of both universities, without interference of a researcher, using recommendations

for class observation given by Bezinović et al. (2012). Notes on the class observation were taken according to the first part of COLT scheme given by Nunan (1992:99) – activity type, participant organization, content, student modality and materials. In addition, the notes included following information: class size (number of students), language spoken during the class, native language of a teacher, and equipment used.

Materials collected during class observation included teaching materials used during the classes, as well as the subject syllabi, and additional materials used for preparation of classes. The materials were analyzed using the qualitative content analysis (Dornyei, 2003) and coded according to categories of objective analysis recommended by Hutchinson and Waters (1987:99-104).

Surveying was used in order to collect data on needs analysis of students, alumni, content teachers and English language teachers. Surveying was done using questionnaires developed according to recommendations of Dornyei (2003). Besides surveys, semi structured interviews were used to collect data on working conditions of English language teachers. The interviews were conducted in line with recommendations given by Nunan (1992). While the interview was directed towards the attitudes of English language teachers, questionnaires were designed to collect data on teaching process at the two universities containing 41 question set into four categories – general questions on teachers and their experience, general questions on the subject, questions related to the process of needs analysis, and those related to materials development. Total of 7 interviews and 20 questionnaires for teachers of English language were collected at both institutions.

Students' needs analysis was done by means of questionnaires designed in line with theoretical recommendations (Basturkmen, 2010). Total of 13 questions were set into 4 categories: general information on students, attitudes toward English language classes, questions for self-evaluation and evaluation of English classes at their university, and expectations of current and future language needs. The same categories were given in questionnaires for alumni students through 10 questions, with additional category of recommendations for improvement of English language classes according to their needs of working in a certain profession. Finally, questionnaires for content teachers consisted of 8 questions given in 4 categories: general questions, attitudes towards relevance of English language for future profession of students, questions related to contents of English language classes according to needs of the profession and recommendations for improvement of English language classes. Total of 128 students, 30 alumni and 16 content teachers of University of Bihać were surveyed in this research.

The research problem was defined through a causal and consequential relationship of a lack of institutional commitment to organization of English language classes at higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country which leads to the lack of communication skills of its citizens for globalized labor market subsequently leading to a large number of unemployed people and obsolete economy.

Having in mind such defined research problem, the main goal of the research was to determine to what extent the existing teaching process, its organization and implementation, working conditions of English language teachers and use of teaching materials follow the requirements of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) defined by the contemporary theory and practical research in this field. Since the needs analysis is one of the main elements of ESP, another goal of the research was to determine needs for ESP classes in higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina through an example of University of Bihać from perspective of students, English language teachers, content teachers and alumni. Finally, as Bosnia and Herzegovina is a developing country committed to development and membership in the European Union, another goal is to determine positive practice in organization and implementation of English language classes in higher education of developed countries, using an example of UAS Technikum Wien. These research goals require the following research questions: 1. To what extent do the ESP classes at University of Bihać, one of the higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country, fulfill the requirements of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) defined by the contemporary theory and practical research in this field?; 2. To what extent do the ESP classes at University of Bihać, one of the higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country, fulfill the needs of its students, English language teachers, content teachers and alumni?; 3. To what extent do the English language classes at UAS Technikum Wien, one of higher education institutions in Austria as a developed country, fulfill the requirements of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) defined by the contemporary theory and practical research in this field?.

3. Results and discussion

Analysis of collected data indicated both similarities and differences at the two institutions. Working conditions are positive and very similar at the both institutions in terms of teaching equipment, class size and workload of students during semester. It is also positive that there is a regular evaluation of a teaching process conducted by students, which indicates higher level of student motivation for the teaching process itself. Furthermore, teaching staff at both institutions share the same attitudes towards the financial conditions and workload, which mostly refers to the fact that they are overloaded with classes and not paid for preparations for their classes and evaluation of students' work. Despite the similarities that the two universities share, there is a large difference in organization and implementation of English language classes, which mainly can be seen as an institutional commitment to organization of this type of classes at the developed country. First, this can be seen through an approach to organization of English language classes at the university level. The results of class observation and syllabus analysis indicated structured approach, starting from the very vision and mission of the university and their idea of *humanist engineers*. In addition, what is specific for this university of applied sciences is a department for languages and humanities whose primary role is development of social skills and humanist values of their students. Furthermore, this structured approach is visible through development of syllabi and teaching materials, which is done jointly by the department and content teachers, and also through organization of a conference on English language teaching which according to the surveys and interviews of teachers represents the main form of professional training and development. Finally, the university ensures continuous learning for students through organization of English language classes during all four years of study and learning outside classes through the electronic platform for English language learning called *eSnack*. What is also positive is the fact that students have an opportunity to learn from native speakers of English language, with lessons mostly held in English language without interference of mother tongue. This structured approach starting from the university level, over formal documents, joint work of English language and content teachers, to continuous learning of both teachers and students represents an example of good practice in institutional commitment to English language education. On the other side, organization of English language classes at a university in a developing country does not start from a university level but from a teacher who is responsible for fulfillment of all elements of English for Specific Purposes,

starting from syllabus development to their own professional development. Knowing that the teacher is the only person in charge of syllabus and material development, and that according to the survey results, besides the syllabi there are no other formal documents or curricular elements dedicated to English for Specific Purposes, a lack of structured approach and institutional commitment is evident. This problem can be further tracked to the number of years of learning language which at University of Bihać is one or maximum two semesters during an eight-semesters study period. This, and also the fact that the workload is divided to classes held by an assistant and by a professor, indicates that the institution neglects the importance of continuous language education for development of communication and social skills of its students relevant for progress of the country.

Following the next goal of the research, the results of class observation, content analysis and surveys were set against the contemporary theory and empirical research in this field. Since these emphasize the needs analysis as the main element of ESP, the results at both institutions have shown that neither of the institutions conducts a thorough needs analysis recommended by experts such as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) or Basturkmen (2010). The fact that both institutions group students according to the field and year of study indicates presence of Target Situation Analysis and Present situation analysis. This should mean that the teaching materials, syllabi and content are in line with the tasks, activities and skills in which students will use or are already using the language. However, although syllabi at University of Bihać include some of these elements, class observation and content analysis have shown that the teaching process mostly includes grammatical exercises and presentation of the field-specific vocabulary. There is a lack of specific tasks and activities related to target needs, as well as the lack of activities for improvement of communication skills which is followed by frequent use of mother tongue in classes. Such approach does not fulfill the basic criteria for definition of languages for specific purposes given by Strevens (1977): focus on the purpose of language learning; content of the language determined by the restriction to skills important for the purpose, selection of language, themes and topics and communication needs related to the purpose; methodology appropriate for the language learning situation. Having the definition in mind, the results of class observation and content analysis at UAS Technikum Wien indicate greater correspondence with the criteria – e.g. teaching materials for engineering students include engineering elements such as impact analysis, process description and writing of laboratory reports; practice of communication skills is present through tasks which include discussions, negotiation, etc. Although some content refers to elements of business and ethics, which are not directly related to students' specific field (e.g. engineering), this is justifiable by the concept of the university which is dedicated to education of *humanist engineers* (Maderdonner, 2010) and is also in line with the internal goals of ESP teaching (Cook, 2002; according to Basturkmen, 2010). Continuing with the conclusion of the research of lack of thorough needs analysis, analysis of syllabi and survey results at University of Bihać have indicated opposed results – the teachers have stated that they are using lexical-grammatical type of syllabus, while for the type of needs analysis they have not selected discourse analysis among others. If we consider theoretical recommendations for lexical-grammatical syllabus, it is linked to the language structures and vocabulary, and therefore requires a discourse analysis which is used to determine language used in the target situation (Basturkmen, 2010). The author (Basturkmen, 2010) also states that the teaching based on needs analysis requires more detailed learning goals as opposed to the General English teaching. However, syllabi analysis at both institutions indicated generalized goals which can hinder the evaluation of efficiency of such teaching and learning. Cooperation between ESP teachers and content teachers in development of syllabi is also recognized by some authors (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) as a very important factor for ESP classes. The results of this research indicate presence of such practice at UAS Technikum Wien, while at University of Bihać teachers have indicated that they do not cooperate with content teachers in any aspect of development of English language classes. What is positive is that the results of survey for content teachers show they are willing to take part in development of syllabi and teaching materials for

English language classes. Positive results at both institutions are also visible in the presence of a role of teacher as a researcher which Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) state as one of the main roles of ESP practitioner, where teachers have confirmed that they are interested and are following the latest developments in specific field of their students. Finally, the theory of ESP emphasizes the importance of teaching materials for the future profession of students. Content analysis of collected teaching materials at UAS Technikum Wien indicates that this criterion is fulfilled since the materials mostly focus on the language, skills, discourse and genre of the students' future profession. However, in order to determine the authenticity of such materials, it would be necessary to conduct a more specific research. Analyzed materials at University of Bihać partly indicate a complete lack of connection with the future profession of students, since these materials are more linked to General English. However, some materials are linked to the specific study field of students and these are mostly ready-made commercial materials. It is important to state that different ESP experts do not share the same opinion about use of such materials, such as Belcher (2009) and Pilbeam (1987).

Final part of the research refers to the needs for ESP classes in higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina through an example of University of Bihać from perspective of students, English language teachers, content teachers and alumni. Students' survey partly provides data for those elements of needs analysis which Basturkmen (2010) identifies as Learner factor analysis, i.e. determining those factors related to the learner such as their motivation, how they learn and how they perceive their own needs; and the Present situation analysis, i.e. „identification of what the learners do and do not know and can or cannot do in relation to the demands of the target situation". Students of University of Bihać have positive attitudes towards English language classes and consider it important for their studies and future profession. Students also consider their knowledge of English language as very good in almost all skills. Although students mostly consider that the current workload is not sufficient for their needs, most of the students have confirmed that the current classes are very useful for their current needs. With reference to the future needs, students consider these to be for the purpose of future profession and future studies, while the ideal English language classes should be in ESP and should include speaking and communication skills, every-day and professional vocabulary. Alumni needs analysis falls into the Target situation analysis (Basturkmen, 2010), and the results indicate that they use English language mostly for professional development, which is followed by their selection of necessary language skills. While alumni mostly use reading and writing skills for professional needs, they use speaking and listening skills for entertainment and meeting new people. All respondents consider that students studying in their specific field should be provided with ESP classes which would include professional vocabulary, speaking and communication skills. This is in line with the opinion of content teachers, who consider that students will mostly use English language for professional development, where reading skills are the most useful. They also consider that the English language classes should follow the content of the field-specific subjects and use authentic texts used for these subjects, in order to equip students with skills for further learning on their own. All respondents agree that the classes should be those in ESP and should include professional vocabulary and communication skills.

4. Conclusion

Three research questions have been set for this research, which were derived from a research problem of lack of institutional commitment to English language teaching in higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country which further causes lack of communication skills for its citizens and lack of competitiveness at the global labor market. Reflecting upon the contemporary theory of ESP and results of this research obtained through class observation, surveying and interviews it is possible to formulate an answer to the first research question - the ESP classes at University of Bihać, one of the higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country, only partly fulfill the requirements of English for

Specific Purposes (ESP) defined by the contemporary theory and practical research in this field. Conclusion for this research question and recommendation for University of Bihać would be to follow the example of universities in developed countries which have a structural approach to ESP classes and which consider these classes to be an addition to professional skills of their students and not the additional financial burden. The structural approach means that the classes are organized at the university level without being burdened on the teacher alone, syllabi and the teaching materials are developed in cooperation of English language teachers and content teachers, while the lessons are organized at each study year. Reorganization of classes at University of Bihać in terms of classes being held only by one type of teachers would decrease the costs and the extra financial resources could be directed to organization of ESP classes in more than one semester during the entire study period. Institutional approach to ESP classes which is based on the purpose of learning the language would enable better insight into needs of students and their profession, which would further enable quality education for young people including professional and social skills necessary for the global labor market. It is necessary to form a team of English language teachers and content teachers which would clearly determine educational goals in line with the needs of the labor market and students' needs, i.e. perform a needs analysis in line with the contemporary theoretical and practical requirements of ESP. More attention must be paid to education of new generations of English teachers, where a suggestion for a new research would be to determine to what extent the education of English language teachers includes education in the field of ESP.

The answer to the second research question would be - the ESP classes at University of Bihać, one of the higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a developing country, mostly do not fulfill the needs of its students, English language teachers, content teachers and alumni. This conclusion is made upon the results of needs analysis survey done by the given categories. The results have shown that ESP is an indispensable for English language teaching at a university level from perspective of the surveyed categories. The fact that the answer to the first research question is that the English classes at University of Bihać are not in line with ESP requirements, indicates that such classes are not in line with the needs of the given categories. In addition, the survey results indicate that such classes should include communication skills, speaking skills and professional vocabulary, while the classes at University of Bihać include only the professional vocabulary. The classes mostly include grammatical exercises, with certain use of mother tongue during the English language classes, which leaves little space for practice of communication and speaking skills. Besides, the survey results indicate that the alumni use English language mostly for professional development, which means that it is necessary to provide students with practice in lifelong learning, more specifically in English for specific academic purposes. Elements of this form of English language teaching have not been registered in English classes during this research. Needs analysis is an inevitable element of ESP classes and must be a starting point for organization of classes which are being classified in curricula as professional English classes. Just a nominal classification of such classes as ESP or professional English classes should not be a practice of any trustworthy institution and is not in line with pedagogical standards whatsoever. The university must establish better cooperation with its students and the labor market for better insight into their needs, and new research on needs analysis for different professions in Bosnia and Herzegovina would be of great help.

Finally, the answer to the third research question would be that the English language classes at UAS Technikum Wien, one of higher education institutions in Austria as a developed country, mostly fulfill the requirements of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) defined by the contemporary theory and practical research in this field. The research conducted at the university indicates a high level of institutional commitment to English language teaching. However, the research results indicate that the institution does not conduct an overall needs analysis as is recommended by the contemporary theory of English for specific purposes. Although all observed elements of the teaching process indicate focus on the future profession of the students, it is necessary to conduct a more detailed study to determine whether this focus is in line with the needs of the students and their future profession. All in all, from the perspective of this research it is possible to consider the specific

features of ESP classes at UAS Technikum Wien as a good practice of a university in a developed country. A suggestion for a new research would be to examine to what extent these practices influence the success of students and their competitiveness at a labor market.

References

Anthony, L. (2007, October 5-6). *The Teacher as Student in ESP Course Design*. Paper presented at International Symposium on ESP & Its Applications in Nursing and Medical English Education, Kaohsiung, Taiwan. Kaohsiung: Fooyin University. Accessed at http://www.laurenceanthony.net/research/20071005_06_fooyin_keynote/20071005_06_fooyin_keynote_proc.pdf

Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers . The Qualitative Report, 13(4), 544-559. Accessed at http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol13/iss4/2

Belcher, D. (2009). What ESP is and could be: An Introduction. In Belcher, D. (Ed.), *English for Specific Purposes in Theory and Practice* (pp. 1-20). Michigan: University of Michigan Press. Accessed at https://www.press.umich.edu/pdf/9780472033843-intro.pdf

Bezinović, P., Marušić, I., Ristić Dedić, Z. (2012). *Opažanje i unapređivanje školske nastave*. Zagreb: Agencija za odgoj i obrazovanje & Institut za društvena istraživanja u Zagrebu.

Dornyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Douglas, D. (2000). *Assessing Language for Specific Purpose*. Cambridge: CUP.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St. John, M.J. (1998). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Maderdonner, O. (2010, May 7-8). The Humanist Engineer. Paper presented at the 6th Austrian UAS Language Instructors' Conference, Vienna. Vienna: UAS Technikum Wien.

Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.

Pilbeam, A. (1987). Can Published Materials Be Widely Used for ESP Courses? In Sheldon, L. E. (Ed.). *ELT Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development.* (ELT Documents 126, pp. 119-125). London and Reading: The British Council.

Strevens, P. (1977). Special Purpose Language Learning: A Perspective. *Language Teaching and Linguistics*, *10*(3), 145-163.

Widdowson, H.G. (1983). *Learning Purpose and Learning Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: design and methods* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Inc.

How can peer editing improve student writing? Using the Moodle Workshop tool in the tertiary ESL classroom

Dr. Karin Richter, Gabrielle Smith-Dluha, MA

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

How can peer editing improve student writing? Using the Moodle Workshop tool in the tertiary ESL classroom

Karin Richter and Gabrielle Smith-Dluha

University of Vienna, University of Applied Sciences Vienna.

Abstract

Although the literature generally supports the view that peer feedback activities in ESL writing classes can be a valuable aid to help learners improve their writing skills, many teachers and students seem to doubt its usefulness in their own particular educational context. A recent area of research in this field explores the potential of electronic tools in peer editing. Our study is one of the first to examine the e-learning platform Moodle and its Workshop feature through classroom action research. This tool is designed to enhance the quality of student work by encouraging the learners to "assess the work of their peers and learn from each other", as stated in the Moodle Workshop settings. This paper first provides an overview of the main tenets of using peer feedback in the ESL writing classroom and then provides insights into our own experiences gathered in two different courses in which the Moodle peer-review tool was used, applying both a quantitative and qualitative approach. Our aim is to shed light on how teachers can enhance writing outcomes through improved peer editing design. We explore the usefulness and applicability of the Moodle Workshop feature from two different perspectives: the view of the teachers and the view of the students. In addition, we make suggestions for the effective use of this tool. It is hoped that the findings of this paper may assist practitioners in designing and implementing online peer feedback activities in their ESL classrooms. Finally, we offer insights for future software development of peer-review activities, from both a user experience and pedagogical perspective.

1. Introduction

Many ESL teachers would agree that good writing entails rewriting (cf. Murray, 1982) and revision is the true heart of the writing process, the necessary means through which new ideas evolve and meaning is clarified. Often writing skills develop significantly when authors revise in response to feedback from readers, rather than through self-editing (Carifo, Jackson & Dagostino, 2001). In this context, Leki argues that feedback is the most powerful factor in learning to write well (2000).

Although many language teachers are aware of the benefits of viewing writing as a process, they often avoid such draft assignments because of the heavy workload they already face (National Commission, 2003). Instructors rarely have the time during the semester to respond to multiple drafts in a meaningful and effective manner. Neomy Storch (2017) calls writing teachers "the feedback slaves", overburdened with the amount of papers they assess each semester. As a result, teachers end up designing assignments as single drafts as they hurry through the curriculum and provide only one round of corrective feedback for final assessment purposes.

The situation is further complicated with research revealing that teacher feedback does not readily result in improved student writing (e.g. Kietlinska, 2006; Storch, 2017). While teacher feedback may provide some help and is certainly better than revising without any feedback, teacher comments tend to be incomprehensible, and often abstract, "rubberstamps" on all papers and not specific to the paper at hand (cf. Cho & Mac Arthur, 2010). By using corrective feedback categories such as "register", "organization", "grammar", or "word choice" students, as novice writers, are often overwhelmed by the complexity of these terms and do not know what to do with this feedback without explicit guidance. As experts, teachers may overestimate students' understanding of writing principles and genre conventions and thus provide comments that exceed the learners' capabilities, or are simply above their zone of development (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000). What is even more, teacher feedback can be inconsistent and thus confusing. This means that although instructors spend a considerable amount of time and effort providing useful comments for their learners, these comments do not necessarily translate into better writing outcomes. If no revision assignment is required, students may not even look at teacher feedback in any meaningful way (Storch, 2017). Instead, they simply zero in on the final mark and give a precursory glance through the comments, then put the assignment away to not work with it further.

Peer feedback can be a solution. This writing process approach, which is also commonly referred to as peer review, peer editing or peer response (e.g. Lundstrom & Baker, 2009), generally involves students commenting on each other's work. Liu and Hansen (2002) claim that peer feedback fosters an awareness of the needs of the reader by facilitating a collaborative writing process. The main reasons why ESL teachers include peer feedback processes in their classes are on the one hand to help peers improve their writing and on the other hand to improve students' own editing skills. While a great number of studies have pointed out the valuable social, cognitive, affective and metalinguistic benefits (e.g. Lundstorm and Baker, 2009; Pol et al., 2008; Min, 2008) of peer feedback, others have asserted that it does not necessarily raise the quality of the work (cf. Tsuiping, 2016). The main criticism raised by learners is that they feel that only a more advanced writer, such as their teacher, is qualified to provide useful comments (Cho, Schunn & Wilson 2006). However, research has shown that if peer review is designed thoughtfully and effectively, it can provide students with valid and reliable feedback to their work (Cho, Schunn & Wilson, 2006). In our study, we look at a computer-mediated approach to peer review which offers a number of attractive features for both students and teachers.

In the last few decades, computer-mediated communication has found its way into many classrooms. The rapid pace at which new educational technologies are currently being developed gives rise to a broad spectrum of possibilities how they can be integrated in language learning and teaching. The Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment) platform, an Open Source Learning Management System (OS LMS), is an example of such a learning technology which entered the educational scene in 2002 when version 1.02 was released by Martin Dougiamas (Moodle, n.d.) as an open-source learning management system in Western Australia. According to the information available on their website (Moodle Statistics, n.d.), Moodle is now the world's most popular learning platform with more than 124 million users in 234 countries. One feature Moodle offers is the Workshop tool which can be used for digital peer reviewing activities in the classroom.

By and large, empirical studies into the use of technology in the classroom are encouraging. Among the most frequently mentioned benefits of digital tools in education is that they ostensibly establish community and foster collaboration online through the power to connect their users (e.g. Vandergriff, 2016). In their study of e-feedback, McCabe, Doerflinger, and Fox (2011) found more positive attitudes toward the feedback in a digital context. Their learners said that they would recommend such feedback for future use in the course. Along similar lines, a survey conducted by

McVey (2008) revealed that their participants considered the feedback provided electronically to be generally clear and helpful.

This paper reports on the first phase of a larger study on electronic feedback (e-feedback) focussing specifically on the Moodle Workshop tool in the tertiary ESL writing classroom. With the help of action research methodology, we examine this tool from both a theoretical and a teacher/student user experience perspective. Our main aim at this stage is to elicit subjective assessment of using Moodle Workshop for L2 writing development. We seek to analyse Moodle Workshop's design in light of best practices theory of peer-review activities in order to identify its strengths and weaknesses. Finally, we intend to make suggestions for teachers who are exploring the tool in their own classrooms, and to offer insights to educational software developers for improved design of computer-mediated peer review tools.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Using peer feedback in the ESL writing classroom

Much research has shown that peer-review improves student writing, even in ESL environments (cf. Berg, 1999; Cho, Schunn and Wilson. 2006). A recent study in an ESL tertiary-level writing context by Cho & MacArthur (2010) resulted in unexpected findings. In their research, they focused on the quality of revision by comparing teacher feedback to multiple peer feedback. Contrary to intuitive expectations, Cho and Mac Arthur found that multiple peer editors actually lead to better writing results than feedback from one expert lecturer. This means that collective feedback from classmates, who are at least briefly trained to review and provide comments, is actually more valuable for revision outcomes than comments from the teacher. The reasons for this finding are:

- students use language that is more comprehensible to their own peers.
- students respond to the writing as readers, providing a supportive writing and reading community.
- the types of peer feedback are easier for students to incorporate into more comprehensive revision.
- when students receive feedback from multiple readers, they can compare the comments across reviewers for validity, rather than working with comments from one reviewer alone.

Altogether, the literature indicates that multiple sources of feedback, written in language students understand, provide effective input for improved student revision.

Despite these findings, students are often wary of peer-review, particularly in an ESL context, viewing peer-editing as a poor substitute to teacher feedback. Students tend to believe that they cannot trust their peers' comments, due to a perceived lack of language, writing and content area competence (cf. Kietlinksa, 2006; Cho, Schunn & Wilson, 2006). However, this perception does not hold up to the evidence. Through an in-depth study of the validity and reliability of student assessment of peer university-level papers, Cho, Schunn and Wilson (2006) provide evidence that peer-generated grades are reliable and valid enough to be used in university settings. However, such student assessment is only valid in contexts when there are multiple students (four to six)

assessing one assignment, with some training, using a clear rubric, and with incentives to give quality feedback. Even so, Cho et al.'s study showed that students still question the quality of each other's comments.

The question arises: Do ESL students provide reliable peer review for other ESL students? As Kietlinksa (2006) points out, ESL students are not a homogeneous group and there are multiple nuances as to the cultural expectations, attitudes, needs, and writing and revision contexts and levels of writers across the ESL range. Given this diversity of contexts, it is difficult to broadly claim that ESL writers can or cannot provide quality feedback. However, we can look at perceptions and appreciation of peer feedback. Owing to their teacher-centered educational backgrounds, many ESL students highly respect teacher authority and teacher judgments. Although students generally appreciate peer's comments as one source of feedback, they often distrust their colleagues' capability to give feedback and prefer to have feedback from the teacher as well. Jacobs et al (1998), for instance, found that 93% of ESL participants in a study set in two Asian universities preferred to have peer comments as one, but not the only, channel of feedback. It seems that although they distrust it, they still like it.

Some of the strongest outcomes of peer review is found on the affective level. This explains why students like peer feedback, even if not fully trusting it. Students gain confidence by being able to measure their own skills against their peers. When learners have the opportunity to read the work of their classmates, they are often happy to confirm that their own skills generally match the level of the collective group (cf. Lundstrom & Baker, 2008). Such confirmation can reduce overall anxiety in writing and hence create a productive learning environment. In addition, by having an authentic audience of readers, students gain an emotional sense of both text ownership and of belonging to a classroom community which inspires writing motivation (cf. Kietlinska, 2006; Tsui, 2000; Jacobs et al 1998; Byrd, 2003).

Most importantly, peer review helps the reviewers improve their own writing. One of the most surprising findings in writing research stems from a study of ESL writers by Lundstrom and Baker (2008) which shows that the primary beneficiary of peer review tasks is not the receiver of feedback but the provider of feedback. They argue that when students receive guidance in analyzing a classmate's work, they begin to internalize the criteria of good writing and can then apply it to their own writing. Peer reviewers are also more likely to raise their own awareness of teacher expectations by using a rubric or teacher-guided peer review prompts while looking at work other than their own. Furthermore, in their capacity as writers, the reviewers become more perceptive of readers' needs in general and of genre conventions in particular. This shows that although one might assume that the core benefit of peer review is to receive comments, this is often not the case. Clearly, peer-revision has the potential to provide additional layers of gains in overall writing skills to the reviewers themselves.

In sum, research shows that well-designed, teacher-guided peer review activities can generate added value in terms of both writing skills and writing confidence for ESL students and, if designed correctly, can significantly reduce the workload for teachers.

2.2. Using software for peer feedback

Over the past 20 years, developments in computer-mediated peer-editing tools have brought forth new opportunities for ESL writing pedagogy. There are numerous advantages to a digital approach when compared to traditional face-to-face (f2f) peer review, but also a number of

disadvantages, all of which are worth investigating before applying tech-based peer review in the classroom. The following section of this literature review is largely based on a seminal work conducted by Tsuiping in 2016, who systematically surveyed the literature published over the past two decades focusing on ESL computer-mediated peer review. As not all results were consistent across all studies, some of the articles Tsuiping reviewed call for a cautious stance towards computer-mediated peer editing tools. However, overall, the evidence points to positive writing outcomes, positive SLA gains, and positive student attitudes towards using the new technology.

According to Tsuiping (2016), a considerable number of studies show that students in e-feedback contexts stay focused and on-task more than in f2f scenarios. In addition, students participate more equally when communicating digitally. The reason for increased focus and participation is related to the fact that the online arena for feedback constitutes a non-threatening environment for less proficient writers and also for speakers who are perhaps too shy to participate in class. Since students can work at their own pace, feel safer, and have more time to reflect and rehearse before responding, they tend to develop more positive attitudes which results in higher turn-taking initiatives. Also, students appear to engage more in discussions, give more suggestions, and thus practice English more frequently and more intensively. However, some of the articles that Tsuiping reviewed showed that at times students can get off track and focus more on content than revision, in particular if left without sufficient teacher guidance. Hence teachers need to "proactively model, scaffold, and support revision-related online discourse if it is to be of benefit" (cf. Liang 2010, p 45).

Studies of e-feedback show that students resort to more lexically complex constructions and more formal, precise communication when compared to their language in f2f editing sessions (Tsuiping, 2016). As can be expected, students cannot rely on paralinguistic cues while using written digital communication. As a consequence, digital settings offer increased language acquisition opportunities, as students improve their precision in ESL articulation in the meaningful context of helping their peers.

In addition, written digital feedback allows for students to look back at their peers' comments later at home when they are in the revising stage. They can study the comments in detail, in their own time, and access them from anywhere. In contrast, when students provide oral feedback in class, it is likely that some of the specific feedback is not remembered and cannot be accessed again when needed.

As many teachers know, some students feel uncomfortable critiquing each other's work f2f, or they feel inhibited to express themselves in-class, even more so in front of the whole group. Tsuiping (2016) writes that digital feedback can alleviate some of these tensions. The anonymous feature or tech distance allowed by software communication is therefore particularly useful for students from cultures in which face-saving is valued in social interactions. Overall, Tsuiping's review (2016) showed that students tend to feel more comfortable giving digital feedback. Also, ESL students feel less worried about their accents when they communicate in writing as they feel they can express themselves more freely in the digital realm.

Despite these benefits, working with digital peer review is not all rosy. Tsuiping's meta-analysis (2016) showed that the biggest frustrations for students and teachers with e-feedback are unexpected tech problems or slow or no connection to the internet when they need to access the materials. In addition, some students see the online peer review process as an unnecessary chore which is more time-consuming than traditional in-class peer-review. As a consequence, some students complain of being over-burdened. Emotionally, some reviewers experience anxiety if their comments are publicly visible, depending on the software design. However, students also see a

flipside; when comments are publicly visible there is greater personal accountability and commitment and thus higher quality comments.

Finally, many of the studies in Tsuiping's meta-analysis (2016) concluded that while students like e-feedback formats, they miss oral communication for clarification and interaction and would ideally prefer to use both channels of feedback: digital and f2f.

Altogether, the literature shows that computer-mediated peer review generally offers the same benefits as f2f review in terms of improved student writing and affective support, with some added gains of increased focus, more equal turn-taking, more complex lexical feedback, and long-term access to the feedback. However, **tech peer-review also has drawbacks** such as technical challenges, some anxiety around feedback being made public to the group, being a chore, and lacking the means for students to explain through oral communication.

3. Research questions and methodology

As has been shown, the synthesis of the literature on ESL peer feedback and computer-mediated peer review leads to conclude that **there is clear merit in using digital peer-review in tertiary ESL classes**. The outcomes should be improved writer/reader awareness, higher quality revision, long term writing skills gains, and positive feelings around collaborative learning and classroom community. However, the final result as well as the experience of both teachers and learners largely depends on how teachers design and guide the peer-review process, how they motivate the students, and last but not least their own computer literacy skills – making use of the tech affordances and intervening when required to make up for the deficits of using digital tools.

By exploring the potential of combining peer feedback with modern technology to improve student writing in the ESP classroom, **we decided to investigate the effectiveness and user-friendliness of the Moodle Workshop tool.** Since the overall aim of this endeavour was to improve our own teaching practices, we selected action research as the most suitable method to approach issues we had pondering on for a while. As such, this study represents "deep inquiry" into the teaching practices of the authors through systematic and reflective exploration of empirical evidence (Norton, 2009). Hence, the following research questions were formulated to evaluate the effectiveness and usefulness of the Moodle Workshop module in peer feedback activities:

1. How useful do students consider the Moodle Workshop feature for peer feedback?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Workshop tool?
3. How could the Moodle Workshop feature be improved to make it more effective?

Drawing on a mixed-method approach, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected to answer these questions. The first phase of a larger study in progress was carried out in the winter term 2017/18 at the department of English and American studies of the University of Vienna. The Moodle Workshop tool was used by the two authors in their ESP writing classes (groups A and B). All the participants were undergraduate students enrolled in the Bachelor's programme. Their English language level corresponded to C1 or above according to the CEFR. Both groups had to write a text transformation, a common exercise within the genre-based approach of teaching writing to increase the learners' awareness of generic conventions. The students in group A had to transform a product review into an internal proposal memo and group B was told to turn a scientific research article into a popular science magazine article.

All the students were informed about the use of the Moodle Workshop tool in class and were also provided with detailed further instructions on the Moodle page. Together with the departmental e-learning expert, the authors carefully set up the Workshop module. Each student had one week to give formative feedback with summary comments to two randomly allocated colleagues according to purposefully designed prompts. In the last phase, the learners received their feedback and were then asked to edit their first draft accordingly. After the feedback activity, all the students were requested to fill in a short questionnaire on their experience. In total, 31 students from group A and 28 students from group B responded. The survey included scaled questions, numerical ratings and open questions that allowed for more nuanced responses.

4. The Moodle Workshop feature

The work-flow of the Workshop module can generally be divided into five main stages from set-up (by the teacher) to submission (students upload their first draft), assessment (students give peer feedback), grading evaluation (Moodle calculates final grades for submission and assessment, if desired) and the closed phase (students can now see the feedback they have received). As can be seen in the screenshot below, the Workshop planner tool gives an overview of the phases and highlights the current one.

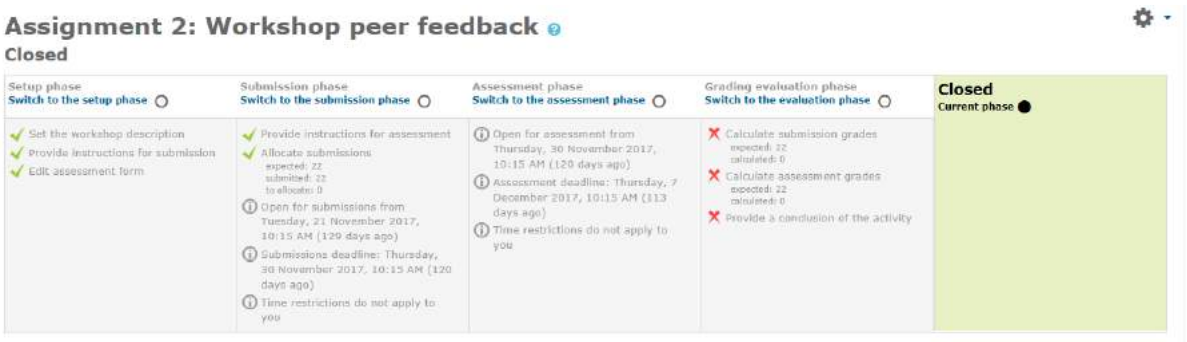


Fig. 1: Screenshot of the Workshop planner tool

It is important to mention that the teacher needs to manually switch the activity from one phase to another. Each phase has a number of sub-functions, which allow the teacher to set-up a tailor-made activity to suit the requirements of the specific class, students and learning goals. In this respect, it can accommodate a wide range of different types of student work and can be implemented before, alongside or independently of the standard assessment. With Workshop teachers can design assessment forms, rubrics or marking guides with prompts to help students in making judgements. Student assessment may be provided in the form of verbal feedback or numeric grades, with or without guidelines provided by the teacher. If desired, the teacher can also assess both the students' submissions and the quality of their assessments. Peers' submissions and assessments are kept anonymous, if needed. While this freedom to tailor the process to the specific learners' needs allows for a large extent of individualized handling of the module, it also bears a number of risks related to the complexity of the set-up process. For us, the only way to set up a Workshop in a timely fashion was to get help from the departmental e-learning expert. Together with her, we designed a model course and then copied and tweaked it into our own Moodle pages.

Although we knew that the correct set-up of the Workshop feature was instrumental in receiving satisfactory results, we encountered a number of difficulties in the course of this project. A primary challenge was related to the fact that the teacher has to manually switch to the next phase and – most importantly – close the activity to make sure the students can see their peers' feedback. Most notably, the learners in group B only gave feedback without receiving feedback. This glitch was due to the teacher failing to enact the final switch in time. This means that although

the students in Group B had a chance to look at two other colleagues' papers, they did not receive any feedback on their own work. These circumstances are naturally also reflected in the findings of the survey. For the teachers this means that they have to monitor the progress the students make while at the same time keeping an eye on the deadlines set for each phase. This can be rather cumbersome especially if using the Moodle Workshop tool in several parallel courses with different deadlines for each phase. In addition, email communication with the students during the last phase showed that some learners found it difficult to locate the feedback they should have received from their peers. As there is no way the teacher can switch roles to see what the students can see, it is difficult if not impossible to help them in this respect.

5. Findings

5.1. How useful do students consider the Moodle Workshop feature for peer feedback?

To address the first research question, i.e. the usefulness of the Moodle Workshop tool, we elicited relevant data from the participants' questionnaires. Accordingly, question 1 on the survey asked the learners to rate their experience with the feature on a scale from (1) highly useful to (5) not at all useful. Figure 1 illustrates the results obtained for this item from group A.

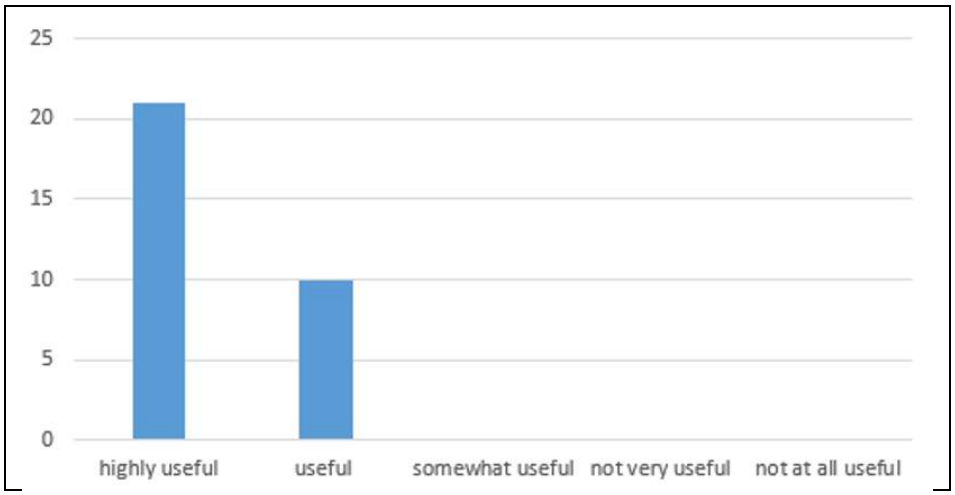


Figure 2: Group A - Usefulness of the Moodle Workshop feature

As Figure 2 shows very convincingly, all the participants in group A found the Moodle Workshop feature either highly useful (N=21) or useful (N=10). Figure 3 displays the results obtained from group B.

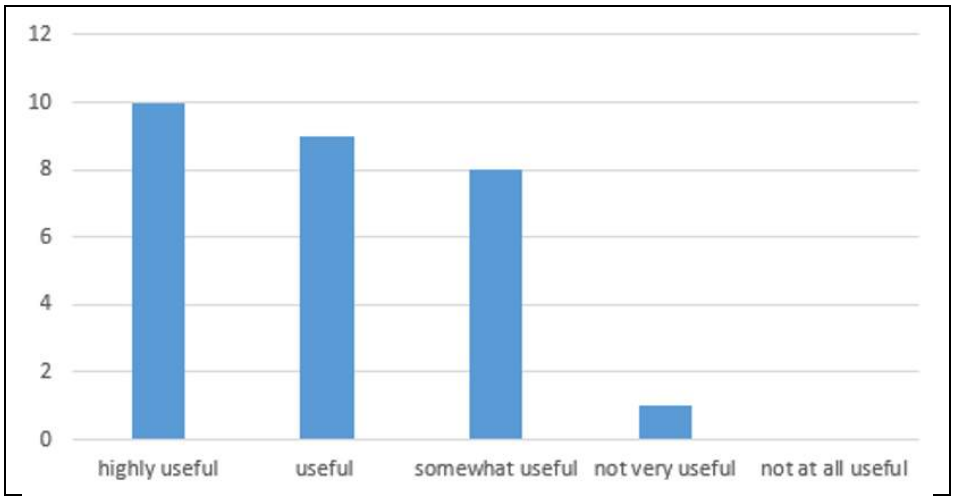


Fig. 3: Group B – Usefulness of the Moodle Workshop feature

In contrast to Group A, **the results collected from group B show a more diverse picture** with 10 students describing their experience as highly useful, 9 as useful, 8 as somewhat useful and 1 as not very useful. As mentioned above, due to technical issues this group only gave feedback without receiving any. It is interesting to note that despite the absence of comments on their own work, the students to a large extent still found the activity beneficial.

5.2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Workshop tool?

To address the second research question, namely the advantages and disadvantages of using the Workshop peer feedback, the students provided answers to two open questions.
The comments of those students who rated their overall experience with a range from 1 (highly useful) to 2 (useful) can be related to four main categories: useful insights into other colleagues' work, the high quality of the feedback, flexible time management and an increased sense of community.

5.2.1 Advantages

As for the usefulness of the insights into other people's work, the students observed that they found **developed higher order editing and revision skills by reading these texts** which led to **positive changes in their own text:**

> *I learned a lot from giving feedback because those questions made me think and wonder about some things which I didn't pay attention to at all. I applied these questions to my own homework and realized how much little things can improve a paper. (A9)*

> *I consider giving feedback even more helpful. I think I gained more from giving feedback than from receiving it because I 'learnt' how to really read a text when you want to improve it – I could apply what I learnt when I edited my own work. (B3)*

One student remarked that the **reflection process** could in fact be divided into **three main stages**:

> *I found that when I analysed the texts, I thought about the authors' intentions and subconsciously analysed my own text as well. So, in a way by using this feedback tool, there is a three-way reflection process: when writing it, when correcting the others' texts, and when reading the feedback I received. (A 16)*

In particular, they appreciated the fact that they could **review two papers rather than one**.

> *The main advantage is definitely that you get two types of feedbacks from two different points of view that are not from the professors themselves. It helps you to approach tasks differently and to see things that you probably haven´t considered so far. Also it provides you with more feedback than you would usually get if you have to rely on the feedback you get from the prof during the seminar only. (A24)*

> *Feedback from more than one person is very useful. The two people who gave me feedback focused on very different things that were both valid points. (A27)*

The **type of feedback** they received from their colleagues was described as **professionally guided** (by the teachers)**, anonymous, objective, focused** and – perhaps most importantly - **easy to understand**.

> *More relaxed kind of feedback in a way that students understand each other and use a simpler way of explaining things and are somehow on the same level in that they make similar mistakes, therefore, know what they did in order to improve it, and then share that knowledge. (B18)*

The third aspect frequently mentioned refers to the idea of **flexible time management**. This type of feedback does not take up any extra class time and the students can give feedback when they want, where they want and without time pressure.

> *One advantage is the fact that you can give the feedback at home via your laptop over a cup of coffee which makes the whole thing more relaxed compared to giving feedback during the lesson where you have to come up with good arguments and suggestions for improvement within 5 min or so. At home you can take your time and reread passages to check meaning etc. (A29)*

A number of students also commented on an **increased sense of community** by realizing that other students are not perfect, either. On the contrary, they felt that they can truly help their colleagues improve their writing:

> *I think that seeing what colleagues have written can be very calming as you see that everyone can make mistakes. (B20)*

> *I generally think that we, as students, can learn a lot from each other, but we do not cooperate that often outside of class. The peer feedback tool constitutes an amazing platform for cooperation we wouldn't organize ourselves. And the truth is that sometimes we all wish that someone would read our work before delivering it for the assessment. (B16)*

5.2.2 Disadvantages

For those participants who felt that their experience with the Moodle tool was somewhat useful (3) or not useful (4), the reasons can be grouped into four different aspects: technical problems, time-management, low motivation and low quality of feedback. As mentioned above, the participants of group B only gave feedback and the rating received from this group reflects this experience as the number one problem for the students was of **technical** nature.

The main disadvantage for me was the tools' complicated usage. I had to download the file and needed to insert my feedback online. I would have preferred to upload a word document with my comments. (B11)

A number of students also remarked that this type of feedback is too **time-consuming**.

A lot of questions – I got a bit lazy at the end. (B29)

It was quite extensive work that took some time. There were several steps included which made it into a long process (almost too long). (B9)

In terms of communication style, it was criticized that only **one-way communication** was possible, which made the feedback very impersonal.

It is not very personal and when the person you provide feedback to does not understand what you mean by the feedback, you cannot explain it to him/her. (A30)

It does not encourage communication and feedback with Moodle is designed to be one-way instead of a chat function. (B7)

I found it to be underwhelming. I don't think it is to replace in class communication. (A26)

In addition, it seemed that not everyone was motivated to give good feedback as some students took the activity more seriously than others. This is also seen in the **quality of the feedback**, which was not assessed by the teachers but remarked on by the peers.

If someone doesn't take grading seriously, the results could be misleading. Also, I felt overwhelmed by the numerous grammatical and lexical mistakes that some made. (B19)

A further interesting, yet highly controversial aspect among students and teachers alike, which deserves to be mentioned here, is related to the **question of anonymity**. By default setting, the feedback receivers cannot see who reviewed their texts. A number of students pointed out that the fact that the identity of the reviewer remains anonymous has its benefits and should therefore be seen in a positive light:

Because it's anonymous, people are more honest with their answers. (A22)

*Being anonymous can be a huge advantage because you can just say what you think and don't have to check that you're not being too mean about it. (*A25)

A few others, however, were more sceptical and argued that **anonymity may result in lower-quality feedback** driven by **negative emotions**.

Maybe one disadvantage could be that someone is too mean and criticises everything when giving feedback knowing that the receiver does not know who gave him this or that feedback. So staying anonymous has its downsides as well. (B13)

I think that anonymity may be a slight disadvantage, because it is helpful to be able to ask about certain things that might be unclear, or further discuss the reviewed text. (A28)

Yet, overall the participants in our study were more **in favour of the anonymous feature**. Whether the authors of the drafts remain unknown is another issue which was, however, not discussed

among our students. It should be noted here that teachers can decide whether the students should put their names on the first draft they upload or not.

5.3. How could the Moodle Workshop feature be improved to make it more effective?

5.3.1 Student suggestions

As far as the third and last research question is concerned, we asked the students for ideas to improve the Moodle Workshop feature. The answers the students provided were almost exclusively of technical nature. In particular, they commented on one phase of the peer feedback process, namely the assessment phase. Since we decided to provide the students with prompts to assess their peers' texts, the feedback givers could not use **in-text marking** to insert their comments directly into the essay. Instead, they had to fill in the specially displayed fields with the respective prompts/questions. This means that some feedback givers resorted to printing out the first draft, marking on paper and then adding the comments on the assessment sheet.

> *Working with the text directly would help - even if it´s just by writing comments in the word document; that´s also easier for the reader then in terms of references*. (A7)

> *The Workshop tool could be improved by enabling students to add comments (like in Word) to the part of the text they are commenting on. It would be easier to know exactly what word or sentence of your text a peer is referring to in their feedback & they wouldn't need to describe the position of a sentence they're referring to (e.g. "In the second sentence of your third paragraph, you have written ... instead of…").* (B26)

In addition, there seems to be **no save-function** for the feedback giver to continue working on the text at a later stage.

> *Moodle seems kind of unsafe to us students, and I think it would help if there was a function to save everything you have already written so you can continue giving your feedback at a later time*. (A14)

However, what most learners remarked on what the **lack of a chat function** to enable targeted communication between the feedback giver and feedback receiver.

> *It is not very personal and when the person you provide feedback to does not understand what you mean by the feedback, you cannot explain it to him/her*. (B3)

> *It does not encourage communication and feedback with Moodle is designed to be one-way instead of a chat function…* (B9)

Clearly, although students generally enjoyed their digital experience, many of them **would prefer a two-way interactive phase to clarify and elaborate on feedback** that they have given or received. This could be either in the form of a chat-function in Moodle Workshop or else in the form of an in-class follow-up session.

> *I suggest using the Moodle peer-feedback tool complementing the personal peer-feedback and not as replacement*. (B29)

> *I don't think it should replace in-class communication.* (A 20)

5.3.2 Teacher suggestions

From the point of view of the teacher, there are three main suggestions relating to the technical functionality of the tool we would like to make. Firstly and perhaps most importantly, the Workshop planner tool would greatly benefit from **increased user-friendliness and simplification**. Although we value the various options available to design the module, these technicalities can easily deter teachers – even expert Moodle users - from setting up a tool like this. Here, a more basic standard version comprising only the most essential aspects would be a welcome solution to the problem. Secondly, there should be an **automatic switch from phase to phase** without the instructor having to intervene manually. Ideally, the teacher also receives an automatic notification (perhaps by email) once a phase is completed and the next one is about to start. Finally, we would appreciate a possibility to change roles in order to see what the students can see. Hence, a **student-view** would help us locate information for the students more easily should they ask us for help.

6. Discussion and implications

Our action research is one of the first to investigate the UX (user experience) of the Moodle workshop tool, identifying both student and teacher perceptions of its usefulness and applicability for improving student writing, particularly in a tertiary ESL context. As Moodle has approximately 130 million users globally (Moodle website), its tools and software designs hold potentially far-ranging implications for the learning outcomes of students across the world. Our first aim was to provide a glimpse into the user experience, identifying strengths and weaknesses of using the tool as a means to improve writing skills. Our second aim was to generate preliminary guidelines for teachers to effectively use the tool. Our third, and final, aim was to offer insights to educational software developers for improved design in alignment with research in writing didactics.

The first result of the study shows that students and teachers found the Moodle Workshop tool useful. Even when there were technical problems, participants still ranked their experience overwhelmingly as useful. These results reflect previous research into peer-review, which have shown that opportunities to give and receive writing feedback amongst peers result in social, cognitive, affective and metalinguistic benefits (e.g. Lundstorm and Baker, 2009; Pol et al., 2008; Min, 2008). Our students' positive ranking of their Moodle Workshop experience demonstrates that, as a whole, the tool facilitates a positive peer-review experience. **As such, our first finding should encourage teachers to experiment with the Moodle tool as an alternative to in-class f2f peer review.**

In our second result, students affirmed that engaging in Moodle peer-review helped them revise their own assignments and submit what they perceived as higher quality work. Not only did they appreciate receiving feedback from multiple readers, rather than one teacher – which provided them with a wider range of comments – but also the comments were written from students to students in language that students understand. A number of studies have shown that multiple student feedback is as good as, if not better, than feedback from one expert in terms of revision results (Cho & Mac Arthur, 2010, Cho, Schunn, & Wilson, 2006). Such studies have shown that multiple peer review leads to more complex revision results than from teacher feedback alone and that multiple peer-reviewers together provide valid assessment of student work – if briefly trained and with incentives to give quality feedback. **This means that in using Moodle Workshop, with a proper set up, we can generally expect positive revision outcomes.**

In addition, the very act of reviewing in itself seemed to improve our students' understanding of good writing. Many of our participants stated that after reviewing their classmates' work, they

went back to their own assignment with fresh eyes and did some additional editing, even before receiving any feedback. One of the most striking results in previous peer-review research (Lundstrom & Baker, 2008) is that the primary beneficiary of peer-review is the reviewer. These results were further affirmed through our study as well. Whether the student work was actually of higher quality, however, was not investigated in this phase of the study. **What this pilot research did show is that students actively engaged in revision after receiving and giving feedback on Moodle Workshop.**

The implications from the above findings are significant. Areas for future research include how to maximize the benefit for the reviewer. In our next phase of the study we would like to investigate how to design feedback prompts/guidelines/questions specifically for the reviewer as much as for the receiver. Additionally, in terms of software design, developers should keep it first and foremost in their minds that the primary beneficiary of peer-review is the reviewer. **Perhaps such insight can prompt an alternative software design that capitalizes on the reviewer's gains.**

A further finding is that the flexibility of Moodle Workshop is one of its primary advantages over f2f peer-review in the classroom. Our results showed students appreciated working outside of class, according to their own schedule and location. Results from previous research (cf. Tsuiping 2016) reveal that having private time and space to consider peers' work often results in more thoughtful and complex feedback than is typically found in f2f peer-review. This is particularly crucial for ESL writers, who may need more time to read and formulate their responses, or who also may feel inhibited by their accents when speaking aloud (cf. Tsuiping 2016). Such advantages were also identified by the students of our study. **The implication is that Moodle Workshop opens up class time for other activities while simultaneously allowing students the time and space they need to comfortably give quality feedback.**

One of the most positive results of our study was that Moodle Workshop imbued the students with a sense of belonging to a supportive writing community, which in turn enhanced their writing confidence. By comparing their work to their peers' work, the students felt more comfortable with their stage of writing development (see similar results in Lundstrom & Baker, 2008). Furthermore, having a real audience for their writing while providing each other with supportive and constructive feedback increased students' motivation and sense of community, as has been found in other studies (cf. Kietlinska, 2006; Tsui, 2000, Jacobs et al 1998; Byrd, 2003). We find that the digital dimension, surprisingly, adds to the sense of community. Digital communication is a comfortable and familiar medium to the current student population for emotional and relational interaction, so Moodle Workshop provides a familiar medium for student support. In addition, Vandergiff (2016), a leading scholar on ESL digital discourse, writes that Web 2.0 tools are well-suited for fostering collaboration and community and are hence particularly beneficial for ESL gains. Finally, using Moodle Workshop in the ESL writing classroom is in line with the newly extended CEFR (2017) which underlies the language user/learner as a "social agent in a social world" (p 26). The CEFR calls for "a real paradigm shift in both course planning and teaching, promoting learner engagement and autonomy" (p. 26). We believe that Moodle Workshop can foster ESL writers' engagement and autonomy foregrounding their role as social writers in a social community of readers/writers. **One possible implication could be a slight redesign of Moodle Workshop to incorporate emoji use into the peer-review to further enhance these relational/affective aspects.**

While Moodle Workshop offers much to the ESL writing student, it has its drawbacks. Students reported frustration with tech problems because of the tool's overall complexity. For example, some students did not receive any feedback because it was not released due to the teacher not manually switching phases. Also, feedback cannot be saved by the reviewer to work on later. In addition, students were frustrated that they could not write their comments directly onto the

assignment. Finally, teachers cannot see the student view, so cannot help guide the students through their tech issues. Such frustration is typical of any peer-review occurring in the digital realm (cf. Tsuiping, 2016) and is not unique to Moodle Workshop. However, despite these annoyances, the vast majority of the students in our study, along with the two teachers, found the tool a useful and a positive means for improving their writing**. In sum, we do not find the tech problems as an inhibiting factor, but they did complicate the experience.**

A second critique of Moodle Workshop is that it can be time-consuming and a chore. The Moodle assessment form that one of the teachers set up for Group B included over ten separate prompts for the reviewers to respond to. Students had mixed reactions. The majority appreciated the extensive guidance, with 10+ individual, specific features to examine in the assignment. They felt these numerous and careful prompts helped them clarify teacher expectations and to delineate specific aspects of good writing. Many students then took the prompts to assess their own assignment and revise autonomously. On the other hand, several students complained that the activity was laborious and time-consuming and felt the prompts could be streamlined, requesting fewer prompts. Other studies (cf. Tsuiping, 2016) have also found that students do not like the time-consuming aspect of computer-mediated peer review. **The implications for our future work with Moodle Workshop will be a refined set of prompts that aim to scaffold students in reviewing without overburdening them.**

A third critique focused on quality and tone of feedback. While most students reported receiving useful and polite feedback, some felt that by the peer-review being digital and anonymous, a small number of students either provided sloppy, low quality feedback or harsh comments. These findings run counter to some previous studies that show that when writing comments in digital format, rather than sharing them orally, the complexity and sophistication of student feedback rises, particularly for ESL students (cf. Tsuiping, 2016). The digital and anonymous channel mostly allows for students to feel more comfortable in expressing themselves, gives them time to think and respond, and allows for more complex responses recorded digitally so that the writer can refer to them later during revisions. For these reasons, we find Moodle Workshop in some ways superior to f2f feedback. The outlying cases of sloppy, low quality feedback or harsh comments can be addressed through student training and incentives, such as some grading of the feedback. **Therefore, we conclude that occasional low quality feedback or a disrespectful tone in the feedback is not a reason to dismiss Moodle Workshop.**

Across the board, our results show that the Moodle workshop tool provides many benefits, but can still be improved to facilitate smoother set-up and increased interaction between reviewer, writer, text and teacher. First of all, from the teacher UX perspective, the set-up design is unnervingly complex, and potentially puts teachers off from using Moodle Workshop. If Moodle would like to see more engagement with this tool, it should simplify the set up in a teacher-friendly design, including an automatic switch between all phases of the peer-review process, and with email alerts between phases for the teacher and the students. In addition, teachers need to have access to the student view. For instance, the teachers in our study were unable to answer student questions about where/how to find their peer's comments and this led to some breakdowns in teacher ability to manage the process.

In terms of the student UX perspective, students appreciated being able to provide feedback according to their own schedule and location; however, the lack of a save-feature during the phase of providing feedback in turn limited their flexibility in working at their own pace – which should ultimately be one of the primary benefits of computer-mediated peer-review (cf. Tsuiping, 2016). Additionally, and most importantly, in Moodle Workshop the students' limited ability to interact with both the text and the author inhibited the quality and clarity of their feedback. Students would like to mark directly in the text and also chat with each other for clarification and explanations. The

students in our study and in previous studies (cf. Tsuiping, 2016) express the same contradictory preferences. On the one hand, they laud the benefits of computer-mediated peer-review not taking up valuable class time, and also appreciate that it is carried out in the affective safety of distance and anonymity. On the other hand, they wish the digital feedback could be complimented with class time to discuss the feedback f2f so that they can clarify and explain. Improved Moodle Workshop features that could allow for in-text marking and also chatting could address these competing needs. Surely such interactive UX – chatting and in-text marking – could be designed to maintain the popular anonymous and outside-of-class-time aspects of computer-mediated peer review, but could allow for the clarification and explanation needed for quality feedback, alongside with emojis to enhance the relational dimension of peer-review.

In sum, our overall findings show a positive correlation between Moodle Workshop and ESL student/teacher perceptions of useful, scaffolded opportunities to improve their writing and engage with each other as a learning community. However, there is still room for the tool to be enhanced. We recommend simplicity of set up design and more interactive features which reflect current values in ESL teaching and learning (CEFR, 2017). **Our study lays the groundwork for future action research into Moodle Workshop**, including examining such areas as revision outcomes, effective teacher interventions, and peer-review prompt design.

This study was a pilot study, paving the way for our forthcoming larger study which will look in more detail at student writing outcomes and best-practices guidelines for teachers. As Moodle itself is a highly influential digital platform, which shapes teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction, it is crucial for more teachers to critically assess its design features as to their usefulness and applicability for reaching curricular aims in accordance with educational theory and research.

7. Conclusion

This paper has highlighted the importance of peer feedback in the tertiary ESL writing classroom with a focus on the Moodle Workshop feature. The evidence from this pilot phase of a much larger study into the effectiveness of Moodle computer-mediated peer feedback suggests that the overwhelming majority of the participants considered their experience as highly valuable. These findings clearly confirm earlier research into this topic (cf. Tsuiping, 2016). The participants of this project, two groups of tertiary-level ESP students, considered the main benefits of Moodle e-feedback to be quality feedback, useful insights into other colleagues' work, flexible time management and an opportunity for community-based collaboration. As for shortcomings, the students identified technical problems as the main area of concern. In addition, they mentioned that the activity was too time-consuming and that some students were less motivated which resulted in some low-quality feedback. From the point of view of the teacher, we saw that the students appreciated the opportunity to use digital tools to communicate about their writing and have a broader audience respond to their work.

However, there is room for improvement for implementing such activities in the writing classroom, particularly as far as the overall design of the activity and the Moodle user experience (UX) are concerned. This leads us to the next phase of the project which aims to further refine the process with best practices. We will focus on effective prompt design, teacher interventions and reflection activities for feedback givers and feedback receivers. Currently, we are developing a guide for teachers to successfully use computer-mediated peer feedback.

Based on our results, we recommend that L2 writing teachers use and experiment with the Moodle Workshop tool despite its intimidating complexity for users. The findings presented here show that

this computer-mediated approach fosters motivation and confidence in writing and establishes a sense of community through a cutting-edge format that students in the 21st century embrace.

References

Berg, E.C. (1999). The effect of trained peer response on ESL students' revision type and writing quality. *Journal of Second language writing* 8, pp. 215-241.

Byrd, D. (2003). Practical tips for implementing peer editing tasks in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* 36 (3), pp. 434 – 441.

Carifo J., Jackson I., & Dagostino, L. (2001). Effects of diagnostic and prescriptive comments on the revising behaviors of community college students. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice* 25, pp. 109-122.

Cho, K., & Mac Arthur C. (2010). Student revision with peer and expert reviewing. *Learning and Instruction* 20, pp. 328-338. Retrieved from: http://psycnet.apa.org/record/2010-06389-006. Accessed on 4 April 2018.

Cho, K., Schunn C.D., & Wilson R. (2006). Validity and reliability of scaffolded peer assessment of writing from instructor and student perspectives. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 98, pp. 260-294.

Council of Europe. (2017). Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors. Cambridge, U.K: Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge. Retrieved from: https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989. Accessed on 4 April 2018.

De Guerrero, M.C.M & Villamil, O.S. (2000). Activating the ZPD: Mutual scaffolding in L2 peer revision. *The Modern Language Journal* 84, pp. 51-68.

Jacobs, G.M., Curtis, A., Braine, G., Huang, S.Y. (1998). Feedback on student writing: Taking the middle path. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7, pp. 307-317. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90019-4. Accessed on 23 February 2018.

Kietlinska, K. (2006). Revision and ESL students. In *Revision: history, theory, and practice* (Eds. Horning, Alice, Becker, Anne). (pp. 63 – 87) West Lafayette, Indiana: Parlor Press.

Leki, I. (2000). Writing, literacy, and applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 20, pp. 99 - 115.

Liang, M.Y. (2010). Using synchronous online peer response groups in EFL writing: Revision-related discourse. *Language Learning & Technology* 14(1), pp. 45-46. Retrieved from http://lllt.msu.edu/vol14num1/liang.pdf. Accessed on 3 March 2018.

Lundstrom, K. & Baker, W. (2008). To give is better than to receive: The benefits of peer review to the reviewers own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 18, pp. 30-43.

Mac Arthur, C. A. (2007). Best practices in teacher evaluation and revision. In S. Graham, C. Mac Arthur & J. Fitzgerald (Eds). *Best practice in writing instruction* (pp.141-162). New York: Guildford.

Moodle Statistics (n.d.). Retrieved from https://moodle.net/stats/?lang=de. Accessed on 12 February 2018.

Moodle Website (n.d.). Retrieved from: https://moodle.org/. Accessed on 12 February 2018.

Moodle Workshop Settings (n.d.).Retrieved from: https://docs.moodle.org/23/en/Workshop_settings. Accessed on 12 February 2018.

National Commission on Writing in American Schools and Colleges (2003). The neglected R: the need for a writing revolution. Retrieved from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/writingcom/neglectedr.pdf. Accessed on 13 February 2018.

Storch, N. (2017) Workshop: Written corrective feedback for L2 development. Department of English and American Studies, University of Vienna. Held on 12 January 2017.

Teaching Center: Washington University in St. Louis, (n.d) Planning and guiding in-class peer review. Retrieved from http://teachingcenter.wustl.edu/resources/writing-assignments-feedback/planning-and-guiding-in-class-peer-review/. Accessed on 13 February 2018.

Tsui, A. (2000). Do secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments? *Journal of Second Language Writing* 9(2):147-170.

Tsuiping, C. (2016). Technology-supported peer feedback in ESL/EFL writing classes: a research synthesis. Computer Assisted Language Learning, 29:2, 365-397.

Vandergriff, I. (2016). *Second Language Discourse in the Digital World. Linguistic and social practices in and beyond the networked classroom*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.

Leveraging CPE Set Texts for Intercultural Learning and Critical Literacy in Business English Programmes

Craig Thorrold

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Leveraging CPE Set Texts for Intercultural Learning and Critical Literacy in Business English Programmes

Craig Thorrold

University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland

Abstract

Many advanced students in business degree programmes seek to gain the CPE qualification, as this certificate provides proof of proficiency in English at C2 level. Preparation for the CPE writing paper provides the opportunity to read and reflect on one or more set texts in order to answer one of the questions in Part 2 of the exam. In the CPE *Handbook for teachers*, it is explained that "[c]andidates who choose these questions will be expected to have a good knowledge of the text, or the film version, and to be able to deal with the themes and ideas of the chosen text" (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 24). However, "candidates are not expected to demonstrate skill in literary analysis" (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 24). This paper argues that being "able to deal with the themes and ideas of the chosen text" necessarily involves literary analysis, and that this analysis, far from being an additional and unnecessary burden to exam candidates, can provide business (and other) students with highly relevant learning experiences in the areas of intercultural communication and critical literacy. This argument is illustrated through a consideration of the critique of American capitalist culture in *The Great Gatsby*, one of the CPE set texts for 2016 and 2017, and through an outline of the didactic approach used to encourage business students at a Swiss university of applied sciences to engage on a literary critical level with Fitzgerald's novel.

Introduction

This paper describes the content and didactic approach of an English course for students of International Business Management at a Swiss university of applied sciences. The primary focus of the course was on the writing paper in the Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE) exam, the only exam at CEFR C2 level offered by English Language Assessment. A course that prepares business students for the CPE exam might seem an unusual choice for a discussion of English for Specific Purposes, as the CPE, unlike its stablemate the Cambridge C1 Business Higher, is an avowedly generalist qualification that does not focus on the specific language needed by business professionals. This paper seeks to show, however, that preparation for the CPE writing paper can be exploited for specific purposes that are highly relevant to modern managers, namely intercultural competence and critical thinking. More precisely, through the example of *The Great* Gatsby, one of the CPE set texts for 2016 and 2017, it will be argued that these two specific purposes can be attained through the application of literary critical analysis.

The Set-Text Questions in the CPE Writing Paper

The generalist approach of the CPE exam can be seen in the structure of the writing paper. Candidates have to answer two questions. The first is an essay in which two short, contrasting texts have to be summarized and evaluated. These texts are "based on a variety of authentic, contemporary sources" (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 22). In the second part of the paper, candidates have to answer one further question. Here they can choose either from three options that require one of an article, a letter, a report or a review, or from one question on each of the two set texts for the year. In its guidance notes, the CPE *Handbook for teachers* explains that "[c]andidates who choose these [set-text] questions will be expected to have a good knowledge of the text, or the film version, and to be able to deal with the themes and ideas of the chosen text" (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 24). However, the *Handbook* also states that "candidates are not expected to demonstrate skill in literary analysis" (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 24). It is likely that this last sentence is designed to reassure both instructors and candidates that the set-text questions do not add a requirement to those included in the other three options in the second part of the writing paper. This desire is understandable, given that the set-text option in the Cambridge English: Advanced exam was removed from 2016, most probably as a result of a drop in the number of candidates attempting this question. Nevertheless, an examination of the set-text questions in the practice materials published by Cambridge reveals that literary analysis, and in particular thematic analysis, are indeed required. Here is one example from the most recent edition of the *Handbook for teachers*:

> Philip K. Dick: *Do Androids Dream Of Electric Sheep?*
> The English book club to which you belong has asked members to write reports on books with interesting titles. You decide to write about *Do Androids Dream of Electric Sheep?* You should briefly describe the story, explain the significance of the title and assess how far the title successfully conveys what the story is about.
> Write your report. (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016, p. 25)

None of the exam preparation materials published by Cambridge includes questions for *The Great Gatsby*, but the above example could be applied to it. The question immediately invites a discussion of the shifting dichotomy of truth and fiction that runs between James Gatz, the poor rural labourer's son, and the self-invented figure of Jay Gatsby, the great showman. In other words, teachers of CPE courses who want to prepare their students for the set-text questions will inevitably teach literary critical analysis, even if they do not label it as such, and even if the CPE exam, by denying the necessity of "skill in literary analysis", sets a very low standard with regard to the intellectual quality of the content of candidates' answers in the exam. The modest expectations of the Cambridge examiners need not deter, however, those teachers who are willing to go beyond the minimal requirements of the exam, as doing so offers students a number of benefits. The first of these is connected with the CPE exam itself, and specifically with the first, compulsory question in the writing paper. Here, candidates are required to summarize and evaluate the key points in two short, contrasting texts. This means that they need to be able to express and critically reflect on two competing points of view, which is precisely what is required in a discussion of the title of *The Great Gatsby*. In other words, literary critical analysis provides training in the cognitive skills required for the other half of the CPE writing paper. Futhermore, and in connection with the specific purposes of teaching *The Great Gatsby* to business students, Fitzgerald's novel offers the opportunity to critically evaluate the American cultural values portrayed in the novel. In this way, students are able to acquire intercultural awareness on the one hand and critical thinking skills on the other, both of which are essential attributes of modern international managers.

American Cultural Values in *The Great Gatsby*

Fitzgerald's novel engages on many levels with the values that shaped American culture before, during and after the 1920s. On the second page of the novel, the narrator, Nick Carraway, refers approvingly to Gatsby's "extraordinary gift for hope" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 2) and his related pursuit of "dreams" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 2). As the novel progresses, it becomes clear that at least one of Gatsby's dreams is the American Dream itself, the hope of rising from rags to riches through the individual willpower and hard work. Gatsby's attachment to the American Dream is most apparent in two episodes of the novel. The first occurs in Chapter 6, when Nick recounts a conversation he had with Gatsby about his early years. Nick describes Gatsby as coming from a family of "shiftless and unsuccessful farm people" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 95). In order to escape from this precarious social position, Gatsby dedicated himself at an early age to "the service of a vast, vulgar, and meretricious beauty" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 95). The narrator pointedly adds that James Gatz, Gatsby's original name, "invented just the sort of Jay Gatsby that a seventeen-year-old boy would likely to invent, and to this conception he was faithful to the end" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 95). The "vast, vulgar and meretricious beauty" to which Nick refers is on one level the luxuriously decadent lifestyle expressed in Gatsby's mansion and the parties that he throws there. It is thus associated with the dream of material wealth, and this desire for and faith in the ability to climb the social ladder can be seen in a second episode near the end of the novel, where Gatsby's father tells the narrator that Gatsby abandoned his family because he "knew he had a big future in front of him" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 164), and shows Nick a daily schedule for self-improvement that the young Gatsby had written on the back flyleaf of a copy of *Hopalong Cassidy*.

These two episodes point to a number of cultural values that inform the American Dream. In the context of teaching *The Great Gatsby* to students of international business, it is convenient to approach these values with reference to the dimensions of Fons Trompenaars and Geert Hofstede, as business students tend to be familiar with them, and then to supplement these authors with some consideration of the historical background to the American Dream. One important element of the American Dream illustrated in the two episodes from *The Great Gatsby* referred to above is the fundamental belief in self-determination, what is often called the 'can-do' attitude. This can be associated with Trompenaars identification of a strong internal orientation in American culture (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997, pp. 144-145), and with the peculiarly American self-image of a land of unlimited possibilities that is epitomized in *The Great Gatsby* in the protagonist's refusal to accept even the limits of time. Nick gently criticizes Gatsby for wanting Daisy to renounce everything that has happened to her since she and Gatsby were separated. When he reminds Gatsby that "you can't repeat the past", Gatsby replies with the full force of his conviction that there is almost literally nothing that he cannot do: "'Can't repeat the past?' he cried incredulously. 'Why of course you can!'" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 106)

A second key element of the American Dream is self-reliance, which can be associated with the strong individualist tendency in the USA that both Trompenaars (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 50) and Hofstede (Hofstede Insights, 2018b) describe in their work. The combination of individualism and the belief in self-determination can in turn be connected with the principle of social mobility, another central American value that is reflected in Trompenaars' location of the USA at the achievement end of the achievement versus ascription dimension (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997, pp. 104-106). An emphasis on individual achievement has also been detected by Hofstede, who associated it with the masculine end of his masculinity versus femininity dimension. According to Hofstede, masculine cultures, of which the USA is an example, show "a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material rewards for success" (Hofstede Insights, 2018a). This description of masculine culture points to another key element of the American way of life that is illustrated in *The Great Gatsby*, namely materialism in the sense of the pursuit of monetary wealth. At this point, it is relevant to mention the role of Puritanism in the development of American culture, with special reference to the theory of Max Weber concerning

the gradual ideological shift from the Puritan concept of the acquisition of material wealth as a sign of Christian salvation to the materialist and specifically capitalist notion of worldly gain as an end in itself (Weber, 1992). Finally, the culture of the Enlightenment in America needs to be referenced as a second historical determinant of the American Dream, with its emphasis on individualism and egalitarianism. The latter, which involves a commitment not only to equality of opportunity but also to equal rights and responsibilities before the law, provides the philosophical basis for the belief in social mobility, and is also reflected in the universalist character of the USA as represented on Trompenaars' universalism versus particularism dimension (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 35). Furthermore, according to Hofstede, it is reflected in the low score of the USA on his power distance dimension (Hofstede Insights, 2018b).

In this way, the central theme of the American Dream in *The Great Gatsby* becomes a vehicle for the specific purpose of teaching American cultural values. From a didactic perspective the novel can be seen as a kind of case study, and it indeed fulfils all of the quality criteria identified by Davis for this teaching approach, with the obvious exception of its length:

> a good case study:
> • Tells a "real" story
> • Raises a thought-provoking issue
> • Has elements of conflict
> • Promotes empathy with the central characters
> • Lacks an obvious or clear-cut right answer
> • Encourages students to think and take a position
> • Demands a decision
> • Is relatively concise (Davis, 1993, p. 762)

Like a good case study, *The Great Gatsby* engages its readers on both an imaginative and emotional level, and thereby promotes effective learning of the characteristics of American culture. In addition to this, however, Fitzgerald's novel fufils in an exemplary manner the criteria identified by Davis in the area of critical thinking, as it refuses to provide an easy answer to the questions that it raises, and thus demands that the reader reflect on its narrative, take up a position, and then make a decision regarding his or her own values and the paths of action that they inform. In the final section of this paper, these elements will be considered.

Cultural Critique in *The Great Gatsby*

A critical perspective on the materialist values of the American Dream is clearly apparent in the narrator's reference in the first quotation above to a "vast, vulgar, and meretricious beauty" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 95). Indeed, this point of view appears at the very beginning of the novel, where Nick claims that Gatsby represented "everything for which I have an unaffected scorn" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 2). On the same page, however, Nick rehabilitates Gatsby through reference to his "extraordinary gift for hope" and claims that "Gatsby turned out all right in the end; it is what preyed on Gatsby, what foul dust floated in the wake of his dreams that temporarily closed out my interest in the abortive sorrows and shortwinded elations of men" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 2). This "foul dust" is the dark side of the American Dream, one of the most frequently discussed themes in the critical literature on the novel. The critique of the American Dream in *The Great Gatsby* is both socio-political and philosophical, but for sake of brevity only the former will be addressed here. Fitzgerald's novel presents, in Gatsby, a self-made man who attains the material goals of the American Dream, but does so through illegal activities, thereby contravening one of its foundational values, namely universalism. However, a life of crime seems not to have been Gatsby's original strategy. Nick reports that Gatsby claimed to have been the victim of a legal device used by the

mistress of his surrogate father, Dan Cody, whereby he lost an inheritance of 25,000 dollars, around half a million in today's terms (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 97). This misfortune is crucial to Gatsby's later career, in that he would not have been a penniless officer when he met Daisy if he had received this money and would therefore have had a chance of winning her hand. Corruption is omnipresent in *The Great Gatsby*, and the episode of the protagonist's lost inheritance points to the wider failure of universalism in American culture. Furthermore, it demonstrates the risk that Gatsby, the ambitious individualist, takes when he rejects his true family for the pursuit of his dream. Indeed, the fact that apart from Nick and Owl Eyes only Gatsby's father attends Gatsby's funeral suggests that the self-reliance at the heart of the American Dream ultimately becomes a form of self-serving individualism that destroys all human relationships.

The most notable absentee from Gatsby's funeral is of course Daisy Buchanan. Daisy symbolizes the shallow opportunism engendered by the American Dream, and at the same time represents the limits to the social mobility that it promises. Tom and Daisy enjoy a privileged social status that the *nouveau riche* Gatsby can never attain, and this unbridgeable distance manifests itself in the novel in the stretch of water that separates West Egg from East Egg and thereby Gatsby from Daisy. Nevertheless, Gatsby is able to rise from rags to riches, even if he does so at the expense of both the egalitarian values that gives the American Dream its appeal and his own familial relations. Gatsby thus achieves more, in material terms, than the great majority of Americans, and Fitzgerald symbolizes this vast underbelly of American capitalism in the Valley of Ashes, "where ashes take the form of houses and chimneys and rising smoke and, finally, with a transcendent effort, of ash-grey men, who move dimly and already crumbling though the powdery air" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 26). The valley of ashes can be seen as the socio-political expression of the "foul dust [that] floated in the wake of [Gatsby's] dreams" (Fitzgerald, 1950, p. 2), in an age when income and wealth inequality was at an historical peak. (Stone, Trisi, Sherman, & Taylor, 2018). Fitzgerald portrays the Valley of Ashes as a Valley of Death, and specifically as the location of the death of the American Dream. Here the vision of unlimited opportunity comes up against the harsh reality of the scarcity of both material resources and human kindness. The Valley of Ashes reveals the economic limits of the land of opportunity, and thereby demystifies the utopian belief that the will of the individual alone is enough to guarantee success. Furthermore, in this infernal landscape the consequences of the cultural denial of the fundamental reality of resource scarcity become clear: the American Dream becomes a savage struggle for survival in which the most brutal actors, men such as Tom Buchanan, succeed. The losers are the dreamers like Gatsby, and the simple citizens like the workshop owner and resident of the valley, George B. Wilson. Wilson is betrayed by both his wife and Tom, his prospective business partner, and ultimately becomes a deranged angel of death in the novel's climatic scene. Thus, *The Great Gatsby* describes the failure of the American Dream, and locates the causes of its failure in the weaknesses in the cultural values that underpin it.

Conclusion

By working their way through the novel's engagement with the American Dream, business students thus gain both an understanding of American cultural values and critical insight into the socio-political problems that these values engender. Intercultural awareness and critical analysis are certainly important skills for modern managers, but an analysis of the representation of the American Dream in *The Great Gatsby* also serves a broader purpose. In an age when the self-serving pursuit of material gain has led to a return to the levels of social inequality of the 1920s (Stone, Trisi, Sherman, & Taylor, 2018), a course that calls into question the principles of cost minimization and profit maximization that students are taught in their business degree programmes is especially timely. In this way, ESP takes a surreptitious turn towards what might be called English for Subversive Purposes, and thereby escapes the instrumentalization of its professional practices by the institutional frameworks in which it is embedded.

Citations

Cambridge English Language Assessment. (2016). *Cambridge English Proficiency: Handbook for teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davis, B. G. (1993). *Tools for Teaching.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fitzgerald, F. S. (1950). *The Great Gatsby.* London: Penguin Books.

Hofstede Insights. (2018a). *National Culture*. Retrieved from https://www.hofstede-insights.com/models/national-culture/ on 15 April 2018.

Hofstede Insights. (2018b). *What About the USA?* Retrieved from https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/the-usa/ on 15 April 2018.

Stone, C., Trisi, D., Sherman, A., & Taylor, R. (2018, February 16). *A Guide to Statistics on Historical Trends in Income Inequality*. Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/poverty-and-inequality/a-guide-to-statistics-on-historical-trends-in-income-inequality on 15 April 2018.

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business* (2 ed.). London: Nicolas Brealey Publishing.

Weber, M. (1992). *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism.* (T. Parsons, Trans.) London: Routledge.

Blended Learning in ESP – a theoretical and empirical discussion of a new learning concept

MMag.a Dagmar Archan

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Blended Learning in ESP – a theoretical and empirical discussion of a new learning concept

MMag.[a] Dagmar Archan

CAMPUS 02 Fachhochschule der Wirtschaft GmbH

Abstract

Studies investigating the written performance of students taught in face-to-face compared to Blended Learning environments have shown that the hybrid group's performance is either equal to that of the control group taught face-to-face (cf. Chenoweth et al. 2006), or that the treatment groups (where Blended Learning is applied) even outperform the control groups (cf. Adair-Hauck et al. 1999, Chenoweth, and Murday 2003). Looking at the introduction of Computer Assisted Language Learning in general and Blended Learning in particular, this paper aims to discuss the abovementioned findings by comparing them to the results of a research project carried out at a university of applied sciences in Graz, Austria. The section regarding the Blended Learning environment notably focuses on the advantages of said design for teaching ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The written performance of students taught face-to-face (control group) and that of students taught in a Blended Learning environment (treatment group) are discussed taking into account the respective theoretical background with regard to assessing writing. To that end, the students' results in a pre-test at the beginning of the semester and a post-test at the end of the same semester are evaluated and compared. Finally, conclusions pertaining to the students' performance are drawn and possible links between these results and the relevant method of teaching are established.

1 Introduction

This paper deals with the Blended Learning approach to language learning and aims to investigate whether or not Blended Learning can be used for the effective acquisition of languages. However, this question cannot be addressed before first giving an overview of the development of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), after which Blended Learning shall be explained, and the results of a comparative research project carried out at CAMPUS 02 University of Applied Sciences UAS will be presented.

2 An introduction to CALL

2.1 What is CALL? Terminology and definition

CALL is the acronym for Computer-Assisted Language Learning. CALL's origins date back to the 1960s. Up until the late 1970s, computer-assisted projects were mainly used in university settings, and until the 1980s, the term commonly used for computer-assisted language learning was CALI (Computer-Assisted Language Instruction) which represented the idea of programmed instruction (cf. Davies n. d.). The term CALL first became popular in the 1980s (cf. Davies et al. 2012). There are many definitions of CALL. It has been suggested that defining this concept is difficult, as it includes a wide variety of research agendas. When discussing CALL, the ever-evolving nature of technology as well as that of related pedagogical concepts have to be taken into account, thus rendering it a relatively unstructured discipline (cf. Beatty 2010: 8). The present paper acknowledges three widely accepted definitions of CALL. One definition describes CALL as an approach to language teaching and learning in which computer technology helps to present, reinforce and assess the material to be learned. According to this definition, CALL generally includes an interactive element (cf. Davies n. d.). Beatty (2010) offers a different yet similar definition, saying that "CALL is any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (Beatty 2010: 7). A broader definition is given by Levy (1997) who defines CALL as being "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (Levy 1997: 1). However, the term itself has not been without criticism. In recent times it has been technological advancements such as mobile devices and Web 2.0 as opposed to computer programs which have changed the learning environment considerably, and some researchers are of the opinion that the term CALL does not take this trend into account. Examples of suggestions to replace the term CALL include include TELL (Technology-Enhanced Language Learning), focusing not so much on the computer but on the technology it provides, WELL (Web-Enhanced Language Learning – which, again, is a rather narrow term as it excludes anything that is not web-based), NBLL (Network-Based Language Learning), and MALL (Mobile-Assisted Language Learning), a notion that takes into account the fact that many students do not work on a desktop computer or a laptop in order to learn a language (cf. Jarvis, and Achilleos 2013: 2), but instead use mobile devices.

2.2 History of CALL

In order to understand the history and development of CALL, an interpretative account analysing the reasons behind the facts is needed rather than just a list of facts about software and hardware development (cf. Bax 2003: 14). To outline the history of CALL, the categorisation provided by Warschauer (1996/1) and Warschauer and Healey (1998) is often used.
Warschauer describes how the use of technology is linked to trends in language teaching (cf. Gruba, and Hinkelman 2012: 6). Warschauer and Healey define three phrases of CALL: **behaviouristic** CALL, **communicative** CALL and **integrative** CALL. According to Warschauer and Healey, behaviouristic CALL was in force in the 1960s and 1970s. This paradigm mainly consisted of repetitive language drills which are negatively referred to as *drill-and-kill*. In this mode of CALL, the computer was used as a mechanical tutor allowing students to complete exercises using whichever computer on which they were working at the time (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 57). In line with behaviourist learning theory, which views learning as the shaping of habits that are formed when the learner faces specific stimuli, the response to which is rewarded or corrected (cf. Ellis 1994: 694), behaviouristic tutorial systems featured extensive drill exercises as well as grammatical explanations and translation tests (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 57). At that time,

the perceived advantages of a computer were repeated exposure to learning material, the provision of immediate and non-judgmental feedback to drills administered by the computer itself as tutor, and the individualised presentation of material enabling each student to work at his or her own pace. When behaviourist approaches were increasingly rejected and with the introduction of micro-computers which, in turn, created greater possibilities for individual work, the time had come for a different approach (cf. Warschauer 1996/1). Communicative CALL became prominent in the late 1970s and 1980s. This paradigm was based on cognitive learning theories that see learning as a process of discovery, expression and development (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 57). One of the early advocates of communicative CALL was Underwood who, in 1984, proposed a number of premises for it. According to Underwood, communicative CALL focuses on the use of forms instead of on the forms themselves. It also teaches grammar implicitly, not explicitly, and provides the appropriate framework encouraging students to produce language themselves instead of simply working with prefabricated language. In addition, it does not judge and evaluate every single utterance produced by students. When giving feedback, communicative CALL provides greater flexibility with regard to each individual student and avoids telling learners that they have made a mistake. Another of its features is that it exclusively uses the target language (cf. Warschauer 1996/1). CALL programs which were developed at that time featured text reconstruction tasks and simulations that created a forum in which students could communicate with each other (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 57). By the end of the 1980s and early 1990s, critics of communicative CALL pointed out that it had not lived up to expectations, because the computer was still being used in an ad hoc manner (cf. Warschauer, and Healy 1998: 57f.). At the same time, a more social or socio-cognitive view was adopted with regard to learning theories. The use of language in authentic social contexts became increasingly important, and task-based, project-based and content-based approaches aimed at putting learners in authentic environments (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 58). Based on two technological developments (the internet and multi-media technology), integrative CALL endeavoured to provide opportunities for these broader approaches to language learning (cf. Warschauer 1996/1). Multimedia and networked computers provide a more holistic use of technology whilst at the same time integrating various skills to be acquired by students (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 58). In this vein, Warschauer also highlights the importance of the use of CMC (Computer-Mediated Communication) to facilitate the integrative approach (cf. Warschauer 1996/1).

Although this is one of the most popular accounts of the history of CALL, it is not without criticism. As far as the three phases mentioned by Warschauer and Warschauer and Healey are concerned, Bax voices the criticism that, in his opinion, there are inconsistencies with regard to the time of the single phases. The dates given for the different phases do not match across all of Warschauer's publications (cf. Bax 2003: 15). Moreover, as Warschauer and Healey state, none of the stages have ceased to exist and the use of computers in the language classroom corresponds to all three phases (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 58) – a fact which Bax finds ambiguous bearing in mind that the three phases of CALL are, among other definitions that are used, referred to as historical periods (cf. Bax 2003: 16). He mainly criticises the definitions of the communicative and integrative periods. Based on Underwood's "wishlist" (Bax 2003: 17) of communicative CALL, Bax does not see the communicative aspect in the period described by Warschauer (cf. Bax 2003: 16-18) and questions the criteria that have been used to define these phases (cf. Bax 2003: 20); nor does he accept that the task-based, project-based and content-based approaches mentioned by Warschauer and Healey (cf. Warschauer, and Healey 1998: 58) are indeed integrative. According to Bax, proof of the third phase of CALL being truly integrative is still missing (cf. Bax 2003: 19f.). For the reasons stated above, Bax proposes a re-evaluation of these three phases with regard to both their nomenclature and their dating (cf. Bax 2013: 18).

The alternative analysis he presents consists of three approaches: **restricted** CALL, **open** CALL and **integrated** CALL. According to Bax, restricted CALL, dominating from the 1960s until about 1980 with some of its features still present today, more or less corresponds to behaviouristic CALL in terms of its main features. However, he prefers not to refer to an underlying learning theory,

opting instead to offer a more comprehensive and flexible approach in saying that many dimensions (the software and activity types, the role of teachers, the feedback offered to students, and more) are somewhat restricted in this approach. The second approach, that of open CALL, has lasted from the 1980s until today and is defined as being more open with regard to the dimensions mentioned above. The third approach Bax mentions is integrated CALL. Bax stresses that this approach has not yet been entirely put into practice, but is rather an aim which the sector should strive to attain. As a consequence, integrated CALL is only realised in a few places and dimensions and, according to Bax, is far from common. Bax argues that software nowadays enables true communication but that teachers' and administrators' attitudes – in addition to timetabling constraints – often do not allow for an entirely open use of CALL. In conclusion, Bax points out that, generally speaking, an open phase of CALL has been reached, but that restricted and integrated features are to be found in every institution and classroom (Bax 2003: 19ff.). For Bax, a new technology is only fully integrated and accepted when it is barely recognized any longer as being new. Once computers are used as an integral part of language courses, CALL will have reached this state (Bax 2003: 23f.). Therefore, Bax defines the progressive steps towards achieving this final normalisation state as follows:

1. **Early adopters**: A limited number of teachers and institutions try out the new technology.
2. **Ignorance/scepticism**: The majority of people are still sceptical about or unaware of this new technology.
3. **Try once**: The technology is tried out but as there are problems, it is rejected. The added value of the new technology is not yet evident.
4. **Try again**: The new technology is tried again and its specific advantage is recognised by the users.
5. **Fear/awe**: An increasing number of people use the new technology, but on the one hand they are still afraid of it and on the other hand their exaggerated expectations cannot be met.
6. **Normalising**: Step by step, the new technology is considered as being normal.
7. **Normalisation**: The technology is fully integrated into people's lives so that it is no longer considered new – it has become normalised.

According to Bax, most teachers and institutions are between stages 5 and 6. The relative advantage of CALL has been recognised and technology is being used in the classroom, but many people are still afraid of it or are over-optimistic, having exaggerated expectations that cannot be met (cf. Bax 2003: 24f.)

Another approach that has become quite popular is that of Garrett's (2009) three categories of CALL. Garrett is interested in exploring the accepted and expected use of technology in university language classrooms (cf. Gruba and Hinkelman 2012: 6). She distinguishes three categories: **tutorial** CALL, **the use of authentic materials**, and **communication**. Tutorial CALL is mainly based on drill-and-practice exercises, but is not limited to the teaching of grammar and also includes dictations, pronunciation exercises, listening and reading comprehension tasks, and written assignments. For Garrett, the application of authentic materials is characterised by materials created by and for native speakers, as opposed to materials created for pedagogical reasons. Often, the areas of grammar, vocabulary, genre-specific style and cultural references prove challenging for students when dealing with authentic materials. CALL provides the tools and resources necessary to adjust the difficulty level of such materials. Moreover, the internet has given teachers access to a wide variety of authentic materials. According to Garrett, the real challenge is to design activities and tasks that incorporate the content of authentic materials into the learning process and which engage students. Furthermore, tutorial CALL is needed to teach students how to work with authentic materials. The last category, that of the use of technology in communication, deals with computer-

mediated communication, including topics like telecollaboration, Web 2.0 and social networking (cf. Garrett 2009: 722f.).
Davies (n. d.). divides CALL into **traditional** CALL (stimulus-response programs that represent a teacher-centred, drill-based approach), **explorative** CALL, which is more learner-centred including the use of concordance programs, and **multimedia** CALL including role-play activities and automatic speech recognition to diagnose learners' errors. According to Davies, most current CALL programs belong to the latter category. The fourth stage Davies mentions is **web-based** CALL, i.e. using the internet for language instruction. Davies does not give dates but chooses to distinguish between the different uses of CALL, all of which are still employed today (cf. Davies n. d.).
Overall, it can be stated that while behaviourist learning theories are used to strongly influence CALL as described above, it is today mainly influenced by applied linguistics and language teaching theories as well as technical progress with regard to computer hardware and software (cf. Tschichold 2005: 147).

3 Blended Learning

3.1 What is Blended Learning?

3.1.1 Definition

Many researchers agree that the term Blended Learning was created in a corporate context with regard to staff training, only later finding its way into higher education and language teaching and learning (cf. Whittaker 2013: 11). In the business world as well as in educational contexts, the term Blended Learning has been used for a relatively short period of time (cf. Graham 2009: 375). In fact, Blended Learning is difficult to define, as there is no consensus on one single definition (cf. Whittaker 2013:11; Graham 2009: 375). Graham (2009) defines Blended Learning as the combination of face-to-face instruction with technology-mediated instruction, a broad definition with which many experts agree (cf. Graham 2009: 375). Graham und Dziuban (2008) define Blended Learning as "a pedagogical approach that combines the effectiveness and socialisation opportunities of the classroom with the technologically enhanced active learning possibilities of the online environment" (Graham, and Dziuban 2008: 3). Some researchers consider Blended Learning in terms of what or how much is blended. Smith and Kurthen propose a taxonomy of terms related to Blended Learning (cf. Gruba, and Hinkelman 2012: 4). For Smith and Kurthen, the term blended applies to courses of which the online activities account for less than 45% of all activities, with the remaining percentage being face-to-face activities. They consider CALL courses with a percentage of 45-80% of online activities as being hybrid and anything in excess of 80% as being fully online. Any course with a minimal amount of online content, such as making announcements and a syllabus available online, are viewed as being web-enhanced (cf. Gruba, and Hinkelman 2012: 4). Other researchers such as Dudeney and Hockly also use percentages to differentiate between online, Blended Learning and face-to-face education. Be this as it may, Whittaker argues that many of the terms are in fact used synonymously and that, as mentioned above, Blended Learning can be applied to any combination of face-to-face and computer-enhanced teaching in English language teaching (cf. Whittaker 2013: 12). One relevant feature of Blended Learning, however, is that the face-to-face component and technology are successfully brought together (cf. Garrison, and Kanuka 2004: 97) and not just randomly added to each other. Dziuban et al. (2004) also agree that it is not the ratio of the delivery modalities which should be taken into account, but that Blended Learning should be a redesign featuring the following advantages: a shift from teacher-focused to student-centred teaching and learning with the students being both active as well as interactive with increased interaction between students and students, students and teachers, students and content,

students and outside resources and, finally, integrated assessment mechanisms for students and teachers (cf. Dziuban et al. 2004: 3).

3.1.2 The role of the teacher

Although Blended Learning is student-centred, teachers still play a vital role in Blended Learning environments, as they are the motivating and organising force behind the students' online and classroom learning. According to Marsh (2012), teachers should focus on their students' needs and abilities when it comes to planning a course, teaching it and assessing performance. In such a student-centred learning environment, teachers are facilitators who help to guide students, manage their activities and direct their learning. Although students in Blended Learning settings are meant to be responsible for their own learning, the role of teachers must not be underestimated, especially in terms of using technology effectively, helping students adapt to a changed learning environment, encouraging autonomous and collaborative learning, and managing and facilitating online interaction (Marsh 2012: 8ff.). To be able to properly perform this role, teachers need to be taught how to use technology efficiently and trained in "CALL proper" (Garrett 2009: 719) as Garrett puts it. This means that teachers should also be familiar with the SLA (Second Language Acquisition) theory on which their CALL activities are based, as well as the pedagogical context and reason for the use of technology (cf. Garrett 2009: 733). Finally, the implementation of Blended Learning courses does not save teachers much time or effort when preparing and teaching a course. Additional tasks they may face are integrating technology-based materials with traditional ones, dealing with technology problems, helping students use technology, and constantly evaluating student learning and technology-enhanced environments to ensure student success. As such, using technology in the classroom demands practice, planning and flexibility (cf. Adair-Hauck et al. 1999: 291).

3.1.3 The role of the student

Blended Learning environments allow students great flexibility to organise their learning. They can choose when and where they want to learn. This also means that students have to adapt to this greater level of independence – they must make their own decisions and take responsibility for their learning, which includes monitoring their own progress, identifying their own strengths and weaknesses, and managing their own time effectively (cf. Marsh 2012: 12ff.). However, it should be pointed out that students also need to adapt to the Blended Learning environment as a whole. In order to be successful they must change their habits and learning strategies, as the rhythms of blended courses are different to those of face-to-face classes (cf. Dziuban et al. 2004: 8).

3.1.4 The role of the institution

According to Garrison and Kanuka (2004), the successful adaptation of a Blended Learning approach requires serious commitment from the institution. This, among others, includes the definition of a clear Blended Learning policy and investment in technology infrastructure, as well as financial support and incentives to enable Blended Learning courses to be run (cf. Garrison, and Kanuka 2004: 102). Universities must adapt to technological changes and requirements by supporting Blended Learning projects. Without institutional support, these projects cannot be successfully implemented. However, reality shows that many educational institutions do not formulate specific strategies for the use of e-learning or Blended Learning and very often innovative concepts are introduced as stand-alone projects by committed teachers.

3.2 Why Blended Learning?

Graham (2005) lists three main reasons for the use of Blended Learning: improved pedagogy, increased access and flexibility, and cost-effectiveness. Improved pedagogical practices may result from the use of authentic materials in technology-enhanced environments via CMC, virtual reality or collaborative learning. With the rise of part-time degree programmes for working professionals, flexible access to learning materials and increased convenience are gaining in importance (cf. Graham 2005: 8ff.). A further benefit with regard to increased access and flexibility is that classrooms can be used more efficiently and on-campus traffic as well as the need for parking space can be reduced thanks to the use of Blended Learning modules (cf. Dziuban et al. 2004: 3). In a Blended Learning setting, attendance-based sessions for socialisation at the beginning of a course followed by distance elements enable flexibility while retaining traditional face-to-face contact. As far as cost-effectiveness is concerned, Blended Learning systems enable institutions to reach a large, global audience (cf. Graham 2005: 10). Nevertheless, it should not be forgotten that the implementation and realisation of successful Blended Learning programmes requires thorough preparation, institutional assistance (e.g. with regard to the technological infrastructure and backing), and ongoing support and guidance.

A fourth reason for the implementation of Blended Learning scenarios is that students expect it. Most students enrolled in language classes at university are digital natives; as such, they expect to be taught using new technologies (cf. Antenos-Conforti 2009: 1).

A further benefit which Dziuban et al. mention is that Blended Learning increases student and instructor information literacy. This argument points out that Blended Learning courses (as well as online instruction) equips learners and teachers with the skills they will need in their university studies and professional careers (cf. Dziuban et al. 2004: 3).

3.3 How effective is Blended Learning?

3.3.1 Overview of empirical research on the use of computer-based technology in language learning and teaching

Blended Learning research is quite a recent and rapidly evolving phenomenon (cf. Kim et al. 2008: 5). Attempts have been made to give an overview of research on computer-based technology use in second language research (cf. Liu et al. 2003; Vorobel, and Kim 2012; Wang, and Vásquez 2012). Before focusing on comparisons of Blended Learning, face-to-face instructions and online learning, a brief overview shall be presented below.

Liu et al. (2003) reviewed existing literature on computer use (computer-based technology in classrooms, multimedia technology and the internet) in the learning of a second language from 1990 to 2000. Their conclusion was that literature research illustrates that the use of computer technology in second language learning is effective and helps improve students' performance, e.g. when it comes to writing, reading or vocabulary acquisition (cf. Liu et al. 2003: 261). According to the studies Liu et al. reviewed, most of which were conducted at college level, the advantages of technology use in the language classroom are reduced anxiety levels, increased active participation, greater autonomous working and a faster pace (cf. Liu et al. 2003: 262f.).

Vorobel and Kim (2012) give a more recent account in their review of 24 studies on remote language teaching published between 2005 and 2010. Most of the studies they analysed focused on adult learners, and the languages researched were English, Spanish and German (cf. Vorobel, and Kim 2012: 558). In general they show that CALL can be effective if the technology, the learning environment and the course design are selected carefully (cf. Vorobel, and Kim 2012: 557ff.).

Wang and Vásquez (2012) reviewed articles dealing with the use of Web 2.0 technologies between 2005 and 2010. They noted that the most frequently investigated Web 2.0 tools are blogs and wikis

and that research is mainly carried out in the teaching and learning of English, Spanish, German and French. Wang and Vásquez discovered that there has been a shift in research subject matter from the four basic skills to more recent topics such as learners' identities, online collaboration and learning communities. In general, their review of research found that a favourable language-learning environment is among the most cited advantages of using Web 2.0 technologies in language learning (cf. Wang, and Vásquez 2012: 424).

3.3.2 Comparison of Blended Learning, face-to-face and distance learning

Adair-Hauck et al. (1999) compared a one-semester Blended Learning college-level French course with the same programme run as a face-to-face course. The treatment group met with the teacher three times a week and instead of meeting for a fourth time, CALL activities were integrated. The control group attended a class four times a week. Both groups worked with the same teacher, textbook and additional materials. Adair-Hauck et al. investigated the learners' performance with regard to listening, speaking, reading and writing, and came to the conclusion that the students attending the hybrid course performed just as well as the other students in listening and speaking and outperformed them in reading and writing. As far as cultural knowledge is concerned, the experimental group did better than the control group in the pre-test and the post-test – both groups improved considerably over the semester. Adair-Hauck et al. also evaluated the motivation and anxiety of the two groups' participants and found no significant difference – neither at the beginning of the semester nor at the end. Students reported that technology helped them with speaking, writing and listening. Moreover, the technology-enhanced learning environment seemed to foster collaboration between the learners outside the classroom (cf. Adair-Hauck et al. 1999).

Warschauer (1996/2) compared the level of participation amongst students in face-to-face and electronic discussions. The study shows that electronic discussion may foster more equal participation among students. Moreover, he found that computer-mediated discussions resulted in complex and formal language which could promote the acquisition of communicative skills (cf. Warschauer 1996/2). It should be pointed out that the cultural aspect of the study (with regard to the nationality of the learners, many of whom were Japanese and thus might have preferred communication where the loss of face was minimised) should be taken into consideration here.

Chenoweth and Murday (2003) carried out a project focusing on an elementary French course participated in by students at Carnegie Mellon University to assess whether there were significant differences in achievement, satisfaction, and time spent on the course between students attending an online course and those attending a face-to-face course. Grammatical knowledge, writing, speaking, listening and reading skills were assessed. Chenoweth and Murday came to the overall conclusion that online students performed better than offline students in the writing tasks. Moreover, participants of the treatment (online) group reported spending less time per week on the tasks set. However, they were disappointed as their learning was not as self-paced as they had assumed. Although online students expressed concerns about their speaking skills, assessments revealed no significant difference in their performance compared to that of the control group students (cf. Chenoweth, and Murday 2003).

Chenoweth et al. (2006) carried out a language project at Carnegie Mellon University. They investigated the effectiveness of online hybrid Spanish courses and face-to-face (offline) courses at elementary and intermediate level. Oral production, writing, reading and listening comprehension as well as grammar knowledge and vocabulary skills were all tested. The study came to the conclusion that the performance of students of the hybrid course was on the whole equivalent to that of students participating in the face-to-face course. The study also revealed that instructor guidance for learners as well as technical support for students and teachers alike is needed in a technology-enhanced learning environment (cf. Chenoweth et al. 2006).

Blake et al. (2008) compared the test results of conventional (classroom), blended (hybrid) and distance learning students when taking a standardised Spanish test. Their study shows that all students reached comparable levels of oral proficiency (cf. Blake et al. 2008).
Kern (1995) studied second-semester students of French during oral face-to-face and computer-mediated discussions on the same topic. He found that students participated more frequently (they took more turns) and used a greater variety of discourse functions in online discussions. However, he also came to the conclusion that, due to the fast pace of the online discussions, teacher control was limited (cf. Kern 1995).
Payne and Whitney (2002) compared third-semester students of Spanish in face-to-face and Blended Learning courses. Their study was based on working memory theories and Levelt's language production model. They concluded that L2 oral proficiency can be acquired indirectly via chatroom interaction in the foreign language, and that students are much more active when expressing themselves in online discussions than in the majority of face-to-face classroom settings. Students said that when chatting online, they focused more on the grammatical correctness and accuracy of the language they produced than they would in the classroom. Moreover, the learners claimed to have noticed other students' mistakes more in the online setting. However, Payne and Whitney point out that their study in no way implies that oral skills can be developed without face-to-face interaction (cf. Payne, and Whitney 2002).
Nagata (1996) carried out a study among students of Japanese using an intelligent CALI (Computer-Assisted Language Instruction) programme. He found that when using the same grammar materials and exercises, intelligent feedback was more effective than workbook answer sheets in terms of supporting learners' grammar skills in certain areas. Moreover, the computer programme had a positive influence on the attitudes of the learners involved (cf. Nagata 1996).
In general, it can be said that whilst a number of studies have been carried out, a sound body of research has yet to be developed. Young (2008) suggests that in order to move beyond the *no significant difference* phenomenon, more variables (e.g. students' cognitive styles, self-discipline and motivation to learn) should be taken into account (cf. Young 2008: 177).

4 Blended Learning at CAMPUS 02

4.1 Introduction of the research project

CAMPUS 02 University of Applied Sciences trains students to become academic entrepreneurs and to take on specialist and senior management positions for the industry. The degree programmes on offer are organised to be compatible with full-time employment, therefore most of the students at CAMPUS 02 are working professionals (cf. CAMPUS 02 2018).
Several aspects influence the teaching and learning environment, especially when it comes to extra-occupational students:

- High attendance requirements of 75% or more
- A growing number of students per year and course, resulting in student numbers of 25 or more in language courses
- Lack of sufficient number of available rooms and parking spaces on weekends
- The digital natives' expectations pertaining to the use of digital media in a classroom setting.

In order to tackle these organisational and didactical challenges, a Blended Learning course was introduced in the Degree Programme in Innovation Management in 2015. The innovative Blended Learning design applied to this course was incorporated in a research project: From 2014-2016, the Technical English course (comprising 2 semesters) was taught at CAMPUS 02 as a face-to-face

course (hereinafter called "control group") and a Blended Learning course (hereinafter called "treatment group"). The content and learning aims were the same for both. In the Blended Learning course, however, face-to-face tuition was more than halved. The courses were compared with regard to different aspects (student motivation and satisfaction, written performance, etc.), some of which will be discussed in this paper. The Blended Learning model will be explained in more detail in chapter 4.2. The results of the comparative study pertaining to written performance will be discussed in chapter 6.

4.2 An innovative Blended Learning course at CAMPUS 02

The Blended Learning design was applied to the Technical English I and Technical English II courses (5th and 6th semesters of the Bachelor Degree Programme in Innovation Management). The design of the treatment course was mainly based on an inverted classroom model. In four online sessions, students had to complete small e-learning tasks via social media, watch learning videos, and use other online tools to acquire and use vocabulary and improve their reading, writing and speaking skills.

Figure 1 shows the timetable of the Technical English 1 course.

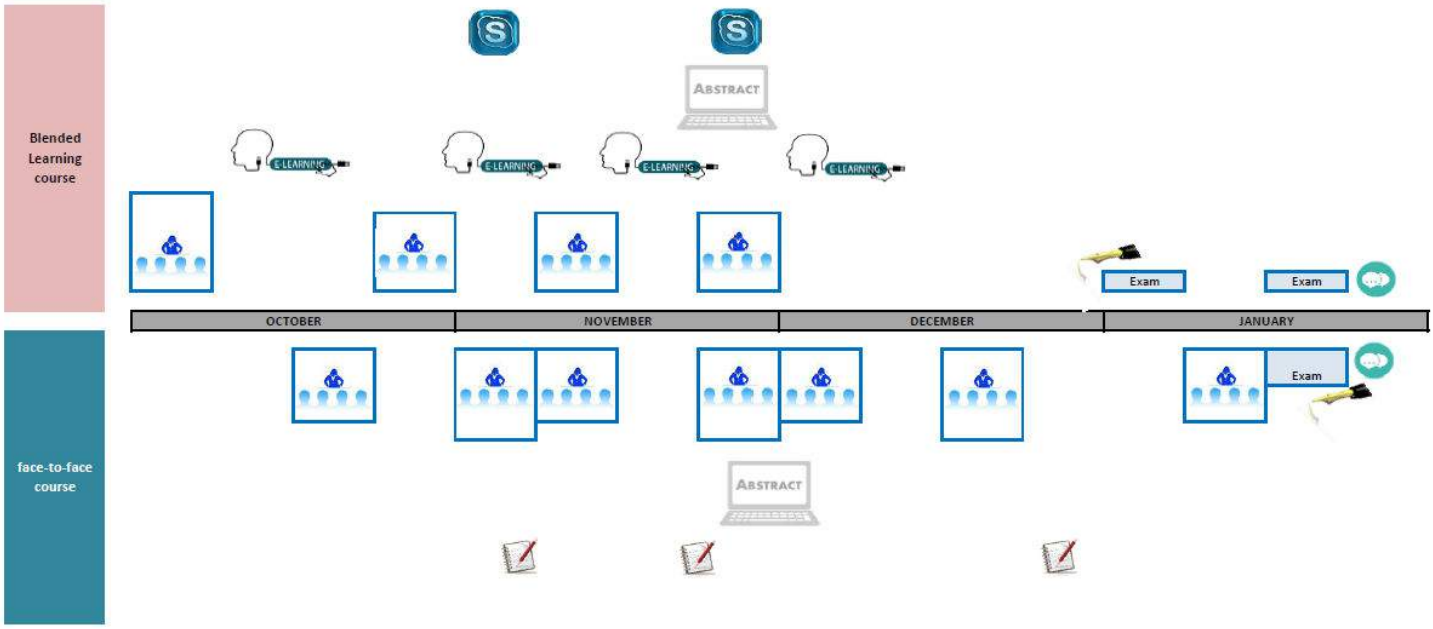


Figure 1: Technical English I – timetable of the face-to-face and the Blended Learning course

The Blended Learning course is depicted above the time axis. Compared to the fully attendance-based course, face-to-face units (the blue boxes) were reduced drastically. Instead of homework assignments, online sessions were introduced that took place between the face-to-face sessions. In addition, two voluntary, synchronous Skype sessions were offered to the treatment group. Both courses ended with written and an oral exam[1].

[1] Technical English II was organised in the same way but is not depicted in this figure.

To support students, a course website was created where students were able to find information about the schedule and grading and could also download learning videos. Figure 2 shows screenshots of the Technical English I (left picture half) and Technical English II (right picture half) websites.

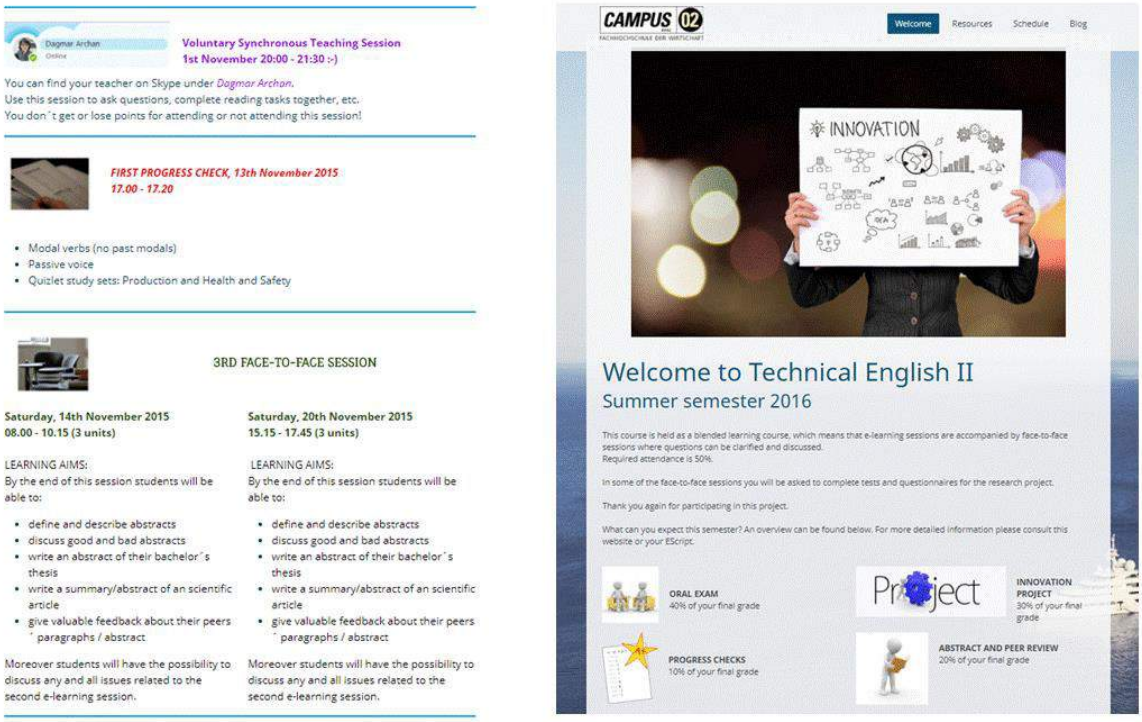


Figure 2: Technical English I and II course websites

In addition, the websites contained a blog function where students could work on micro e-learning tasks. These tasks were also published in the group's closed Facebook group. The e-learning tasks could be worked on during the online sessions thereby enabling the students to choose when and where to learn. In addition, the students could choose which tasks they would want to complete, granting them control over their individual learning process. The tasks were very brief and tried to incorporate internet-based activity (e.g. by asking the students to conduct research or read authentic articles before answering the teacher's questions). Whenever possible, students had to produce language (instead of filling gaps or ticking boxes) and refer to their own professional lives. The tasks also included collaborative aspects in the form of discussions.

Figures 3 and 4 show e-learning tasks where specific, technical vocabulary could be applied to examples chosen by the students taken from their own working-life situations. This allowed the students to benefit from the individual tasks as they were able to apply vocabulary specific to their professional needs.

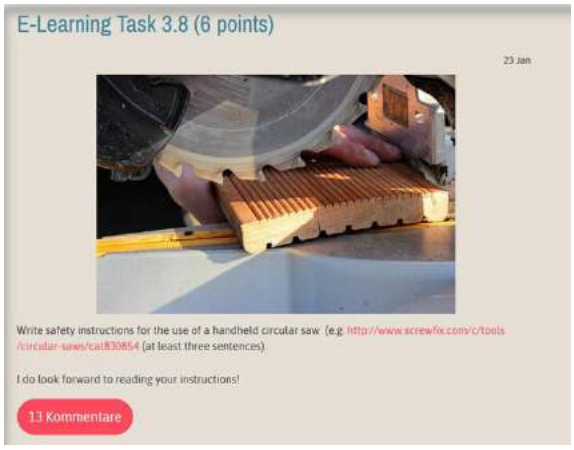


Figure 3: E-Learning task published in the Blog

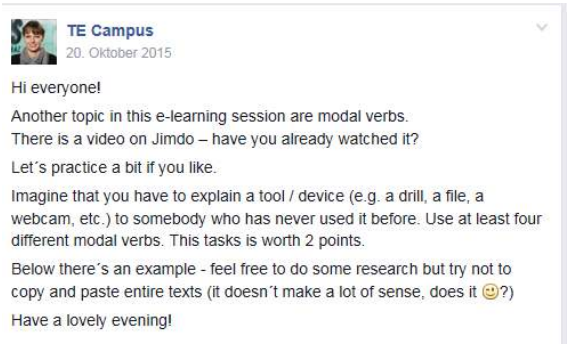


Figure 4: E-Learning task published on Facebook

The teacher corrected and commented on every single post. In addition, the teacher acted as a facilitator by reminding students of deadlines and tasks.
The learning environment of the Blended Learning course was designed in such a way so as to enhance student motivation and satisfaction by enabling ubiquitous learning and increasing each student's responsibility for his or her own learning process, whilst providing individual feedback in large groups. This course being an ESP course, the use of the internet was incorporated so as to enable students to tailor the context to their individual professional needs.
As previously mentioned, the treatment group was compared to the control group with regard to different aspects, one of them being their written performance. The assessment of writing in general and the assessment carried out in the framework of this research project in particular will be discussed in chapter 5.

5 Assessing Writing in the framework of the present research project

5.1 Assessing writing – some general aspects

Speaking a foreign language fluently is a goal towards which most learners strive. Good writing skills are more difficult to acquire, even for native speakers (cf. Tribble 1996: 3). Byrne (1988) refers to psychological, linguistic and cognitive aspects that render writing in a foreign language a challenging task. When speaking, other people are physically present and give us feedback; completing written tasks is psychologically demanding as they (at least when tests are taken) have to be completed by the writer without any interaction and thus constitute a solitary activity. This is linked to the second aspect, i.e. the linguistic problems of writing in a foreign language. While speaking consists of interaction, incomplete sentences, repetition, backtracking, etc., such features are not available for students preparing written discourse. They instead have to use their individual linguistic abilities to create logical communication, and need to link and sequence their ideas by themselves. The final aspect Byrne refers to is that of cognitive problems. He points out that speaking comes more naturally for most people and can be done without making too much of a conscious effort. Writing, on the other hand, has to be learned via a certain process of instruction. Students need to learn to organise their ideas and thoughts (especially in a foreign language) so that their readers are able to understand their written discourse (cf. Byrne 1988: 4). In addition, it has been found that writing texts in a second language is a difficult task for language learners, as

limited language proficiency may lead to an incorrect understanding of the instructions or the source text. On the other hand, second-language writers seem to do less planning before writing a text; they devote less time to revising content and their writing may be less fluent and accurate than that of mother-tongue writers. Moreover, second-language writers may not be au fait with social and cultural factors – they may not be aware of certain textual standards in the target culture or expectations of readers from different cultures (cf. Weigle 2002: 36). These aspects need to be taken into account both when teaching students and grading their work. The assessment of the written discourse of students taught in face-to-face and Blended Learning environments will be discussed in the next chapter.

5.2 Assessing writing in the framework of this research project

In the following subchapters, the stages of assessing students' written discourse will be discussed in more detail with regard to the author's research project as outlined in chapter 4. To assess and monitor their writing, the students of the control and the treatment group took a pre-test at the beginning of the first semester of teaching and a post-test after one semester of teaching.

5.2.1 Purpose of assessment

Based on Bachman's model of communicative language competence (cf. Bachman 1990: 87), the students' organisational and pragmatic competence was tested. Organisational competence comprises grammatical competence and textual competence. Pragmatic competence is divided into two categories: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence.

5.2.2 Tasks and criteria

The task of the pre-test and the post-test consisted of summarising an article taken from a scientific journal. Asking the students to summarise a text is a so-called "controlled writing task" (cf. Weir 1990: 61). According to Weir (1990), it is important to avoid free, uncontrolled writing as the task needs to be rather specific in order to compare the students' performance and obtain high scoring reliability. Weir states that summary writing is a suitable task to test students' writing ability as it depicts the students' capacity to choose relevant information from a wide range of data and to re-combine this information (cf. Weir 1990: 62). It shows the students' "ability to write a controlled composition containing the essential ideas of a piece of writing and omitting non-essentials" (Weir 1990: 62). In addition to finding a good task, finding suitable scoring criteria is essential since the score defines what inferences are made about the writer's language competence. Therefore, two aspects are critical: preparing suitable and valid grading scales and ensuring that the scales are used appropriately and consistently by the assessors (cf. Weigle 2002: 108). Two main types of scoring will be discussed in this paper: **holistic scoring** and **analytic scoring**.

Holistic scoring describes the assignment of one single score to a piece of writing submitted by a student (cf. Weigle 2002: 112). To assess a student's writing holistically basically means to see what has been written as something complete, as a whole, and without using subscores (cf. White 1984: 400). Holistic scoring therefore presents the overall impression that each student's written discourse makes on the reader. When holistic scoring is used, the rater quickly (typically one minute or less is spent on reading one handwritten page) (cf. Hamp-Lyons 1991: 243) reads the student's piece of written work and then usually evaluates it using a rating scale outlining the scoring criteria (cf. Weigle 2002: 112). One key advantage of holistic scoring is that it is not very time-consuming and thus proves less expensive than other types of scoring when the student's written work is read more than once, each time with the focus on a different aspect of writing (cf. Weigle 2002: 112; White 1984: 402). Other advantages of holistic scoring are that the raters

concentrate on their students' strengths, i.e. on what they can do, rather than focusing on their weaknesses. When scoring rubrics are designed well, they can offer information about a given aspect of writing (cf. Weigle 2002: 114). Edward White (1984), one of the best-known advocates of holistic scoring, also points out that holistic scoring is authentic as it reflects the reader's (first) reaction to a text. He claims that "too much attention to the parts is likely to obscure the meaning of the whole" (cf. White 1984: 409). However, it should also be mentioned that holistic scoring has a number of disadvantages. One score given to a text may mean that no valid diagnostic information about the student's general writing ability can be made, as there is no distinction between different aspects of writing (cf. Weigle 2002: 114). For example, when a student has a wide range of vocabulary and good general language control but is not able to organise his/her writing successfully, this cannot be reflected by giving him/her one holistic grade. Weigle mentions that this plays a vital role when grading second language learners, as their writing abilities (for example grammar and vocabulary) may have reached different levels (cf. Weigle 2002: 114; Hamp-Lyons 1991: 241). This fact leads to the next problematic aspect: it might be very difficult to interpret holistic results, since when giving a certain grade, raters may refer to different criteria (cf. Weigle 2002: 114). An assessor may rate a student's summary as a 4 because of its organisation, while a different assessor may give the writing a 3 because of its linguistic features. It follows that holistic scoring is also not meant to offer correction or editing (cf. Charney 1984: 67) and therefore contributes nothing to increasing a student's proficiency.

Analytic scoring on the other hand is a rating method that is based on several aspects of writing instead of using one single score (cf. Weigle 2002: 114). Criteria may include content, organisation, cohesion, register, vocabulary and/or grammar. The criteria and their descriptors form a grid, and assessors choose one score for every criterion. Therefore, analytic grading scales are able to give more detailed information about a student's performance with regard to a number of different aspects. These aspects usually contain descriptors and may be rated equally or differentially (cf. Weigle 2002: 114ff.). One of the main disadvantages of analytic scoring is the fact that it is rather time-consuming, as examiners need to judge more than one aspect for every piece of writing. In addition, when individual scores are combined to generate one final score, experienced raters seem to tend to match their rating with their expectations about what the total score should be (cf. Weigle 2002: 120). Another criticism that has been voiced is that scoring students' written work based on rather vaguely defined criteria is a highly subjective process (cf. Weigle 2002:119). Therefore, experts suggest that the criteria should be defined as clearly as possible (cf. Weir 1993: 156).

For the present research project it was important to obtain an in-depth diagnosis of the students' writing abilities, as well as the development of their writing skills over a semester of teaching. Therefore, an analytic rating scale with eight criteria (scoring rubrics) was used. All the rubrics were rated equally. Scores ranged from 0 (worst performance) to 4 (best performance). The writing task that was assessed will be described in chapter 5.3.

5.3 Performance

The social and situational context may influence the production of written discourse. Dell Hymes' SPEAKING Grid (cf. Luoma 2004: 24f.) gives a good overview of such influences and is therefore used to describe how the two writing tasks (pre-test and post-test) were carried out by the students:

Situation: The pre-test was held in the first course session of the Technical English I course unit (5th semester) in one of the classrooms of CAMPUS 02, University of Applied Sciences. It was administered by the lecturer and formed part of a whole range of tests. The post-test was carried out as an element of the written exam at the end of the 5th semester in one of the classrooms of CAMPUS 02, University of Applied Sciences and was also teacher-administered.

Participants: The students completed the pre-test as well as the post-test on their own and were not allowed to use any aids.
Ends: The aim of participating in the pre-test was the participation in the research project. The pre-test was not graded but students may have considered it as practice (they received feedback if they wanted) and it can be presumed that they wanted to show their strengths. Therefore, it is assumed that they took the pre-test seriously. The aim of completing the post-test was the successful completion of the course unit.
Act Sequence: The students were asked to read and summarise a two-page article of a scientific journal (the same articles were used in both groups). The task aimed at testing the students' ability to summarise a scientific text. The task was to be completed in isolation and in approximately 45 minutes.
Key: The students were informed that the tone of the summary should be rather formal.
Instrumentalities: The task was to be completed in writing; the students handed in their handwritten summaries.
Norms: All students had to complete the task on their own with no teacher intervention.
Genre: Both tasks were written tasks.

As has been described above, there are indeed minor differences between the pre-tests and the post-tests, for example with regard to situation and ends. This could not be avoided within the framework of the present research project. However, differences between the two tests were kept to a minimum, so it can be assumed that a comparison of the results provides valid information. A further discussion of the results will be provided in the following chapter.

5.4 Discussion of results

Firstly, it should be pointed out that both the control group and the treatment group took the online Cambridge Placement Test at the beginning of the first semester to obtain an overview of their level of English. The control group (22 students) achieved an average result of 61.4%. The treatment group consisted of 32 students with an average score of 67.5%, i.e. slightly higher than that of the control group. Both results correspond to level B according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages).
In the first writing test (pre-test) administered at CAMPUS 02, the control group attained an overall average score of **1.88** (with 0 being the lowest mark and 4 being the highest) in the eight rubrics, while the treatment group had an overall average score of **1.64.** which is somewhat remarkable given that their performance in the Cambridge test was better than that of the control group. However, this can be explained by the fact that this adaptive placement test does not test writing skills but mainly assesses reading and listening skills.
At the end of one semester of teaching, the results of the control group deteriorated in all but one category (D: *Scope of vocabulary*) with the group's overall average score in the post-test being **1.72**, while the treatment group students achieved better results in their post-tests (overall score **1.84**) with improvements in every category except for category H (*Mechanical accuracy*). Figures 1 and 2 below show the average scores (0 to 4) in the eight rubrics A-H (A: *Relevance and appropriacy of content*, B: *Composition and arrangement*, C: *Cohesion*, D: *Scope of vocabulary*, E: *Accuracy of vocabulary*, F: *Scope of grammar and structures*, G: *Accuracy of grammar and structures*, H: *Mechanical accuracy* (spelling, capitalisation)) for both groups in the pre- and post-tests.

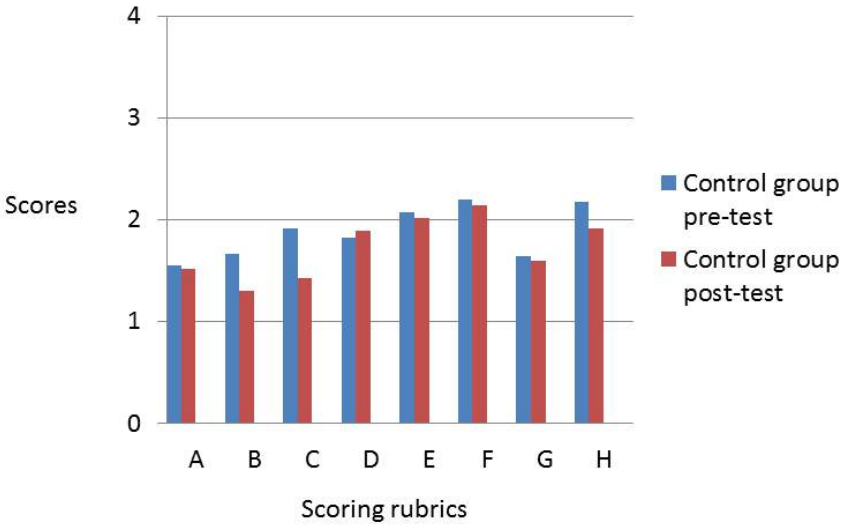


Figure 5: Written performance of control group

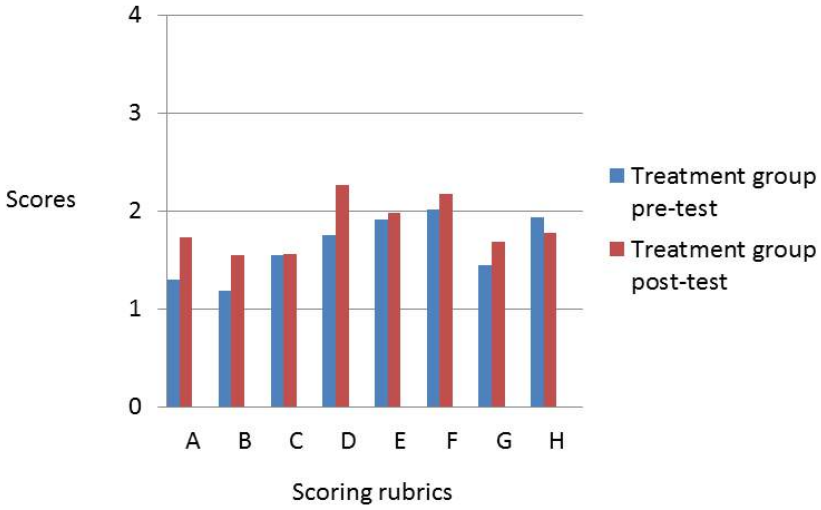


Figure 6: Written performance of treatment group

From the data presented above, it can be concluded that the writing skills of the treatment group students seem to have improved more than those of the control group students. This might be due to the fact that most of the students communicated in writing with the lecturer on a regular basis via brief tasks using social media. This informal context in which spelling is often neglected may also account for the fact that the category *Mechanical accuracy* was the only rubric in which no improvement was made. The biggest improvement of the treatment group was made in *Scope of vocabulary* which might again result from frequent, short vocabulary-based tasks, as well as the use of videos and authentic online sources during the e-learning sessions.

6 Conclusion

In summary, Blended Learning will continue to provide exciting learning possibilities for adult learners in the coming years. Technological innovation is making great strides at high speed, and digital technologies are becoming an ever more integral part of our lives. Therefore, it will be important to find blends that take this into account, overcome the weaknesses of technology-

enhanced and face-to-face environments, and make use of advances in technology (cf. Graham 2005: 16f.). The research project carried out at CAMPUS 02 has shown that the written performance of students in a Blended Learning setting is as least as good as the written performance of students taught in a face-to-face environment. In addition, innovative Blended Learning enables teaching individual content in ESP classes, which might have a positive effect on motivation as well as on the acquisition of terminology.

References

Adair-Hauck, Bonnie, Laurel Willingham-McLain, and Bonnie Earnest Youngs (1999). "Evaluating the Integration of Technology and Second Language Learning". *CALICO Journal* 17.2: 269-306.

Antenos-Conforti, Enza (2009). "Microblogging on Twitter: Social networking in Intermediate Italian classes". In: Lomicka, Lara, and Gillian Lord, eds. *The Next Generation: Social Networking and Online Collaboration.* CALICO Monograph Series Volume 8. San Marcos, TX: CALICO. 59-90.

Bachman, Lyle F. (1990). Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bax, Stephen (2003). "CALL – past, present and future". *System* 31: 13-28.

Beatty, Ken (2010). *Teaching and Researching Computer-Assisted Language Learning*. 2nd ed. Applied Linguistics in Action Series. Oxon, New York: Routledge.

Blake, Robert, Nicole L. Wilson, Maria Cetto, and Cristina Pardo-Ballester (2008). "Measuring oral proficiency in distance, face-to-face, and blended classrooms". *Language Learning & Technology* 12:3: 114-127.

Byrne, Donn (1988). *Teaching Writing Skills. New Edition. Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers.* Hong Kong: Longman.

CAMPUS 02 (2018). "Our strategy". https://en.campus02.at/organisation-central-services/strategy-mission/?noredirect=en_US [12th April 2018].

Charney, Davida (1984). "The Validity of Using Holistic Scoring to Evaluate Writing: A Critical Overview". *Research in Teaching of English.* 18.1:65-81

Chenoweth, N. Ann, and Kimmaree Murday (2003). "Measuring Student Learning in an Online French Course". *CALICO Journal* 20.2: 285-314.

Chenoweth, N. Ann, Eiko Ushida, and Kimmaree Murday (2006). "Student Learning in Hybrid French and Spanish Courses: An Overview of Language Online". *CALICO Journal* 24.1: 115-145.

Davies, Graham (n. d.). **"**CALL (computer assisted language learning)". [Online]. Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies Guide to Good Practice.

Davies, Graham et al. (2012). "Introduction to Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)". Module 1.4 in Davies, Graham, ed. *Information and Communications Technology for Language Teachers (ICT4LT)*. Slough: Thames Valley University.

Dziuban, Charles D., Joel L. Hartmann, and Patsy D. Moskal (2004). "Blended Learning". *EDUCAUSE Center for Applied Research.* Research Bulletin 2004.7.

Ellis, Rod (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Garrett, Nina (2009). "Computer-Assisted Language Learning Trends and Issues Revisited: Integrating Innovation". *The Modern Language Journal* 93 (Focus Issue): 719-740.

Garrison, D. Randy, and Heather Kanuka (2004). "Blended learning: Uncovering its transformative potential in higher education". *Internet and Higher Education* 7: 95-105.

Graham, Charles R. (2005). "Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends, and future directions". In: Bonk, Curtis J., and Charles R. Graham eds. *Handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs. S*an Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer Publishing. 3-21.

Graham, Charles R. (2009). "Blended Learning Models". In: *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology.* Ed. Mehdi Khosrow-Pour 2nd ed. Vol. 1. Hershey: Information Science Reference. 375-382.

Graham, Charles R., and Charles Dziuban (2008). "Blended Learning Environments". In: *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology.* Ed. Michael J. Spector et al. Vol. 3. New York: Springer. 269-276.

Gruba, Paul, and Don Hinkelman (2012). *Blended Technologies in Second Language Classrooms.* Basingstoke, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hamp-Lyons, Liz (1991). „Scoring Procedures for ESL Contexts". In: Hamp-Lyons, Liz (ed.) (1991). Assessing Second Language Writing in Academic Contexts. Norwood, New Jersey: Abley Publishing Corporation.

Jarvis, Huw, and Marianna Achilleos (2013). "From Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to Mobile Assisted Language Use (MALU)". *TESL-EJ Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* 16.4: 1-18.

Kern, Richard G. (1995). "Restructuring Classroom Interaction with Networked Computers: Effects on Quantity and Characteristics of Language Production". *The Modern Language Journal* 79.4: 457-476.

Kim, Kyong-Jee, Curtis J. Bonk, and Eunjung Oh (2008). "The Present and Future State of Blended Learning in Workplace Learning Settings in the United States". *Performance Improvement* 47.8: 5-16.

Levy, Mike (1997). *CALL: Context and Conceptualisation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Liu, Min, Zena Moore, Leah Graham, and Shinwoong Lee (2003). "A Look at the Research on Computer-Based Technology Use in Second Language Learning: Review of Literature from 1990-2000". *Journal of Research on Technology in Education* 34.3: 250-273.

Luoma, Sari (2004). *Assessing Speaking.* Cambridge Language Assessment Series (eds. Alderson, Charles J. and Lyle F. Bachman). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marsh, Debra (2012). *Blended Learning. Creating Opportunities for Language Learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nagata, Noriko (1996). "Computer vs. workbook instruction in second language acquisition". *CALICO Journal* 14.1: 53-75.

Payne, J. Scott, and Paul J. Whitney (2002). "Developing L2 Oral Proficiency through Synchronous CMC: Output, Working Memory, and Interlanguage Development". *CALICO Journal* 20.1: 7-32.

Tribble, Christopher (1996). Writing. In: Candlin, C.N and H.G Widdowson (eds): Language Teaching. A scheme for teacher education. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Tschichold, Cornelia (2005). "CALL and linguistics". In: Allerton, D.J., Cornelia Tschichold, and

Judith Wieser, eds. *Linguistics, Language Learning and Language Teaching*. Basel: Schwabe. 147-159.

Vorobel, Oksana, and Deoksoon Kim (2012). "Language Teaching at a Distance: An Overview of Research". *CALICO Journal* 29.3: 548-562.

Wang, Shenggao, and Camilla Vásquez (2012). "Web 2.0 and Second Language Learning: What Does the Research Tell Us?". *CALICO Journal* 29.3: 412-430.

Warschauer, Mark (1996/1). "Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction". In: Fotos, Sandra, ed. *Multimedia language teaching*. Tokyo: Logos International. 3-20.

Warschauer, Mark (1996/2). "Comparing face-to-face and electronic discussion in the second language classroom." *CALICO Journal* 13.2&3: 7-26.

Warschauer, Mark, and Deborah Healey (1998). "Computers and language learning: an overview". *Language Teaching* 31: 57-71.

Weigle, Sara Cushing (2002). *Assessing Writing.* Cambridge Language Assessment Series (Alderson, Charles J., and Lyle F. Bachman, eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Weir, Cyril (1990). *Communicative Language Testing.* Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

White, Edward M. (1984). Holisticism. *College Composition and Communication*. 35.4: 400-409.

Whittaker, Claire (2013). "Introduction". In: Tomlinson, Brian, and Claire Whitaker, eds. *Blended Learning in English Language Teaching: Course Design and Implementation.* London: British Council.

Young, Dolly Jesusita (2008). "An Empirical Investigation of the Effects of Blended Learning on Student Outcomes in a Redesigned Intensive Spanish Course". *CALICO Journal* 26.1: 160-181.

Flipped classroom approach in ESP teaching

Henrieta Kožaríková, Viktória Vráželová

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Flipped classroom approach in ESP teaching

Henrieta Kožaríková, Viktória Vráželová

Department of Languages, Technical University in Košice, Slovakia

Abstract

In relation to the rise of educational technologies the idea of a flipped learning is becoming more and more popular. The paper focuses on differences between traditional and flipped classroom approach stressing pros and cons in ESP teaching. The emphasis is put on data analyses gained from a questionnaire which was conducted to find out students' perception and preferences. The findings indicate that an impact on student experience is significantly positive. Flipped classroom approach encourages students to take the initiative in learning and allows them to study at their own pace and reflect on what they learn.

1 Flipped classroom method

Currently many teachers tend to change their traditional teaching style to more interactive, student-centred form. In relation to the rise of educational technologies, the idea of flipped learning is becoming more and more popular as it brings an innovative perspective to traditional education. The flipped classroom approach represents one of innovative structures moving lecture outside the classroom via technology and implementing "homework" and practice inside the classroom via learning activities.

The concept of flipped classroom was published by Lage, Platt and Treglia in the paper entitled *Inverting the Classroom: A Gateway to Creating an Inclusive Learning Environment* (2000). Their research focused on two college economics courses and brought the idea that "inverting the classroom means that events that have traditionally taken place inside the classroom now take place outside the classroom and vice versa" [1]. Bergmann and Sams, two chemistry teachers at Woodland Park High School in Colorado, described the flipped classroom as a teaching strategy claiming that "what is traditionally done in class is now done at home, and that what is traditionally done as homework is now completed in class" [2]. When struggling to find the time to re-teach lessons for absent students, they decided to record and annotate their lessons and post them online. Not only absent students appreciated to see what they missed, but so did students who did not miss the class. Bergmann and Sams soon realized that they can radically change the way how they used their class time and implemented flipped classroom method. As they say there is no one model but the core idea is to flip the common instructional approach. "There is no single way to flip your classroom. There is no specific methodology to be replicated; no checklist to follow that leads to guaranteed results. Flipping the classroom is more about a mind-set: redirecting attention away from the teacher and putting attention on the learner and the learning" [2].

The flipped classroom approach is associated with significant change of teacher's position in class. Teachers are no longer the presenters of information but they take more tutorial role. They are becoming observers, allowing students to be more active. Students take responsibility for their own learning as using the method of flipped classroom allows them to exercise some degree of choice in their home activities. Class time is free from didactic lecturing, providing a time for the variety of activities, group work, and interactive discussion. Bergmann and Sam in their book *Flip your*

classroom (2012) state that in the flipped model, the time is completely restructured, students ask questions about the content that has been delivered via video prior the lesson and remainder of the time is used for more extensive hands-on activities and/or directed problem-solving time [2]. The following table shows Sams' AP chemistry class and an example of how the role of the teacher has changed.

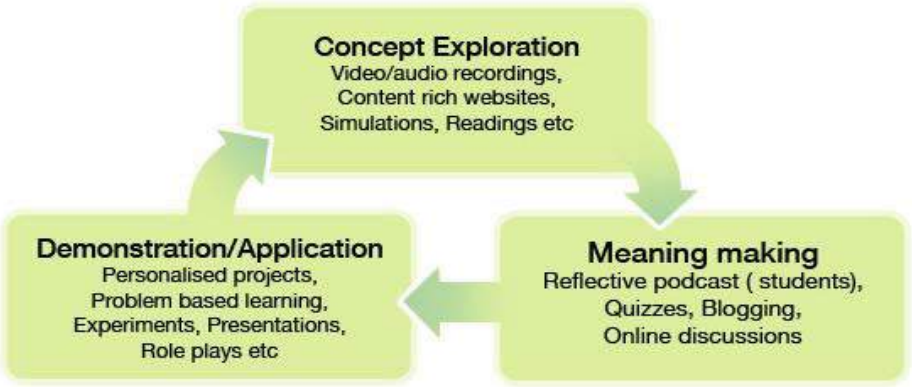
Table 1: Comparison of Class Time in Traditional versus Flipped Classrooms [2]

Traditional Classroom		Flipped Classroom	
Activity	*Time*	*Activity*	*Time*
Warm-up activity	5 min.	Warm-up activity	5 min.
Go over previous night's homework	20 min.	Q&A time on video	10 min.
Lecture new content	30–45 min.	Guided and independent practice and/or lab activity	75 min.
Guided and independent practice and/or lab activity	20–35 min.		

Salman Khan who began to record videos for tutoring purpose can also be considered to be one of the contributors to the flipped classroom. Originally he was making YouTube videos explaining Math concepts to his nephews and realized that this could be new and more efficient way of teaching when students can watch the lecture at home and then do exercises at school. Salman Khan founded Khan Academy based on this model. For some, Khan Academy has become synonymous with the flipped classroom; however, the videos are only one form of the flipped classroom strategy. Except video lectures, teachers may provide students with a variety of tools to gain first exposure to material outside the class: textbook readings, PowerPoint presentations with voice-over or printable PowerPoint slides [3].

Flipped classroom model encourages independent learning because students are doing online activities outside the class and they can learn at their own pace. An important factor is that flipping helps mainly struggling students. Whereas in traditional teaching mostly the best and brightest students tend to get teacher’s attention, in flipped model the teachers have more time to help students who struggle and need more attention. Students with special needs can watch the videos or study materials as many times as they need to. Instead of taking notes in class in a hope they will understand them later; they can pause their online materials, rewind them, and make sure they actually understand the important concept. The main purpose of flipped classroom is to bring students into active learning with focus on student’s application of knowledge more than on factual recall. The key for success is that students are using class time to deepen their understanding and increase their skills at using their new knowledge.

Table 2: Learning opportunities in the flipped classroom [3].



2 Flipped classroom method in language teaching

Flipping the foreign language classroom often originates from teacher's inability to help all students reach their goals in gaining language proficiency. English language students are at varying levels of interest and language ability, so it is difficult to help every individual student during the class. With class sizes of approximately 15 – to 20 students, the ability of teacher to address students' needs in traditional classroom is limited. The main task of English language teachers is to fulfil the needs of all their students in finding a way how to maximize the time students spend speaking in the class. In order to increase students' language proficiency, flipped classroom homework enables language educators to repurpose time and to incorporate activities that did not previously fit within the time constraints of the curriculum. Simply speaking, students are able to click onto Internet links which may give them background information that teacher would not be able to provide in the classroom because it is time-consuming.

Big benefit for students is that they can view and review online resources according to their needs at home. On the other hand, a great advantage of flipped learning is that more interactive forms of language education such as discussions, case studies and role-plays can be used in classroom. In spite of the fact that these activities take time to perform, flipped classroom allows more space for practicing them during the class. Flipped classroom method brings students a chance to improve their professional communication and application skills. It also increases the autonomous learning ability as students share responsibility for their learning and become more engaged in the learning process.

A flipped classroom may be beneficial for ELT teachers in using videos of real life situations where students can listen to native speakers and teachers can take advantage of ready-to-use rich content. In the flipped classroom learning-teaching activities (listening to dialogue, answering questions based on a dialogue, doing grammar exercises or explaining the grammar point) could be done at home using audio recordings, videos with word files or PowerPoint slides. A model of flipped classroom provides more time for English practice in class and English studying at home. Watching videos stimulates all students' language abilities. Adding extracurricular activities for home study has its positive consequences. Students learn more words than it is expected based on the syllabus, they listen to more than they would do only in classes and they speak more in English classes acting in discussions and role-plays. The classroom is no longer a one-way instillation of knowledge, but meaningful interaction between a teacher and students. Teachers have more time for interacting with students in class (for classroom activities), thus they can get better feedback from them. During their home preparation students have enough time to get used to the new words and expressions and their usage in appropriate contexts. In general, flipping the classroom is beneficial for both, teachers and students. Due to prior home preparation, all students can participate in discussions actively regardless their different language skills. Individual differences of students do not influence the outcome of interactive class activities in a great extent. The advantageous point

for teachers is that they can support learning enthusiasm of all students, mainly students with poor language efficiency who need more attention. The option of captions in most of the YouTube videos erases the handicap of those students. Not only better understanding of the content, but also other skills are improved, such as listening ability, automatic availability of correct pronunciation patterns and vocabulary building with the option to consult new words in dictionaries prior to class. Students can re-watch videos multiple times depending on their language proficiency.

Alsowat [4] investigated the effect of the flipped classroom methodology on student involvement in a second language learning context, and concluded that flipping the classroom is one way of increasing student engagement. He argues that the method changes the role of teacher from instructor to the role more akin to that of a supervisor. As with Atteberry's study, the results showed no clear benefits when compared to traditional teaching, if the flipped classroom methodology is used only occasionally. Popularity of the flipped classroom is still growing in some countries. Lei Liu considers integration of the flipped classroom and using network technology as a "typical example to promote teaching reform in schools" [5]. Most of the research emerging around the flipped classrooms has focused on reaction of students and teachers to the idea. The results of Ahmed Basal research carried out at a state university in Turkey indicates that English teachers have positive perceptions towards the use of the flipped classroom as an integral part of face-to-face courses. Based on the content analyses of 47 responses, the flipped classroom appears to be beneficial in terms of 4 categories: learning at one's own pace, advanced student preparation, overcoming the limitations of class time, increasing the participation in the classroom [6]. A study at Villanova University shows that weaker students benefit from the making use of videos and screen casts and that they did better in subsequent exams. A model of flipped classroom has some limitations but it might be especially relevant in teaching ESP. According to Basal's study "Once ELT teachers are comfortable with the flipped learning model; they can develop new and customized ways to improve its effectiveness in their teaching environments. The flip model cannot be changed in its essence; however, the teacher implementing the model can modify it based on the needs and interests of the students, content of the lesson and the changeable dynamics of the classroom" [6].

A flipped classroom can bring many benefits for ELT teacher but it may have some limitations depending on many factors. However it can be changed and modified according to individual needs and teaching environment to reach the teaching-learning objectives.

For ELT teachers wishing to flip their classrooms, A. Basal recommends some practical and valuable suggestions:

- Take into account the learning styles of your students.
- Learn to use basic technological tools.
- Plan in detail what to do both inside and outside the classroom.
- Choose appropriate activities based on the learning styles of students.
- Use a great variety of activities to engage all students [6].

3 Application of flipped classroom in ESP teaching at the Faculty of Economics

The traditional way of teaching leads to minimizing the class time useful for students to enhance and practise their business skills like negotiating, leading a meeting, job interview, giving a presentation etc. or focus on meaningful conversations related to business topics. Implementing a new approach in ESP for students of Faculty of Economics (study programme Finance, Banking and Investment at Technical University in Košice, Slovakia) brings benefits in terms of maximizing productive class time. Students of Faculty of Economics are taught ESP for 5 semesters. Students

attend one class weekly that is scheduled for 90 minutes. The syllabus of teaching Business English is content-oriented for all semesters. The first-year students are supposed to master 9 professional topics related to *brands, company organization, advertising, money, human resources, international markets, ethics, leadership and competition*; the second-year students are supposed to master 12 professional topics related to financial sector, such as: *the organization of financial industry, retail banking, loans and credit, accounting, central banking, financing international trade, foreign exchange, stocks and shares, mergers and acquisitions, derivatives, asset management and regulating the financial sector.* Applying the flipped classroom teaching approach involves a series of activities outside and inside classroom in relation to the teacher and students.

Activities outside flipped classroom

We, as teachers of Business English, were interested in comparing traditional and flipped language classrooms. Traditionally, the content of business topics is given in class mainly through a form of lecture and the deeper engagement occurs outside the class through homework. In the flipped classroom, however, the introduction of the topic takes place outside the class and the engagement occurs during the lesson. Within the intention to implement a flipped classroom in ESP, we introduced video homework for two groups of the first-year students of Faculty of Economics. We assumed that videos would appear to students as the most likeable form for home study (for results see Chapter 4). Students' task was to watch the video lecture related to class topic and to get familiar with basic professional terminology. We assume that videos presenting the relevant topics do not have to be recorded by teachers as a lot of examples can be found on websites devoted to Business English. We used existing on-line resources from YouTube channel. The wide availability of videos enables us to create student-centred teaching situations. Students can watch authentic stories, listen to native speakers talks and learn the pronunciation of new terminology. It is also really important not to rely on one on-line source but to present a variety of presentation styles to our students. Different presenters on videos can keep students' attention for longer time rather than watching a series of videos from one author in a row.

Flipped classroom is the method that demands more personal involvement from both, teachers and students. Regarding teachers' preparation for the class, their preparation includes several steps. Finding or creating effective content for student home preparation is the first step of language teachers. Our primary aim is to search for suitable short videos that would last maximum 2-3 minutes and provide students with easy access to on-line materials. It is substantial that the teacher does not play the video(s) again in class in order to motivate students to work individually at home. It is known that the flipped classroom learning approach involves student independent learning before applying what they learned inside interactive classrooms. Another step is therefore teachers' preparation of their own materials to deepen the knowledge of students gained during their home study. Apart from our own tailor-made exercises we also used in class relevant exercises relating to the topic from Market Leader Intermediate Course Book (2010) [7]. The main teaching target is practicing, not introducing vocabulary in class, what can be done in a variety of enjoyable and motivating ways. Related to students' preparation for the class, the precondition imposed on students is that they have to watch the video as the part of their homework. To watch videos, students get instructions from the teacher at the end of the class or directly in Moodle electronic learning platform. If it is necessary, they are asked to print handouts and bring them to the class. Students who fail to do their "homework" feel discomfort during class activities that motivates them not to do it again.

Class activities inside flipped classroom

In order to revise the newly learned terms learned by students from short videos, we used our own exercises simultaneously with exercises from the course book. The advantage of additional

exercises printed in the form of handouts or displayed to students in class via projector is that we can identify and focus attention on areas of difficulty which may still be problematic. After completion of our own tasks we usually started practising exercises from the course book. We paid attention to the fact that the succession of revision exercises should be arranged in a hierarchical order proceeding from simple to complex: (a) recognition exercises (b) production exercises.

(a) Recognition exercises

In order to be stored in long-term memory and to be retained easily, new vocabulary is firstly practiced in the form of recognition exercises such as gap-fill exercises, multiple choice exercises, matching exercises, later on in the form of production exercises. Practising different types of exercises in a hierarchical order improves students' vocabulary knowledge to a great extent and increases vocabulary retention of newly learned terms and their definitions.

Examples of recognition exercises (own materials prepared by teachers):

1. Example of vocabulary exercise – business idioms.
Task: *Identify the name of the idiom based on the picture.*

2. Example of vocabulary exercise – job interview phrases.
Task: *Complete the words used in interview questions based on the video you have watched at home.*

What would you say has been your greatest .....?
Does that ..... your question?

3. Example of grammar exercise – conditionals.
Task: *Choose the correct verbs to complete the sentences.*

If you give us / 'll give us a discount of 5 %, we'll place / place a firm order.
Will you deliver / Do you deliver by November if we pay / 'll pay the transport costs?

(b) Production exercises

Production exercises (guided and independent practice) such as group work, role-play, case study, discussion and giving a presentation develop students' skills in using the new structures and foster students' ability to transfer their knowledge to new contexts. The capacity of students to transfer new skills to real situations can be considered as the main asset of the production exercises. As it can be seen from table 3 (showing time schedule of our traditional and flipped class), production exercises are more time-consuming than recognition exercises.

Table 3. Comparison of Traditional and Flipped Classroom Method Used in our Class

Traditional Classroom		Flipped Classroom	
Warm-up activity	5 minutes	Warm-up activity	5 minutes
Going over homework	20 minutes	Q&A time on video	5 minutes
Introduction of new content plus recognition exercises	50 minutes	Optional tailor-made activity based on video: short quiz, recognition exercise	10 minutes
Guided and independent practice	15 minutes	Guided and independent practice: role-play, discussion, case study, giving a presentation	70 minutes

Devoting more time to production phase of learning is considered to be the main purpose of flipped classroom. Enough time for practical use of English during class helps students be more proficient in professional language. Doing practical exercises brings university students into contact with real life business problems. At the same time except gaining basic business knowledge in English it enables students to develop analytical thinking and to get a sound basis for business decision-making in a foreign language. Last but not least effective training of these skills through problem-solving situations practiced in class helps students become successful in their profession after their graduation.

Examples of production exercises (ready materials used from the course book):

1. Example of group work

Task: *Work in groups of four. What should you do in these situations? Your boss has asked you to make one member of your department redundant. The choice is between the most popular team member, who is the worst at his job, or the best worker, who is the least popular with the other team members. Who do you choose?*

2. Example of role-play

Task: *Role-play the negotiation. Try to get a good outcome in each situation. Student A – you are a handbag supplier, student B – you are an agent for an overseas kitchen equipment company.*

3. Example of case study

Task: *A US shoe manufacturer must decide whether to relocate the head office of its European subsidiary from Paris to a small industrial town. You are members of the Management Committee. Work in groups of four and take one of the roles. Read your role cards and prepare for the meeting. Decide whether or not to recommend relocation to Board of Directors.*

4 Students' perception of flipped classroom (research results)

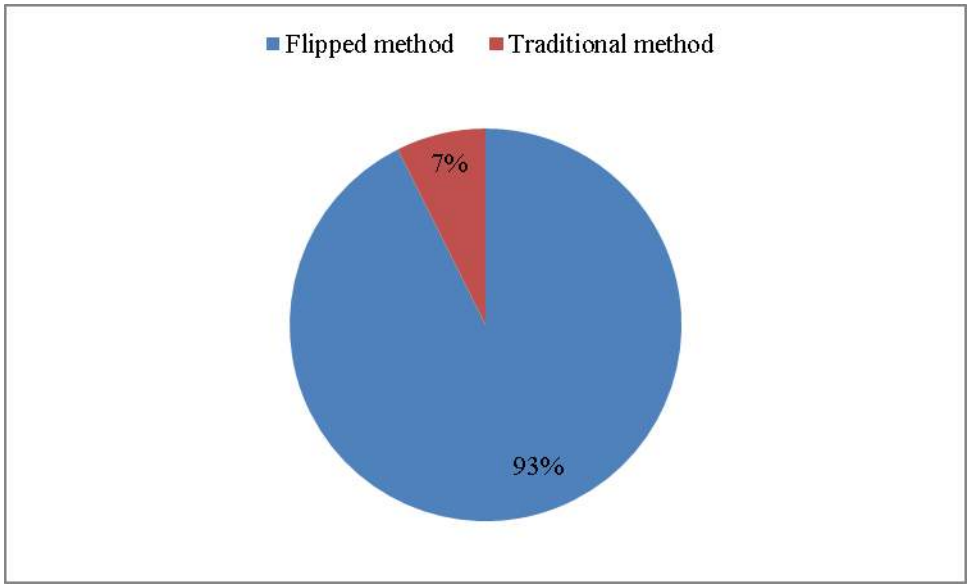
Our research took place at Department of Languages (Technical University in Košice, Slovakia) in summer semester 2018. The 1st year-students from the Faculty of Economics, who were taught Business English by flipped classroom method in their second semester, were asked to participate in our research. The main aim of the research was to find out students' perception of flipped classroom

method in comparison to traditional one. To enable students to compare both methods easier, we decided to teach Business English in their first semester in traditional way. Participants of our research were students of two focus groups studying ESP at intermediate level. Totally 34 students agreed to participate and they responded to our questionnaire containing 9 research questions (2 open-ended questions, 7 multiple-choice questions). The questionnaire provided insight into students' perceptions of flipped classroom, their opinion about the ideal form of prior-to-class homework and attitude to an idea if to flip the class during all time of their ESP study at university. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through research questions and responses were subjected to analysis bringing the following findings and results.

Responses to the question related to students' personal opinion if *prior-to-class homework is helpful and makes it easier for them to follow the class content* show that all students (100 %) appreciate the mentioned idea of learning/teaching approach. Next part of the questionnaire concentrated on students' idea *how the prior-to-class homework (in the form of watching video) can help them to work during the class*. 89 % of participants decided for an option – *I was able to follow the class easier*, 7 % of them stated – *Due to my prior preparation at home I did not work in class under the stress* and 4 % of students felt they were *more active in class*. Findings show that in connection with the effectiveness of learning and perception of ESP in class, the method of flipped class appears to be very helpful for most students and brings expected results for students and teachers as well.

The following graph depicts students' perception related to one of the most fundamental question in our research – *When comparing to classical approach, do you consider a prior-home preparation to be more effective in terms of mastering ESP?*

Graph: **Traditional/Flipped Classroom Approach (students' preference)**



Figures show that 93% of respondents find the flipped classroom model more effective in learning/teaching process of English for specific purposes.

According to analyses of our findings, the flipped classroom method would be suitable for 63 % of our students to be used during all period of their university studies and 37 % of them would appreciate it only occasionally. 26 % of respondents perceived the prior-to-class homework as a burden, but for 74 % of them it did not pose any problem.

We also aimed to find out student's preference of particular form of prior-to-class preparation. Our respondents were asked to put the following forms into the order according to their preferences:

- Watching a video
- Reading a text
- Listening to recording
- Theoretical studying of grammar
- Doing practical exercises
- Learning vocabulary from a list

Based on the facts we can state that for 67 % of students *watching a video* is the most preferable way of prior-to-class preparation and on the other hand *theoretical studying of grammar* appeared to be the least popular idea for 64 % of them. When applying a flipped classroom model in our teaching, we decided for the form of watching videos at home as it is connected with many benefits (the opportunity to pause and re-watch it as many times as needed, to use captions, to listen to different accents, to replay it whenever it is necessary, to get the idea about future lesson in advance, etc.)

Data collected through two open-ended questions were subjected to thematic categorization. Examples of excerpts are provided from students' comments to illustrate their attitudes towards the applied method.

Benefits:

- *I understand the teacher better.*
- *Video with English subtitles gives me an opportunity to practice listening and reading.*
- *It is like having a teacher at home. We can see and listen to him/her at the same time.*
- *Without prior-to-class homework, I would be lost during the lesson.*
- *We can get information about next unit topic so that we can know what we will talk about next lesson.*
- *Home preparation forces us to think more, analyse the subject and become prepared to practise it.*
- *It is good to be aware of the subject beforehand.*

Possible limitations:

- *Sometimes it is time-consuming.*
- *An idea about future lesson in advance does not give me an opportunity to experience new unexpected situations in class.*

Finally, according to all received data, it can be concluded that students responded to the flipped structure positively, they prefer it to traditional way in learning-teaching process of foreign languages and the video watched prior-to-class presents the most popular way of home preparation.

Conclusion

Flipped classroom method presents a kind of blended learning that can provide several mentioned benefits in ESP teaching but the success of this model also depends on the teacher applying it. Teachers wanting to flip their classrooms are recommended to know the theory first and they should also bear in mind that flipped learning is not simply adding a prior-to-class homework outside the classroom. Choosing appropriate, challenging and engaging activities for classroom time and having a constant connection with students could increase the success of an applied method. The role of the teacher in this model is to guide the students to become more responsible, engaged and active in teaching-learning process. Flipped classroom approach also contributes to development of students' strategies for efficient and deep learning techniques, their knowledge and abilities to take responsibility for their own learning of foreign language.

References

1. Lage, M. J., Platt, G. J., & Treglia, M.: Inverting the classroom: A gateway to creating an inclusive learning environment. The Journal of Economic Education, 31(1), 30–43, 2000.

2. Bergmann, J., & Sams, A.: Flip your classroom: Reach every student in every. Eugene, OR: ISTE, 2012.

3. Brame, C.: Flipping the classroom. Vanderbilt University Center for Teaching. 2013. Retrieved from http://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/flipping-the-classroom/.

4. Alsowat, H.: An EFL Flipped Classroom Teaching Model: Effects on English Language Higher-order Thinking Skills, Student Engagement and Satisfaction. Journal of Education and Practice 7(9), 108–112, 2016.

5. Lei L.: Discussion on the Medical English Teaching Based on Flipped Classroom, in: Advances in Computer Science Research (ACSR), volume 73, 7th International Conference on Education, Management, Information and Computer Science (ICEMC 2017), Atlantis Press, 813–817, 2017.

6. Başal, A.: The implementation of a flipped classroom in foreign language teaching. In: Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE October 2015, Volume: 16 Number: 4 Article 3, 2015.

7. Cotton, D., Falvey, D., Kent, S.: Market Leader Intermediate (Business English Course Book, 3rd edition), Pearson Education Limited, 2010.

Marjorie Rosenberg, MFA

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Communicative Business English Activities

Marjorie Rosenberg, MFA

Express Publishing

Abstract

The premise of this paper is to point out that many of the methods used in the teaching of general English can be carried over into the business English classroom. Although the lexis is specialised and the reasons for learning English may be very different, a number of ideas can be transported in order to create a fun and motivating atmosphere. Activities can be used in both cases to encourage active participation, reinforce and consolidate grammar rules and vocabulary as well as to build communication skills and fluency. A variety of activity types which are designed to appeal to different learners can help the business English instructor liven up lessons and aid the learners in their quest to achieve higher command of the language while keeping in mind the special aspects of the business world and the importance of communication within it. In addition, activities may mirror the business world as they require critical thinking skills, cooperation and team work, skills which business people find are becoming more and more important in business today.

What is special about business English?

Although the basic language and methodology is not far removed from general English, business English does has certain aspects which sets it apart. Communication in business is often task-related (you need to get something done), goal-oriented (you need to accomplish something), purposeful (there is a reason for what you do), relationship-building (register and soft skills have to be considered) and culturally sensitive (it is necessary to understand and accept that people around the world behave differently). All of this is going on in the background as learners also work on acquiring specific interactive soft skills which they may have somewhat less of an impact in everyday situations. These include turn-taking, actively listening and responding to others, asking for and giving opinions, speculating and hypothesizing, agreeing and disagreeing, clarifying and reaching consensus. Business skills include greeting guests, negotiating, presenting, chairing or taking part in meetings, leading teams and companies, time management, telephoning, sales, marketing, and networking to name a few.

What makes activities work?

In order for activities to be effective they need to encourage maximum learner input and output and have specific goals. Characteristics of these activities include relevance, adaptability to different groups and situations, as well as team work and social involvement. An added benefit of these activities are the soft skills which arise from working on them. Due to their game-like aspects they are also engaging for the learner. Business English learners have similar fears to those in general English classes, however, they may have a stronger investment in getting it right. All learners are afraid of making mistakes, lacking necessary vocabulary, using incorrect pronunciation and not knowing how to use complicated structures. However, in business these problems can lead to larger ones; namely not getting their message across in a business situation, losing a deal, being at a disadvantage, or using the wrong register and damaging a business relationship. Therefore, the stakes may be higher for those in business English classes and giving learners the chance to

experiment through activities and games can relieve some of the pressure they feel in mastering the language. A number of business skills as well as soft skills can be taught by using activities as they give the learners the chance to practice in safe situations. Holding a meeting in class as preparation for one they will be attending can help the learner to gain confidence and language they may need in the future. Practicing everyday activities such as greeting guests, making small talk, telephoning and networking can certainly be done in class. The vocabulary necessary to carry out marketing campaigns, understand time management and leadership types can also be taught in the classroom. What is necessary is to find the ways and means to make these lessons interesting and memorable so that the learners leave the classroom with new knowledge they can put into practice.

Who are our learners?

Business English can incorporate a large body of diverse people. Many of our learners work in companies and may need English on a daily basis, when they travel or hold teleconferences. Some are very comfortable using basic English and need work on specialised vocabulary. Others haven't been confronted with English since they were at school and may be nervous about showing a lack of knowledge, especially if they hold fairly high positions in the company. Other learners may be job seekers who didn't need English in their last position but now find that it is often expected or asked for at job interviews. Students at universities, commercial high schools and vocational schools also need English for their future careers. This leaves us with the question of exactly what to teach as business English encompasses such a large range of topics and it is not always easy to find material for each of these situations.

Lexical areas

Communicative Business English Activities (Express Publishing 2018) is a supplemental resource which concentrates on certain areas of lexis using a communicative approach. There are activities with very basic areas of language which are used in the office and include daily activities and office supplies. Although this may seem to be of a low level, very often learners who have been seconded to another country know the advanced vocabulary in their fields but not the basic vocabulary needed to work abroad. Other areas include business jobs, language for job applications and job advertisements, telephoning, social English, and business correspondence. The materials are meant to be flexible meaning they can be used in different ways with different levels of learners. There is also emphasis on the subtleties of formal and neutral or informal language in correspondence which can be carried over into the area of speaking as well. More specific terminology is addressed in lexical groups which include descriptions of departments in a company and a factory, descriptions of products including those for consumers and capital goods, language for buying and selling, marketing and trends. Soft skills are covered by a variety of activities focusing on language for meetings, presentations and cross-cultural awareness.

Learner preferences

As I strongly believe that learners learn in different ways, these activities are also designed to appeal to different learner types. Most classrooms will consist of a mixture of visual, auditory, kinaeathetic emotional and kinaesthetic motoric learners as well as those who tend to be more global or more analytic or those who find themselves in the middle of the scale. Depending on the particular learner preference, learners will process, store and recall information in different ways. They will also enjoy and learn more from certain activities than from others. Although it can be helpful to give learners surveys to determine their styles, it is also possible to simply use a mix of activities in order to reach all the learners. By using activities which make use of pictures, words or

movement or require learners to speak in pairs or in groups as well as activities which are better done by thinking and reflecting can help us to reach learners of all types. This in turn can create a supportive and energetic atmosphere in the classroom. Real learning takes place when we address our learners' needs and preferences and helps to motivate them to develop a sense of accountability and to be responsible for their own learning. In order to do this, they also need to be involved in the learning process and understand what they need to do to learn. By recognising our learners as individuals and helping them to reach their goals we can provide a classroom atmosphere which encourages a learning state. As Pat Burke Guild and Stephen Garger have said 'it is possible to strive for uniform outcomes but to intentionally diversify the means for achieving them.'[1] Once we begin to experiment with a variety of activities and methods (many of which are commonplace in general English), we find that this inclusive style of teaching reaches a larger number of learners. We often hear about diversity when discussing classrooms and learners although many educational institutions strive for uniformity. " 'Teaching to the test' is only one example of this trend, while 'teaching to the learner' would be a better motto." [2] The advantage of supplementary and flexible materials is that they can be easily integrated into lessons to allow the risk-taking and practice necessary for language acquisition. Learners can experiment, try things out and in general, have fun in the classroom, another very strong motivating factor.

The digital element

Activities are wonderful in the classroom and often incentivise learners to speak, try out language and learn new lexis and grammar. The question remains, what happens when they leave the classroom. For this reason, an extra digital component is being developed for *Communicative Business English Activities* which will let the learners continue to practice specific areas at home. Repetition is a vital factor in language learning and this extra element should encourage learner autonomy, a feeling of independence and a chance to steer individual learning paths. This extra element should help learners become more confident and note their own progress while continuing to enjoy the act of learning a new language.

Conclusion

As teachers often teach in the style in which they learn best, this can also be seen as a learning experience for those of us at the front of the class. Instructors can also take the surveys offered in this book and compare their results to those of their students. In addition or alternatively, they can observe the learners doing activities and how they go about carrying out their tasks. The way learners organise themselves and the groups they work in give us a number of clues as to their preferred style. However, the flexibility built into the activities also means that learners and teachers may find new ways to work with the materials and may also find that some suit their purposes more than others. This is exactly why this book was written. It grew out of the needs of learners which arose in courses held in a wide variety of companies and is based on methodology developed over years of working in the field of adult education. For these reasons, the materials should be accessible to all and easy to use in a wide range of situations and for a diverse group of learners. They will hopefully help to spice up lessons and encourage learners to take chances with the language and their own learning goals.

1 Guild P B and Garger, S *Marching to Different Drummers* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) 1998

2 Rosenberg M, 'Learning Styles: Learner-Differentiated Approaches and Methods' in *Looking at Learning* Waxman 2011

References

Guild P B and Garger S, *Marching to Different Drummers* ASCD Alexandria 1998

Rosenberg, M *Communicative Business English Activities* Express Publishing Newbury 2018

Rosenberg, M *Spotlight on Learning Styles* Delta Publishing Peaslake 2011

Schröttner, B and Hofer, C *Looking at Learning* Waxman Münster 2011

Fail, fail again or how to raise our students' awareness of the challenges and pitfalls in cross-cultural negotiations

Katharina Groeblinger

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Fail, fail again or how to raise our students' awareness of the challenges and pitfalls in cross-cultural negotiations

Katharina Groeblinger

FH des BFI Wien

Abstract

Without any doubt, cross-cultural negotiation skills have become indispensable in today's international business world. For this reason, it is important to first define the concept of culture and also discuss the role of English as lingua franca. When it comes to the impact of culture, the question arises in which ways culture affects our attitudes, behavior and reactions in cross-cultural negotiations. The aim of this paper is to contribute to the ongoing discussion by outlining the challenges and pitfalls in cross-cultural negotiations. The paper will be concluded by offering some new approaches and strategies that can help to negotiate efficiently and successfully.

Introduction

Cross-cultural negotiation skills have undeniably become indispensable in today's international business world. The question is how we can best prepare our students for the demands of their future jobs in an international business world in which they will have to work and negotiate with people with different cultural backgrounds, nationalities, mother tongues, religions, attitudes, values, etc. For this reason, this paper aims to answer the question of how we can raise our students' awareness of the many ways culture and English as lingua franca can affect cross-cultural negotiations and their outcomes.

After briefly discussing the concept and role of culture and its impact on our behaviour and perception, the role of English as lingua franca, hereafter referred to as ELF, will be discussed because negotiating in a foreign language will most certainly add additional layers of complexity to each cross-cultural negotiation. By studying some of the latest and most significant contributions in this field, this paper aims to contribute to the ongoing discussions by offering new approaches, strategies and perspectives.

The definition and role of culture

What is culture and what role does it play in cross-cultural communication and negotiations? There are seemingly countless definitions of culture but in this context, the definition of Ting-Toomey seems best suited. She defines culture as "a complex frame of reference that consists of patterns of traditions, beliefs, values, norms, symbols, and meanings that are shared to varying degrees by interacting members of a community" (1999: 10). Following this line of thought, the idea of culture as an iceberg comes to mind because only the tip of the iceberg can be seen, while the deeper layers are hidden. Architecture, literature and dress codes are, for example, quite easily observable, whereas the values, beliefs, attitudes, etc. of a culture tend to be far more difficult to understand.

Communicating cross-culturally is doubtlessly more demanding than communicating in a single culture because different cultures tend to have more differences than commonalities when it comes to languages, communication styles, nonverbal communication, persuasion and conflict resolution styles, experiences, practices, etc. (Thomas 2008: 119-137). Hall succinctly states that "the linearity of language and the deep biases and built-in blinders that every culture provides" (1989: 69) represent the most common obstacles when it comes to cross-cultural understanding. Ting-Toomey interestingly describes this predicament as follows: "Culture is like a pair of sunglasses. It shields us from external harshness and offers us some measure of safety and comfort. It also blocks us from seeing clearly through our tinted lenses because of that same protectiveness." (1999: 14).

When it comes to cross-cultural communication, understanding or rather trying to understand your counterpart's cultural background is an essential part during the preparation phase. Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions such as individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity can be used to explain the important differences between cultures (Lewicki/Saunders/Barry 2015: 486-488/Thomas 2008: 141-144). In addition to that, the work of Edwin Hall has also been very helpful when it comes to cultural values. He, for example, differentiated between high- and low-context and discussed different perceptions of time and space.

But is culture to only key to understanding? Although culture is a group-level phenomenon, "it [does not] mean that every member of a culture will share those characteristics equally, and it is very difficult to predict an individual's behaviour on the basis of cultural differences" (Lewicki/Saunders/Barry 2015: 479-480). In this context, it needs to be pointed out that there is

significant within-culture variation. For this reason, individual and situational factors also need to be taken into account. According to Hall, culture may be a significant piece of the puzzle but it is by far not the only piece. In fact, he states that "[…] if one is to really understand a given behaviour […], one must know the entire history of the individual." (1989: 69) Last but not least, he draws the readers' attention to the fact that understanding a foreign culture requires understanding their own cultures. Nevertheless, fully understanding your counterpart's personality is not realistic because "the complexity is too great and there is not the time to constantly take things apart and examine them" (Hall 1989: 69).

English as lingua franca

It is a given that English has become a global language and has also achieved a global status (Crystal: 7-9). Without any doubt, English can therefore be regarded as the lingua franca of international business. In fact, it is often "the bridge language" (Thomas 2008: 120) when people with different mother tongues meet to do business. But what happens when native speakers of English negotiate with non-native speakers?

Indeed, the use of ELF has various implications for native and non-native speakers of English. It can, for example, be argued that non-native speakers tend to find themselves at a disadvantage and that cross-cultural negotiations are therefore more demanding for them. Crystal is highly aware of the risks and dangers of ELF in general and the possibility of manipulation in particular (2015: 15). On the other hand, native speakers of English in a cross-language interaction also have to adjust their speech, commonly referred to as "foreigner speak" (Thomas 2008: 121), to the foreign language skills of their counterparts. What is easily overlooked is the fact that even between native-speakers of English, "culturally based conventions [can] create differences" (Thomas 2008: 120). A good example would be the differences between British and American English. Simply put, cross-language communication can be challenging for the non-native speaker as well as for the native speaker of English.

Cross-cultural negotiations

All negotiations no matter whether they are same-culture or cross-cultural negotiations, share some common characteristics (Thomas 2008: 137). There are, for instance, at least two parties involved and the parties usually have conflicting positions or interests and set out to reach an agreement. Although most internationally operating negotiators would probably agree on the above-mentioned characteristics, it is nevertheless important to point out that most literature on cross-cultural negotiations has been written by Western experts and practitioners, neglecting the fact that "even the very act of negotiating can be an alien concept to other cultures" (Browaeys/Price 2008: 273).

Although the possible amount of within-culture variation must not be underestimated, cross-cultural negotiations are still far more complex and complicated (Lewicki/Saunders/Barry 2015: 479). Thomas succinctly argues that "[c]ommunication across cultures presents additional opportunities for messages to be misunderstood because of lack of common grounding" (2008: 144). The bad news is that due to the complexity of the topic, there is not one model or rulebook which can explain each cross-cultural negotiation situation or misunderstanding. The good news is that there are some guidelines which may offer some orientation.

Which cultural differences are likely to have an impact on cross-cultural negotiations? Lewicki/Saunders/Barry (2015: 491-495) summarize ten influential factors such as protocol, informal/formal communication, time sensitivity, risk propensity, collectivism/individualism, emotionalism, selection of negotiators (experts versus trusted friends), negotiation opportunity (distributive versus integrative) and the definition of negotiations (contract versus relationship).

If we do not know a culture (well enough), how can we know the implicit and explicit rules of negotiations? How can we even know in which situations it is appropriate to negotiate? Malhotra and Bazerman (2008: 293-294) argue that the first step always needs to be preparation. It is paramount to learn as much as possible about the target culture and how negotiations are conducted in this particular culture. When in doubt, it is advisable to ask experts or talk to people who are familiar with the culture. "[T]aking a cultural bridge – someone who is from the other culture, has a foot in both cultures, or, at the very least, knows the other culture intimately – to the negotiating table will give you a head start." (Meyer 2015: 79) In short, the better you are prepared, the more likely it is that your negotiation will be successful.

One wide-spread myth of (cross-cultural) negotiations is that extensive preparation and good intentions tend to equal a successful outcome. Regrettably, this is far from the truth because even though components such as good preparation, experience and open-mindedness are the prerequisites and indicators of successful negotiations, there are no guarantees, especially if the complexity of cross-cultural negotiations is taken into account.

In fact, countless books and publications focus on the challenges and pitfalls in cross-cultural negotiations. Dawson (2011: 213-246), for example, offers examples of the characteristics of American, French, German, Chinese, Middle Eastern and Russian negotiators. He also attempts to summarize dividing factors such as direct or indirect communication, languages or the importance of relationships. Although these brief summaries may be a good starting point when preparing for negotiations, it needs to be mentioned that more thorough research would be needed to succeed when negotiating cross-culturally. In addition to that, it is important not to fall prey to clichés and stereotypes.

The question arises what else can be done to successfully negotiate across cultures and to avoid certain challenges and the most common mistakes. In cross-cultural negotiations, negotiators tend to lack the contextual understanding to interpret the counterpart's statements, reactions, signals, body language, etc. accurately (Meyer 2015: 76). Meyer, who has done extensive research in this field, has therefore identified five rules for cross-cultural negotiations. "The trick […] is to be aware of key negotiation signals and to adjust both your perceptions and your actions in order to get the best results." (Meyer 2015: 76)

First, Meyer (2015: 76) advises each negotiator to adapt their way of expressing disagreement. While a simple sentence such as "I totally disagree." may be acceptable in one culture, it can easily be seen as offensive in another. It is therefore recommendable to listen for so-called upgraders and downgraders. Examples for upgraders are words such as "completely" or "absolutely" and they are commonly used to emphasize disagreement. On the other hand, downgraders such as "a little bit" or "maybe" are used to weaken disagreement. Simply put, the trick is to understand the use of upgraders and downgraders within a certain culture. "What gets you to 'yes' in one culture gets you to 'no' in another." (Meyer 2015: 76)

Second, it is paramount to understand the role of emotions. In some cultures such as Germany or the Netherlands, expressing emotions is seen as normal and appropriate but in other cultures it rather tends to be equivalent to unprofessionalism (Meyer 2015: 76-77). As a consequence, it is important to research the role and use of emotions and act accordingly.

Until recently, few researchers have paid attention to this field of study but Wood Brooks has investigated in how far specific emotions such as anger, sadness, anxiety and disappointment can affect the way negotiators reach agreements or resolve conflicts. "Negotiators typically focus on strategy, tactics, offers, and counteroffers and [do not] pay enough attention to how emotions affect what happens at the bargaining table." (Wood Brooks 2015: 59) She therefore argues that apart

from the substance and the process, each negotiator must also prepare an emotional strategy, especially if the negotiation is likely to be challenging. "[Good] negotiators need to develop a poker face – not one that remains expressionless, always hiding true feelings, but one that displays the right emotions at the right time." (Wood Brooks 2015: 64)

Third, the matter of building trust is often underestimated. While cognitive trust is based on somebody's skills and accomplishments, affective trust relies entirely on feelings and friendship. Building an affective connection by, for example, sharing meals, singing karaoke and showing genuine interest is the prerequisite for a deal (Meyer 2015: 78). Good examples in this context would be Southeast Asia or Africa. Additionally, certain cultures such as the United States strictly separate both forms of trust, whereas others such as China connect them.

Fourth, asking yes-or-no questions needs to be avoided by all means because in certain cultures "yes" could mean "no" and in other cultures "no" could simply imply that further suggestions are welcome. For this reason, open questions are to be preferred because they invite the counterpart to explain a situation from their perspective. Furthermore, experienced negotiators also pay attention to the tone of voice, body language and emotions.

Fifth and finally, Meyer (2015: 80) explains that there are different perspectives when it comes to putting agreements in writing. In some cultures such as the United States and Germany, written contracts are a must and legally binding. In other more relationship-oriented cultures such as Nigeria, signing a contract is seen as a lack of trust. In addition, contracts may not even be legally binding because the legal system in general tends to be less reliable. Another important difference is that in certain cultures such as Indonesia or China where the business environment is constantly changing and developing, contracts are not regarded as fixed but may change as the situation changes. "So the fifth and final rule for negotiating internationally is to proceed cautiously with the contract. […] When negotiating in emerging markets, remember that everything in these countries is dynamic, and no deal is ever really 100% final." (Meyer 2015: 80)

In addition to the five rules of Meyer, Lum (2011: 182-184) lists various strategies that could help to close the cultural gap between negotiators. Apart from the preparation phase, which has already been discussed, it is essential that each negotiator acknowledges that their perception and knowledge are limited. For this reason, it is important to ask questions, repeatedly check understanding, especially among non-native speakers, and summarize the results on a regular basis. It is also recommendable to share perceptions, explain intentions and the impact the perceptions or statements of one party may have on the other. Listening attentively and being willing to give the other party the benefit of the doubt is also advisable. Finally yet importantly, Lum argues that each negotiator must also attempt to see their own culture as difficult. "Your own culture is often invisible to you but plainly visible to others." (Lum 2011: 184)

When it comes to (cross-cultural) negotiations, many negotiators fail because they focus on the substance and neglect discussing the process before the beginning of the actual negotiation. "Substance is the terms that make up the final agreement. Process is how you will get from where you are today to that agreement." (Malhotra 2015: 68) Although it is obvious that not all questions can or should be answered in advance to avoid misunderstandings and miscommunication, Malhotra suggests reaching as much clarity as possible regarding the process. He, for example, advises negotiators to "normalize the process" (Malhotra 2015: 69) by helping the other party to understand what is normal or to be expected in a specific situation or culture. Otherwise, one party may jump to false conclusions or may question the intentions or professionalism of the other party. This may lead to a communication breakdown or even to the end of the negotiation.

It goes without saying that each individual has a unique outlook on the world. When it comes to cross-cultural negotiations, misunderstandings and miscommunication are even more likely because each negotiator brings their own attitudes, beliefs, experiences, values, etc. to the negotiation table. Since communicating and negotiating cross-culturally entails being able to see the world or a given situation through the eyes of the other party, Lum suggests employing the lessons of cross-cultural negotiations to all negotiations. "To treat all negotiations as cross-cultural is to question your own assumptions, enhance communication, and discover the cultural gaps that need to be filled in with understanding, empathy, and respect as you build an agreement." (Lum 2011: 181)

It seems that at least until recently, little attention has been paid to the question in how far a negotiator should try to adapt to the negotiation style and cultural values of their counterpart in a cross-cultural negotiation. "Is the maxim 'When in Rome, do as the Romans do' appropriate?" (Browaeys/Price 2008: 279) For various reasons, this question is best negated. First, it is highly unlikely that anybody can fully adapt to another culture in an authentic way and even behaving like Romans will not make anybody Roman. Second, it is questionable whether a Roman will act like a Roman when negotiating with non-Romans. As previously mentioned, there is no one-size-fits-all approach but one of the best ways to approach such a situation would probably be to learn as much as possible about the other culture, adapt the behaviour to a certain extent to show respect and meet the other party halfway. "The take-home message in cross-cultural negotiating is to be honest, open, and sensitive. The more you truly engage the other party, the more you will see and understand your differences and commonalities, and the better able you will be to work together toward a constructive, mutually satisfying solution." (Lum 2011: 184)

Conclusion

Despite the fact that some publications may promise a one-size-fits-all approach, there is no simple rulebook for successful cross-cultural negotiations. Due to the complexity of the topic, politics, different personality types and rapidly changing business environments, there never will be. The aim of this paper was to make the readers aware of the most common mistakes and pitfalls in (cross-cultural) negotiations. Furthermore, it intended to provide them with some new approaches, strategies and perceptions and to also offer some experts' advice and recommendations to help them negotiate across cultures. In conclusion, it can be argued that some of the most important ingredients of successful (cross-cultural) negotiations are extensive research, preparation, experience, open-mindedness, tolerance, resilience and, maybe most importantly, practice and sufficient reflection.

References

Browaeys, Marie-Joelle/Price, Roger (2008). Understanding cross-cultural management. Essex: Pearson.

Crystal, David (2015). English as a Global Language. Second Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dawson, Roger (2011). Secrets of power negotiating. Updated for the 21st century. Inside secrets from a master negotiator. Pompton Plains: The Career Press.

Hall, Edward T (1989). Beyond culture. New York: Anchor Books Editions.

Lewicki, Roy J./Saunders, David M./ Barry, Bruce (2015). Negotiation. Seventh edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Lum, Grande (2011). The Negotiation Fieldbook. Simple strategies to help you negotiate everything. Revised and expanded second edition. New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Malhotra, Deepak (2015). Control the negotiation before it begins. *Harvard Business Review*, 12/2015, 66-72.

Malhotra, Deepak/Bazerman, Max H. (2008). Negotiation genius. How to overcome obstacles and achieve brilliant results at the bargaining table and beyond. New York: Bantam Books.

Meyer, Erin (2015). Getting to Si, Ja, Oui, Hai, and Da. How to negotiate across cultures. *Harvard Business Review*, 12/2015, 74 – 80.

Thomas, David C. (2008). Cross-Cultural Management. Essential concepts. Second edition. London: Sage Publications.

Ting-Toomey, Stella (1999). Communicating across cultures. New York: The Guilford Press.

Wood Brooks, Alison (2015). Emotion and the Art of Negotiation. How to use your feelings to your advantage. *Harvard Business Review,* 12/2015, 56-64.

Finding your students' strengths: The job interview

Dr. Candy Fresacher

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Finding your students' strengths: The job interview

Dr. Candy Fresacher

Chair, TEA: Teachers of English in Austria

Abstract

The job interview process allows room for discussing students' strengths. Giving the students a chance to articulate what they do well is a valuable source of confidence for the student and developing that further by looking at the VIA strengths can lead students to unexpected discoveries about what they do well. These discoveries are important as basic building blocks to creating an excellent curriculum vitae, letter of application and good performance at a job interview. The process of moving from one activity to the other based on these strengths involves developing the c.v., then the letter of application and then a role play of a job interview. Later student strengths can be used for maximum effectiveness in the classroom.

Introduction

Creating a curriculum vitae or resume is something most students will need to do once they have finished their schooling and are looking for a position in the business world. It could even be that they need to write something in order to get into a college or university of their choice. Therefore it is our duty as teachers of English, especially in a business studies environment, to train students in how to write a letter of application, curriculum vitae or résumé and some interviewing techniques in order for them to get the job of their choice. It could be that your class is the only one where they do this training; if not, then it is a good exercise in translating German texts of this information into English and maybe even improving them for international applications.

Discovering Strengths

Students are not asked often enough – or at all – about what they do well. So before beginning the lessons on the process of finding a job, the first step is to brainstorm what strengths the students have. Students should be in pairs and then tell each other what they do well, what they feel are their strengths. It is also necessary to go over what is involved in active listening. What is the correct body language: nodding, leaning into the conversation, eye contact. What are non-verbal communication methods: adding hum, yes, aha to what is being heard. And finally, what are verbal signals of active listening: asking for feedback, asking follow-up questions, asking for clarification.

After they have been given about 10-15 minutes to do this, I then ask students to tell me some of the strengths they have heard. Students are hesitant to talk about their own strengths but do well talking about the strengths of another. I write these on the board or flip chart and they usually include some of the following: organized, friendly, adaptable, flexible, loyal, stress resistant, sociable, communicative, creative, punctual, motivated, a good team player, a good leader, … and many more. If you feel that some are missing, it would be good at this point to add them on the board. This gives the students a good list of qualities in English they might reconsider as their own strengths since perhaps earlier they did not know the English descriptors. At this point I usually explain to the class how glad I am to see so many strengths in just one classroom.

After that, though, I tell them about the VIA Strengths (Value in Action) and the test that can be taken for free at: www.authentichappiness.sas.upenn.edu. I sometimes give them a shortened version of the test that has 24 questions reflecting the 24 character strengths. These characteristics include strengths that are not so often considered by students and are: curiosity, open-mindedness, bravery, kindness, fairness, being humorous, spiritual, wise, persistent, honest, enthusiastic, having a love of learning, creative, loving, having social skills, being good at teamwork, leadership, forgiveness, modesty, discretion, self-control, optimism, gratitude and an appreciation of beauty.

The Value in Action strengths were put together by C. Peterson and M. Seligman and they asked a group of researchers to think about what are character strengths and virtues that have been identified by other cultures through time. They divided all these characteristics into six core characteristics and 24 strengths. To read more about the research and reliability of these strengths please see: www.viacharacter.org/www/ or https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/what-matters-most/201405/myers-briggs-or-survey-character-strengths.

All of the work done in the classroom with strengths is a pre-activity to writing a letter of application. In the center of the letter of application, a student should point out the strengths that will lead the reader to examine the attached c.v. When a student is writing the c.v., the strengths can be emphasized in the work descriptions used. When the c.v. leads to a job interview, the students then know their strengths and can explain why they are the best for the position. So this basic work on finding strengths builds up to a good letter of application, c.v. and job interview.

Curriculum Vitae

While the Letter of Application is the document that a Human Resources officer will look at first, I start by having students write their c.v. The EU form for a c.v. can be found here: https://europass.cedefop.europa.eu/en/documents/curriculum-vitae/templates-instructions, but the usual blocks of information on any c.v. include: personal data, educational background, work experiences, skills, hobbies, and references. The question of whether your students should include a picture or not is a personal choice they can make.

Sometimes a motivational statement can also be included. I prefer students to explain in full sentences something about the work they have done as it shows the reader the language talents of the applicant as well as gives the reader a better idea of the type of work completed. For example, a student could explain: "invoicing of hotels throughout Europe." Or s/he could say, "I was responsible for the invoicing of $4 million in hotel bills throughout Europe." One says a lot more about the responsibilities held than the other. Therefore, the homework for the students is the basic frame, but in class I work with them on the structure of their responsibilities in the positions they have already had. If they have not worked before then perhaps they have had jobs such as babysitting or helping around the house: both require patience and a sense of responsibility.

Letter of Application

In the next session the students have completed the c.v. and the work starts on the letter of application. Generally this document has three parts: How I found out about the position, why I am qualified, and when can we meet to discuss details. The first and third parts have rather standard language. It is the middle paragraph that I again work with students on since this is the paragraph that will tell the reader why they are best for the company. This part of the letter of application should be tailored to the position and company to which the applicant is applying. Here again, language used may be the reason the reader continues to look then at the c.v. or not. The students' homework is then to complete the letter of application on their own. In the rest of the class, interviews are discussed. Students may have had interviews and can talk about the types of questions asked, you can also prepare a list of questions that might be asked and hand it out to the class afterwards (see Appendix A). Then the class is divided into two or three groups. Each group tries to come up with a set of questions to ask in preparation for a job interview of people wanting an entry level position. An advertisement should be prepared before that gives everyone an idea of the skills required for the job applied for (see Appendix B).

The Job Interview

In the third session the interview process continues. Each group meets again to discuss what questions will lead them to finding out which candidate would be best for the job. Then one group will interview the second group. If there are too many students in the classroom a third group will be observers. They will take notes on the panel that asks questions and also on how each candidate presents him/herself. This will include aspects which will have to do with body language, confidence, ability to answer questions, also in English, looking for the details that might either get the candidate accepted or rejected.

All members of the one group go outside of the classroom with only one candidate interviewed at a time (5 minutes) by the panel of interviewers made up of the other group

(here each member of the panel must ask at least one question). Then the interviewing group has a chance to discuss the candidates (about 5-10 minutes) and decide on one candidate that gets the job. The interviewers must bring in all members of the other group to explain to the whole group who gets the job and why. I tell each panel it is important to mention that all the candidates were good possibilities, but there is only one job available. The purpose of this exercise is not to bring up weaknesses, but to look at the strengths of the students. The groups change places and the people who were interviewed become the interviewers and the others will be interviewed.

Afterwards, the third group – or everyone if there is no third group – talks about what they observed, felt or experienced while doing/seeing the interviewing from both sides. Hopefully this experience will give them more preparation for a real interview.

Conclusion

In addition to the value of having students learn more about how to apply for a job, I believe it is invaluable for students to have a chance to talk about what they do well and actually are "required" to do this. Too often we only look at the weaknesses of students in order to help them better their results. However, looking at and using students' strengths can empower them and us to make for a better classroom. I recently gave the 24 question test to a class in academic writing and it turned out most had humor high on their list of strengths – so we tried to use humor every time we met in order to make our learning goals more achievable. I would like to hear how your use of these strengths works in your classrooms and would be happy to receive feedback at: fresacher.c@gmail.com.

Appendix A

Just a few FAQs during interviews:

1. What are your long / short term goals and objectives? When did you establish these goals and how are you preparing yourself to achieve them? What do you see yourself doing in five years?
2. Why did you choose the career for which you are preparing?
3. Which is more important to you, the money or the job?
4. What do you consider to be your greatest strengths and weaknesses?
5. What motivates you to put forth your greatest effort?
6. How do you determine or evaluate success? What do you think it takes to be successful in a company like ours?
7. What two/three accomplishments have given you the most satisfaction? Why?

8. In what kind of work environment are you most comfortable? How do you work under pressure? Do you need pressure to work?
9. Are you willing to relocate? Do you have a geographical preference?
10. What have you learned from your mistakes? What major problem have you encountered and how did you deal with it?
11. What was the biggest problem you faced in your last job and how did you solve it?
12. What is your worst nightmare?
13. What criteria are you using to evaluate the company for which you hope to work?
14. What two or three things are most important to you in your job?
15. Do you think your grades are a good indication of your academic achievement?
16. How would your co-workers describe you? What adjective characterizes you best?
17. In what ways would you change this company?
18. How is your health? Do you smoke? How often were you absent from your last job?

Appendix B

THE INTERVIEW

You are responding to the following:
Job Advertisement

We are seeking a new team member to work in an entry level position of our large global ad agency situated here in Vienna.

Candidate must be competent in English and German languages, have good overall general knowledge, be creative and flexible and have the ability to work well within a team as well as work independently.

Remuneration: Excellent starting salary with good possibilities for promotion when applicant can work well without direction. Fringe benefits.

Google classroom as an effective tool in ESP classes

Merita Ismaili

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Google classroom as an effective tool in ESP classes

Merita Ismaili

South East European University

Abstract

In recent years, technology offers modern educational tools for learning English as a foreign language. This paper will reveal the effects of using Google classroom as an E-learning tool on teaching EFL among ESP students. Google Classroom was used to facilitate communication between the teacher and students and restructure learning workflow. E-learning technologies offer learners control over content, learning sequence, pace of learning, time, and often media, allowing them to tailor their experiences to meet their personal learning objectives (Jethro, Grace& Thomas 2012). One of the biggest advantages of Google classroom is that it is fully integrated with all other Google apps, thus, helping students and teachers communicate with each other instantaneously without having to hop through various obstacles to submit work.It facilitates paperless communication and allows teachers to create classes, post assignments, organize folders, and view work in real-time.

Introduction

The E-Learning tool Google classroom is used in the South East European University (SEEU) especially in teaching English for ESP. This paper will reveal how the E-Learning Google classroom improves students' language skills and activate their independent learning.

The different activities and resources that are provided by E-learning have been described with an analysis of how they can be used to develop EFL students' language proficiency and independent learning. In this aspect, Google classroom helps students' organization by putting all assignments and work in one safe place. It also helps teachers creating, copying, assigning, supervising, collecting, grading and returning work to students which usually requires a great deal of time and steps. Google Classroom simplifies these tasks by combining, eliminating, or organizing them.

This tool is easy to use as it merely requires teachers and students to learn how to post information and documents and how to locate the information. The SEEU already has access to Google Classroom so, teachers can easily login in and invite students to join the group and follow the activities. Most of students had already experienced using other Google apps, like Docs or Spreadsheets, so they are set for using Google Classroom.

Google classroom and language teaching

E-Learning was defined by many researchers as a learning process created by interaction with digitally delivered content. It is considered as a shift from traditional education to flexible, individual, self-organized, collaborative learning based on a community of learners and teachers. Horton (2006) believes that e-learning allows the building up of "learning experiences of information and computer technology". "It is important to note that all definitions agree to the fact that e-learning involves using computer technology to facilitate and enhance learning. E-

Learning in this paper refers to Google classroom which is used by SEEU to enhance teaching and learning and to encourage students' autonomous learning. Among the main features of e-learning platforms we can refer to the flexibility, accessibility, focusing on the student, authencity of resources, interactivity and enhancement of the student. The courses that are developed on the web have the advantage of providing the content for students anywhere in the world, faster than the other conventional methods distance education. (Lopez,2011)
Google classroom is free open source software that acquires learners to be active participants and create their own systems of knowledge using available sources of information.
Google classroom is a tool not a resource. It provides the functionalities but lacks content (Elias, 2010). Google classroom gives the teacher the freedom to combine resources and interactive activities useful for language input, practice and production. The idea of customization is especially appealing to teachers of ESP, as the needs of these groups are not easily satisfied by using a unified text-book (Stefanowicz-Kocoł, 2015).
In most of the cases, teachers face the problem with students' readiness for autonomous learning. This is due to the students' educational background (secondary school); it is unlikely that they are prepared for independent learning. Alternatively, it is never too late to start developing this important capacity and it has been claimed that online learning can be utilized as a tool for the development of learner autonomy (Warschauer, 2000)

Participants

The participants in this study are thirty-six SEEU undergraduate students, between the ages of 18-25, male and female, all in the multicultural classroom setting. Their level of proficiency is upper intermediate to advanced level. They study LAW and take English for Specific Purposes classes as mandatory courses.

Method

In this paper we wanted to reveal ESP students' experience of participating in a blended ESP course. The aim of our research was to see whether students were satisfied with using the Google classroom in an ESP context and to learn about their perception of advantages and disadvantages of using Google classroom. Additionally, we asked them about their attitudes towards communication with other students and the teacher using Google classroom.
Study data was collected through student questionnaires and investigate their attitudes toward using Google classroom. The questionnaires were designed in the form of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" with values 1-5 assigned to each alternative. The teacher had posted students questionnaire in Google classroom.
Prior to the questioner, students were given materials on Google classroom namely; the lessons taught previously in the classroom were available online. Additionally, different kinds of assignments and quizzes were available so that the students could practice and prepare for the examination .To encourage students' participation they were informed that they would be awarded points for participation, which will be calculated on their final grades.

Results

When it comes to using Google classroom in an ESP context, most of the students claimed that they liked using Google classroom. Most of them favored the possibility to study when it suits them, then the possibility to choose the learning material .Very small number of students' stated that they did not like studying by means of a computer. On the other hand, some of them stated that they liked it because information was available in one place. Many students stated that having a direct contact with a teacher is very important to them as they can comprehend better. Taking into account the teaching material posted on Google classroom, students were generally satisfied with the material they were provided with .Concerning their opinion on the possible improvement of their knowledge of English almost half of the respondents assumed that their knowledge improved. When it comes to the type of studying, students preferred the combination of the two given options: class-room and through computers. As for using technology in an ESP context, most of students liked it. On the question whether this kind of communication made it easier for them to follow the lectures, about half of the students considered that it did not quite make it easier. Asked for the effectiveness of the discussion forums as a useful tool to improve learners' writing skills in English; most students consider forums as helpful for improving writing skills in the target language. Regarding the question on what kind of device do they use to access Google classroom, where different possibilities were offered to students; many students chose more than one option and the results assert that the most frequently-used device for students, is still the personal computer.

Conclusion

Considering the students' responses it can be argued that digitalization in the classroom has become a necessity: The study revealed that the best option is blended learning. Most respondents pointed at the possibility to choose time and place that suited them as an advantage. On the other hand, the impossibility to have enough face to face contact with a teacher and other colleagues' they counted as a disadvantage .Students' perception was that on side classes seem necessary to motivate the students in a more direct way as well as to structure their learning. Students declared that they are not willing to do some activities by themselves, for example, reading. A large number of students were aware of the importance of the teacher in a learning process.

We can easily observe that incorporating Google classroom into the ESP classroom encourages interaction and boost students' confidence regarding their knowledge of English as well as their independence. In addition, it is likely that they will develop learner autonomy, which may help them learn faster and in more diverse ways.

The Internet has opened the doors to knowledge and the construction of a collective intelligence outside the traditional academic structures. The Google classroom is a tool that offers this combination between learning happening inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, the use of Google classroom should be encouraged in any higher education institution, since the main agents in current higher education are students rather than teachers (Attard et al., 2010). Students need to actively participate in their own process of knowledge construction, and Google classroom enhances this active participation, access and share information. The wide variety of activities and resources on the Google classroom needs to be stimulated in the English language Modules to increase the time that students interact with the language and motivate them to work autonomously and consequently become life-long learners.

References

Attard, Angele, et al. "Student centered learning: An insight into theory and practice." *Partos Timisoara, Bucharest* (2010): 6-15.

Elias, Tanya. "Universal instructional design principles for Moodle." *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning* 11.2 (2010): 110-124.

Horton, W. (2006). E-Learning by Design. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Publishing, Inc.

Jethro, Olojo Oludare, Adewumi Moradeke Grace, and Ajisola Kolawole Thomas. "E-learning and its effects on teaching and learning in a global age." *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences* 2.1 (2012): 203.

Lopes, Ana Paula Ferreira Fernandes. "Teaching with Moodle in higher education." *INTED 2011* (2011).

Stefanowicz-Kocoł, A. "Motivating ESP learners in a hybrid course." *The First International Conference on Teaching English for Specific Purposes*. 2013.

Warschauer, Mark. "The changing global economy and the future of English teaching." *Tesol Quarterly* 34.3 (2000): 511-535.

(Enhancing) Motivation of ESP Students: Analyses of Feedback

Mgr. Zuzana Luckay Mihalčinová, PhD. and Mgr. Alena Tomková

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

(Enhancing) Motivation of ESP Students: Analyses of Feedback

Mgr. Zuzana Luckay Mihalčinová, PhD. and Mgr. Alena Tomková

Technical University of Kosice, Slovakia, Department of Languages

Abstract

The article is primarily devoted to the issue of student motivation. The motivation of ESP students is often connected with the motivation to pass the course requirements in order to complete the ESP course. However, this form of motivation is not sufficient. In order to keep all students motivated positively, teachers should be aware of different motivation possibilities, so that students with different preferences and backgrounds will manage to succeed in their student tasks. Doing so will help students stay engaged, be a part of classroom activities and keep their self-worth while being recognized as fully valued human beings. The first part focuses on the theoretical points of motivation whilst the second part draws on findings obtained from the questionnaire on motivation given to ESP students. The findings and opinions of individual students shall assist ESP teachers to understand their role in motivating their students and being supportive facilitators.

Introduction

People in general and students in particular do comprehend the importance of language learning. We know that by knowing more languages we can communicate, understand and be understood by more people. The old saying goes: How many languages you know that many times you are a person. Or as the Viennese philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein put it *Die Grenzen meiner Sprache bedeuten die Grenzen meiner Welt* translated to English as: The limits of my language are the limits of my universe.

It follows that by learning foreign languages our universe expands. And we know that it does so exponentially. From this argument it would be self-evident that we would want to learn foreign tongues. But it is not always easy to learn.

The importance of the English language is rarely doubted in our times. It has become the global lingua franca. Mostly, students do not need convincing about the importance of learning English because they see and feel its importance in their everyday real and virtual lives. They go online, travel abroad or meet travellers. It is English that we try and use when we meet with speakers of other languages, it serves as a bridge; it is the shared common language. University students are exposed to speakers of other languages on campus because of the presence of visiting scholars and visiting foreign students. Students also travel abroad on foreign exchanges. In virtual space, on social networks and in media, English is the most used language, although arguably in a simplified version which is grammatically incorrect. The common use of simplified English can actually be de-motivating for the acquisition of 'proper' English.

Awareness of the importance of English language does not automatically lead to motivation. The question is how to keep up motivation in order for it to last. Language learning on a higher level is a lengthy and arduous process. Yet it is highly rewarding from the onset. The joy of being understood is undeniable. That alone is motivating.

In order to learn more about motivation in general and our students' attitudes toward ESP we decided to conduct a survey. The survey was conducted by a questionnaire with a focus on student motivation. The first question which is useful to ask ourselves is what the purpose of motivation is. Motivation is the reason why we do something. Reason, as a result of deductive, rational thought, leads us to believe in the *point* of something, hence we do it. Doing something that we do not 'believe' in is difficult. But perhaps, we hope that during the process we start enjoying it and the first successes will motivate us.

In the first part we theorize about the phenomenon of motivation, then we describe and analyse our survey and we discuss the results.

Defining motivation

A crucial part of the educational and learning processes, which cannot be omitted, is student motivation. There is not a single way of learning/teaching which would make all students interested and excited about a particular subject. Every student is unique in their interests and attitudes, just as all humans are. Still, however, in order to develop strategies to foster motivation for students at all levels of performance, which are essential to effective teaching, we first have to understand motivation and the way it works. It is difficult, even impossible, to improve academic achievement of students, unless they are motivated, no matter how good the teacher, curriculum or university is.

Motivation can be defined as a set of factors which create, direct, maintain and target human activity (Zelina – Zelinova, 2000). In fact, it can be seen as a tool for increasing efficiency of student learning activity. Student learning can be motivated by cognitive needs (gaining new knowledge), social needs (social interactions) and performance needs (being able to cope with the tasks) (Bajtoš, 2013, 239).

The term *motivation* is derived from the Latin word *movere*, which means to move, *motive*, that which moves. Therefore it is not only the action of movements itself but the reason for the movements, the *causator* (the latin amply include the agent) of the action. In general, motivation means the set of driving forces which stimulate, prompt, inspire activity. Since it is an inherently animate characteristic, all living things arguably are motivated. For us, humans, it is an inherent characteristic. Motivation is studied by cognitive scientists, behavioural sciences, such as psychology, social psychology and in education amongst others.

Some social psychologists develop incentive theories in which they (e.g. Dickinson, 1995, Sasone and Harakiewicz, 2000) generally recognize two major types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic (internal or inherent) motivation is the desire to do or achieve something because one truly wants to and takes pleasure or sees value in doing so. It is simply the motivation to do something because it is personally rewarding. Extrinsic (external) motivation is the desire to do or achieve something not so much for the enjoyment of the activity itself, but because it will produce a certain result (Ryan and Deci, 2000). It is when external factors are required to motivate people towards doing something.

The difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is spectral rather than a polar distinction; any action can be motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors; and they are spatially and temporally dependent. Motivation can also not be analysed without context. The same

person may be motivated differently in different contexts. Therefore the division into two types of motivation is arguably vague and actually limiting in the analyses and leads to simplification rather deepening of the problems.

Motivation in language learning is specific because it requires temporally extended motivation. Language learning is a lengthy and arduous process. Despite the certainty of outcome it requires immense willpower and effort to continue in language learning. Motivation for language learning consists of millions of 'small' motivations which have to be animated and nudged for years on end. The ability to use the foreign language changes the personality of the learner, we could say *enriches* the human. The process of motivation for language learning is a long term goal pursuit, if we are considering the "delay of gratification" paradigm, or marshmallow test, in the language learning process it has to be applied and reapplied endlessly. In terms of motivation it therefore requires self-regulation because language learning involves organization, planning, self-assessment etc.

Language learning has an outcome expectation so far in the future that it alone can be de-motivating for students. Hence teachers try to come up with methods in which the students get small instant rewards: makes a comprehensible dialogue, produces a tangible outcome, to keep the flame of motivation alive.

Focus on the expectancy of students can enlighten us about the functioning of motivation. According to psychologist Walter Mischel and Aaron L. DeSmet and Ethan Kross "expectancy has a substantial impact on self-regulatory choices and motivation" because, as they go on to explain, "people are likely to choose to perform an action that requires effort if they believe that they can perform an action (they have high self-efficacy expectancy) and expect it to lead to favourable consequences" (298). Therefore students with low self-efficacy expectancy do not believe that they can do it. When asked, some students claim to be incapable of learning English; therefore they do not even try. This can be interestingly linked, to Dweck's research on the influence of stable self and self-ability perception connected to learning. One is not motivated and cannot be motivated so long as they continue believing that they are incapable of it. Those who can and do learn do it because their previous experience has proved that they are capable of learning a language, they expect it to lead to favourable consequences based on experience and belief. In an oversimplified manner we could say that nobody can be taught, one can only learn. In motivation research this is when the autonomy is linked to language learning or specifically ESL.

Scholars of language acquisition and education (e.g. Terry Lamb, Garold Murray, Zoltan Dornnyei) find links between student personalities or identity, self-perception and motivation. We resonate with Ema Ushioda, who in a self-proclaimed manner holds a "something of an 'alternative' perspective" in the language learning motivation field (p. 11) that students have to be considered as fully rounded beings with social context, which psychometric research often overlooks and generalizes over students. Therefore, and as a result, we decided to conduct a questionnaire about students' motivation without expectation of resulting facts about motivation. We are not looking for patterns and rules we could establish about motivation. Rather, a broadening of knowledge about a complex issue, adding to the existing body of literature and widening the horizon toward the role of emotions and autonomy in motivation.

Research subject

When it comes to motivation for language learning, English for specific purposes at universities is a complex issue. This paper focuses on ESP at the Technical University of Košice. The Technical University of Kosice is one of the biggest in the area and students have the opportunity to choose studies at any of nine TUKE faculties, which specialize in technology and art (Faculty of Mining, Ecology, Process Control and Geotechnologies, Faculty of Materials, Metallurgy and Recycling,

Faculty of Mechanical Engineering, Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Informatics, Faculty of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies, Faculty of Arts, and Faculty of Aeronautics). Apart from the Faculty of Arts, and the Faculty of Economics, studies at other faculties are exclusively technical. It is often assumed that students enrolled in courses offered by technical faculties have a tendency to be more interested in professional and technical subjects rather than humanities including learning foreign languages.

Courses of foreign languages, namely English, German and Russian, for students of mentioned faculties are provided by the Department of Languages at TUKE. Considering the offered language courses, educational plans (decided upon by the individual faculties) include courses divided into three types, according to their importance. These are compulsory, compulsory-elective, and optional. An elective course is usually not a required course, but there are a certain number of non-specific electives that are required for certain majors. This results in some students who are required to take the ESP course as a compulsory part of their major, and students who choose the course based on their personal interest in order to improve their language skills optionally.

Methodology

In order to understand motivation of TUKE students for learning English as a second language, we decided to collect and examine responses on students' attitudes towards learning English (in their case, English for specific purposes) and evaluate their motivation to learn by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire has been given to students of various faculties in order to obtain the general view on the situation at the university.

The design of the questionnaire was based on the Likert-type scale where respondents specify their level of agreement or disagreement for a given statement (usually a series of statements). The range of five levels serves very well to capture the intensity of the feelings towards certain matter. This scale also allows relatively fast and straightforward way of obtaining responses with higher level of objectivity.

Aim of questionnaire questions

The original format of the questionnaire given to students was drawn up in the Slovak language; however, for illustration, its English version has been provided in *Appendix – Questionnaire for Students*.

Students were asked 17 questions in total. The questions involve student preferences to work individually and in groups, assessment of ESP importance for students and possible impact on their future success, existence of positive atmosphere and respect in ESP classroom, assessment of usefulness of a given ESP course and its extent, and also individual assessment of one's motivation. In addition, student questionnaires attempted to elicit student answers to questions concerning their satisfaction with the selection of their major and its usefulness for their future career, their enjoyment of learning English, and whether their ESP course at the university is compulsory, compulsory-elective or optional.

Research aims

Conducting research on motivation and looking for general motivational factors can seem useless as the results are thought to be either obvious or too general to draw conclusions from. Still however, well-chosen question can lead to results which can broaden our perspectives on the important topic of motivation. The Likert scale measures well feelings and attitudes especially so on emotionally charged subjects like motivation.

Motivation is emotionally charged because the premise of motivation is that if I feel good, that is, I enjoy what I do, then I am *moved* to do it, I am motivated. The good feeling may be the result of rational thought, a conscious understanding that something is useful and valuable for my well-being. We still need the will, the effort to 'move' to become active to be motivated. Since the Likert scale asks for agreement or disagreement, it is more likely to heed sensible results in an emotive matter than a yes and no question would.

We wanted to find out how the choice of course participation influences motivation. We aim to see the difference in student motivation based on whether the participation in the course is a matter of choice or not. The presumption is that if a student chooses to participate in a course willingly, she or he is more likely to be motivated since she or he would not have otherwise chosen the course to start with. Does it follow, however, that those students who have no choice and must participate in the course are less likely to be motivated? This presumption is analysed based on willingness to participate in class, enjoyment and as well as a self-reflective evaluation of motivation.

Our second major concern was how students feel in the classes and how that feeling influences their motivation. We assessed their feelings of pleasure by direct questions as well as question about feelings of respect which is based on the assumption that the feeling of disrespect is demotivating. We also looked for connection between their motivation and choice of major. The presumption is that if a student has chosen her or his major subject and field of study based on an assumption that it fits her or his personality and vision of the future, her or his will be more motivated to participate in the ESP classroom. Our next assumption was not proved, namely that those students who do not like their major would show lack of motivation for ESP.

Results and discussion

85 students in total participated in the questionnaire. Even though there are three different types of ESP courses, *compulsory, compulsory-elective*, and *optional*, the students have been sorted into two large groups: a group of those who had no choice of deciding and a group of those who had a certain degree of flexibility in their course selection. As a result, 46 participants (54%) reported compulsory attendance and 39 respondents (46%) reported elective and optional selection. The aim of the first research question was to investigate the variation in student motivation based on whether the participation in the course is a matter of choice or not.

The importance of English is agreed upon. When it came to assessing the statement that the student will need English skills in future, students of both groups expressed mainly agreement (41%) and strong agreement (55%), while the rest (two students) remained neutral and one respondent disagreed. When compared separately, 45 students (98%) of a compulsory ESP course demonstrated their awareness of the importance of English (either agreed or agreed strongly), and one person expressed neutral attitude. Responses of students of optional ESP course displayed similar proportions. 95% agreed and strongly agreed, one student could not decide and one expressed strong disagreement. Based on these figures, it can be claimed that even the students who had been required to take the course understand the importance of a good command of English. It is possible that those students would have opted for the course even if they had not been obliged to do so. This proves that our assumption that most students realize that English is important is correct.

Interestingly, considering the responses to the question related to student motivation, based on the division into two groups, no significant differences have been spotted. In both groups, ratio of students opting for particular degree on the scale was comparable. 57% of students from compulsory course agreed they are motivated as opposed to 54% of students from optional courses. The rest was divided between undecided students (28% and 38% respectively) and students who expressed lack of motivation (15% for compulsory course and 7.7% for optional course). The conclusion which can be drawn from these figures do not appear to be straightforward; however, it had been expected that students who choose the ESP course as their compulsory-elective or

optional course would be motivated to a greater extent as opposed to those who are obliged. This presumption has not been proven.

Our questionnaire involved two questions concerning respect in ESP classroom. If the students do not feel respected, it may, to some extent, influence their attitude towards the teacher and the subject itself and consequently downgrade their performance in class and overall motivation for participating, learning and improving. In academic or work environment, everyone needs to be recognized as a valuable member of a group and any diversion from this expectation leads to serious motivation issues. The question of respect, joy and motivation are therefore very interesting in connection with student motivation.

Nevertheless, signs of any form of disrespect felt by students have not been observed. In this case, it was considered unnecessary to divide respondents into two groups based on the type of course participation (compulsory or not), hence the responses have been assessed jointly. 67% of respondents agreed and 27% agreed strongly with the statement that they felt respected in ESP classroom, which generates approximately 94% of positive responses in total. The remaining 6% (2 responses) were undecided students and one student disagreed with the statement, in other words, felt disrespected. The second question dealt with the student perception of respect from the teacher shown for other students in the classroom. Similarly, the responses did not prove the presence of disrespect. 65% of students agreed that the others students are respected and 29% agreed strongly. Finally, 4% of students could not or chose not to decide in the question of respect and no response was negative. Neutral responses may be explained by the fact that, even though students might be able to evaluate the teachers' behaviour towards them, they might have problems with assessing what could be respectful or disrespectful for their peers.

Respect is a not a clearly defined concept and everybody has a different scale when it comes to respect. What some people find offending is overlooked by others or vice versa. Concerning the negative response on the former question on respect, the one student who felt disrespected participates in the ESP course compulsorily and responded to every statement negatively. This could suggest extremely low self-efficacy expectancy that is complete lack of motivation or disinterest and indifference towards the given questionnaire.

The motivation of students is linked to their overall feeling of the pleasantness of the course. The question whether the student felt good and comfortable in the English classroom generated the following results. 74% of compulsorily participating students agreed or strongly agreed with feeling good. 17% (8 students) were undecided (neutral) and 8.7% disagreed and strongly disagreed. In the case of optional courses, 77% agreed and strongly agreed, 20.5% could not decide, and one student disagreed. It is not clear why 16 students in total could not express their unequivocal agreement or disagreement, but took a neutral stance. Simply put, we could say that most respondents felt good and enjoyed ESP classes.

Last but not least, it has been observed how the students' own satisfaction with the selection of study major could have had an impact on their motivation for learning English language. We assume that those students who have chosen well, that is selected the major they are passionate about, will transfer their enthusiasm into learning a foreign language at the university since overall positive feelings towards the major studies motivate them to pursue good results and improvement also in terms of their language skills and knowledge. English also helps students deepen their knowledge in their original fields because a lot of research articles and journals are in English. According to the results, 79% of students agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that they have been satisfied with their major. The rest of students were either undecided or unmotivated. We have taken those to assess their questionnaires further and found out that, despite their lack of satisfaction or neutral attitude towards their major, there have been more people who reported to be motivated for learning English (45%) than those who did not feel to be motivated (20%). We have therefore found no straightforward correlation between the satisfaction with major selection and motivation for studying English.

Conclusion

Because language learning is a long term goal and requires self-regulation, we can safely say that there is a clear connection, and our questionnaire supports this, that the feeling of joy is connected to the comprehension of and agreement with the importance of the goal. We could also state that students find English important and that is why they enjoy it whence the enjoyment feeds on the results of thinking. Students find English important and enjoy themselves regardless of whether they are in the course by choice or not. Most students feel respected and feel that their classmates are respected therefore we could say that an atmosphere of respect persist in the classroom which probably has a positive influence on the high number of students who feel good and are motivated. Interesting results showed up in the fact that the choice of study major has no influence over motivation for ESP.

The results of the questionnaires lend themselves to more analyses, which did not fit into the timeframe of this paper but certainly are worthy of continuation.

References

Bajtoš, J. 2013. *Didaktika vysokej školy*. Bratislava: Iura edition, ISBN 978-80-8078-652-6.

Dickinson, L. 1995. “Autonomy and Motivation: a Literature Review.” *System*, vol. 23, no. 2, 1995, pp. 165–174.

Harackiewicz, J. M. - Sansone, C. 2000. *Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation the Search for Optimal Motivation and Performance*. Elsevier. 2000.

Mischel, Walter, Aaron L. DeSmet and Ethan Kross. "Self-Regulation in the Service of Conflict Resolution" in *The Handbook of Conflict Resolution*. Eds. Morton Deutsch, Peter T. Coleman and Eric C.Marcus. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass 2006. pp 294-313.

Murray, Garold, Xuesong Gao and Terry Lamb. *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy in Language Learning*. Multilingual Matters. Bristol 2011.

Najeeb, Sabitha S.R. "Learner autonomy in language learning." In Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences 70 (2013) 1238-1242

Ryan R. M., Deci E. L. 2000. "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: classic definitions and new directions" in *Contemp. Educ. Psychol*. 25, 54–6710.1006/ceps.1999.1020

Ushioda, Ema. "Motivating learners to speak as themselves" in Murray, Gao, Lamb. *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy in Language Learning*. Multilingual Matters. Bristol 2011. Pp 11-24.

Zelinová, M - Zelina, M. 2000. Rozvoj tvorivosti detí a mládeže. Bratsilava: SPN 1990. 136p.

Appendix – Questionnaire for Students

Year ..... Faculty	
Choose the most suitable response (underline or circle)	
I attend an English course, which is	*compulsory / compulsory-elective / optional.*
I enjoy learning English.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I like engaging in group tasks.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I like engaging in individual tasks.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I will need English in future.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I like my major.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I feel good in the English classroom.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I can get myself understood in English, therefore, I do not need to study it further.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
My major will allow me to be successful in my future career.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
English will help me to be successful in future.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I learn English to be able to apply my study knowledge and skills internationally.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I like to be a student.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
Students are respected in English classroom.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I feel respected in English classroom.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
In English course, I learn useful things.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I would appreciate larger extent of ESP courses.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*
I am motivated to learn English.	*strongly disagree / disagree / undecided / agree / strongly agree*

Introducing journal articles in the EFL classroom

Robin L. Nagano

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Introducing journal articles in the EFL classroom

Robin L. Nagano

University of Miskolc, Hungary

Abstract

This paper describes an introduction to journal articles – searching for them, understanding titles and abstracts, and guided reading of a full journal article – as one component (roughly four contact hours) of a one-semester course in an English as a Foreign language setting. A set of titles and abstracts in one specific specialization in engineering (the energy performance of buildings) were analyzed with a basic corpus tool to identify useful vocabulary and collocations, which also informed the design of student worksheets. The material design process and worksheets could be adapted to other disciplines or specializations.

Introduction

Many academic skills should be acquired and made use of during studies in an institute of higher education. These include skills in critical thinking, analysis and communication, regardless of the field of studies. This is true also for the skills required for academic writing: focusing on a topic, identifying key words, searching the literature, reading research articles, summarizing information, citing works properly, avoiding plagiarism, etc. Many of these skills, like the more general ones mentioned above, can be transferred from one language context to another; i.e., skills learned in the second language (L2) can be used – to varying extents – in different L2 contexts (James, 2010) and skills taught in L2 can be transferred to L1 situations as well (Zarei and Rahimi, 2014), though there are considerable individual differences in the effectiveness of transfer.

Unfortunately, not all institutions approach training in academic skills in a systematic or direct manner; many leave it up to the student to pick up skills and information on their own. This appears to be true of instruction in writing skills in general in the Central European region (Petrić, 2005; Burgess and Pallant, 2013), where explicit writing instruction (L1 or L2) appears to be rare at the tertiary level. In our university, any initiatives in bachelor's and even master's programs tend to be restricted to particular specializations or individual thesis/dissertation supervisors. A survey of PhD students at our university showed that at the time of taking the questionnaire, roughly two-thirds of the respondents had had some instruction in academic writing, but 88% of them only after beginning their doctoral studies.

In my years teaching at this regional Hungarian university I had become aware that basic skills in searching for and understanding written academic research genres (journal articles, conference

proceeding papers, etc.) were not taught formally in many programs and were not always acquired informally, either. Although these master-level students had already written a thesis at the bachelor level, the sources at that point were mostly those recommended by the thesis supervisor(s) and information found on various websites; the reference lists included very few research articles, and even fewer in English.

The use of corpora as a language-analysis tool has been around for decades as an essential tool for data-driven language research. It has often been suggested as a tool for classroom use, as well: useful guide was offered in Tribble and Jones (1997), and particular attention was given to LSP contexts in Bowker and Pearson (2002). Still, those incorporating it into classroom teaching tend to consider it an innovative method (e.g. Wilson et al., 2014), indicating that it is not particularly widespread.

Designing the unit

When I was given the opportunity to design a one-semester (28-hour) English course to be delivered within an engineering master's program in Hungary, I hoped to use the opportunity to work towards filling in some of those gaps in instruction in order to help prepare the students to face future challenges. The course was scheduled for the third semester of a four-semester program: students were mainly taking specialized courses, beginning work on their master's theses, and approaching the time when they would need to find an internship (and not much later, a job). I therefore chose to focus on the following topics: (1) applying for an internship or job, (2) presentation skills, (3) focusing on vocabulary in their specialization through work with general texts and videos, and (4) introducing academic texts in the specialization. The English proficiency levels of the students varied from B1 to C1 levels.

This paper reports on the material and tasks included in the fourth unit. The aims were to introduce searching for relevant articles in databases, to guide students through interpreting abstracts and reading a full journal article, to focus their attention on certain conventions and aspects of journal articles, to increase exposure to terminology and research vocabulary, and of course to strengthen familiarity with academic written discourse.

Because of the varied exposure of students to academic literature, and especially to scholarly sources in English, I began the unit with some tasks that covered very basic ground. This was to accommodate any students who had not yet been exposed to working with scholarly literature – in any language. It was also helpful for those with some knowledge but poor proficiency in English. The unit was covered in portions of four lessons, taking up three to four contact hours in total.

Several authors have suggested focusing on abstracts when introducing academic literature to students (whether L1 or L2) or when focusing on disciplinary language and conventions (e.g. Mendelson, 1987; Morton, 1999; Cox, 1995). I chose to put particular emphasis on working with abstracts for a number of reasons. I wanted to have students work with several examples in order to experience for themselves the typical structural moves, so they would know what to expect in what section of the text. Thus short but complete texts that summarize the main points (if well written) require less time in and out of class. Finally, repeated exposure to specialization-specific terminology seemed likely to assist vocabulary acquisition.

Preparing the materials

The master's program that the course was designed for is the Master in Energy Management, in the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and Informatics, University of Miskolc, Hungary; the specialization was Energy Performance of Buildings (EPB). Therefore, my first step in preparing this unit was to search online for academic papers using EPB as a search term, copying titles and abstracts (25 at first, later expanded to 30) into text documents and drawing up a list of the citation information of the articles. I then used a free corpus tool, TextSTAT (Hüning, no date) to run frequency lists on the abstract corpus (5,659 running words) and make up a list of frequently-occurring content words (Table 1). Note that singular and plural items or adjective and noun forms were included in a single entry (unlike the corpus tool output). For more information on the corpus investigation aspect of this small project, please see Nagano (2013).

Table 1. The 25 most frequent items (excluding function words) in the 30-abstract EPB corpus with numbers of occurrences

energy	154	green	15	temperature	11	ventilation	8
building(s)	61,86	assessment	14	trees/tree	11,9	demand	8
performance	54	comfort	14	existing	11	evaluation	8
use	40	residential	14	new	10	lighting	8
thermal	29	European	14	conditioning	10	potential	8
consumption	29	savings	13	reduction	10	annual	8
air	25	summer	13	solar	10	available	7
data	25	system(s)	8,13	based	9	case	7
paper	22	analysis	12	window(s)	9,8	detailed	7
cooling	21	design	12	efficiency/-t	9, 1	dynamic	7
indoor	18	method(s)	11,12	HVAC	9	forecasting	7
roof	18	study	12	occupants	9	influence	7
simulation	17	different/-ce	11,6	emissions	9	glazing	7
results	17	environment(al)	11,10	algorithm	8	opening(s)	6,2
heating/heat	17,7	radiation	11	conventional	8	behaviour(s)	6, 1
load	15	research	10	climate(s)	7,8	value(s)	5,7

Materials from this collection of texts were used for four main types of tasks: language and grammar use, lexical and collocation awareness, abstract comprehension, and article comprehension.

Language and grammar use: Results from collocation searches allowed me to design task sheets focusing on a particular point of language use with the advantage of using sentences from the abstract corpus. That means that, while working with some point of grammar or usage we are also using language directly relevant to the students and reinforcing vocabulary. An example is given in Figure 1; possible sentences were identified in the collocation window of the software and then I chose among them to create a short task.

Assess, assessed, assessing, or assessment?

1. A new electrical lighting and daylighting simulation analysis environment is developed to help designers _____ optimal design configurations.
2. Building energy performance _____ is crucial to ascertain the efficiency of energy use in buildings.
3. Energy performance _____ methods are classified according to their scope.
4. Finally, the potential use of grey forecasting … is _____, and the comparison with the prediction method based on artificial neural network (ANN) discussed.
5. In order to _____ the energy performance of existing buildings quantitatively, the energy use of the _____ buildings should be quantified first.
6. The available data were analysed in order to _____ the influence of…
7. Therefore, this study aims at _____ the parameters…
8. This paper presents an overview of the method and software that can be used to perform building energy audits and _____ buildings in a uniform way,…, and provide owners with specific advice for measures to improve energy performance.

Figure 1. Sample language use task using sentences from the abstract corpus

Lexical and collocation awareness tasks: I performed some collocation searches in TextSTAT on words from the high-frequency list to find relevant information relating to patterns of use. From this, I made up a worksheet in a format that did not require students to use the software itself, just output from it that I supplied.

Abstract comprehension tasks: I created materials to help guide students through reading abstracts, and made up worksheets based on abstracts from the corpus with tasks focusing on structure, format, and content.

Article comprehension: From the list of articles I chose a short and not very technical paper written in reasonably good English (not all journals represented in the corpus edit for language use, it appears). I then created a series of tasks to help students focus on form and structure as well as on important content information.

Below I describe the sections of lessons dealing with the unit introducing academic sources. Please note that other units or topics are also being followed up on, or presentations being made, so that the entire 90 minutes of a class are not devoted only to the journal article unit.

Lessons

Out-of-class work prior to Lesson One

The frequent-item list (Table 1) is used to check their understanding of lexical items they will probably encounter, so students are asked to go through the list, translate the items, and classify them into different groups (research-related, building-related, etc.) to prepare for the first lesson.

Lesson One

In the first lesson, we typically work with tasks focusing on vocabulary and its use. After dealing with questions and comparing classifications of the frequent items, I focus on their guesses about

why ‘paper’ would rank so high – this usually puzzles them, as they are thinking of its sense as a material. I demonstrate use of the corpus tool in class by searching for ‘paper’ (results are shown in Figure 2). From this, the students usually realize that the amount of context given by the keyword in context (KWIC) display, while not necessarily in full sentences, is enough to understand how the word is being used. We look at some collocations using the corpus tool, and they are assigned a worksheet on use of the word ‘data’ (available in Nagano, 2013, pp. 213-214) to complete for the next lesson.

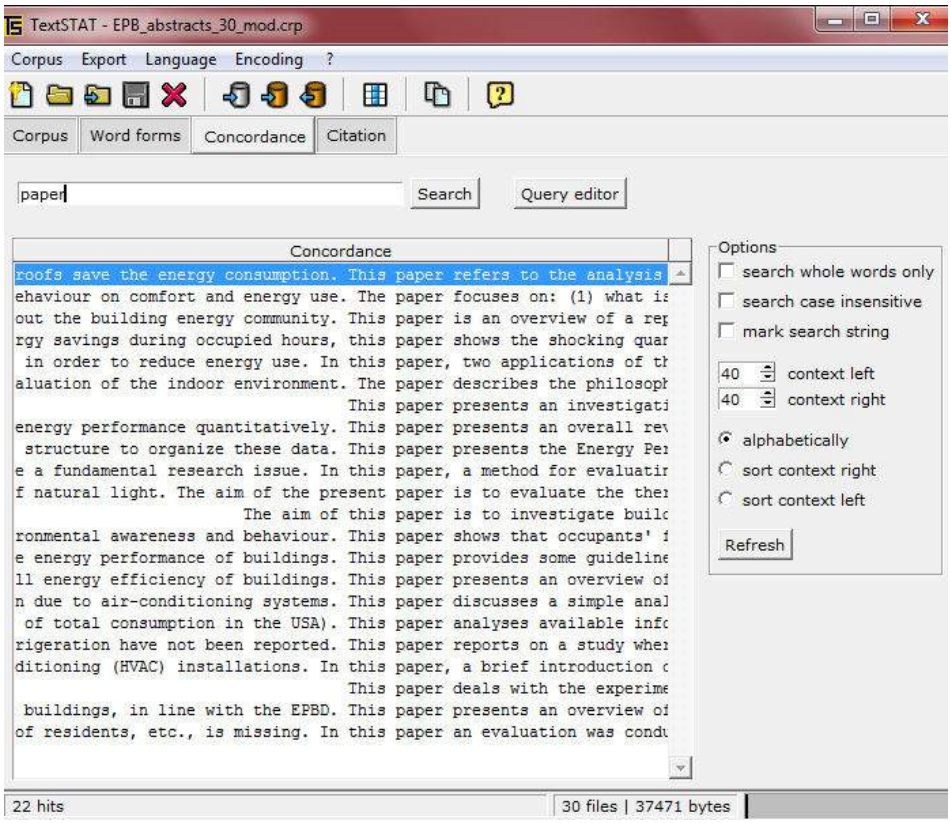


Figure 2. Screenshot of search results for ‘paper’ in the EPB corpus (TextSTAT 2.9)

Next I demonstrate searching for academic literature with Google Scholar (scholar.google.com) and briefly introduce some of the full-text databases available through the university library, notably Science Direct. We make sample searches using keywords related to their thesis topics. We also go through some full citations to make sure that they understood what each piece of information refers to (Figure 3). Time permitting, they work together to translate titles of articles into Hungarian. They are asked to search for some studies relevant to their own research topics as homework.

Let’s look at a full citation and figure out what information we are given.

Niachou et al. 2001. Analysis of the green roof thermal properties and investigation of its energy performance. Energy and Buildings, 33(7): 719–729

Niachou et al. = Energy and Buildings =

2001= 33(7) =

Figure 3. Excerpt from worksheet: identifying full citation data

Lesson Two

We quickly discuss the role of the abstract (providing basic information on topic, methods, often results and/or conclusions; based on it, readers decide whether to access the whole article; etc.). Then we work with several language aspects using different tasks, which may include:

- putting the cut-up sentences of an abstract into order (focus on order of information, signposting, etc.)
- creating gaps in abstracts to focus on preposition use, voice and tense and the reasons for their usage, or other grammatical issues
- gapped abstracts for a lexical focus (important words, signposting, etc.)
- matching beginnings and ends of sentences
- matching titles and abstracts (or the first two or three lines of an abstract)
- searching for information: the study method, the purpose of the study, references to the state of knowledge, identification of a gap in the literature, mention of applications of the research, etc.
- looking for examples of how numbers are used, how abbreviations are introduced and used, how units are written, and other conventions of formatting and presentation.

For homework, students complete a worksheet covering three abstracts (Appendix A).

Lesson Three

After going over the assigned homework, we talk about research papers while looking through some examples. We discuss the structure, the clues that the format gives to us, technical aspects such as where captions go, what goes into the Acknowledgements section, and so on. We also compare papers from different journals to get an idea of what may vary and what seems to be fixed. I usually bring in or display on the projector examples of papers from other disciplines – social sciences, humanities, law – to briefly show some larger differences. The assignment is to read through a paper and complete a worksheet (Appendix B).

Lesson Four

After checking the worksheet and discussing any issues that have come up, we move on to other topics.

Discussion

Because the particular specialization I was working with falls within my interests and is an interdisciplinary field, I felt capable of choosing the texts on my own. For a topic area that was less familiar, I would attempt to find a subject teacher to help with selecting appropriate texts to form the corpus and also to assess the questions to be asked about the abstracts or sample article.
There are definitely advantages of having students in one specialization. The introduction to journal articles that I prepared was probably perceived as more directly relevant to them, since we were working with materials directly connected with their area of students. However, the materials as a set could also be used as a sample even with other engineering students of mixed specializations, as the topic is relatively general and also interdisciplinary.

In a situation in which allowing more time for working with academic texts, students could be involved in building up and analyzing the corpus. Students sharing a specialization could extend the collection, while students in mixed groups could be given the task of putting together and analyzing

a small abstract corpus in their own specializations; comparing these could lead to some interesting discoveries of different and also shared features. Likewise, students could be involved in making up comprehension questions for abstracts or even journal articles in their own fields.

There have been one or two semesters when I required students to download and use the tool for tasks. In other years, we were short of time and skipped this activity. When the class was passed to another teacher, we decided to remove all of the corpus-tool-based tasks from the materials (including working with KWIC results), as she was not comfortable with it. While I believe a corpus tool such as TextSTAT is a simple and useful tool for anybody, I must admit that I have never received later feedback from an engineering student about the corpus tool being used later on their own for their own purposes.

At the end of the course students generally reported in informal feedback procedures that they were more confident about searching for and using English-language journal articles than they had been before the course. Whether this translated into action (for instance, using more English journal articles when writing their Master's thesis compared to earlier cohorts) would be interesting to look into.

I would urge teachers to consider adapting these methods and materials for their own groups and purposes. In my opinion, using corpus-based materials has real advantages, particularly in a context where we are working with languages for specific purposes.

References

Bowker, L. and Pearson, J. 2002. *Working with Specialized Language: A Practical Guide to Using Corpora*. London and New York: Routledge, 2002.

Burgess, S. and Pallant, A. 2013. Teaching academic writing in Europe: multilingual and multicultural contexts. In: Matarese, V. (ed.*), Supporting Research Writing: Roles and Challenges in Multilingual Settings*, pp. 19-38. Oxford: Chandos Publishing.

Cox, J. 1995. Analysing geotechnical engineering abstracts: Towards a pedagogical template. *ESP Malaysia*, 3(2):136-144.

Hüning, M. TextSTAT version 2.9 [software]. Available from http://neon.niederlandistik.fu-berlin.de/en/textstat/

James, M.A. 2010. An investigation of learning transfer in English-for-general-academic-purposes writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(4): 183-206.

Mendelson, M. 1987. Teaching the abstract as an introduction to technical writing. *The Technical Writing Teacher*, 14(1): 1-10.

Morton, R. 1999. Abstracts as authentic material for EAP classes. *ELT Journal*, 53(3): 177-182.

Nagano, R. L. 2013. Using a purpose-made corpus in LSP teaching. In: Proc. FORLANG: Foreign Languages in an Academic Environment. June 21-22, Košice, Slovakia. pp. 205-214.

Petrić, B. 2005. Contrastive rhetoric in the writing classroom: a case study. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24: 213-228.

Tribble, C. and Jones, G. 1997. *Concordances in the Classroom: A Resource Guide for Teachers*. Houston, Texas: Athelstan.

Wilson, J., Sharoff, S., Stephenson, P. and Hartley, A. 2014. Innovative methods for LSP-teaching: How we use corpora to teach Business Russian. In: E. Bárcena et al. (eds.), *Languages for Specific Purposes in the Digital Era*, pp. 197-222. Heidelberg, New York, Dordrecht, London: Springer

Zarei, G.R. and Rahimi, A. 2014. Learning transfer in English for general academic purposes writing. *SAGE Open*, 4(1): 1-12.

Appendices

Appendix A. Abstract worksheet

Briefly answer the questions about Abstract A.

Abstract A A new electrical lighting and daylighting simulation analysis environment is developed to help designers assess optimal design configurations and operating strategies for electrical lighting fixtures in order to reduce energy use. In this paper, two applications of the simulation environment are presented to optimize the electrical lighting circuiting layouts design and the location of desks within daylight spaces. The results from these applications illustrate how the simulation environment and optimal daylight-base lighting controls can help building and lighting engineers and green building consultants improve the design of lighting and daylighting systems in order to construct and operate high energy performance buildings.

1. Is this an experimental study, a simulation, or a theoretical study?

2. The objective of the applications is to _____ the layout of electrical circuits and desks so that they can effectively use _____.

3. These results can be useful to what three kinds of experts?

4. This system can help with what long-term, overall goal?

Choose the better of the two underlined choices in Abstract B, using your common sense.

Abstract B With rapidly decreasing/increasing energy consumption attributed to residential buildings in South Korea, there is a need to update needs/requirements of the building energy code in order to improve/stabilize the energy performance of buildings. This paper provides some guidelines to improve the building energy code to better find/select glazing types that maximize/minimize total energy use of residential buildings in Korea. In particular, detailed/general energy simulation analyses coupled with economical and environmental assessments are carried out to assess the heat/thermal, economical, and environmental impacts of glazing thermal characteristics/characters as well as window sizes associated with factory/housing units in various representative climates within South Korea. The answers/results of the analyses have clearly indicated that selecting glazing with low solar heat gain coefficient is highly/slightly beneficial especially for large windows and for mild climates. In particular, it is found that using any double-pane low-e glazing would provide equally good/better performance for windows in residential buildings than the clear double-pane glazing, earlier/currently required by the Korean building energy code.

Read Abstract C and decide whether the statements are true or false.

Abstract C In Mediterranean countries such as Italy it is necessary to achieve comfort in new residential buildings both in winter and summer. For this reason, in defining the overall energy performance, the EPBD Directive requires to consider summer performance indicators as well. In the energy certification of buildings, however, the winter performance of buildings is highlighted, while the summer performance indicators are often neglected. To investigate the energy performance of buildings in the summer season, the BEST Department of Politecnico di Milano conducted a comparative evaluation between the actual and normalised energy performance of a high-performance residential building equipped with a cooling plant, located in Milan. The study compares the results of a summer monitoring campaign with two theoretical calculation models: the standard calculation used for energy certification in the Lombardy region (Italy) and a building simulation with EnergyPlus. The study showed that the real energy requirements, as estimated through the monitoring campaign of some representative flats, were much lower than the energy requirements calculated with the standard certification procedure but quite consistent with those calculated with the building simulation model. However, real energy consumption is different even in identical flats due to the different behaviours of the users.

True or false:

1. This study focuses on winter energy use.	T	F
2. The building investigated has air conditioning.	T	F
3. The building investigated is for commercial use.	T	F
4. This study includes measurements (it's experimental).	T	F
5. A building simulation is carried out in this study.	T	F
6. The researchers developed an algorithm.	T	F
7. Standard energy certification calculations for Italy were used.	T	F
8. The calculations produced lower values than the measured values.	T	F
9. The simulation results were similar to the measured values.	T	F
10. Consumer behaviour affects real energy consumption.	T	F

Which title fits which abstract? (there are two extra titles)

_____ Quantitative energy performance assessment methods for existing buildings

_____ Comparison between predicted and actual energy performance for summer cooling in high-performance residential buildings in the Lombardy region (Italy)

_____ Optimal electrical circuiting layout and desk location for daylighting controlled spaces

_____ Impact of window selection on the energy performance of residential buildings in South Korea.

_____ Radiative exchange across a window and links to indoor energy demand

For the two leftover titles, which matches which beginning?

D. This work examines energy exchange between a window and the external environment with emphasis on the role of radiation in determining indoor energy demand. A set of radiometers monitored the flow of solar and longwave radiation to and from a window…

E. Building energy performance assessment is crucial to ascertain the efficiency of energy use in buildings and is the basis to make any decision for enhancing energy efficiency. In order to assess the energy performance of existing buildings quantitatively, the energy use of the…

Appendix B. Reading a journal article

Masoso, O.T. and Grobler, L.J. 2010. The dark side of occupants' behaviour on building energy use. *Energy and Buildings*, 42, 173-177.

BEFORE READING, please look through the paper and answer these questions.

1. What are the different sections of the paper called?

2. How many figures are there? ____ How many tables? ____ How many equations? ____

3. How many references are there? ____ Of those, how many are Internet sources? ____

WHILE READING – Read the questions and look for the answer.

Introduction

1. Which countries listed had the maximum and minimum percentage of total energy use from buildings?

2. The authors talk about technological measures, but the main focus of their study is o_____ b_____. Most studies in this area concentrate on _____ and _____ comfort, or for example how people use lights and office equipment.

3. The flipside of waste is

…… .

4. The results of this study can be useful as data for developing b_____ and in making diversity profiles for s_____.

True (T) or false (F)?

5. Behavioural change probably has less effect than technological solutions. T F

6. Behavioural change takes a lot of money. T F

7. High-tech knowledge is not required. T F

8. Behaviour changes have an influence on energy use in both new and existing buildings. T F

9. People can teach other people how to conserve energy. T F

10. This study takes place mostly in Botswana with funding from Denmark. T F

Methodology

11. The energy audit was carried out on six [commercial – industrial – residential] buildings.

12. Consumption was categorized into three purposes:

13. Time was divided into:

14. The shortest period of data-logging was about ……

Results and discussion

15. From **Figure 1**, which building consumes the most power per square meter at peak consumption times? ____ Which consumes the least? _____ Which consumes the most at weekends? _____ Which has the smallest difference between nighttime and daytime consumption? _____

16. *Fill in the table using information from* ***Table 1***.

Building	Highest type of consumption	Percentage of energy used	
		weekends	non-working hours
Power Corp. CSC			
University Physics block			
University Main campus			
Ministry of Local Gov't			
Air Botswana			
Municipal admin. centre			

From the text, explain:

17. why the Botswana Power Corp. building uses so much power in non-working hours.

18. what two problems the Air Botswana building has, and how they could be solved.

18. Complete the words.

Equipment that should r___ 24 h added up to le____ than 5 W/m^2 in fo____ of the audited build_____. Such equipment inclu_____ servers, refrigerators, passage and exte_____ lighting, fax machines and specialist equi_____. Therefore, 18 W/m^2 when comp_____ to 5 W/m^2 means that th____ is a 13 W/m^2 sav_____ potential simply by swit_____ off at the e_____ of the day.

Conclusions

19. Choose the best word for each gap from the box below.

Energy _____ have been performed on six _____ in a hot and dry _____. More than _____ of energy is used _____ non-working hours rather than during _____ working hours of 07:30–16:30 h. The biggest _____ have been shown to be _____ systems, followed by _____ that are left on _____ at the end of day (mostly computers), then _____ .

50% air conditioning audits buildings climate consumers during lighting equipment official unnecessarily

Diane Shooman, PhD

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Poets engineering the material of language

Diane Shooman, PhD

UAS Technikum-Wien, Vienna

Abstract

When engineers write about their technical projects, their texts should be as concise, precise and effective as the products, processes or systems they describe! The inseparability of form and content in writing is equivalent to the relationship between form and function in engineering. Poetry is the most compact, exacting, finely calibrated form of writing; no word will do in place of another, and not a syllable, not a breath can be superfluous. Rhythm, sound, sense, metaphor, symbols, and imagery are intrinsic to meaning. Based on the theory that there is no such thing as a good writer who isn't a good reader, this paper highlights the discoveries that have come through close reading with students of poems and a painting that speak to them as inventive young adults. The impetus for transition from childhood to adulthood, and for movement, for change, for invention, is the urge to transcend the present state, to move beyond the limits of what we know and can do. Liane Strauss's "Leaving Eden", Ovid's "Daedalus and Icarus", Bruegel's "Icarus", Auden's "Musée des Beaux Arts" and Yeats' "An Irish Airman Foresees his Death" are archetypal coming-of-age stories gone wrong, symbolized by the spatial metaphor of falling, or "the Fall", as Adam and Eve's descent from Paradise is referred to. Reading a poem aloud transforms text into architecture and textured terrain. We explore space in art in its formal, thematic and symbolic functions, examining ways in which humans create – or fail to create – space for individuation and shifting, expanding identity in personal and social relationships and constellations.

Effective engineering

An engineer designing a device, program, process or system strives for minimum input yielding maximum output. Ideally, every bit of material is exploited, and all parts are linked to maximum effect: form is function, and the whole is larger than the sum of its parts.

Effective writing

When engineers write about their technical projects, their texts should be as concise, precise and effective as the products, processes or systems they describe!

Engineering the material of language

In order to "engineer" the material of language, students need to explore its full potential. Poetry is the most compact, exacting, finely calibrated form of writing. No word will do in place of another, and not a syllable, not a breath can be superfluous. Rhythm, sound, sense, metaphor, symbols, and imagery are intrinsic to meaning. The inseparable interplay of content and form is the artistic equivalent of the relationship between function and form, and makes for the unique identity of any literary – indeed, any creative – work.

Content and method

One would be hard put to find a good writer who isn't also a good reader. As the densest distillation of all elements of language, poetry provides particularly textured terrain for students to explore the material and potential of language, and to discover the inseparability of content and form, while experiencing the rigors and the rewards of close reading.
This paper highlights the discoveries that have come of close reading with students of a set of poems and a painting that speak to them as inventive young adults. The impetus for transition from childhood to adulthood, and for movement, for change, for invention, is the urge to transcend the present state, to move beyond the limits of what we know, and what we can do. Liane Strauss's "Leaving Eden"[1], Ovid's "Daedalus and Icarus"[2], Pieter Bruegel's "Landscape with the Fall of Icarus"[3], W.H. Auden's "Musée des Beaux Arts"[4], a reflection on Bruegel's painting, and W.B. Yeats' "An Irish Airman Foresees his Death"[5] are all archetypal coming-of-age stories gone wrong, symbolized by the spatial metaphor of falling, or "the Fall", as Adam and Eve's descent from Paradise is referred to.

Soaring and falling

Space can be perceived with the senses and experienced through our bodies. But space also functions as a home for our imagination, as, for example, the symbols of flying and falling show us. In this paper we will be exploring the convergence of formal, thematic and symbolic functions of

---

[1] Strauss, Liane. (2010). Leaving Eden. *Leaving Eden, 45.* London, UK: Salt Publishing. James, Clive Guest Poets, Liane Strauss, *Leaving Eden*, http://www.clivejames.com/liane-strauss/5.

[2] Ovid. (1958). Daedalus and Icarus. *The Metamorphoses, Book VIII, pp. 219-222.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

[3] Bruegel, Pieter the Elder. (ca 1558). *Landscape with the Fall of Icarus.* Musée des Beaux Arts, Brussels, Belgium. Image from The Artchive – Image Viewer: http://www.artchive.com/artchive/B/bruegel/icarus.jpg.html.

[4] Auden, W.H. (1940). Musée des Beaux Arts. *Another Time: Poems by W.H. Auden, 34.* New York: Random House.

[5] Yeats, W.B. (1919). An Irish Airman Foresees His Death. *The Wild Swans at Coole, 13.* New York: The Macmillan Company.

space in art. Formally, the flat, linearly sequential appearance of a poetic text is as deceptive as 3D perspective on a 2D canvas. Thematically and symbolically, we will examine ways in which humans create – or fail to create – space for individuation and expanding identity in the context of personal and social relationships and constellations.

Picturing Icarus

Ovid's "The Metamorphoses"[6] could be considered the first "soap opera" in western literature, with its copious cast of recurring characters in interlacing tales of tyranny, rape, alcohol, lust, adultery, vanity, jealousy, rivalry, hubris, folly, and the occasional act of bravery, virtue or goodness. The existence of the earth's lands, elements, seasons, animals and plants is conceived as the fruit of transformation on the heels of bad deeds or good, meted out by deities either as punishment, or as a kind of rescue or redemption. The origins of the island of Icaria and of the low-flying partridge are accounted for in Ovid's tale of "Daedalus and Icarus"[7].
Eager to escape Crete, mythology's master engineer Daedalus carefully crafts sophisticated biomimetic wings. He is gifted at mimicking nature, and is focused on building the perfect technology:

So Daedalus turned his mind to subtle craft,
An unknown art that seemed to outwit nature:
He place a row of feathers in neat order,
Each longer than the one that came before it
Until the feathers traced in inclined plane
That cast a shadow like the ancient pipes
That shepherds played, each reed another step
Unequal to the next. With cord and wax
He fixed them smartly at one end and middle,
Then curved them till they looked like eagles' wings.[8]

Daedalus may be able to "outwit nature", but when it comes to human nature, he is an outright nitwit. In his single-minded, self-centered preoccupation with leaving Crete, he overlooks what is obvious to the observant reader who watches young Icarus while his father is fixated on affixing the feathers that will prove his son's undoing:

And as he worked, boy Icarus stood near him,
His brilliant face lit up by his father's skill.
He played at snatching feathers from the air
And sealing them with wax (nor did he know
How close to danger came his lightest touch);
And as the artist made his miracles
The artless boy was often in his way.[9]

Ovid paints a scene, a moving picture. I ask my students to picture the picture Ovid paints. What is Icarus doing? Why is it dangerous? Is his father alarmed that Icarus is playing with fire, and does he

---

[6] Ovid. (1958). *The Metamorphoses.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

[7] Ovid. (1958). Daedalus and Icarus. *The Metamorphoses, Book VIII, pp. 219-222.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

[8] Ovid. (1958). Daedalus and Icarus. *The Metamorphoses, Book VIII, p. 220-221.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

[9] Ovid. (1958). Daedalus and Icarus. *The Metamorphoses, Book VIII, p. 221.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

warn him of the danger? No? Why not? Where is Daedalus' attention? When does he notice his son?
Daedalus sees his son only when Icarus is "in his way"; he literally sees him only in relation to himself. Daedalus may be able to stick two feathers together, but he neglects to connect what Icarus' risk-filled game implies about a child's capacity to gauge the dangers of highs and lows, carelessly misjudging his child's ability to resist what Yeats calls the "lonely impulse of delight"[10] in flying. Before we blame Icarus for not following his father's orders to fly directly behind him, we must ask ourselves if, even as adults, we occasionally eat or drink too much, drive too fast, or stay up too late, though – unlike Icarus – we may have been fully informed of the potential consequences.

Spoiler alert!

When do we learn of Icarus' fate? Long before the sun melts the wing-wax and plunges him into the sea; Icarus' end is neither the point of the story nor its end.
The tale is followed by a postscript after Icarus is laid into his grave. Through the twitter (so to speak) of a partridge observing the scene, we learn that in a prior phase of his life, Daedalus had fatally kicked his sister's genius engineer son, his own nephew entrusted to him for engineering training, down a flight of stairs out of jealousy. The innocent and talented young nephew was then metamorphosed into the partridge, a low-flying bird.

Postscript as prequel

We have already observed that Daedalus sees his son only in relation to himself. That also holds true for his nephew. Instead of feeling pride in his young relative, and in his success in helping the boy to cultivate his formidable talents, Daedalus resents his nephew in the fear that he could potentially overshadow him. Speaking of space as a metaphor, in Daedalus' universe, there is not enough room for the contributions of more than one talented engineer. (You will recall that the same author who gave us the story of Daedalus and Icarus also put to parchment the story of Narcissus,[11] the youth who died in vain pursuit – so to speak – of his own reflection. Narcissus is apparently not the only narcissist in "The Metamorphoses", just the leader of the pack!) Formally, in Ovid's story of Daedalus and the two-fold fall, the postscript is the prelude, and the sequel is the prequel. Daedalus wanted up and out of Crete, but instead has flown full circle to come face to face with his own deeds. The moral is that you are more likely to be able to fly on homemade wings than you are to escape from your own conscience.

Visual images in a word-based education system

Engineers engage their senses in their work, uniting minds and hands through their powers of observation and problem-solving inventiveness. Perhaps universities of applied sciences are generally less well regarded than universities with primarily theoretical courses at their core, because students at a UAS often engage their hands, i.e. their bodies and senses in their work, as well as their minds, as if a mind were something separate from the body!
In traditional education, learning through reading and listening to words dominates over all other kinds of texts and types of learning experiences. However, as art historian Michael Cothren points out: "We live in an age in which visual communication, the use of pictures and design to convey important information, to embody cherished values, and to manipulate the responses and behaviors

---

[10] Yeats, W.B. (1919). An Irish Airman Foresees His Death. *The Wild Swans at Coole, 13.* New York: The Macmillan Company.
[11] Ovid. (1958). Echo and Narcisssus. *The Metamorphoses, Book III, pp. 95-100..* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.

of our fellow human beings may be at an all-time high. Yet, this is not widely recognized, especially in elite educational contexts … Prejudice against the visual in favor of the verbal is deeply ingrained in our educational culture.[12]
Pieter Bruegel's painting "Landscape with the Fall of Icarus"[13] provides students practice reading visual imagery.

Mastering space

Bruegel is a grand master of space. In many of his paintings, self-absorption or indifference is conveyed through the imperviousness of the human figures to events or turbulences looming in adjacent fields of the picture. When you click on the link provided in the references to view "Landscape with the Fall of Icarus"[14], it might take you a moment to locate the last visible bits of Icarus as he plunges headlong into the sea. As the title of the painting ironically implies, it is the landscape that occupies center stage; for Ovid and Bruegel's fisherman, shepherd, and farmer, Icarus' fall goes unnoticed.
The story of Daedalus and Icarus is also compressed into the figure of the ploughman, wearing a coat with wing-like folds, so focused on his work that he misses the sight and sounds of Icarus splashing into the sea, and is unaware of how close he himself comes to falling down the wing- and wave-like furrowed steps he has ploughed. In a compact use of formal and symbolic space, the terraced steps evoke at once the stairs down which Daedalus had fatally kicked his nephew, as well as the upturned earth of Icarus' grave, and Daedalus' own downfall.

The physicality of close reading

We now leave Bruegel's painting and turn to poetry, but hang on to your sense of space! Recent findings in cognitive science indicate that when we are engaged in close, attentive reading of literary texts, we are also having a haptic experience, as Natalie Phillips, who specializes in cognitive approaches to literature, has discovered:

"Close reading … most activated parts of the brain that are associated with touch, movement, and spatial orientation. It was as though readers were actually experiencing being in the story."[15]

These findings have been corroborated in other cognitive science investigations:

"Although letters and words are symbols representing sounds and ideas, the brain also reads them as physical objects. … The human brain may also perceive a text in its entirety as a kind of physical landscape. When we read, we construct a mental representation of the text. The exact nature of such representations remains unclear, but some researchers think they are similar to the mental maps we create of terrain – such as mountains and trails – and of indoor physical spaces …"[16]

---

[12] http://www.swarthmore.edu/michael-cothren-teaching-art-in-an-era-of-globalism.xml

[13] Bruegel, Pieter the Elder. (ca 1558). *Landscape with the Fall of Icarus.* Musée des Beaux Arts, Brussels, Belgium. Image from The Artchive – Image Viewer: http://www.artchive.com/artchive/B/bruegel/icarus.jpg.html.

[14] Ibid.

[15] Randolph, Elizabeth, "Distracted Reading in the Digital Age (and What to Do About It)", Vassar College, Winter 2015, Volume 111, Issue 1, The Alumnae/I Quarterly, Poughkeepsie, NY, p.12.

[16] Jabr, Ferris, "Why the Brain Prefers Paper", Scientific American, November 2013, NY, NY, pp. 50-51.

"Sound and sense"[17]

Reading poems aloud unleash kinetic forces inaccessible to the eye alone, transforming printed words on a flat page into a moving architecture of textures, spaces, sounds and shapes, which in turn moves and shapes the inner architecture of the reader's resonant vocal apparatus, to open multiple layers of meaning through things that can neither be seen nor heard, but must be felt and experienced. Lending their bodies to the alien words and thoughts of poets, the students experience the printed words on the page as the skin of the poem; the body of the poem is its sound.

The title poem of Liane Strauss' book "Leaving Eden" is offered in its entirety below by kind permission of the author, and for your reading pleasure:

Leaving Eden

The motor's running and I'm leaving Eden.
It's gotten too small, too cramped. It's too green.
I've packed my bags, taken my best face cream,
shaken the apple tree until my wormy heart fell at my feet.

It's not the serpent. I didn't need convincing.
It's not in my nature to be happy to ignore what I know.
Can't remember when I first went suspicious.
If I'm disenchanted with the past at least I'm something,
something to the core.

There never was a paradise on earth, or heaven.
Each fleshy fist of fruit harbours its seed.
Nothing has changed, nothing was ever how it seemed
in Eden, and if it was, I can't imagine it was me.

The motor's running, the asphalt is seething.
My bare legs stick to vinyl slick with sweat.
The air of motion now will run its fingers through me
and like Atlantis underwater I'll forget. [18]

Eve says she is leaving Eden because it has gotten "…too cramped, … too green."[19] When the students take the word "cramped" into their mouths, the 'm' closes in on the 'a'. When they say the word "green", however, the opposite occurs; there is an endless opening. The contradiction gives rise to a riddle: When does something that is endlessly open closed? When there is no sign of variety or change on the horizon!

In the next line of the poem, "I've packed my bags"[20] visually indicates an action of closing. But if you speak the words "packed" and "bags", your mouth bursts open. So when is a closing also an opening? The students may be young, but they already understand how essential endings are for new beginnings. When the students read the line: "It's not the serpent; I didn't need convincing"[21], hissing with sibilants, they suddenly feel Eve's voice and the snake's to be one – with their own!

---

[17] Perrine, L. (1956). *Sound and Sense: An Introduction to Poetry.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

[18] Strauss, Liane. (2010). Leaving Eden. *Leaving Eden, 45.* London, UK: Salt Publishing. James, Clive Guest Poets, Liane Strauss, *Leaving Eden*, http://www.clivejames.com/liane-strauss/5.

[19] Ibid.

[20] Ibid.

[21] Ibid.

The power of metaphor

For all the neurological and cognitive science evidence to the contrary, the Cartesian model of mind-body duality would appear to persist unquestioned. Perhaps poetic metaphors can help loosen the hold of that problematic paradigm. Eve says she has "shaken the apple tree until my wormy heart fell at my feet."[22] If the apple holds the secrets of the tree of knowledge, then the seat (or seed!) of knowledge is the heart.

Your resonant voice plummeting

"I know that I shall meet my fate/ Somewhere among the clouds above;/ Those that I fight I do not hate,/ Those that I guard I do not love;"[23], says W.B. Yeats' Irish airman. He came from what he had seen as an unchanging landscape: "My country is Kiltartan's Cross,/ My countrymen Kiltartan's poor,/No likely end could bring them loss/ Or leave them happier than before."[24]. As the elders who declared war saw fit to summon their youth into the skies, the airman, unstirred by frenzied patriotic rhetoric, had instead seen the way up as the way out: "Nor law, nor duty bade me fight,/ Nor public men, nor cheering crowds,/A lonely impulse of delight/ Drove to this tumult in the clouds;".[25]
In the final lines, the students' attention is drawn to grammar to detect the turn in the airman's reflections on his own decision to enlist: "I balanced all, brought all to mind,/ The years to come seemed waste of breath,/ A waste of breath the years behind/ In balance with this life, this death."[26] The poem pivots, spirals and plummets on the word "seemed", the past tense signaling the present shift in perspective from on high, the crashing regret.
If you read the poem's opening lines "I know that I shall meet my fate/Somewhere among the clouds above …"[27] in bouncy iambic pentameter, then your voice springs up and down like a toy airplane bouncing on paper clouds. I asked a student who was dashing breathlessly through the first verse to slow down, and in so doing, her voice dropped from the 'I' on high, down to 'know' below, where that resonant revelation literally moves your heart, where we feel what we know.

Hurtling through time

W.H. Auden's poem "Musée des Beaux Arts" evokes Bruegel's Icarus painting:

… and the expensive delicate ship that must have seen
Something amazing, a boy falling out of the sky
Had somewhere to get to and sailed calmly on.[28]

But the final line of the poem is not the end of the experience. When the students see the date "1940", Icarus suddenly hurtles through time and space out of war-torn 20th century skies into the upturned earth of battleground graves.

---

[22] Ibid.
[23] Yeats, W.B. (1919). An Irish Airman Foresees His Death. *The Wild Swans at Coole, 13.* New York: The Macmillan Company.
[24] Ibid.
[25] Ibid.
[26] Ibid.
[27] Ibid.
[28] Auden, W.H. (1940). Musée des Beaux Arts. *Another Time: Poems by W.H. Auden, 34.* New York: Random House.

The Fall

"The motor's running, and I'm leaving Eden"[29], says a modern-day Eve at the start of "Leaving Eden". In the final stanza, "The motor's running, the asphalt is seething."[30] Eve is still where she was, spinning her wheels. Will she leave or won't she? In the cycle of life, the season in which Eve speaks precedes the Fall.
The seasons revisit us each year, at once the same and changed, the cyclical form like rings of a tree marking the passage of time. We enfold a poem into ourselves again and again, for the comfort and thrill of the familiar, and because we sense it will keep yielding up its secrets when we engage our senses and our whole selves to sound it in new ways. The poem newly seen mirrors our metamorphosis:

"Nothing has changed, nothing was ever how it seemed
in Eden, and if it was, I can't imagine it was me." [31]

The fall of poetry as an art form

Poetry and other literary texts are being struck from school and university curricula. One explanation for this phenomenon is that it is simply easier to lead discussions on texts that provide information, facts and opinions. Though it is unlikely that anyone would be expected to teach mathematics, physics, painting or music without expertise in those subjects, it is assumed that since reading is something we all can do, anybody who teaches texts in their own or in a foreign language can "teach" literary texts. As reading and exploring literary terrain is process- rather than outcome-oriented, and the inseparability of content and form make it impossible to "summarize" what a literary text is "about", literary texts are among the most challenging to teach, and – contrary to much current professional and popular opinion – to write.
It is little wonder that educational institutions jettison the reading and analysis of poetry, when creative writing programs and manifold popular poets appear to have ditched this practice as well, as if becoming a writer had nothing to do with being a reader. Poet Rebecca Watts has asked in her recent essay "The Cult of the Noble Amateur":

"Why is the poetry world pretending that poetry is not an art form? I refer to the rise of a cohort of young female poets who are currently being lauded by the poetic establishment for their 'honesty' and 'accessibility' – buzzwords for the open denigration of intellectual engagement and rejection of craft that characterises their work.
The short answer is that artless poetry sells. …"[32]

Social media serve to set, celebrate and spawn self-exposing content in artless form:

"Of all the literary forms, we might have predicted that poetry had the best chance of escaping social media's dumbing effect; its project, after all, has typically been to rid language of cliché. Yet in the redefinition of poetry as 'short-form communication' the floodgates have been opened. The reader is dead: long live consumer-driven content and the 'instant gratification' this affords."[33]

---

[29] Strauss, Liane. (2010). Leaving Eden. *Leaving Eden, 45.* London, UK: Salt Publishing. James, Clive Guest Poets, Liane Strauss, *Leaving Eden*, http://www.clivejames.com/liane-strauss/5.
[30] Ibid.
[31] Ibid.
[32] Watts, Rebecca (2018). The Cult of the Noble Amateur. PN Review 239, Volume 44 Number 3. Manchester, UK. http://www.pnreview.co.uk/cgi-bin/scribe?item_id=10090
[33] Ibid.

Expertise as "elitism"?

Students and experts alike expect to ponder a musical score, a mathematical equation or algorithm, or a physical or chemical formula long and hard, engaging their knowledge, practice, skill and experience to unlock their secrets and their very specific energy and power. Yet when a literary text requires more than one reading, and more engagement than a newspaper or magazine article to begin to unlock its mysteries, readers – uneasy at not possessing the tools to gently help the poem out of its shell, not having been told that poetry actually requires them – reject challenging poetry as "elitist". Rebecca Watts reflects on this phenomenon:

"There is an upside to poetry becoming something that 'anyone could do'. The art form can no longer be accused of being elitist ... In other contexts, elitism is not considered an evil in itself. We frankly desire our doctors, hairdressers, plumbers and sportspersons to be the best: to learn from precedent, work hard, hone their skills and be better than we are at their chosen vocations. Even in the other arts, the line between amateur and professional is clearer than it is in poetry. As (poet and poetry editor Donald) Paterson argued in 2004: 'Poetry is a wonderfully therapeutic thing to do at amateur level; but amateur artists and musicians don't think they should exhibit at the Tate, or play at the Wigmore. (Serious poets, I should say, don't start off amateurs, but apprentices – just like any other vocation.)' " [34]

Money makers as standard bearers?

Editors of standard-bearing poetry presses and competition are cashing in on the popularity potential of Instagram posts posing as poetry. But what are they trying to pass off as innovation?

"Proud of their imperviousness to literary influence, the personality poets would have us redefine poetry as whatever the poetic establishment claims it isn't. Ignorant of Shakespeare, Burns, Rochester, Dickinson, Rossetti, Harrison, Ginsberg, Larkin, Plath, Rich and a thousand others (including their contemporaries – Addonizio, Capildeo and Lee-Houghton, for example) they regard themselves as taboo breakers, as though no poet before them had ever written about sex or motherhood, highlighted inequalities or deployed obscenities." [35]

If "honest and accessible" Instragram posts are supposed to be the standard-bearers of new "women's poetry", could these dubious qualities be used as criteria by which other kinds of poetry written by women are shouted down as elitist and anachronistic?

Outcome versus process, and "be-ers" versus "becomers"

In poetry book blurbs and contest winner laudations, poets are hailed not so much as unique voices but instead as spokespersons for a particular cultural, social or demographic group, and their poetry defined by its "content" or subject alone, as if it were an autobiography, a sociological study or a documentary, and not a work of the imagination. It is patronizing to define artists (or anybody for that matter) first and foremost in terms of their biological or social background. In his essay "Don Quixote or the Art of Becoming", author Antonio Molina ponders the pitfalls of equating identity and culture itself with a locality, rather than as something individual and personal that develops continuously through experience and (self-) education:

---

[34] Ibid.

[35] Ibid.

"Nowadays, as in Don Quixote's time, social pressures compel us to conform to an established identity, to be part of a group and proudly proclaim what we already are, not what we have accomplished or what we would like to become or do. Through our blind allegiance to an original culture, to our sexual, racial, or national being, we are expected to achieve our better self, the only possible one for each of us. This seems to be a time for be-ers, not becomers. And it all has to do with a shift in the meaning of the word culture. When I was a boy growing up in a small provincial Spanish town, culture was something you achieved by your personal effort through reading and learning, with a very distinct impulse to accomplish a better understanding of the world around you and especially of those parts of the world and those fields of experience not easily given to you in the course of your daily life. You were supposed to get culture yourself, to learn as much as your intelligence would allow, and that was what school and education were all about. Now culture is not something you set yourself out to achieve but the original environment into which you were born, or the long-lost vernacular heritage you should try to recover. The meaning of the word has shifted from the chosen to the given, from the secular to the anthropological. Culture is not about what you freely, even whimsically choose to become, but about what you and your ancestors were destined to be since the time of a common and often sacred past. I find this utterly disgusting."[36]

"Writing from experience"?

Literature is by definition a product of the imagination. If we are to "write what we know", and who we are and what we know is circumscribed by where we come from, and by our genders and sexual preferences, then this leaves little room for the imagination. Imagine taking Shakespeare to task for putting words into the mouth of a character called Juliet who was a teen-aged female Veronese aristocrat!
In his essay "The Art of Fiction", Henry James questions how "experience" is defined:

"It is equally excellent and inconclusive to say that one must write from experience; to our suppositious aspirant such a declaration might savour of mockery. What kind of experience is intended, and where does it begin and end? Experience is never limited, and it is never complete; it is an immense sensibility, a kind of huge spider-web of the finest silken threads suspended in the chamber of consciousness, and catching every air-borne particle in its tissue. It is the very atmosphere of the mind; and when the mind is imaginative … it takes to itself the faintest hints of life, it converts the very pulses of air into revelations. The young lady living in a village has only to be a damsel upon whom nothing is lost to make it quite unfair (as it seems to me) to declare to her that she shall have nothing to say about the military. Greater miracles have been seen than that, imagination assisting, she should speak the truth about some of these gentlemen."[37]

The reality of fiction

Paris Review interviewer George Plimpton asked Ernest Hemingway: "… As a creative writer what do you think is the function of your art? Why a representation of fact, rather than fact itself?"[38]
Hemingway famously replied:

"… From things that have happened and from things as they exist and from all things that you know and all those you cannot know, you make something through your invention that is not a representation but a whole new thing truer than anything true and alive, and you make it alive, and

---

[36] Molina, Antonio Munoz (2015). Don Quixote or the Art of Becoming, Hudson Review, Autumn 2015, New York, NY. http://hudsonreview.com/2015/10/don-quixote-or-the-art-of-becoming/#.Vlrt7KT9rZs
[37] James, Henry (1884). The Art of Fiction. *The Portable Henry James*, pp. 397-398, Morton Dauwen Zabel, ed., 1979. New, NY: Viking Penguin Inc.
[38] Plimpton, George, ed. (1963). Writers at Work: The Paris Review Interviews, p. 239. New York: Penguin Books.

if you make it well enough, you give it immortality. That is why you write and for no other reason that you know of. But what about all the reasons that no one knows?"[39]

The fall of art and history from 21st century education

Given the solipsistic, self-referential nature of what is often being hailed as innovative poetry today, one might well indeed question its larger relevance. But in tossing out poetry and the skills required to read and write it, are we tossing the proverbial baby down the stairs with the bathwater?
Here in the 21st century, "relevance" is equated with today's news and the latest technologies. Politics and economics are conducted as if history were not predictably cyclical unless heeded for its lessons, and historical texts, images, and art are being kicked out of educational curricula for their admitted lack of relevance for the dubious goal of turning students into efficient worker bees. Without historical knowledge or perspectives, are we finding ourselves moving up and away from fake news-fueled jealous hatred and senseless violence, or are we flying in circles, face to face with our own past, thinly disguised in high-tech garb as the future?

The relevance of art and history for 21st century education

Poetry by nature explores, invents and illuminates language and meaning in their infinite dimensions. What function could that serve us now? Rebecca Watts offers these reflections:

"Life, as good poetry attests, is complicated and infinitely various. Just because something is 'what I think' doesn't mean people en masse should be encouraged to listen (Trump and Farage should have taught us that much). It is the job of poets to safeguard language: to strive, through innovation and engagement with tradition, to find new ways of making language meaningful and memorable. (The poet T.S.) Eliot noted in 1932, 'the people which ceases to care for its literary inheritance becomes barbaric'. Though he wrote before Orwell, Eliot knew that to embrace Newspeak is to relinquish the only tool we have for communicating and defending civilised values. If we are to foster the kind of intelligent critical culture required to combat the effects of populism in politics, we must stop celebrating amateurism and ignorance in our poetry."[40]

And back and beyond

How do students at the University of Applied Sciences Technikum Wien apply the close reading skills they are developing? In the final English course of the bachelor program, students craft finely-calibrated thesis abstracts, and reflect in discussion and in writing on "Hamlet", that paradigmatic coming-of-age story in which the family patriarch is also the ruler of a country, and jealousy the deadly poison poured by his brother into King Hamlet's ear like "words, words, words".

Parrotry versus poetry

In reading aloud with attention to how a poem is affecting us from inside, perhaps the "alien" words of poets can awaken the "alien" within: our own limitless potential that when it surfaces always surprises us. Metamorphosis!

---

[39] Ibid.

[40] Watts, Rebecca (2018). The Cult of the Noble Amateur. PN Review 239, Volume 44 Number 3. Manchester, UK. http://www.pnreview.co.uk/cgi-bin/scribe?item_id=10090

References

Auden, W.H. (1940). Musée des Beaux Arts. *Another Time: Poems by W.H. Auden, 34.* New York: Random House.
Bruegel, Pieter the Elder. (ca 1558). *Landscape with the Fall of Icarus.* Musée des Beaux Arts, Brussels, Belgium. Image from The Artchive – Image Viewer: http://www.artchive.com/artchive/B/bruegel/icarus.jpg.html.
Cothren, Michael. (2012). "Teaching Art in an Era of Globalism", http://www.swarthmore.edu/michael-cothren-teaching-art-in-an-era-of-globalism.xml.
Jabr, Ferris (2913), "Why the Brain Prefers Paper", Scientific American, November 2013, NY, NY, pp. 50-51.
James, Clive Guest Poets, Liane Strauss, *Leaving Eden*, http://www.clivejames.com/liane-strauss/5.
James, Henry (1884). The Art of Fiction. *The Portable Henry James*, pp. 397-398, Morton Dauwen Zabel, ed., 1979. New, NY: Viking Penguin Inc.
Molina, Antonio Munoz (2015). "Don Quixote or the Art of Becoming", Hudson Review, Autumn 2015, NY. http://hudsonreview.com/2015/10/don-quixote-or-the-art-of-becoming/#.Vlrt7KT9rZs
Ovid. (1958). Daedalus and Icarus. *The Metamorphoses, Book VIII, 219-222.* Translated by Horace Gregory. New York, NY: The Viking Press, Inc.
Perrine, L. (1956). *Sound and Sense: An Introduction to Poetry.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.
Plimpton, George, ed. (1963). Writers at Work: The Paris Review Interviews, p. 239. New York: Penguin Books.
Randolph, Elizabeth (2015), "Distracted Reading in the Digital Age (and What to Do About It)", Vassar College, Winter 2015, Volume 111, Issue 1, The Alumnae/I
Strauss, Liane. (2010). Leaving Eden. *Leaving Eden, 45.* London, UK: Salt Publishing.
Watts, Rebecca (2018). The Cult of the Noble Amateur. PN Review 239, Volume 44 Number 3. Manchester, UK. http://www.pnreview.co.uk/cgi-bin/scribe?item_id=10090
Yeats, W.B. (1919). An Irish Airman Foresees His Death. *The Wild Swans at Coole, 13.* New York: The Macmillan Company.

Erica J Williams

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

<Teaching and Assessment of Presentation Skills>

<Erica J Williams>

<Hochschule Düsseldorf, Faculty of Business Studies>

<Rationale>

< English is the global language of marketing communications and competitive pitch presentations are the backbone to this and other industries. Pitch presentations are increasingly assigned as part of the recruitment process in job interviews and assessment centres. ESP course design for marketing communications should unquestionably incorporate presentation skills so that assessment for the English qualification for B.A. Communication and Media Management at the Hochschule Düsseldorf in Germany allocates 50% of the final grade (10 ECTS credits) to pitch presentation. This allocation is relevant and warranted. Nevertheless, teaching presentation skills in a university can be challenging and problematic.>

<Issues>

< University classes can be large and very large indeed. An experienced corporate presentations coach would probably recommend training in a small group with a maximum of six to eight people. A university lecturer can be expected to teach a class of 40 to 45 and then to allocate time to adequate presentation practice and assessment.

The challenge deepens as the teacher discovers that students have a range of language levels and varying degrees of motivation. Undergraduate students of Communication and Media Management generally have B1-C1 CEF language levels, a wide range in itself, but students occasionally start the course with an A2 level. Students can be both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated or even have very little or no motivation at all. They face the immediate hurdle of passing an exam. A proportion will appreciate that presentation skills are highly important for future careers. Another group will avoid giving a presentation at all costs, particularly if this is in another language. In addition, attendance is not compulsory meaning a window of opportunity opens up should students opt to avoid. The rate of improvement in performance can vary immensely.

Students at my institution encounter lectures where they are used to passively listening and taking notes. English is a subject in which students are required to actively participate and communicate in another language. This can come as a shock to some and a barrier to learning. On the other hand, some complain about the general lack of teaching for presentations in the university when they are required to give assessed presentations in various modules and subject areas. Such students tend to give positive feedback on any presentations training provided and fully engage with the process.

Assessment can be problematic as judging a presentation is subjective to a greater or lesser extent and examiners can disagree on criteria for grading. The exam assessment experience itself can be deadly. The day can roll on with student after student reading from cards or slides and mumbling on in monotone voices with little enthusiasm or passion. The immediate objective becomes just scraping by in an exam. Students then graduate unequipped with the necessary skills to present confidently, acceptably and successfully.>

<Tips>

- < Cut the class size. Get the support of administrative and other staff by pointing out the necessity of small groups for communication classes. 20 should be a maximum and is still a relatively high number but it does present students with opportunity for individual practice and feedback.

- Encourage lower levels students to complete extensive self-study work whether this is using other resources at the university, attending other adult education classes, using online platforms, completing grammar and vocabulary work and so on. Lower level students can progress quite rapidly but they have to be inspired to do so. Moreover, when it comes to the final assessment, a B1 level student can actually give a better presentation than a C1 level student as English level is not the single criterion for good presentation. Lower level students have to made aware of this so that they realise they have an equal chance of passing the final exam.

- Find out what students already know about presenting and/or what preconceptions they have. This forms the basis for future teaching.

- Teach presentation skills. This may seem obvious but there are lecturers who expect good presentations from students who have never received any instruction and then wonder why the students are giving poor presentations. Do not simply assume pre-work students have the requisite presentation skills.

- Encourage students to present and give plenty of scope for practice, linking this to other course content. The beginning of the course should set the pace with an emphasis on active participation, speaking and mini-presentations. Allow students to present from their own seats so that they slowly get used to speaking English and presenting ideas in front of a group.

- Teach students how to analyse and give constructive feedback, skills that also enhance personal performance. In addition, teach participants how to use feedback to develop personal skills.

- Have fun. Students are much more likely to attend regularly. Moreover, students who enjoy presenting and begin to see presentations as an opportunity rather than a threat will develop into competent and maybe great presenters in time. Mistakes are not important in the training situation. Encourage students to take risks, think outside the box, be creative, surprise, use their imaginations and exploit the English they have. Exam assessment days can fly by when students strive to design and deliver good original presentations and have fun doing so.

- Emphasise positivity, authenticity and developing a personal style rather than a one size fits all approach.

- Give presentations yourself. A teacher can only appreciate the learning experience when s/he has made the effort to develop a personal presenting style. It is surprising how many teachers teach presentation skills but never actually present themselves. Moreover, students can have little respect for a teacher who has never actually stepped up to give a presentation. Would you completely trust a driving instructor who never drives a car?

- Expose students to good presenters. They do not have to be native speakers. English is the global language of business and a variety of approaches and standards is acceptable. There

are excellent online resources, e.g. TED talks. Invite guest speakers and ask them to talk about the importance of presenting in English in their companies or organisations.

- Give both students and examiners very clear instructions on the exam assessment so everyone involved knows what is expected. Provide *written* instructions and guidelines, outlining clearly how students can gain and lose points. Explicitly state that reading from cards or PowerPoint lists will result in a fail but that credit will be given for imagination, originality and enthusiasm. It's amazing how much black on white information concentrates the mind and improves overall performance.>

References

<Presentations in English: Find Your Voice – Erica J Williams (Macmillan, 2008)

Marketing Communications in English – Erica J Williams (Wayzgoose Press, 2016)>

E-ductive Grammar: discover, discuss, demonstrate – digitally!

Matthew Urmston BA, MMag. Anna Weninger

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

“E-ductive Grammar: discover, discuss, demonstrate – digitally!”

Matthew Urmston BA, MMag. Anna Weninger
FH Wien der WKW

ABSTRACT

This project was designed to transfer a traditional teacher-led grammar activity to the digital environment. The project constituted part of the Competence Center for Business English at the Vienna University of Applied Sciences for Management and Communication’s drive towards a hands-on, innovative and student-centered approach to blended learning. In 2017, many of our courses underwent a process of “digitalization”, combining online elements with face-to-face teaching, using a mix of methods to optimize classroom time and to create and maintain student interest, while achieving intended learning outcomes; in this case, improved awareness and mastery of the selected tenses.

In the face-to-face session immediately before the distance learning units, lecturers briefed students on the tasks to be completed. These included watching a YouTube video with clips from popular TV shows, doing an in-house-created Moodle quiz, including self-graded grammar exercises based on authentic business texts, followed firstly by an individual, then a collaborative, group grammar-discovery activity. The units culminated in students completing an individual writing task, which was subsequently graded by the lecturer. In the next face-to-face session, students presented their project findings in groups.

Our fundamental blended learning concept attempts to adhere to the principles of competence-based language learning as well as “communicative language teaching”. Ongoing support was offered to all stakeholders and the organizational and technical resources at our disposal were maximized.

RATIONALE & CONCEPT

“Business English Language Competence” is taught in the first semester of the BA study program Management & Entrepreneurship at the Vienna University of Applied Sciences for Management and Communication by the Competence Center for Business English. Originally taught purely in face-to-face sessions, 6 units of distance learning were recently added.

Our most important goals for digitalizing the lessons were:

- To encourage students to engage with and use English verb tenses independently as well as in groups using authentic texts and in ways that students most likely had not experienced before
- To actively promote independent learning as well as learning from peers and to then pick up on the newly acquired competences in the classroom in order to further expand on and strengthen them there

- To fully utilize the technical possibilities of our learning platform and other tools when teaching grammar in order to offer our students usability, mobility, and improved administration
- To add more flexibility to student schedules toward autonomous time management to complete their work

The following materials were used to facilitate our student-centered and competence-oriented concept:

- A YouTube video with verb tense examples from well-known TV shows; followed by a meaning-focused Moodle quiz with detailed feedback
- Bespoke automatically evaluated business grammar exercises based on quality business sources
- Individual web research to find examples of six different verb tenses in reputable business sources; examples were then collected, discussed and analyzed in groups in a face-to-face setting and results uploaded to Moodle
- An individual online creative writing task based on the group analysis

The steps to complete the assignments were as follows:

1. To gently introduce students to English verb tenses, the first assignment was to watch an innovative YouTube video featuring excerpts from well-known TV shows featuring examples of the target tenses. This was supposed to add a bit of "fun" to a topic which is often experienced as rather mundane. Afterwards, a true/false quiz with questions on specific quotations from the video was used as a first step in analyzing the tenses.
2. In order to pick up on and expand students' existing knowledge, six self-graded grammar gap exercises were completed on Moodle. The texts were taken from authentic business articles and increased in difficulty from quiz to quiz. Naturally, the quizzes often had to allow for more than one correct tense. At the next face-to-face session, students were asked bring in examples they were unsure of to discuss in class.
3. Following this, students watched video instructions for the subsequent exercises (web research and group project). This video was developed by the Competence Center team alongside written instructions in order to present the directions more coherently and also to make them more appealing (combining music and visual effects). The web research and group project involved the following steps:
    a. Individually, students had to find multiple examples of sentences featuring the target tenses. The examples should have originated from quality business sources, been in a business context, and of course correctly cited.
    b. Afterwards, the examples were brought to a meeting where they were analyzed in groups and included in a group poster. This group activity was documented with photos in order to ensure that all group members were present.
    c. The final step of the distance learning units was to write a creative text based on verbs chosen by the students and correctly inflected into one of the target tenses.

As extra help for the above steps, students were given access to a Moodle grammar book produced by the Competence Center. This business grammar book contained descriptions of the various tenses as well as example sentences taken from business sources.

TECHNICAL DETAILS

- 4K instructional video created by the Competence Center to expand on complex written directions as well as to personalize the online experience (instructors demonstrated the assignment steps)
- Internal university "Microsoft Stream" platform for making videos available
- "ATTO corrections" (Moodle plug-in) and "Moodle rubrics" with tailored evaluation criteria for simplified and transparent correction/evaluation of (textual) student assignments
- Focus on usability (e.g. links within the Moodle course, expandable course overview, improved layout using HTML/CSS/JavaScript) and responsive design for device-independent display compatibility

EVALUATION

A student survey of 120 respondents revealed the following:

- The majority of students felt more confident when working with the target verb tenses and evaluated the lesson as innovative
- The lesson was largely regarded as a positive experience and the user-friendliness as well as the quality of the instructions/materials were rated especially high

LESSONS LEARNED

The distance learning units were implemented in 8 different parallel groups by both internal and external teaching staff and yielded new insights throughout the development of the project. Additionally, the project was analyzed in detail by both student and instructor evaluations (written questionnaires, focus groups).

The following lessons learned were ascertained:

1. The complexity of this type of demanding distance learning calls for both intellectual and time resources. For this reason, we recommend introducing similar exercises in face-to-face teaching first.
2. It is worthwhile to divide exercises and deadlines into smaller chunks in order to make the exercises easier to manage and to offer students and instructors more flexibility.
3. If lecturers are well-briefed, confident in using the required tech tools, and - more importantly – take the time to sit down prior to introducing the distance learning to explore, read and click around, this will lead to higher student motivation and a more positive experience for all.

4. In group work, it is worthwhile for everyone involved (especially for part-time students) that a variety of group modalities are offered to facilitate both face-to-face as well as digital group work (via tools such as Padlet or Skype).
5. Technical hurdles when conducting complex distance learning lessons for the first time can often be surmounted through appropriate (technical) support, and furthermore contribute towards students' authentic learning outcomes.

In a nutshell, the execution and results of this blended learning concept proved to be extremely satisfactory. As a result, all of the realizations that were gained from the project analysis will be incorporated into a larger interdisciplinary project to create a new curriculum at our university.

SOURCES

Chan, Yuen May. 2010. "Video instructions as support for beyond classroom learning". Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences 9 (2010).
Goldstein, Ben; **Driver**, Paul. 2015. *Language Learning with Digital Video*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Lightbown, Patsy; **Spada**, Nina Margaret. 2006. *How languages are learned*. (3rd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Reese, Sasha A. 2015. "Online learning environments in higher education: Connectivism vs. dissociation". *Education and Information Technologies* 20 (3).
Rheingold, Howard. 2010. "Attention and Other 21st-Century Social Media Literacies". *EDUCAUSE Review* 45 (5).
Scott, David; **Ribeiro**, Jason; **Burns**, Amy; **Danyluk**, Patricia; **Bodnaresko**, Sulyn. 2017. "A review of the literature on academic writing supports and instructional design approaches within blended and online learning environments." Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1880/51960. Calgary: University of Calgary.

Werona Król-Gierat

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

English for Special Needs Education: An Interdisciplinary Challenge

Werona Król-Gierat

Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland

Abstract

Although the concept of English for Special Needs Education may sound enigmatic, there seems to be a growing need for such courses in many EU countries. More and more children are being diagnosed with a variety of disorders/impairments and hence teachers should be familiar with key pedagogical, psychological, therapeutic and medical terms as well as their meanings.

Pilot courses for pre- and in-service teachers

Having recognised the need of MA students of English Philology with the teaching specialisation, a pilot course entitled "Special Educational Needs in the English Language Classroom" (PL.: "Specjalne potrzeby edukacyjne na lekcji języka obcego") of 30 hours was introduced at The Pedagogical University of Cracow in the 2015/2016 academic year. The original syllabus covered a range of topics and aimed at familiarising the course participants with key pedagogical, psychological, therapeutic and medical terms as well as their meanings. The following Special Educational Needs (SEN) were discussed: hearing and visual impairments, aphasia, intellectual disabilities, autism, Asperger Syndrome, social maladjustment, emotional and behavioural disorders, language-communication disorders, Specific Learning Difficulties/Differences (SpLDs), talented/gifted learners.

As for the content of the course with regard to the development of specialist terminology, one of the recommended books was *English for Special Education* by Ivančević Otanjac and Furundžić

(2014). This ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course book, focuses on professional vocabulary relevant to: Speech Pathology, Prevention and Treatment of Behavioral Disorders, Special Education and Rehabilitation of Individuals with Intellectual Disabilities, Physical Disabilities, Visual Impairments, and Hearing Impairments. As the authors claim, "the developed syllabus fulfils the main aims of this ESP course – it repeats and practices appropriate general English structures, and familiarizes the students with key professional vocabulary they will need in further education" (Ivančević Otanjac and Furundžić, 2014: 5).

SAMPLE UNIT - JOB PROFILES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION (selected fragments from: Ivančević Otanjac and Furundžić, 2014; cited in: Ivančević Otanjac, 2014b)

I Reading

(...)

As schools become more inclusive, special education teachers and general education teachers increasingly work together in general education classrooms. Special education teachers help general educators adapt curriculum materials and teaching techniques to meet the needs of students with disabilities. A large part of a special education teacher's job involves communicating and coordinating with others involved in the child's wellbeing, including parents, social workers, school psychologists, occupational and physical therapists, and other teachers.

Other occupations involved with the identification, evaluation, and development of students with disabilities include: audiologists, counselors or psychologists, occupational therapists, physical therapists, speech-language pathologists, social workers, and assistive technology practitioners or specialists.

II Answer the following questions

(...)

4. How do special and general teachers work together in a general education classroom?

5. Who do special education teachers also coordinate with?

III Look back at the text and list all occupations related to special education

IV Match the occupations from exercise III with appropriate explanations

a) they work with children and youth with different disabilities

b) they work with people who cannot produce speech sounds; those with speech rhythm and fluency problems, such as stuttering; people with voice disorders; those with problems understanding and producing language; and those with cognitive communication impairments
c) they help individuals improve their ability to perform tasks in living and working environments (...)

V Translate the following summary into Polish (Serbian in the course book)
Special education teachers work with children with different disabilities. (...) Other occupations involved with the identification, evaluation, and development of students with disabilities include: audiologists, counselors, psychologists, occupational therapists, social workers, physical therapists, speech-language pathologists and assistive technology practitioners or specialists.

VI Fill the gaps with the appropriate preposition (at, in, on).
John is a ten year old boy with cerebral palsy. He was born _____ 2001, and lives with his parents _____ New Jersey. He is attending a general school _____ his neighborhood. Because of his physical disability, John's classroom is _____ the ground floor of the school. He started physical therapy _____ April, and sees a physical therapist _____ the local hospital twice a week. (...)

Another publication, among other, which was used during the course was *DysTEFL - Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language. Trainer's Booklet. Trainee's Booklet* by Nijakowska, Kormos, Hanusova, Jaroszewicz, Kálmos, Imrene Sarkadi, Smith, Szymańska-Czaplak, Vojtkova (2013). The training materials cover a variety of theoretical and practical issues. Each unit is task-based and acquaints foreign language teachers with the nature dyslexia and other Specific Learning Difficulties/Differences.

SAMPLE UNIT – THE NATURE OF DYSLEXIA (selected fragments from: Nijakowska, Kormos, Hanusova, Jaroszewicz, Kálmos, Imrene Sarkadi, Smith, Szymańska-Czaplak, Vojtkova, 2013)

Task 1 - Awareness raising task

Step1

Trainees work individually and complete the Dyslexia Perceptions Survey. The survey contains items that include commonly known knowledge about dyslexia and some misconceptions. The aim of the survey is to make trainees aware of their own preconceptions and activate existing knowledge about dyslexia. (...)

Task 2 - Reading and discussing dyslexia

Step1

Trainees work individually and read the Dyslexia factsheet of the International Dyslexia Association (…). They compare their answers to the Dyslexia Perceptions Survey with the information provided in this text. Trainees are asked to reflect on what they learned from this brief text and think about what else they would like to know about dyslexia.

Task 3 – Comparing definitions of dyslexia

Step 1

Trainees work individually and note down their personal definition of dyslexia. They also consider how their educational, social and cultural context might influence their personal definition.

Task 4 – Writing an information sheet

In this task trainees work in small groups and write a brief information sheet about the characteristics and difficulties of dyslexic students in general academic domains for a group of teachers in their school. The audience for the information sheet is a group of colleagues in the trainee's school. (…)

Additionally, students were recommended to work also extracurricular, for instance by using a new Lab Manual CD, packed with and integrated into the 6th edition of *Educational Psychology. Developing Learners* by Ormrod (2008), "which provides exercises that build core teaching skills and will help you tie core concepts to real students and classrooms" (Ormrod, 2008: ix). One of the sections - Chapter 5 – is devoted to Individual Differences, that is "variability in abilities and characteristics (intelligence, personality, etc.) among students at a particular age and within any given group" (Ormrod, 2008: 147) and to students with Special Educational Needs, namely "students different enough from their peers that they require specially adapted instructional materials and practices" (Ormrod, 2008: 147).

Overall, 21 MA female students, of whom 20 were of Polish and 1 of Ukrainian origin, took part in the pilot course. By the end of the course, the students were requested to complete a written questionnaire. As resulted from the survey, the absolute majority of the respondents (90%) claimed that the course was needed and should be obligatory for the teaching specialisation, mainly because

the teachers of foreign languages should be aware of the learners' problems and needs, and have basic knowledge in the field of Special Needs Education (57%). In view of this, the course has entered the university curriculum and is being continued, each year slightly adapted to suit the expectations of the newcoming students. In an ESP/EAP (English for Academic Purposes) classroom like this one, as Ivančević Otanjac notice (2014), teacher's task may seem extremely complex, because „we want to satisfy the many different students in front of us, teaching to their individual strengths with activities designed to produce the best results for each of them, yet we also want to address our teaching to the group as a whole" (Harmer, 2001:48).

Another novelty was introduced at The Pedagogical University of Cracow in the academic year 2017/2018. The first postgraduate studies in Poland "SEN – Special Educational Needs in EFL" (PL.: "Nauczanie języka angielskiego uczniów o specjalnych potrzebach edukacyjnych") were created on the initiative of Dr. Monika Łodej. The studies are addressed to English teachers who meet learners with SEN in their didactic work (i.e. with dyslexia, ADHD, autism spectrum, socio-emotional disorders, gifted student). The studies prepare teachers for work in kindergartens, schools and other educational institutions, in which students have a certificate of the need of special education.

Conclusions

Teachers of English play vital roles in the lives of children and adolescents. To my book, teaching is one of the most satisfying professions, but it is at the same time one of the top challenging ones, especially if you are faced with learners with Special Educational Needs. How can we help them develop linguistically as well as holistically? First of all, we should be able to read and understand their psychological-pedagogical diagnoses. A course like *English for Special Needs Education* may turn out to be beneficial in this respect.

References

Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education Limited.

Ivančević Otanjac, M. (2014a). "The development of English for Specific Purposes syllabus for first year students od special education and rehabilitation*". Specijalna edukacija i rehabilitacija* (Beograd), Vol. 13, br. 1. 107-116

Ivančević Otanjac, M. (2014b). "English for Special Education". The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes Vol. 2, No 4, 2014, pp. 751–754

Ivančević Otanjac, M. and Furundžić, M. (2014). *English for Special Education.* Belgrade: Univerzitet u Beogradu – Fakultet za

Nijakowska, J., Kormos, J., Hanusova, S., Jaroszewicz, B, Kálmos, B, Imrene Sarkadi, A., Smith, A. M., Szymańska-Czaplak, E., Vojtkova, N. (2013).*DysTEFL - Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language*. Trainer's Booklet. Trainee's Booklet. CD-Rom. Cham, Germany: Druck+Verlag Ernst Vögel GmbH. Training materials developed in the course of the project DysTEFL - Dyslexia for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, co-financed by the European Commission within the Lifelong Learning Programme, project number: 518466-LLP-1-2011-PL-COMENIUS-CMP.

specijalnu edukaciju i rehabilitaciju

Ormrod, J. E. (2008). *Educational Psychology. Developing Learners.* Sixth edition. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson International Edition

Job profiles in ESP: towards a better understanding of your learners' field

Olha Pavlenko

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Job profiles in ESP: towards a better understanding of your learners' field

Olha Pavlenko

assistant professor, National Technical University of Ukraine “Igor Sikorsky Kyiv Polytechnic Institute

Abstract

The importance of understanding learners’ field by ESP teachers has been widely discussed and debated. The skills and knowledge of an ESP teacher differ from those of a General English teacher. Being, in most cases, non-specialists, ESP teachers tend to research their learners’ field. However, when transforming the collected data into an ESP course, the difficulties in terms of language and concepts arise. Using job profiles as a resource enables ESP practitioners to outline components of the needs analyses to collect data about their learners' field. In particular, job profiles and needs analyses are used to identify the language items, key subskills, and text types to be included into ESP course as well as serve a depository for course objectives and outcomes.

Researching ESP Learners’ Field

There is a growing number of GE teachers who are building their careers in teaching ESP. While many of them hold the view that ESP teachers need to be subject specialists, some teachers agree that their job is to teach English, not the specialized knowledge. Since, in some cases, it is still a matter of argument, let us consider the issue of researching ESP learners’ field by ESP teachers as well the tools for collecting data about the learners.

Researchers attempted to evaluate the impact of different tools to better understand their learners’ field in ESP [Huhta et al., 2013] and outlined a number them. For instance, teachers may talk to experts, observe professionals and/or have having workplace tours, study job-related resources and job descriptions (JDs), and even introspect about learners’ jobs using teachers’ knowledge and experience. Taken together, these tools may generate data for job (professional) profiles (JPs) and needs analysis forms. However, ESP practitioners tend to notice that learners’ needs primarily focus on those mentioned in job descriptions, which considerably limit the amount of information gathered in needs analysis and influences the way the learners’ data is categorized. This results in a process of blending JPs with needs analyses as well as shifting the focus from isolated language learning to solving job-related situations in English. Returning to the learners’ field research, approaching job descriptions critically, ESP practitioners can make better choices of aims for their courses, prioritize language subskills, use learners’ professional skills and knowledge as a resource for their lessons.

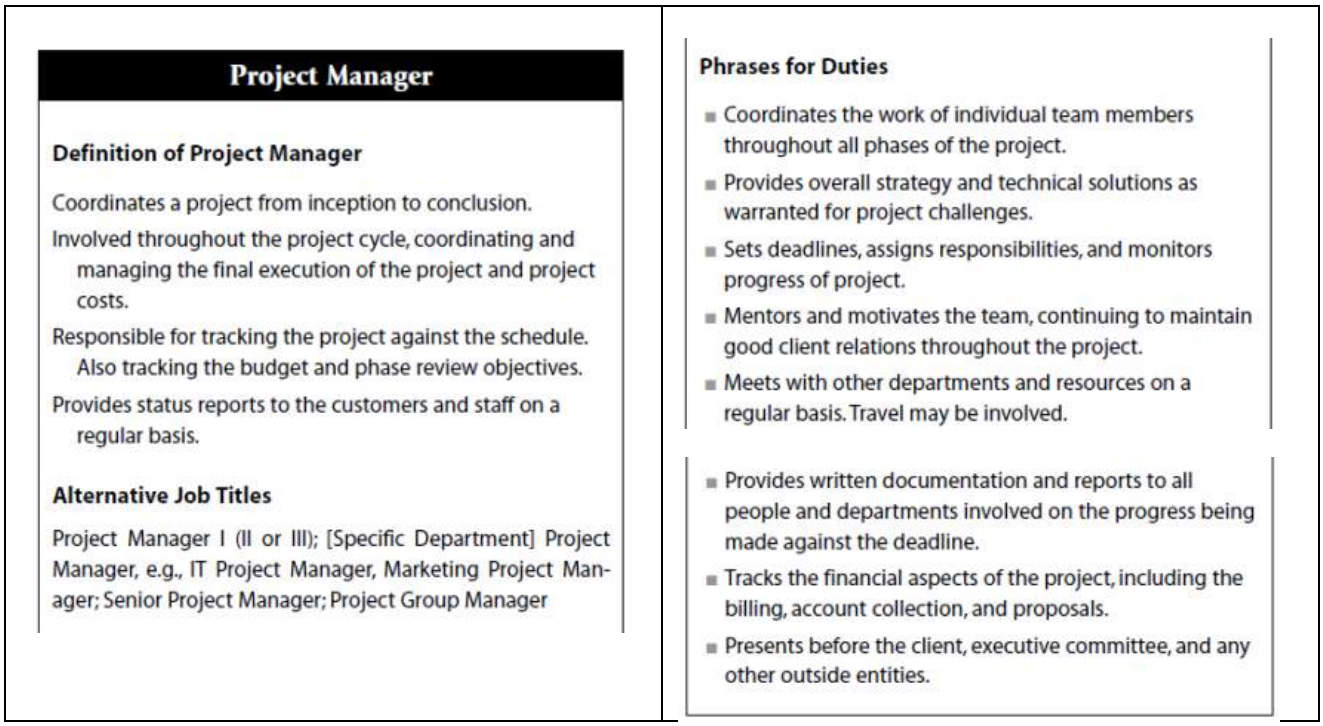
Throughout this paper, the term “job profile” will be considered as a dynamic tool for collecting and keeping the job-related information of an ESP learner. Job profiles may be kept in different formats by ESP teachers and should describe the nature of the work performed by ESP learners, which is traditionally provided by job descriptions. Both teachers and learners have access to their

JPs and update data regularly (e.g. key functions, some terminology and sub-skills etc.). JPs frame course programmes and illustrate job-related tasks that ESP learners are required to perform in English.

Job Profiles: What, Why, How

Ideal ESP learners know exactly what they want from their teachers. In contrast, some learners believe that they are good at their terminology and the only thing they need is to improve their grammar, while others want nothing but effortless speaking practice or mistakenly choose business English course instead of job-specific one. Therefore, ESP practitioners provide their learners with detailed questionnaires, conduct interviews and exhaustively research their fields in order to understand what exactly their learners need and how this can be achieved from the methodological point of view. One of the quick and worthwhile options is to ask for or to find a JD of your ESP learners' job and to use it as a tool to create their JPs.

According to Martin, a standard JD contains information about candidates who will be likely to succeed in the position and their desired personal qualities, outlines the required background and experience, lists candidate's responsibilities as well as states why the company needs this person [Martin, 2010 p.32-34]. As the creators of JDs are HR managers, the author provides examples of good practices for compiling the JD (Fig.1).



Project Manager

Definition of Project Manager

Coordinates a project from inception to conclusion.

Involved throughout the project cycle, coordinating and managing the final execution of the project and project costs.

Responsible for tracking the project against the schedule. Also tracking the budget and phase review objectives.

Provides status reports to the customers and staff on a regular basis.

Alternative Job Titles

Project Manager I (II or III); [Specific Department] Project Manager, e.g., IT Project Manager, Marketing Project Manager; Senior Project Manager; Project Group Manager

Phrases for Duties

- Coordinates the work of individual team members throughout all phases of the project.
- Provides overall strategy and technical solutions as warranted for project challenges.
- Sets deadlines, assigns responsibilities, and monitors progress of project.
- Mentors and motivates the team, continuing to maintain good client relations throughout the project.
- Meets with other departments and resources on a regular basis. Travel may be involved.
- Provides written documentation and reports to all people and departments involved on the progress being made against the deadline.
- Tracks the financial aspects of the project, including the billing, account collection, and proposals.
- Presents before the client, executive committee, and any other outside entities.

Fig. 1. *Project Manager (Job description). Martin, C. (2010)*

Depending on the country and company, JD vary in their size and the list of the responsibilities. To know how they may serve ESP practitioners to better understand target needs of their learners, let us approach the JD in Fig. 1 from the teacher's perspective. In particular, let us comsoder some examples of how the duties outlined by the HR manager can be processed to become ESP course outcomes.

For example, the phrase *"coordinates the work of individual team members throughout all phases of the project"* tells ESP practitioners that their learners will need to communicate with their colleagues in groups or individually i.e. will need language for meetings, discussions or will be writing emails, reports. As a result, "*by the end of the course learners will be able to chair the meeting, write technical reports"* etc. Another JD phrase *"tracks the financial aspects of the project ...",* leaves teachers' option open to limit the amounts reading practice to the subskill of scanning e.g. "*by the end of the course learners will be able locate information about project expenditures in the financial report".* Generally, most of the phrases in the JD are ready-made tasks for classroom simulations and role-plays. Overall, these examples demonstrate how JDs can be transformed into JPs to keep the record of ESP learners and to become potential course outcomes.

Conclusion

Approaching JDs form teacher's perspective and keeping JPs demonstrate the ability of ESP practitioners to become more confident in understanding their learners' fields. JPs aim to promote creation of clearer course objectives and outcomes, allow ESP teachers to collect and track their learners' target needs for their jobs and equip them with the necessary language and skills to function effectively in their job-related environment.

References

1. Huhta, M., Vogt, K., Johnson, E., Tulkki, H., Hall, D. R. (2013). *Needs Analysis for Language Course Design A Holistic Approach to ESP.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 274 p.
2. Martin, C. (2010). *Perfect Phrases for Writing Job Descriptions*. USA: McGraw-Hill. 186 p.

Short ESP/EAP Texts: Titles of Research Articles

Robin L. Nagano

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Short ESP/EAP Texts: Titles of Research Articles

Robin L. Nagano

University of Miskolc, Hungary

Abstract

Titles of research articles can be used in ESP/EAP classroom teaching for different proficiency levels and audiences. These are texts that are authentic and relevant to learner's needs – and also short, meaning that it is possible to work with a relatively large number of sample texts without using up too much class time. This paper introduces a numbers of activities for titles as texts, using examples from an engineering specialization and a topic in the social sciences in order to contrast usage. The primary aim is to raise learner awareness of technical and academic vocabulary, presentation of information in a compact form, and the conventions of research article titles.

Introduction

The title is clearly a subgenre of the genre of research paper, and carries with it many of the challenges that make academic genres difficult for the non-initiated – jargon, assumption of a certain level of shared information, and highly specialized topics. In some ways, the title is even more challenging, because of how compact it is. An ability to understand titles in their field is essential for any person who needs to gather information from academic sources. For a researcher who needs to disseminate his/her results, the ability to design an appropriate title is an advantage in reaching out to readers.

When we talk about 'understanding' a title, what does that refer to? It is an activity that takes place on several levels: the word level, the phrase level – in which words work together to create meaning – and the level where relations between phrases becomes clear. We also need to identify the type of information being conveyed: does it tell us about a topic, a material, a parameter, a method? Finally, how is it structured, and what message does that carry?

The title designer has to make a number of choices when deciding on a title – essential information elements, optional ones, title length, title structure, and key words, not to mention not duplicating the title of a previously published work. The title should attract potential readers, and should not flout the conventions of the discipline.

Titles are not as simple as they seem at first glance!

Titles can pose problems even for experienced users, but imagine the challenge they can pose for novices, who are still building up their disciplinary knowledge! An inexperienced researcher needs to search for literature – and the clear and rapid understanding of titles is certainly beneficial in this task. In fact, the title is one of the main factors in the reader's decision of whether or not to seek out and read the abstract.

For students just learning a specialization or becoming initiated into a discipline, titles are both authentic and relevant, thus offering face validity (which tends to be motivating). Titles typically contain a mixture of discipline-specific lexical items and semi-technical and academic vocabulary, which is likely to be useful to people needing to access scholarly or technical literature in English. They display some aspects of academic language use in "bite-size" form.

For novice researchers who need to sift through the literature in their field and topic areas, clearly the ability to judge information (and link this to relevance) is an advantage. Labassi (2009) describes a three-hour module working with post-graduate students with relatively low proficiency in English which focused on classifying titles by information content. The guided tasks were designed to help students become familiar with scanning through lists of titles, interpreting them, and noting points of interest.

Learners beginning to publish in English will need to produce their own titles. Title-based tasks can make them aware of the range of options available (in terms of structure, typical length, one or two parts, etc.). Familiarity with discipline-specific (or topic-specific, or even journal-specific) title conventions can aid them in focusing on English-style titles and moving away from translating their L1 titles, which may follow different conventions (see e.g. Soler, 2011).

From the teacher's point of view, titles are nice and short and a title-based task – once prepared – can usually be completed in a few minutes. This makes titles suitable for use not only in a dedicated module, but also as a change of pace during the lesson or to fill in a 5 or 10-minute gap.

Fortunately, titles are easy to locate using Google Scholar, academic databases, and journal homepages. With proper search terms quite specialized collections can be built up. These collections can be used as sources of examples and for tasks (see below for some ideas). They can also be analyzed by corpus tools (ranging from free, basic and user-friendly to those more suited for complex investigations) for frequency data or typical collocations. This process may be initiated by a teacher, but the corpus could just as easily be built and analyzed by a learner, or titles collected by group or class members.

In this paper, I would like to suggest methods for incorporating some work with titles into teaching languages for specific purposes and/or academic purposes. Here I (being a teacher of English) deal with English titles, but many of the same methods should work with titles in other languages, as well.

Sample titles and corpora

Sample titles are taken from two collections of titles, one in the hard sciences (engineering) and the other from the soft science side (social sciences), which will allow us to look at some disciplinary differences. In both cases the topic areas are rather interdisciplinary: energy performance of buildings (EPB) and culture shock.

Each collection contains 50 titles of journal articles (research papers or reviews) obtained from academic databases after a search using the key words above; most articles were published after 2000. The EPB corpus consists of 663 running words (the total number of words), meaning that the

average number of words per title is 13.26. The culture shock corpus, on the other hand, has 618 running words and the average title length is 12.36. This roughly fits trends found in cross-disciplinary studies (e.g., Soler, 2007), although it must be noted that title lengths (and other features) tend to vary greatly by discipline. Titles are shown in italics in this paper.

Classroom activities

Tasks can begin with searching for deleted words using hints. An example from the engineering collection:

_____*(1) of window* _____*(2) on the energy performance of* _____*(3) buildings in South Korea*

> (1) Hints: a noun; similar to effect, influence; in a different sense, means collision, one body hitting another
> (2) Hints: a noun; similar to choice; ends with '-tion'; in a different sense, means a carefully chosen collection of things or a range of things you can choose from: this shop has a good ____ of fruit
> (3) Hints: an adjective; related to a place for living (rather than for doing business, manufacturing, etc.), starts with 'r'

They can then be asked to identify the pattern being used: impact of something on something else. If learners begin to build up a pattern bank, this can assist them not only in reading but also in writing titles (and sentences, too). Deleting prepositions can create a quick but useful review of patterns: *Impact* ____ *window selection* _____ *the energy performance* ____ *residential buildings* _____ *South Korea.*

Students can be given scrambled titles divided into words or phrases and asked to put them in order, as in Figure 1. This is a good pair-work or small-group task, because their discussion of options can lead to sharing ideas. Even if the original title[1] is not reconstructed, another version may be possible (and if not, the problems with the student version can be discussed). A similar but easier version is to split titles into two halves so that patterns can be used to reunite them; at the same time the meaning has to be considered.

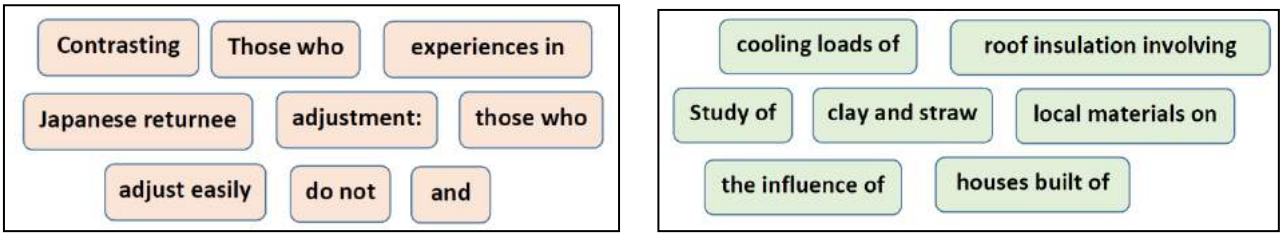


Figure 1. Scrambled titles

Students can be asked to identify words that go together to make units, using brackets to indicate them (here I have used round brackets for the smallest unit, square brackets for the next, and curly brackets for the largest unit (the whole title, in this case)):

{Impact of (window selection) on the {(energy performance) of [(residential buildings) in (South Korea)]}

Unit identification can also help make participants more aware of how noun phrases can be built up and become quite long (especially in the hard sciences). In the two sample collections titles from both soft and hard sciences demonstrate this:

- *Quantitative energy performance assessment methods for existing buildings*
- *U.S. college students' lay theories of culture shock.*

To become more familiar with how nouns can be combined, students can be asked to work with noun phrases from the titles by 'unpacking them'.

- *energy efficient buildings – buildings that use energy efficiently*
- *an urban tree planting programme – a programme for planting trees in urban areas*

Or they can work the other way, 'packing' a longer phrase into one extended noun phrase:

- programs that simulate the energy performance of buildings → *building energy performance simulation programs*
- the best layout for the electrical circuits → *optimal electrical circuiting layout*
- the competence of Japanese when communicating with people from different cultures → *Japanese intercultural communication competence*
- resources for getting support from other people online → *online social support resources*

This activity can be expanded into paraphrasing entire titles, in which participants try to rearrange the structure, exchange some non-essential words, and alter the style to explain the topic of the study, so that *Using results from field surveys to predict the effect of open windows on thermal comfort and energy use in buildings* could be restated informally as something like "I think this study investigates leaving windows open and the changes that makes to how hot or cold people feel and how much energy is used so that they can predict these things in the future". This task is very challenging, as it requires understanding or imagining how the study works. It can also be done in the L1 of the participant, if appropriate. An exercise like this helps people recognize some of the ways that information is put into a more compact form.

There are also examples of the use of allusion and metaphor in the culture shock corpus. For instance: *Changes in latitude, changes in attitude: analysis of the effects of reverse culture shock – a study of students returning from youth expeditions.* The underlined portion is the title of a 1977 song and album by the American singer and songwriter Jimmy Buffet – pointing out not simply culture but also age may play a role in whether the allusion is identified by the reader. A more widely identifiable case is: *Mind the gap: Application-based analysis of cultural adjustment models.* Here, the allusion is to the well-known signs in the London metro stations. Both examples are cleverly applied and add 'depth' to the title – if the reader gets the double meaning. Although their value in writing for an international audience is debatable, allusions do appear in titles of papers published in international journals, along with metaphor and alliteration (see Haggan, 2004). Whether to point these out in class would depend on language level and interests of the students, as well as their disciplines; not surprisingly, such devices are far more common in the soft sciences.

Looking at variations in structure

Clearly, many if not most titles are composed of strings of nouns, and title studies confirm this. However, other approaches can be taken, and one is to begin with –ing (it is not always clear whether the gerund is being used or not). Examples are: *Identifying stakeholders and key performance indicators for district and building energy performance analysis* and *Measuring sojourner adjustment among American students studying abroad.* The attention of students can be drawn to this by asking them to discuss the possible purpose of using –ing for the first word, comparing it to "Identification of…" or other nouns. They will probably be able to come up with comments such as "it feels more active" and "it sounds more practical and hands-on".

Titles that are complete sentences in themselves are not very common in most fields (although quite typical in the biomedical sciences). Still, it is good for students to recognize that this may be an option. This small collection included three titles/title parts of this type:

- *Shade trees reduce building energy use and CO_2 emissions from power plants*
- *The Intercultural Adjustment Potential Scale (ICAPS) predicts adjustment above and beyond personality and general intelligence*
- *Self-determined motivation for studying abroad predicts lower culture shock and greater well-being among international students: The mediating role of basic psychological needs satisfaction.*

Another aspect worth bringing to the attention of students is the use of questions in titles or title units:

- *First steps towards low energy buildings: how far are Chilean dwellings from nearly zero-energy performances?*
- *The initial stage of the international sojourn: excitement or culture shock?*
- *Tearing down the 'Wall in the head'? Culture contact between Germans*

Some questions are fully formed, as in the top EPB title, but fragments are very common, and seem to be used as a shorter version of 'Is this a case of…?' (Nagano, 2010). Many of them appear to have the functions of catching the reader's eye and triggering associations. Studies indicate that the use of questions in research article titles has been growing, even in the hard sciences (Ball, 2009).

Two-part titles (title and subtitle)

Some titles have two (or even more) parts; this is sometimes also called a compound title.
Which disciplines use two-part titles more frequently? Students can be asked to predict and then compare. Here, they could count the EPB titles that include colons (Figure 2). This also forces them to judge which corpus is which as quickly as possible – good practice in scanning, as recommended by Labassi (2009).

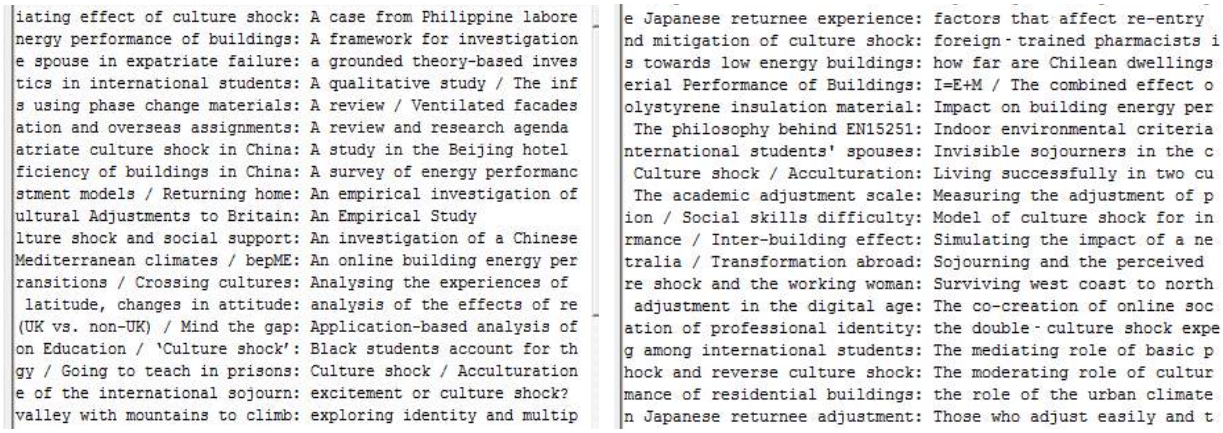


Figure 2. Concordances for the search term ':' (Hühning, TextSTAT 2.9)

Of the EPB titles, ten used the colon, while two more titles used an en-dash (–) and one an emdash (—) instead, making 13 two-part titles for EPB versus 28 for culture shock. In addition, there was one culture shock title consisting of three parts. These results are typical: studies have shown that it is more common for soft sciences to use two-part titles than for hard sciences (see e.g. Soler, 2007).

In some cases, the first part tells the topic and the second part gives more information about the method: *Intercultural adjustment and friendship dialectics in international students: A qualitative*

study. Sometimes a general topic area is given in the first part with more context supplied in the second. In other cases, the author is trying to catch the reader's eye, usually in the first part (but not always!). I personally have had difficulty classifying the units, but it may be a topic worth some discussion in class.

One rather challenging task is to match the units to form the original title[2]. This requires searching for the connection between units, which is not always immediately obvious.
(a) *Blame it on the owner —*
(b) *Crossing cultures:*
(c) *Expatriate adjustment in the digital age:*
(d) *Inter-building effect:*
(e) *The initial stage of the international sojourn:*
(f) *The philosophy behind EN15251:*

____ *Analysing the experiences of NZ returnees from the EU (UK vs. non-UK)*
____ *Excitement or culture shock?*
____ *Indoor environmental criteria for design and calculation of energy performance of buildings.*
____ *Ownership and energy performance of multi-dwelling buildings performance predictions*
____ *Simulating the impact of a network of buildings on the accuracy of building energy performance predictions*
____ *The co-creation of online social support resources through blogging*

Frequency and collocation

If the teacher and/or students have access to and interest in using corpus tools, some interesting information can be revealed. Even from titles, short as they are (in contrast to the full text or even the abstract), it is possible to gain information about a discipline, what it considers important, and how it approaches the study of the area. Tables 1 and 2 show all of the words occurring more than twice in the frequency lists of content words in the EPB corpus and the Culture Shock corpus, respectively.

Table 1. Frequent content words and number of occurrences, energy performance of buildings corpus

energy	52	cooling	5	analysis	3	materials	3
performance	40	thermal	5	data	3	occupants	3
buildings	28	environmental	4	effect	3	review	3
building	19	residential	4	evaluation	3	simulation	3
impact	6	roof	4	green	3	study	3
use	6	using	4	investigation	3		

Table 2. Frequent content words and number of occurrences, culture shock corpus

culture	26	study	5	acculturative	3	cultures	3
shock	24	acculturation	4	adaptation	3	effects	3
students	15	cross-cultural	4	analysis	3	experiences	3
adjustment	14	experience	4	Chinese	3	intelligence	3
international	10	social	4	college	3	intercultural	3
expatriate	5	abroad	3	cultural	3	investigation	3

While many of the vocabulary items are clearly field-specific, the proportion of research-related items is also substantial, especially in the EPB list. If several small and specialized collections are available, one interesting task might be to compare frequency lists for various subtopics within a discipline (in intercultural communication we may have culture shock, face-threatening acts, non-verbal communication, stereotypes, proxemics, etc.) without labeling them, and asking students to identify them.

The concordance feature offered by corpus tools is good for focusing on particular lexical items of interest. Here, a screenshot using the free software TextSTAT (Hühning) shows results of a search for 'cultural', which also brings up words that contain the search term. Students can use this to identify collocations (intercultural adjustment, cross-cultural training, etc.).

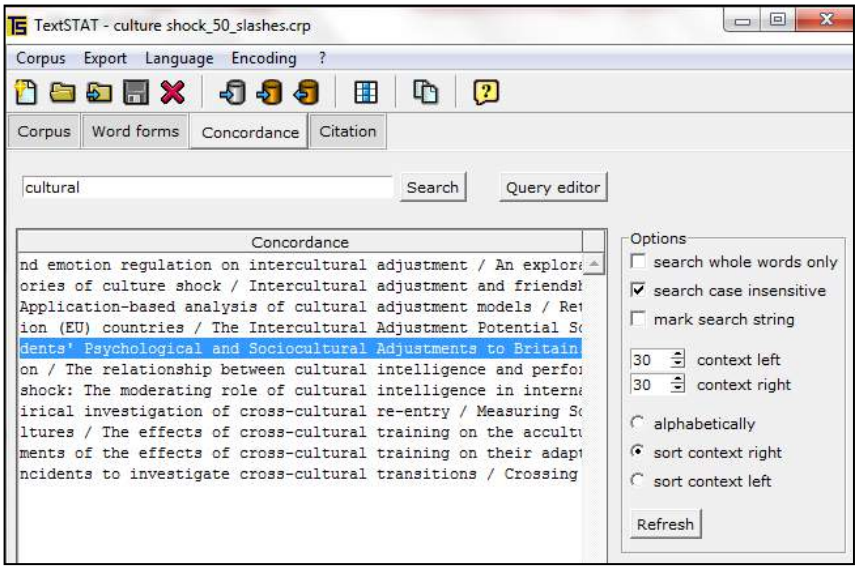


Figure 3. Concordance for 'cultural' in the culture shock corpus

Final comments

The tasks and activities I have suggested here could be combined in a longer title module, or could be spread across many weeks, depending on the aims of the course. While I have focused upon titles of academic research articles, many of these techniques could certainly be used with other types of titles, with headlines, or even with short texts, depending on the needs and interests of students. While title collecting may seem troublesome at first, it is not all that difficult; including students in collecting titles may ease your load while increasing their sense of involvement and their exposure to titles, the mini-text that has so much influence in the academic and research worlds.

Notes

[1] The unscrambled titles are:
Contrasting experiences in Japanese returnee adjustment: Those who adjust easily and those who do not
Study of the influence of roof insulation involving local materials on cooling loads of houses built of clay and straw

[2] Key to matching title parts: b, e, f, a, d, c

References

Ball, R. 2009. Scholarly communication in transition: The use of question marks in the titles of scientific articles in medicine, life sciences and physics 1966–2005. *Scientometrics*,79(3): 667-679.

Haggan, M. 2004. Research paper titles in literature, linguistics and science: dimensions of attraction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36: 293–317.

Hüning, M. TextSTAT 2. http://neon.niederlandistik.fu-berlin.de/textstat/

Labbasi, T. 2009. Reading titles of empirical research articles. *The Reading Matrix*, 9(2): 166–174.

Nagano, R.L. 2010. Question forms in journal article titles. Proceedings of the 4th Applied Linguistics PhD Conference, 2 February, Budapest, pp. 100-111.

Soler, V. 2007. Writing titles in science: An exploratory study. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26: 90–102.

Soler, V. 2011. Comparative and contrastive observations on scientific titles written in English and Spanish. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30: 124–137.

The Effect of Online Authentic Materials on Motivation in ESP Classrooms

Vjosa Vela

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

The Effect of Online Authentic Materials on Motivation in ESP Classrooms

Vjosa Vela

South East European University

Abstract

Using authentic materials in ESP classrooms is widely discussed in recent years. As a result, numerous studies have been carried out analyzing the pedagogical benefits, role and the effects of using authentic materials in ESP classrooms. Most of the teachers involved in foreign language teaching believe that authentic materials or texts are useful to vocabulary and language learning process. Students exposed to authentic materials in ESP classroom are better able to cope in real life situations and are more eager to learn the foreign culture. Moreover, using authentic online recourses and technology is easily accessible and useful for the students. The aim of this paper is to explore how online authentic materials could be used to increase students' motivation in ESP classrooms. To address these questions, the paper is organized in two parts. In the first part, the definition of authentic materials is given. Then advantages and disadvantages of the use of authentic materials are discussed. The participants of this study are 90 students of ESP for Legal Studies from the South East European University Language Center. Over a ten week period students followed their course material and syllabus however they were also exposed to online authentic materials and cultural content in addition to the regular syllabus and textbook. A questionnaire was administered to the students to find out if online authentic materials and technology could be used to enhance students' engagement in ESP classrooms. The findings led to a conclusion that technology and authentic materials are effective tools that can be implemented in an ESP classroom.

Keywords: ESP, technology, authentic materials, motivation, vocabulary learning

Introduction

Authenticity has been pointed to by various authors as a relevant feature in ESP methodology (Safont and Esteve 2004: 261-274) The learner-centered approach is essential to ESP teaching, and identified learner's needs are not fully satisfied by published texts. Authentic materials should be taken from the real world and not primarily created for pedagogical reasons. Such materials are particularly important for communicative purposes since they reproduce an immersion environment and provide a realistic context for tasks that relate to learner's needs. Authentic materials can greatly benefit problem-solving, project-based learning, case based learning, role-play, and simulation and gaming methodology. Students and teachers can use authentic materials as a means to "link the formal, and to some extent artificial, environment of the classroom with the real world in which we hope our students will eventually be using the language they are learning" (House, S. 2008: 53-70).

Students' lack of knowledge on how to learn and achieve autonomously is a reflection of the current state of Education in our country. Being used to a traditional way of teaching and learning, students always depend on the teacher and the book, there is almost never an initiative to take part in

different activities and assignments, especially those that include speaking. Considering that at the university we have students from different knowledge backgrounds, this, unfortunately, is the trend. However, it is the English language teacher's responsibility to foster learner autonomy, help their learners become independent learners, and later enjoy the huge positive effect it will have on the learning process.

Nowadays mobile technologies have been gradually integrated into learning. The wide use of smart phones and other portable and wireless devices has been significantly changing the ways of learning in many contexts, including language learning (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009). Numerous mobile applications (apps) have been developed to support different aspects of second/foreign language learning, including listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, and grammar. Although these apps, usually with sound, images, and interactions, are certainly appealing to learners, the second language pedagogy that underpins these resources and activities should never be ignored. These apps and other online authentic materials

The main focus of this research paper is to analyze the effects of using language applications and various online authentic materials as a means of increasing the learners' lexical competence, and how it enhances their motivation in class. The research has taken place at the Language Centre, South East European University, Tetovo, Republic of Macedonia.

Online Authentic materials

Palmero (2003) introduces different challenges that an ESP instructor may face. He states that when classifying and preparing ESP materials the teacher needs to include authenticity, simulation of real situations, flexibility on the part of topics used, and relevance to the discipline they aim to destine. Horwitz (2008) concerning EAP/ESP points out that in such specialized courses learners have a range of needs and purposes and those play an important part in preparing materials. As the course name suggests there always needs to be a purpose (Farhady, 1995) compared with general English courses that no specific need or purpose is defined. One of the needs and purposes in such courses is to act properly in real-world situations. According to Dudley -Evans (1997) ESP is characterized by a learner-centered approach to teaching, an emphasis on aspects of English relevant to professional discourse, communicative and immediate learning purposes of learners in learning the language, diversity of materials, a teacher who takes the role of the materials designer and collaborator, and the most urgent needs of learners (Cited in Palmero, 2003). Harding (2007:10) emphasizing the use of authentic materials provides some guidelines for ESP teachers for the approach they need to take and some dos and don'ts as follows:

- Think about what is needed.
- Understand the nature of your students' subject area or vocation.
- Spend time working out their language needs in relation to the subject.
- Use contexts, texts, and situations from the students' subject area.
- Exploit authentic materials that the students use in their specialism or vocation
- Make the tasks authentic as wells as the texts
- Motivate the students with variety, relevance, and fun.
- Try to take the classroom into the real world that the students inhabit, and bring their real world into the classroom.

As ESL teachers, we have many helpful ESL resources to aid our classroom teaching. And we're lucky we can take advantage of technology to find useful ESL teaching tools online. Unlike the ESL materials, worksheets, study guides and other lesson plans you download from the web, authentic materials are resources created for native speakers of the target language. There are no reading comprehension tests and vocabulary sections at the end of an article to quiz students' understanding. To get your mind thinking of all the possibilities, authentic materials can include: Listening: TV shows, radio, commercials, news broadcasts, documentaries, movies, phone messages, etc. Visual: photographs, art works, signs with symbols, postcards, picture books, etc. Printed: restaurant menus, newspaper articles, bulletin board advertisements, company websites,

coupons, sales catalogues, travel brochures, maps, telephone books, signs, blogs, movie posters, food labels, etc.

Advantages of using Online Authentic Materials

The main benefits of using real English are clear. By using authentic materials, students will encounter words and constructions that they'd probably never see in formal ESL materials. Authentic materials will no-doubt expose your students to culture, so you can actually take the context into consideration instead of just looking at how language is used.
The fact that these resources are the real deal will also increase student's motivation and better meet the learner's needs. The goal is to understand and use English in real life, so using authentic resources will teach the student what he or she needs to know to get there.

Disadvantages of using Online Authentic Materials:

Authentic texts may be difficult to understand because of a culture gap. Also the vocabulary may not be exactly what the students need and they are could be rather difficult for beginners. Moreover there are many various accents and dialects in listening
Preparation of the texts and activities is often demanding because materials become outdated quickly (news), and although easily accessible in most institutions, using technology could be time consuming for the teacher.

Online Authentic Materials for Legal English class:

In English for Specific Purposes, the learners should get the material related to their future jobs. Automatically after taking an English class, the learners are expected to be ready to face globalization era as English is very required. Therefore, the material should be set up as appropriate as possible with their needs and wants. The materials given to the learners play a very important role in ESP. The materials can help the teacher to deliver the knowledge or skill to the students easier. Teacher also can provide a good learning process for students through materials (Helida, 2015). It means that the materials determine the successful of teaching and learning process of ESP. Getting well designed material in ESP will take more students‟ attention. Designing a good material is one factor that differentiates ESP with general English. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1991), in practice, designing material is one of the most characteristic features of ESP. In contrast to General English teaching, a large amount of the ESP teacher's time may well be taken up in designing materials. Proceedings of the Fifth International Seminar on English Language and Teaching (ISELT-5) Challenges and Opportunities inMulti-dimensional English Language Teaching in Changing EFL Contexts 212 ISELT-5 2017 The existing current materials of ESP are not enough to cover students‟ needs and wants. It is happened in almost all institutions that provide their learners with ESP subject. Upton (2013) stated that a current problem of ESP material is not appropriate with students' needs and wants. Most course of ESP does not update their materials, so the materials provided to the learners is not up to date. Meanwhile, the students' needs and wants change continuously as long as world changing. Another problem of current ESP material is its authenticity. Most ESP materials spread are lack of authenticity because both teachers and institutions do not revise and update the materials. Meanwhile, the authenticity of material will very helpful for students to get the language skill that can be applied in real life. Authentic material will

provide the students with material that suitable with the condition of the world. It will help the students to use English in their daily life. Perez (2005) said that it is a challenge for teachers of ESP now to provide the students with authentic material. It means that the authenticity is a serious problem in ESP materials.

Possible online authentic Materials

-Legal documents published by government branches are could be used as teaching materials in courses in law which are referred to as "authentic materials" in Tsou W, Shin-Mei K (2014). These could include: official documents Constitution, laws passed by legislatures, regulations promulgated by executive agencies, case decisions issued by the courts, and other legal documents written in English.
- Materials relevant that contain lots of English schemas such as Twitter, ABC, CNN, online newspapers etc.
-Materials that are entertaining such as Legal dramas, movies or documentaries. Although they don't always represent the profession accurately, but they are great for showing all the fields students can work in. They are also beneficial for class discussion and vocabulary learning. Some of popular dramas and movies are: Boston Legal, Suits, Ally Mc Beal, Law and Order, Matlock, The Good Wife. There is also a list of movies and documentaries from A to Z in the link below: http://www.legalresearchandwriting.ca/movies/military.htm

-Online free mobile applications such as Legal Dictionaries, U.S. Constitution: Analysis and Interpretation, Legal News app.

Methodology

In order to accomplish the aforementioned purposes, this study explored the effect of using online authentic materials at SEEU Language Centre by addressing the following four research questions:

1. Do online authentic materials promote more learning and retention of previously unknown words?'
2. What are students' attitudes towards the use of online authentic materials?

Participants

The study includes 90 participants who are non-English major and are students who are currently enrolled at SEEU Language Centre taking English classes in different levels due to the fact that English classes are a compulsory part of their syllabus. At the SEEU Language Centre there are four levels of General English Classes. Level 1 is Beginners, Level 2 are Lower Intermediate, Level 3 are Intermediate and Level 4 are Upper Intermediate students regarding their proficiency level. This means they are students of Basic English courses levels A1, A2, B1, B2 (Common European Framework). After they finish the General English courses, students enroll to ESP courses depending on their field of study. At SEEU we offer ESP for Law, Public Administration, Business and Computer Sciences. The students that took part in this study were students of ESP Law. The age of the students varied from 19 to 24 years old, both male and female. The students were from different ethnic backgrounds (Albanians, Macedonians and Turkish). The reason of the equal number of participants is to divide them all into equal groups and to make the calculations of the results manageable and most important to have a clear picture of the results at the end when they are compared.

Instruments

Instruments used in this study include a pre vocabulary test, a post vocabulary test observation of students' activity and attendance during the study and a questionnaire. Each instrument is described in detail below:

Pre-Test

The participants were given a pre-test before the assignment in order to investigate the effectiveness of the use of online authentic materials. The test contained 100 target words that would be used in the study and in the post-tests (recall tests) and some distracters (similar words). The reason for these distracter vocabulary items was to prevent the participants from paying too much attention to the target words in the reading text of the main study. Using these distracter items increased the probability that the participants would not be able to recall any of the target words from the vocabulary pre-test.

Post-test

The participants were involved in a post test to measure weather students recall the key vocabulary items from they encountered using authentic materials during the semester. The participants were not told in advance that they will take a test

Questionnaire

After the post test the participants received a questionnaire about their attitude towards using online authentic materials. The questions were in Albanian, Macedonian or English. The questionnaire addressed questions about the participants' opinion on using online authentic materials during the semester. It investigated whether authentic materials were helpful to the participants to remember the target vocabulary words. The questionnaire was applied at the end of the semester to assess the students' attitudes and motivation when authentic materials were used for teaching English as a foreign language.

Q1: Did you participate in the activities based on authentic materials? The first question referred to the students' participation in the English classes when authentic materials were used.
Q2: Did you enjoy using authentic materials in the English class? The second question was aimed to provide data referring to whether students enjoyed using authentic materials in the English class.
Q 3 was aimed to determine the students' motivation to learn English when authentic materials were used in the teaching/learning process.
Q4: Did you find authentic materials effective? The fourth question, "Did you find authentic materials effective?", was aimed to determine the effectiveness of using authentic materials in EFL classes.
Q5: Did authentic materials help you enrich your vocabulary?

Only the participants in the experimental groups responded to the questionnaire because the control group of both levels did not receive any treatment with glosses.

Procedures

At our university, one semester lasts for 12 weeks and the students are expected to finish their level for this period of time. The vocabulary pre-test were given to all three groups during a regular class session the on the first week of the semester. Two weeks later, the implementation of online authentic materials began in the treatment group. The use of authentic materials was used as

supplementary material in the experimental group and the teaching was conducted the same way as in the control groups. However 30 minutes of each class time was used for various activities challenging the students to use the words in speaking and writing that they had encountered during class using authentic materials. Apart from this, during the 10 weeks of the implementation all three groups followed the same syllabus. Most of the authentic materials were selected on a week-by-week basis and a number of general guidelines were followed in the process:

a) they had to reflect the same general topic as the traditional textbook
b) the linguistic input had to be correlated with the students' language proficiency specific to the intermediate level. c) they had to reflect the culture of the society in which the linguistic interactions take place in the target language to enhance students' cultural awareness;
d) they had to meet the students' interest and needs. The materials were designed to include pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading tasks typical of foreign language methodology.

Results

Results from the vocabulary pre-test and post-test

Table 1.1 The number of students and students and results from the pre and post vocabulary tests

	Number of Students	Pre Test	Post Test
Treatment Group	30	19 Words	68 Words
Control Group A	30	18 Words	39 Words
Control Group B	30	21 Words	42 Words

*100 Words in total

Results of the vocabulary tests

It is clear from the results that the treatment group that used online authentic materials for ten weeks outperformed both control. Using authentic materials as a supplement prove to be a useful tool that promotes more learning and retention of previously unknown words.

Results from the questionnaire

The results from the questionnaire about students' attitudes towards the use of online authentic materials were very positive. Thirty students participated in the questionnaire. They had to fill in a form and had the options for answers: a) very much b) much c) little d) very little

Q1: Did you participate in the activities based on authentic materials? The first question referred to the students' participation in the English classes when authentic materials were used. Answers show a high level of students' participation in the classes. Thus, 28 students chose the answer very much and only 2 students chose the answer much.

Q2: Did you enjoy using authentic materials in the English class? The second question was aimed to provide data referring to whether students enjoyed using authentic materials in the English class. 24 students answered they greatly enjoyed using authentic materials, 3 students admitted they enjoyed it much, and only 3 students acknowledged that they preferred being exposed to authentic materials little.

Q3: Did authentic materials motivate you to learn English? Question 3 was aimed to determine the students' motivation to learn English when authentic materials were used in the teaching/learning process. 26 students stated that authentic materials motivated them very much, 1 student considered that such materials motivated them much and only 3 students admitted they were little motivated to learn the target language when they used authentic materials in the English class.

Q5: Did you find authentic materials effective? The fifth question, "Did you find authentic materials effective?", was aimed to determine the effectiveness of using authentic materials in EFL classes. The outcomes showed that half of the students (50%) definitely considered them very effective, 11 students, found them effective, 3 students considered them as being little effective.

Q6: Did authentic materials help you enrich your vocabulary? As for this question, 20 students answered that the use of authentic materials greatly helped them enrich their vocabulary, 8 students replied that their vocabulary enriched much through the use of these materials, and 2 students admitted that their vocabulary enriched little.

The results support that online authentic materials were successful in helping students acquire the target vocabulary words. Although the treatment group and the control groups both used the same textbook and syllabus, the difference that the students from the treatment were exposed to online authentic materials and tasks. Moreover they had short revision activities in class which results with a significant increase of vocabulary acquisition of the treatment group. In a study conducted to test the Involvement Load Hypothesis, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) compared the vocabulary retention of EFL learners exposed to tasks with different involvement loads; they found that the tasks for which the involvement load was higher resulted in better retention of vocabulary words encountered in the tasks. While the involvement load of the tasks in which students were involved in the present study cannot be calculated, it would seem logical to assume that the involvement load of tasks was higher than that of the more traditional vocabulary instruction activities. Simply exposing students to authentic materials won't be very beneficial for the students in long term so the activities that reviewed the vocabulary items helped them activate their vocabulary by being challenged to use the new words in reading and writing.

The second question about the attitudes of the students were positive about online authentic materials. Majority of students enjoyed using technology and authentic materials and they found the classroom activities very beneficial. Moreover, it seems safe to say that, in the right setting, online authentic materials can enhance vocabulary acquisition and student motivation. Incorporating such activities into the syllabus right from the start of the semester would be very beneficial to the students. However the activities are depended on technology, so you need to have access to laptops, projector and internet in the classroom, but using authentic online recourses and technology is easily accessible in most institutions and useful for the students

Conclusion

I believe that the authentic materials offered students a valuable source of language input "since they could be exposed to more than just the language presented by the teacher and the textbook" and we had many opportunities for planning and organizing teaching and learning activities. The authentic materials used in the present study proved to be highly motivating and beneficial in language learning. One recommendation for future studies is to use larger groups and above all more test items since the smaller the number of participants, the less likely are conclusions that can be generalized. That is why more longitudinal studies are needed in order to investigate the long-term effects of using online authentic materials.

References

Dudley, E.T. and M.J.St. John. (1998). Developments in ESP: A multidisciplinary approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Farhady, H. (1995). On the specificity of purpose in ESP. in Miremdi, A. the proceedings of
the second international conference in linguistics and applied linguistics. Tehran:
Allameh Tabatabaee University Press. Pp 479-490.

Gilmore, A. 2007. «Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning». Language Teaching 40 (2): 97- 118.

Harding, K. (2007).English for specific purposes. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

House, S. 2008. «Authentic materials in the classroom». In Didactic approaches for teachers of English in an international context. Sonsoles Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría and Ramiro Durán Martínez, 53-70. Salamanca: Ediciones Universidad de Salamanca.

Hutchinson and Waters (1991),Tsou W, Shin-Mei K (eds) Resources for teaching English for specific purposes, Bookman, Taipei, pp 113–130, 2014).

Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2009). Will Mobile Learning Change Language Learning? ReCALL, 21, 157-165.

Laufer, B., & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language:The construct of task-induced involvement. Applied Linguistics, 22,1-26
Applied Linguistics, Volume 22, Issue 1, 1 March 2001, Pages 1–26,
Palmero, N. C. (2003). The ESP teacher as a materials designer: A practical example. ELAI (4), 189- 200.

Safont, M. P. and Esteve, M. J. 2004. «Online resources for the EAP classroom: Ways of promoting EFL learners' autonomy». In Linguistic Studies in Academic and Professional English, eds. Inmaculada Fortanet, Juan Carlos Palmer, and Santiago Posteguillo, 261-274. Castellón: Universitat Jaume I.

Integrating technology, internet apps and videos to inspire and motivate students in ESP lessons

Lumturie Bajrami

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Conference paper

Integrating technology, internet apps and videos to inspire and motivate students in ESP lessons

Lumturie Bajrami

South East European University

Abstract

Today there is a wealth of exciting and interesting new possibilities to make learning English more attractive, authentic and rewarding, both for students and teachers with the integration of technology in the process of teaching and learning. Yet it is often difficult to find suitable resources due to the overwhelming number of websites, YouTube videos and apps available. This paper will focus on how digital media, videos and tools can be used alongside traditional ones. However, pedagogical use of videos and apps for language learning purposes is still often anchored in classroom tasks which don't fulfill its true potential. This paper aims to analyze the effects of internet apps and audio visual material in order to offer and create successful language classes, which will have effect on students' motivation and participation in ESP courses at university level in the viewpoint of English instructors. Materials as videos should be selected by certain criteria, such as: they should contain the desired linguistic material; be thematically interesting; repeat the viewings for students to understand the text fully; and be brief. As with selecting all instructional materials, there is a good video and a bad video for language teaching purposes. A useful video must contain the desired linguistic material for instructional purposes. In most cases, for language courses attempting to develop communicative performance, this criterion means language that is current, useful and accurate in a corresponding situation.

The purpose of this study is to investigate and show the benefits that the language teachers and learners get from using media in teaching and learning the English language. According to the analysis and the data collected in English classes, the findings reveal a positive effect of internet apps and video use on students' motivation and participation.

Keywords: technology, language teaching, ESP lessons, motivation

Introduction

Modern information and communication technology (ICT) has become a part of the education system and invading the foreign language teaching community. Technology is very much part of language learning throughout the world at all different levels. We are as likely to find it in the primary sector as much as in adult education.

Focusing on the web video resources use in the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classes, the article reviews the relevant approaches to classroom organization and management, students' integrated skills development, and shares experience of technology-video-based language training and learning. Being a constituent part of our lives nowadays, the global net provides information and gives access to knowledge. Moreover, it allows communicating and transferring information and knowledge.

Over the past decade the web technologies have become increasingly important for all participants of the educational process. Teachers use the Internet as a tool of information and technical support, means of foreign language teaching, and source of professional development. In their turn, students use the Internet as a tool of information and technical support, new means of communication in a foreign language, admit and accept the web as a source of self-study and self-development. There has also been a tremendous shift in the way that users integrate technology into their personal lives. These changes have taken time to filter down into the educational sector, but slowly teachers have realized the need to adapt their practice in order to reflect the changing nature of technological use in the wider world. In the past, technology has predominately been used to source and consume information, whereas today's learners have become particularly adept at creating and collaboratively developing content for a wide variety of purposes, for example so-called Web 2.0 tools such as blogs and forums. Moreover, children and young people are now becoming increasingly interested in the concept of 'content curation' – selecting, sifting, showcasing and sharing content with friends, family and peers.

Theoretical background

Just as in general English language teaching and learning, technology in its various forms has long been used in ESP, whether in the form of a tape recorder or sophisticated digital technology. But maybe its impact on ESP has been more profound (Arnó, Soler and Rueda, 2006a). ESP teachers have always used available tools to devise materials and create situations relevant to their students' needs (Arnó-Macià, 2012).

Some benefits of technology in language learning are the same for ESP learners as for general English learners. For example, finding native speakers as learning or communication partners or reading or watching the news in the target language for those who do not have easy access to these locally. In lessons, teachers can bring the outside world into the classroom, provide authentic contexts in which English is used, expose students to different varieties and accents of English, and give students listening practice. But, whereas in general English lessons even the teachers themselves can be a valuable resource for listening, speaking and authentic language use, in many cases technology, whether, for example, in the form of videos or on the internet, is the only means for ESP students to access the specific language they need in order to communicate appropriately. Butler-Pascoe (2009: 1) states that it is the 'hybrid nature of ESP', having to teach both the language and the 'field-specific content' that makes it challenging for teachers, who often do not have the field-specific knowledge to teach. Although it is not usually the case that teachers also have to teach the content, especially when teaching adult professionals, they do need to teach the field-specific language, which they might not always know, and which changes and develops over time. When teaching professionals, the needs also go beyond the language itself; they also require the use of authentic tasks, tools, and context (Bremner, 2010; Evans, 2012).
According to Butler-Pascoe (2009: 2), 'at least three primary models exist for delivering ESP instruction:

1. ESP taught by English teachers using field-specific content 2. Field-specific courses taught by teachers in the disciplines using English as the language of instruction.
3. A collaborative model in which both English and field-specific teachers have joint input into the development and/or teaching of the course' and 'innovative uses of today's technology' can play an important role in all three. Interestingly, Butler-Pascoe (2009) mentions that, besides being used for teaching and learning ESP, the same technologies can also be used to help ESP teachers communicate with each other and their students.
Butler-Pascoe (2009: 2–3) lists 14 advantages of technology for ESP, which she later describes in more detail:
1. Provides interaction and communicative activities representative of specific professional or academic environments.
2. Fosters understanding of the socio-cultural aspects of the language as practised in various fields and professions.
3. Provides comprehensible field-specific input and facilitates student production.
4. Provides sheltering strategies for language development and content-specific understanding (modelling, bridging to students' background experiences, contextualizing, metacognitive activities, etc.).
5. Uses task-based and inquiry-based strategies reflective of tasks in discipline specific settings and situations.
6. Uses authentic materials from specific disciplines and occupations.
7. Supplies authentic audiences, including outside experts in specific fields.
8. Supports cognitive abilities and critical thinking skills required in the disciplines.
9. Uses collaborative learning.
10. Facilitates focused practice for the development of reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills across the curriculum and disciplines.
11. Is student-centered and addresses specific needs of students.
12. Uses multiple modalities to support different learning styles.
13. Meets affective needs of students: motivation, self-esteem, and autonomy.
14. Provides appropriate feedback and assessment of content knowledge and English skills

Types of media and technology for ESP classes

There are many types of technology devices that are and can be used still in ESP lessons from the traditional tape recorder or CD player, to interactive whiteboards, ICT, Web 2.0 tools, mobile technologies and 3D virtual environments. It is impossible to list them all. Therefore, some more widely used ones in greater detail and are shown practical and concrete examples of how they are used by teachers in different ESP courses around the world.
Video materials nowadays are not only part of everyday life activities, but they are shown as an effective method in teaching English language as a foreign language for all learners both inside and outside classroom. Ever-changing technological advancements present new opportunities for instructors to incorporate online materials, videos into traditional classroom situations, allowing both learning and teaching to become more interesting and meaningful.
The advantages of using video materials seem to be clear and evident: the Internet video resources are informative, authentic, up-to-date, flexible, and easy to use, a great advantage is that they also provide original and authentic input as they are produced originally for native speakers such as films, different TV programs, songs, etc. Videos can be used in variety of instructional and teaching settings- in classroom, as a way of presenting content, initiating discussion, for providing illustration for a certain topic and content, self-study and evaluation situations.

When teachers bring video materials into their English classrooms, students can directly acquire a great amount of cultural background information and emotional attitudes about the learning materials. Therefore, they could employ their autonomy in language learning. While viewing the video materials, students can put themselves in the vivid atmosphere created by the video materials and understand the pragmatics of the language used by the characters. Compared with traditional English teaching, such courses truly put into practice the student-centred teaching strategies.
According to Paulsen (2001), the effective use of online materials may provide positive spin-offs for learners much the same as if they were immersed in the language and culture while studying abroad. Two important reasons cited for such positive performance are authenticity and motivation. She proposes that, "It is no longer a question of whether to take advantage of these electronic technologies in foreign language instruction, but of how to harness them and guide our students in their use.

Conclusion

The use of technology in the language classes has become a common thing. Emphasizing the importance of the Internet video resources to ESP teaching, it is necessary to point out that there are some great advantages as well as inevitable problems and inescapable drawbacks. According to many researchers language teachers like video because it motivates learners, brings the real world into the classroom, contextualizes language naturally and enables learners to experience authentic language. Students like it because video presentations are interesting, challenging, and stimulating to watch. Following the successive steps to video materials' integration into the classroom, such as searching, evaluation, selection, compiling activities, and feedback analysis, a teacher ought to take into consideration many factors including syllabus objectives, students' needs and their professional interests, their command of the language and the classroom technical possibilities. The relevant class procedure and management can promote the total language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, – and sub-skills: pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar. The video clips and other learning materials should be related to the students' specialness. Promoting the integrated skills in the professional context leads to a raise of learners' interest to the subject and better results in language acquisition. Working with the Internet materials demands special strategies that assume more autonomous functioning, and, on the other hand, requires readiness to work in a team and collaborate with the others. Students receive a good foundation of further life-long education and professional skills development. Using online video resources for ESP classes has great potential, and in future can stimulate students and teachers to create their own video materials and allocate them on the global net.

References

Arnó, E, Soler, A and Rueda, C (2006a) 'The Role of Information Technology in Languages for Specific Purposes: Some Central Issues', in Arnó, E, Soler, A and Rueda, C (eds) Information Technology in Languages for Specific Purposes: Issues and Prospects. New York: Springer, 3–18.
Arnó-Macià, E (2012) The Role of Technology in Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes Courses. The Modern Language Journal 96/Focus Issue: 89–104.
Bremner, S (2010) Collaborative writing: Bridging the gap between the textbook and the workplace. English for Specific Purposes 29: 121–132.
Butler-Pascoe, ME (2009) English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Innovation, and Technology. English Education and ESP 1–15.
Evans, S (2012) Designing email tasks for the Business English classroom: Implications from a study of Hong Kong's key industries. English for Specific Purposes 31: 202–212.
Paulsen, P. (2001). New era trends and technologies in foreign language learning: An annotated bibliography. *Interactive Multimedia Electronic Journal of Computer-Enhanced Learning*, *4*(6), 36-48.

Oral communication in healthcare: Aiming for intelligibility

Najma Janjua

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

Oral communication in healthcare: Aiming for intelligibility

Najma Janjua

Kagawa Prefectural University of Health Sciences

Abstract

In no other profession is the need for error-free oral communication more critical than the healthcare. This paper looks at challenges of teaching ESP in healthcare in the Japanese context and describes a project aimed at developing pedagogical tools to help the learners achieve intelligibility in their professional oral communication. The project, funded by a KAKENHI Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Japanese ministry of education and to be carried out in three phases, proposes to develop two pedagogical tools in the form of pronunciation learning and practicing guides to help Japanese students in healthcare disciplines improve their ability to pronounce medical terms intelligibly. The proposed guides include a basic or level one pronunciation practice guide (MPPG1) based on commonly used medical terms, and an advanced or level two pronunciation practice guide (MPPG2) comprising more complex medical terminology. The paper focuses on the first phase of the project that entails the designing and development of MPPG1. A prototype of the MPPG1 is presented together with its main features and instructions for use in the classroom. It is anticipated that MPPG1 will contribute significantly toward helping the Japanese ESP learners in medical fields acquire intelligibility in their workplace oral communication. Furthermore, it is hoped that the project will generate discussion on examining existing and/or developing newer pedagogical tools for ESP learners in professions other than healthcare and with first languages other than Japanese and

Introduction

Effective communication among healthcare team members and between healthcare professionals and patients is indispensable for safe and reliable healthcare delivery (WHO, 2008; Lyndon et al, 2011). Accordingly, acquiring an intelligible English pronunciation is indispensable for ESP learners aiming for careers in medicine and allied disciplines. In Japan, following the global trends to raise medical professionals who can work effectively in an increasingly globalized world, healthcare institutions are beginning to replace general English courses with those focusing on English for medical purposes in their undergraduate programs. However, intelligibility issues related to learners' oral communication are among the major challenges faced by the teachers and the learners (Janjua, 2014).

The underlying causes of most difficulties encountered in oral communication by the Japanese learners of English are attributed to L1 interference (Ohata, 2004; Shimo, 2002; Wells, 2000). The

interference is said to originate in katakana, the syllabic portion of the Japanese writing system that is used mainly for writing foreign words (Kawai et al, 1987). By its very nature, katakana has the ability to transform any foreign language word into Japanese language. Furthermore, through this process of transformation, the foreign language word loses the pronunciation of its original language and instead acquires a uniquely Japanese way of pronunciation which in most cases is markedly different from the way the word is pronounced in its own language. Since English is a foreign language for native Japanese speakers, literally the entire English lexicon can be written and pronounced in a Japanese way. Consequently, when Japanese speak English, they experience L1 interference which often makes their speech incomprehensible to non-Japanese speakers of English (Ohata, 2004; Shimo, 2002; Wells, 2000).

This paper describes the outline and preliminary results of a project aimed at developing a set of pedagogical tools in the form of pronunciation learning and practicing guides. The guides are to be designed for use by Japanese students in medicine and allied sciences with the objective of minimizing interference from their mother tongue and thus improve their ability to pronounce commonly used and advanced English medical terms intelligibly. The project, funded by a KAKENHI Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Japanese ministry of education and to be carried out in three phases, proposes to develop two such guides to help Japanese students of medical English improve their English pronunciation in the context of their future workplace. The proposed guides include a basic or level one pronunciation practice guide (MPPG1) based on commonly used medical and related terms, and an advanced or level two pronunciation practice guide (MPPG2) comprising more complex medical terminology. This paper focuses on the first phase of the project that entails the designing and development of MPPG1.

The KAKENHI Project

Main points

Following are the main points summarizing what is proposed to be elucidated and pursued under the KAKENHI project:

1. Two pronunciation learning and practicing guides (MPPG1 and MPPG2) will be developed.
2. MPPG1 will be based on common medical terms while MPPG2 will comprise more advanced terminology.
3. The guides will be targeted toward students enrolled in Japanese health sciences programs.
4. The guides will aim to enable the students to learn and acquire intelligibility in English pronunciation in relation to discourse and settings in the context of healthcare.
5. Efficacy of the guides will be tested in Japanese university freshmen and sophomores enrolled in basic and advanced medical English courses.

Research plan

The proposed research is to be undertaken in three phases over a period of three years. In the first phase, MPPG1 will be developed based on theoretical and practical considerations combined with findings of previous research on the subject. In the second phase, the MPPG1 will be assessed for its short-term (one-semester) and long term (two-semester) use in Japanese university freshmen enrolled in medical English courses and based on the results MPPG2 will be developed. In the third phase, the MPPG2 will be assessed for its short and long-term use in Japanese university

sophomores taking upper level medical English courses. The data for both MPPG1 and MPPG2 assessment will then be compared and analyzed.

Development of MPPG1

The MPPG1 developed as a part of the first phase of KAKENHI project is shown in Appendix 1. It is comprised of eight columns titled C1-C8 representing eight sets of English words that can be pronounced in both English way of pronunciation (EWP) and Japanese way of pronunciation (JWP) and that commonly show L1 interference in Japanese learners of English. The letters (*a*, *au*, *o*, *r*, *r/l*, *s/sh*, *th*, *v*) below the column titles C1-C8, respectively, indicate the primary focal points of interference in the words of the respective sets. The guide employs a method of minimizing L1 interference by having the learners compare the EWP of English words with their JWP (Janjua, 2010). Students pronounce the words in both EWP and JWP as instructed by the teacher with the objective of acquiring the ability to distinguish between the two which then enables them to pronounce the words intelligibly.

The MPPG1 contains 14 words in each set which makes it a 14x8 matrix with 14 lines and 8 columns. The number 14 for the lines was chosen to correspond to 15 classes in a typical one-semester course at most colleges and universities in Japan. The objective in doing so was to have the students work on at least one line per class for 14 classes and then to do the post-practice testing of the guide in the 15th or the last class of the semester. In practice though the guide can contain any number of lines and any number of lines or columns may be used for study in or outside the class.

In terms of the actual use of MPPG1 in the classroom, as discussed elsewhere (Janjua, 2010), it seems logical, at least in the beginning, to practice horizontally from left to right. Later on, as students become accustomed to the use of the guide and depending on their level of ability and/or the need to focus on pronunciation of certain words preferentially, practice may be done vertically from top to bottom on some or all words in any given column.

MPPG1 use and assessment

According to the KAKENHI project research plan, in the second phase, MPPG1 is to be introduced in freshmen classes with clear instructions for its use. For the project's success, it is imperative that students understand not only how to use the guide but also its underlying principle as well as the need for them to use it. For this purpose, in addition to showing the students how to use the guide, they are explained the rationale behind the approach together with the importance of the need for them to acquire intelligibility in pronunciation as healthcare professionals. Moreover, the explanation is also provided in Japanese while making sure that students have understood all points. The rationale and instructions written in both Japanese and English for using the MPPG1, aimed at Japanese medical English learners are outlined in Appendix 2.

When using the MPPG1 for the first time, an average Japanese student is likely to pronounce the eight words in row 1 of the guide as: *arerugi, oora, dokuta, naasu, buradda, shikku, herusu and feeba, respectively.* The students are then explained how to distinguish between JWP and EWP of each word and shown how to practice to acquire the latter. The guide is then used to practice pronunciation in each class in addition to the regular lesson involving other reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities as scheduled in the course. The time spent on pronunciation

practice using the guide ranges from 10-15 minutes with additional practice assigned as a homework task.

For testing the guide before and after using it for one semester, each student is asked to read aloud all eight words in a given row of the guide. Students read the words aloud and data is recorded manually as EWP or JWP depending on whether they pronounced the words in English way or Japanese way, respectively. In recording the data, JWP is taken as the reference point and any other way of pronunciation distinct from it is considered as EWP as previously described (Janjua, 2010).

For each student, the recorded data will include one value before and one after the practice period, for each of the eight columns of the guide. The values will be represented as percent frequencies of EWP for each column and as means of all eight columns, before and after the use of the guide. Differences in before and after frequencies will be analyzed by chi-square test using CHITEST function of Microsoft's Excel software. For graphic representation of the data, Chart Tools function of the same software will be employed.

The KAKEN-HI project is currently in its second phase where the assessment trial of the MPPG1 has just begun at the start of spring semester in the Japanese university education system

Discussion

Teaching of pronunciation is not a common practice in Japanese high schools where English is taught for six years (reviewed in Shudong et al, 2005). On the contrary, many Japanese high school English teachers, textbooks and dictionaries use katakana for reading and writing English pronunciation (Shudong et al, 2005). Consequently, most Japanese high school graduates are unaware of the fundamental differences between katakana and English pronunciation. They speak the so-called katakana English believing that they are speaking English and have difficulty being understood by non-Japanese speakers (Shimo, 2002; Shudong et al, 2005; Smith, 1997).

Difficulties in English pronunciation encountered by Japanese high school graduates become more critical when they enter university and need to learn English related to their future profession and workplace. Particularly for students enrolled in medicine and allied faculties, acquiring an intelligible English pronunciation becomes crucial since communication can be a matter of life and death in healthcare. Thus the need for pedagogical tools that can help Japanese students acquire a legible pronunciation of English lexicon and of at least the commonly used medical terms cannot be overemphasized.

In a previous study, the author has reported a pronunciation practice guide developed as a tool to minimize L1 interference in pronunciation in Japanese learners of English (Janjua, 2010). The guide utilized a similar way of minimizing the interference as proposed in the present research, that is, by comparing the EWP of English words with their JWP. Using the guide, learners could acquire the ability to distinguish between the two which made it easier for them to pronounce the English words more intelligibly. When the guide was tested on a class of Japanese university sophomores, the results showed a highly significant increase in the number of students who could pronounce the English words in EWP after using the guide for one semester as compared to the number of students who could do so before using the guide (Janjua, 2010). However, while the guide was highly effective, it contained only general English words and was not specifically targeted toward Japanese ESP learners in health sciences.

The MPPG1 developed in the KAKENHI project utilizes an approach similar to the one used in the study mentioned above (Janjua, 2010) but with a specialized set of commonly used terms in the

context of healthcare. In light of the success achieved with the approach previously, it is expected that MPPG1 will also prove to be effective in minimizing L1 interference in the target student population thereby helping them to attain intelligibility in oral communication in the context of their profession.

Concluding remarks

A growing number of Japanese universities are now introducing medical English in their health sciences programs (reviewed in Janjua, 2014). However, difficulties in pronunciation encountered by the students are among the major obstacles that need to be overcome for the success of the newly introduced and forthcoming programs. It is anticipated that development of the pronunciation learning and practicing guides proposed and undertaken in the KAKENHI project will contribute significantly to improving the oral communicative abilities of Japanese learners in healthcare disciplines, build their confidence in speaking the language, develop their overall ability to speak English intelligibly, and thereby prepare them as healthcare professionals who can work more effectively in an increasingly globalized world.

The fundamental principle underlying the MPPG1 developed in the first phase of the project makes it tempting also to explore the possibility of using the approach in developing tools for minimizing and managing L1 interference in ESP learners with native languages other than Japanese and in professional contexts besides healthcare.

References

Janjua, N. (2010). A tool for minimizing L1 interference in pronunciation in the Japanese EFL classroom. In: Stokes A, editor. *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings.* Tokyo: JALT p. 381-391. http://jalt-publications.org/archive/proceedings/2009/E081.pdf

Janjua, N. (2014). Using case studies to develop effective medical English materials and methods. J. Med. Eng. Ed. 13(1):7-14.

Kawai, K., Miura, K., Suzuki, H. (1987). Basic functional Japanese. Pegasus Language Services, Tokyo

Lyndon, A., Zlatnik, M.G., Wachter, R.M. (2011): Effective physician-nurse communication: A patient safety essential for labor and delivery. Am J Obstet Gynecol 205(2): 91-96.

Ohata, K. (2004). Phonological differences between Japanese and English: Several potentially……. *Asian EFL Journal 6(4).* *http://sakaienglishteachers.pbworks.com/f/Phonological%2BDifferences%2Bbetween%2BJapanese%2Band%2BEnglish.pdf*

Shimo, E. (2002). Learning Listening Comprehension Skills in English: The analysis of Japanese learners' beliefs and its implications. *The Language Teacher* [Online] Available from: http://jalt-publications.org/old_tlt/articles/2002/10/shimo

Shudong, W., Higgins, M., Shima, Y. (2005). Training English pronunciation for Japanese learners of English online. The JALT CALL Journal. 1(1):39-47. Available from: http://journal.jaltcall.org/articles/1_1_Wang.pdf

Smith, S.J. (1997). Katakana is not English. *The Language Teacher* [Online] Available from: http://jalt-publications.org/tlt/departments/myshare/articles/2096-katakana-not-english

Wells, J.C. (2000). Overcoming phonetic interference. English Phonetics, Journal of the English Phonetic Society of Japan 3, 9-21. Available from: http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/wells/interference.htm

WHO (2008). Patient Safety Workshop: Learning from Error. World Health Organization. pp 12-13. Available from: http://www.who.int/patientsafety/activities/technical/vincristine_learning-from-error.pdf

Appendix 1 and Appendix 2 (Attached as pdfs)

Appendix 1. A Medical English Pronunciation Practice Guide 1 (MPPG1) for Japanese medical English learners

C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
a	*au*	*o*	*r*	*r/l*	*s/sh*	*th*	*v*
1. allergy	1. aura	1. doctor	1. nurse	1. bladder	1. sick	1. health	1. fever
2. antibiotic	2. aural	2. body	2. nursing	2. clinic	2. symptom	2. healthy	2. liver
3. appetite	3. gall	3. optic	3. suture	3. clinical	3. syndrome	3. therapy	3. vein
4. atrophy	4. auricle	4. optical	4. heart	4. chills	4. system	4. therapist	4. nerve
5. abnormal	5. autism	5. optician	5. burn	5. fluid	5. syringe	5. mouth	5. virus
6. asthma	6. autoclave	6. oncology	6. emergency	6. medical	6. simulation	6. thermal	6. vital
7. ambulance	7. autogenic	7. oncologist	7. surgery	7. balance	7. scissors	7. thermometer	7. vertical
8. amnesia	8. autonomic	8. hormone	8. donor	8. swelling	8. intensive	8. withdraw	8. vertebral
9. bacteria	9. autoimmune	9. operation	9. ward	9. regular	9. sealer	9. stethoscope	9. vitamin
10. hand	10. audiogram	10. hospital	10. care	10. spinal	10. syrup	10. method	10. recover
11. ankle	11. automatic	11. objective	11. cancer	11. internal	11. cyst	11. teeth	11. recovery
12. rash	12. thaw	12. organ	12. pressure	12. external	12. synapse	12. thumb	12. delivery
13. tablet	13. Jaw	13. model	13. stretcher	13. lateral	13. symbiosis	13. throat	13. vascular
14. manage	14. draw	14. molecule	14. temperature	14. cholesterol	14. symbiotic	14. thyroid	14. vibration

Appendix 2. Rationale and instructions for using MPPG1 for Japanese medical English learners

医学英語学習者向けへ

1. MPPG1 にある単語全てには、英語らしい発音方法（English Way of Pronunciation = EWP) と日本語らしい発音方法（Japanese Way of Pronunciation = JWP) があります。
2. 学習目標は、EWPとJWPを識別ができる能力を得ることができ、英単語を明瞭にEWPで発音することができるようになることです。
3. 先生の指示に従って各単語を声を出して発音練習します。
4. 自ら判断し、ある単語をJWPで発音していると思うなら、それは、その単語をEWPで発音していないことを意味します。
5. その場合、先生にもう一度EWPで発音する方法を教えてもらって下さい。また、「Merriam-Webster Online」のような、多数のウエブサイトから自分でも調べることができます。
6. 英単語をJWPで発音する場合その元となるカタカナ語は決して悪いことばではありません。日本語にとって重要な部分であり、欠かせない役割を果たしています。
7. しかし、英語とカタカナ語は全く違う言葉であり、英語をカタカナ語の発音で話すと、日本人以外の人と英語で話す時、言葉が通じない場合があることはよく知られている。
8. 将来の医療従事者として皆さんにとって国際社会において理解することができる発音で英語を話す能力を得るのはとても重要であることに間違いないでしょう。
9. 特に、発音の誤りは、コミュニケーションが生死にかかわる問題となる医療現場において深刻になる可能性があります。
10. したがって、日本語を話す時にもちろんJWPで発音とし、英語を話す時にEWPを獲得するに努力しましょう。

For medical English learner

1. Each word in MPPG1 has an English way of pronunciation (EWP) and a Japanese way of pronunciation (JWP).
2. Your learning goal is to acquire the ability to distinguish between EWP and JWP and to be able to pronounce English words clearly in EWP.
3. You will practice pronunciation by reading aloud each word as instructed by the teacher.
4. Judge yourself and if you think that you are pronouncing a word in JWP, it would mean that you are not pronouncing it in EWP.
5. In that case, ask the teacher to teach you EWP of the word again. You can also check the pronunciation yourself from many websites such as “Merriam-Webster Online.”
6. When pronouncing an English word in JWP, its original katakana word is not a bad word at all. Katakana is an important part of Japanese language and plays an indispensable role.
7. However, English and katakana are completely different and it is well known that for Japanese when speaking English in katakana pronunciation with non-Japanese, there are difficulties in making themselves understood.
8. Undoubtedly, as future healthcare professionals, it is very important for you to acquire the ability to speak English with pronunciation that can be understood by international community.
9. Especially, mispronunciation can be a serious problem in medical field where communication is a matter of life-and-death.
10. Therefore, of course, you should pronounce English words in JWP when speaking Japanese but make an effort to acquire EWP when speaking English.

Assessment in English for Specific Purposes: Traditional vs Alternative Approach

Anastasiia Syzenko, PhD

Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine

Abstract

This paper presents the findings of the study of the effectiveness of alternative assessment methods as perceived by teachers and students of ESP courses in the higher education context. The findings suggest that peer assessment is seen by a vast majority of students as one that contributes to the development of their skills, content knowledge and has a positive impact on their learning progress. Interestingly, just slightly over a half of teachers surveyed use alternative forms of assessment in their work. These findings bring insights on the importance of alternative forms of assessment and show a certain gap between current state of affairs and students' needs and wants.

Introduction

Over the last two decades, the trend to highlight the benefits of alternative types of assessment as opposed to traditional testing has manifested in various educational contexts. Primarily, alternative assessment has switched the focus towards holistic and learner-oriented assessment, providing both teachers and learners with more comprehensive feedback on learner progress and performance.

The now established distinction between formative and summative assessment, where the former refers to the so called assessment of learning, and the latter is known as assessment for learning, has led to the shift in the paradigm of why do we assess our learners and how. While summative assessment is necessary to evaluate the degree of learners' mastery of the subject, the formative assessment serves another purpose – it informs teachers on the learner's progress and on overall success of the course. Traditional testing practices are associated with assessment of learning. Conversely, alternative types of assessment that include peer and self-assessment, teacher observation and portfolio assessment are all examples of assessment for learning.

The benefits of alternative assessment include the use of authentic tasks for assessing learners' abilities to function effectively in real-life situations; the learner-centeredness of alternative assessment gives a chance to exercise control over learning and encourages learner autonomy; it also allows teachers develop and modify learning plans and create learning experiences that will cater better for the learners' needs taking into account their strengths and weaknesses.

Alternative Assessment: an Overview

Alternative assessment, as mentioned above, includes teacher observation, self- and peer-assessment and portfolio assessment. Teacher observation involves systematic recording of what is going on it the class to keep track of the development of learner ability. For example, language use and higher-order thinking skills can be observed when learners participate in discussions or collaborate in task-based or project-based activities. As noted in Hanbook of Assessment for Language Teachers (2017) the validity and reliability of teacher observations rise when these are

done systematically. Since it is virtually impossible to assess all aspects of learners' performance, it is important to decide what exactly is going to be assessed and to develop specific criteria for assessing the observed skill. One of the greatest benefits of this form of assessment is that it takes the stress away and that it also allows the teacher to additionally assess non-linguistic abilities of her learners, such as cooperation, independence, creativity, and more. Harris & McCann (1996) note that "…we also need to think about our students' overall educational development. It is important for learners to develop in terms of language and in terms of attitudes towards learning, towards language, different cultures and other people. We also need to consider students' ability to take responsibility for and organise their own learning" (p. 21). Observation sheets are useful tools for teachers to keep systemic records of their findings and then use them to provide their learners with meaningful feedback.

The main aim of self-assessment and peer-assessment is to involve learners in learning and, consequently, foster the learner autonomy. When teacher observation and self- and peer-assessment are merged, both information on learner performance and learner ownership regarding assessment processes are enhanced (Handbook of Assessment for Language Teachers, 2018). Self- and peer-assessment can be used both with products of learning (a talk, a written report, etc.) and for overall learning progress. With product-oriented assessment, criteria for judging the quality of the performance must be defined in advance, ideally together with the learners.

For process-oriented assessment, learners can use can-do statements as checklists to rate their learning abilities over time. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is a typical example of self-assessment that works this way. The research suggests that ELP can serve as an instrument of renewal, not just in foreign language classrooms but within individual foreign language learning. As Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu (2010) note, it can increase learners' motivation, develop their reflective capacities, and stimulate them to take their own language learning initiatives as well as enabling them to carry on their foreign language learning and also foreign language use beyond the borders of the classroom"(p. 682).

Peer assessment has also been proved to have beneficial effect on learning. Both teachers and learners can eventually develop their own criteria for evaluation, allowing assessment to be more learner-oriented. Feedback sessions (peer feedback or teacher-learner conferences) must be taken into account when planning lessons. Peer assessment increases motivation and quality of learning, fosters critical abilities and the development of learner autonomy. Moreover, peer assessment contributes to the development of life-long learning skills. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) state that peer assessment is effective as a learning aid which is particularly beneficial in large classes and Topping (1998) suggests its positive impact on institutional assessment quality. Potential bias related to peer-assessment can be avoided by consistently using evaluation criteria.

Finally, portfolio assessment is one more form of assessment that belongs to alternatives and provides significant benefits in the learning process. A portfolio in the foreign language classroom is a collection of learners' works that displays the progress they are making in connection with classroom goals. Portfolio assessment is very learner-centered and learner autonomy is also exercised when choosing what works to keep in the portfolio. When introducing portfolio assessment in the ESP classroom, the purposes of the portfolio need to be clearly communicated in advance, and both teachers and learners must consider it a valuable assessment tool in order for it to be effective. The reflection, (self-) assessment, and documenting functions are usually considered to be the most important functions of the portfolio, but in can also increase learner motivation and promotes interaction between learners and the teacher.

Alternative Assessment in ESP: Findings and Discussion

Assessment in English for specific purposes (ESP) is in principle no different from other areas of language assessment. As to the ESP context , it is important to stress that the students learn English in order to fulfill their specific needs by, as Dudley- Evans & St John (1998) suggest, concentrating on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres relevant to a specific discipline. According to Dan Douglas (2013), ESP assessment is a sub-field in language assessment with its focus on assessing the ability to use language precisely to perform relevant tasks in authentic contexts while integrating appropriate aspects of field-specific background knowledge. He also claims that assessment in ESP is different from assessment in General English in two respects: authenticity of task and the interaction between language and content knowledge.

Alternative assessment differs from traditional assessment mostly in the sense that it "asks students to show what they can do" (Hart, 1994; Coombe et al., 2007). In other words, this type of assessment provides authenticity because it also gives empirical evidence of whether what happens in the classroom (and, therefore, is part of the curriculum) reflects what actually happens in the learners' workplace. If ESP courses use tasks and activities which reflect the learners' "specialist world" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998), then these learners' evaluation must coincide with these types of specialized tasks.

In the ESP context and beyond, peer assessment provides students with opportunities to reflect upon their own understandings, build on prior knowledge, generate inferences, integrate ideas, repair misunderstandings, and explain and communicate their understandings (Roscoe and Chi 2007). Many of these activities, such as explaining ideas to peers and working collaboratively on analysing new information, deepen students' content knowledge. Thus, peer assessment has a variety of benefits for students, including improved conceptual understanding, communication skills, and self-assessment skills (Black, Harrison, and Lee 2003; Falchikov 2005).

Based on current evidence on the benefits of alternative assessment in ESP context, we decided to analyze the current situation in the higher education setting in Ukraine. This research presents the findings of a small-scale study of existing attitude towards alternative assessment among university ESP teachers and learners' attitudes to peer-assessment as an ESP classroom technique. In designing this study, we are primarily interested in finding answers to the following research questions: 1) what assessment types cater best for learners' needs in ESP?; 2) does current ESP curriculum provide for various assessment types?; and 3) what are the existing attitudes towards alternative assessment among ESP teachers and learners?

As for the first question, we believe that in the ESP context peer-assessment has paramount value as it, when applied thoughtfully and appropriately, provides for the most meaningful interaction between language and content knowledge. Furthermore, it helps teachers use learners as a resource, which is especially relevant in the ESP context, and allows teachers to focus on their role of language support. Finally, peer assessment in ESP fosters learners' autonomy and develops the life-long skills of being able to critically evaluate the work of others and your own work. As for the second question, the current National ESP Curriculum in Ukraine does not envisage any alternative assessment types to complement the traditional end-of-module and end-of-course testing. However, it does not mean that teachers are not allowed to practice those in their classrooms. It is just not formalized in the national documents used as a reference by many universities in Ukraine when designing their ESP courses. The answer to our third research question entailed conducting one experiment and two surveys; one of students' perceptions of the impact of peer assessment on their

learning, and the second – of teachers' attitudes toward alternative assessment in the ESP classroom.

This experimental study consisted of two stages. In the first stage, the experiment was held with two groups of ESP students (40 graduate students majoring in International Economics and Innovation Management). Peer-assessment was introduced with these two groups as a regular form of assessment in their ESP classrooms. Students were first familiarized with the principles of peer-assessment; they took part in designing assessment rubrics for productive skills (specifically, one rubric for assessing presentations, and another for assessing analytical reports); and they used assessment rubrics consistently to analyse and give feedback to their peers. The emphasis in the assessment rubrics was intentionally placed on the quality and evaluation of content rather than only language so that the students whose language skills were not that advanced still could assess their peers' content and provide meaningful feedback. The experiment lasted during the first semester of academic year 2017/18; at the end of the experiment the students were asked to answer the questionnaire and reflect on their experience.

The results of the survey on the perceived benefits of peer-assessment in the ESP classroom proved that most students reported positive impact of peer-assessment on their skills and the content of their tasks. The detailed results of the survey are shown in Figure 1.

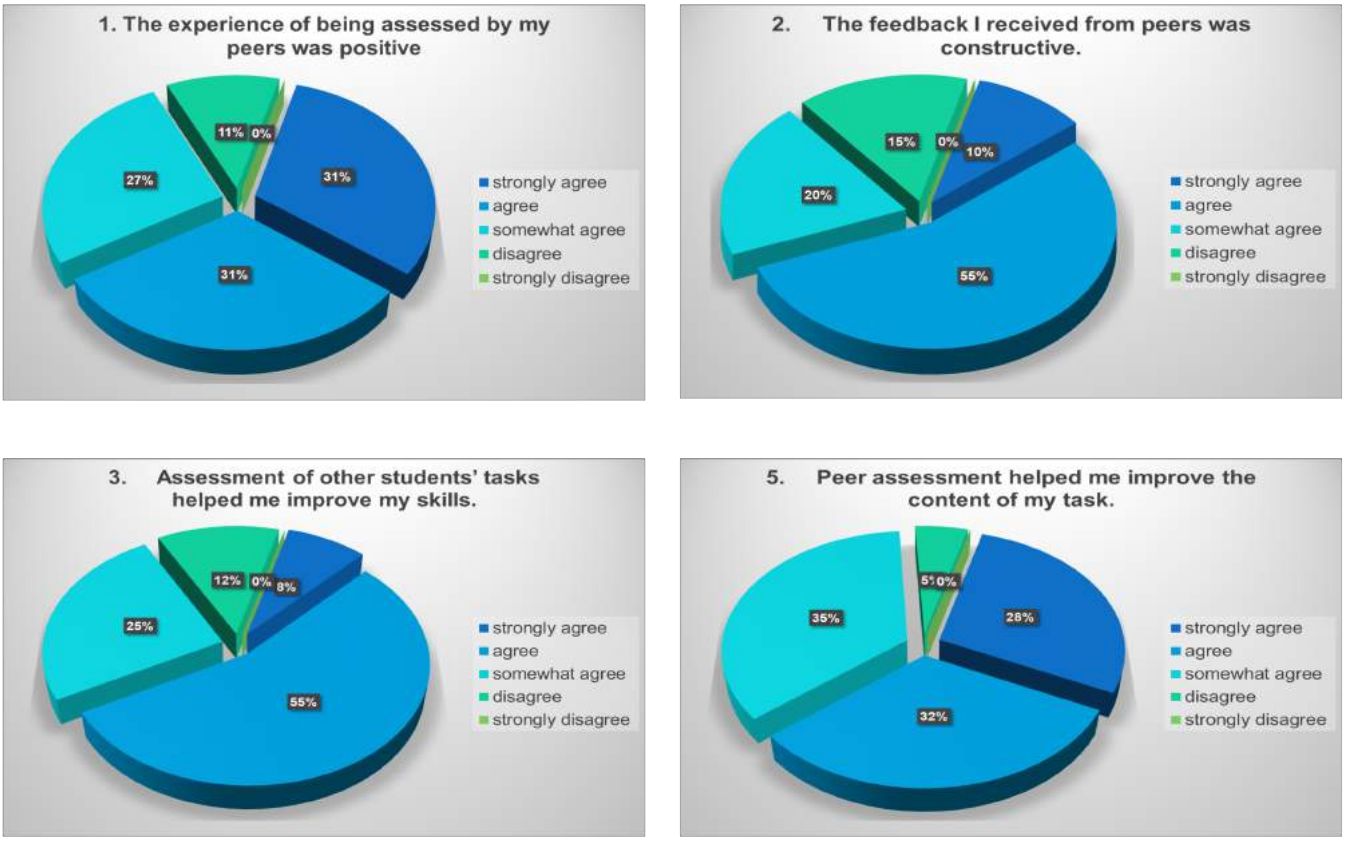


Figure 1. The findings of the survey of students' perceptions of the impact of peer assessment on their performance

As expected, peer assessment is seen by students as one that has more beneficial impact on their performance than traditional testing. Alternative assessments possess authenticity, as claimed by Hart (2000), because these tasks are "worthwhile, significant and meaningful" (p.9). In this case,

students performed authentic tasks: prepared and delivered presentations and wrote analytical reports i.e. performed tasks that are part of their future professional responsibilities. Furthermore, the students had a chance to develop their content knowledge and get meaningful feedback from their peers, thus developing their professional skills and even constructing new knowledge.

The second stage also included a survey that was sent out to 34 ESP teachers. The answers were submitted by 26 respondents. The findings show that less than a half of teachers surveyed used various alternative assessment techniques in the classroom (see Fig. 2), and interestingly, a sizable number of ESP teachers does not regard peer assessment as an effective assessment tool that contributes to learners' progress (see Fig. 3). These findings suggest that more attention needs to be paid to the systematic introduction of alternative assessment in ESP curriculum. Moreover, continuous professional development for ESP teachers should include more comprehensive information on the benefits of alternative assessment in the ESP classroom and provide some effective tools for its effective implementation.

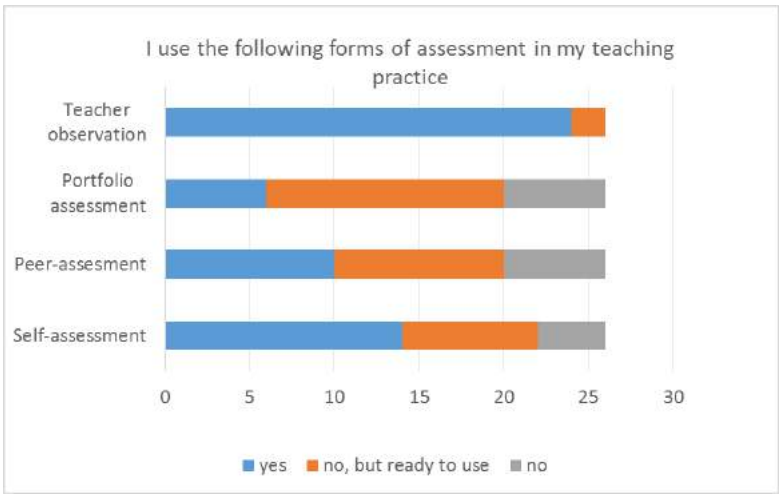


Figure 2. Teacher's attitudes towards alternative forms of assessment in the ESP context (1)

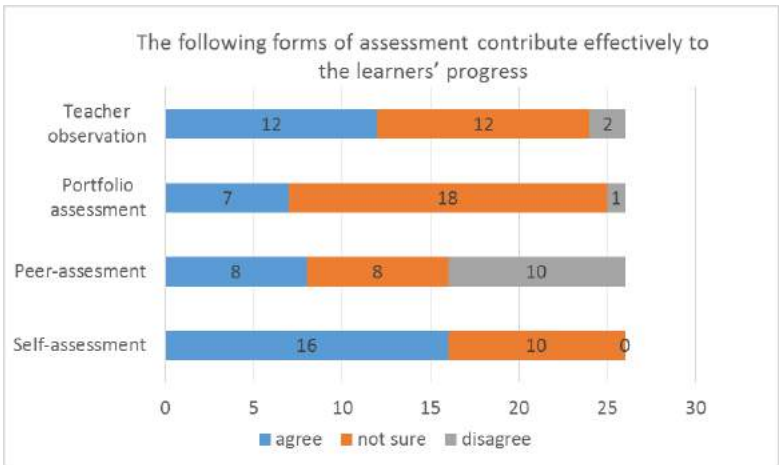


Figure 3. Teacher's attitudes towards alternative forms of assessment in the ESP context (2)

Conclusions

The findings of this small case study bring out some instructional implications for ESP teachers. On the one hand, the benefits of using alternative assessment in the ESP classroom are unmistakable, both for teachers and learners. However, ESP teachers should be provided constant and adequate support, both methodological and administrative, to make sure that this forms of assessment are incorporated meaningfully and comprehensively across curriculum. Teachers should be allocated enough time and resources for professional preparation, since any revision and modification of curricula and syllabi requires time and resources. In this respect, collaboration and team projects among the language teachers (and possibly subject teachers) should be fostered to allow for professional sharing and interactive learning.

Considered together, the findings of both questionnaires indicate that the alternative assessment can become a powerful tool of progress and learners' engagement in the ESP field and, at the same time, that there is a considerable gap in the extent to which it is currently used in the ESP classroom in Ukraine. Alternative assessment can increase learners' motivation, develop their critical thinking and evaluation skills, it stimulates students to take ownership of their own learning and responsibility for their peers' learning, and encourages the use of foreign language use beyond the borders of the classroom. The following two conclusions can be drawn from the data collected during this study. Firstly, ESP learners' perceptions on the experience of using peer-assessment in the ESP classroom gives insight oh how beneficial it is for both their language skills and content knowledge. Secondly, the ESP teachers' existing attitudes to alternative assessment give a lot of room for further efforts on changing the existing paradigm and incorporating alternative assessment in the ESP curriculum.

References

Black, P., C. Harrison, and C. Lee. (2003). *Assessment for Learning: Putting It into Practice*. Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Coombe, C., Folse, K., & Hubley, N. (2007). *A practical guide to assessing English language learners.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Douglas, D. (2013). *ESP and assessment.* In B. Paltridge and S. Starfield (Eds.), The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes (pp. 367-384). Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St. John, M. (1998). *Developments in specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Falchikov, N. (2005). *Improving Assessment through Student Involvement: Practical Solutions for Aiding Learning in Higher and Further Education*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Hart, D. (1994). *Authentic assessment: A handbook for educators*. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.

Hismanoglu, M., & Hismanoglu, S. (2010). The european language portfolio in ESP classes: A case study of learner reflection and self-assesment. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, *12*(4), 671-684.

Roscoe, R. D., and M. T. H. Chi. (2007). "Understanding Tutor Learning: Knowledge-Building and Knowledge-Telling in Peer Tutors' Explanations and Questions." *Review of Educational Research* 77 (4): 534–74.

Topping, K., Smith, E., Swanson, I., & Elliot, A. (2000). Formative peer assessment of academic writing between postgraduate students. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education,* 25 (2) 150-169.

Tsagari, D., Vogt, K., Froelich, V., Csépes, I., Fekete, A., Green A., Hamp-Lyons, L., Sifakis, N. and Kordia, S. (2018). *Handbook of Assessment for Language Teachers*. Retrieved from: http://taleproject.eu/. ISBN 978-9925-7399-1-2 (digital).

ESP Teaching in the Context of Ukrainian Higher Education: Challenges and Solutions

Irina Onishchuk and Iryna Andrusiak

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

ESP Teaching in the Context of Ukrainian Higher Education: Challenges and Solutions

Irina Onishchuk

Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University

Iryna Andrusiak

Uzhhorod National University

Abstract

Identifying transformational change in English teaching to non-English majors is number one priority in the HE sector in Ukraine. It has resulted in dramatic changes made by Ukrainian universities in collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council in Ukraine. In Ukraine, at tertiary level there are no universally agreed standards of teaching English to non-English majors. As a result, both the status of English and the number of contact hours allocated to it vary considerably across Ukraine and even across faculties within the same educational institutions. A variety of English courses taught include English for General Purposes, English for General Academic Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. Recent tendencies brought about by the British Council's English for Universities Project (2017) are indicative of a shift towards teaching ESP.

Our study deals with ESP teachers' practical skills, capabilities and problems within the context of two universities: Uzhhorod National University and Odessa I.I. Mechnikov National University. Research findings reflect three major problems ESP teachers are facing in our context: most ESP teachers have no or very little practical training in ESP teaching; the legacy of grammar-translation method has led to teaching mostly decontextualized English having no relation to students' professional needs and students' low motivation. The study provides a reflection on the steps to be taken in order to improve the ESP course delivery in Ukrainian educational institutions and presents the transformations that have already been made in these two universities.

Introduction

There is an increasing concern about the effectiveness of education systems in preparing students for the demands of real work and life in the rapidly changing world. Education in general no longer serves the needs of "one for all" approach whatever disciplinary area might be. The current focus of education is to enable learners to obtain skills that are pertinent in the 21 century. Since English is recognized as a basic skill for the 21st century, its learning and teaching are being presently reconsidered.

ESP as a branch of ELT has always had a special emphasis on practical outcomes. As a result, ESP has become a vital activity within the Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second language (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). This paper outlines ESP delivery across Higher Education in Ukraine with a focus on 1) training of ESP teachers, 2) ESP curriculum and syllabus design, 3) ESP approaches and classroom practices. Also, the challenges and solutions are discussed in relation to implementation of the ESP course delivery in two universities.

Both Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University and Uzhhorod National University belong to the so-called classical national universities in Ukraine. According to the recent 2018 Ukrainian University Ranking by Hirsch index Odessa and Uzhhorod National University are ranked among the top 20 (5th and 12th, respectively) among 162 Ukrainian universities included in the Scopus database (*Reytynh universytetiv,* 2018).
The above mentioned universities joined the project "English for Universities" initiated by the British Council in Ukraine between 2015 and 2016. The findings are related to ESP teaching and learning in these universities.

Bringing about transformational change: ESP teachers, curriculum, syllabi and approaches

At present, ESP teaching and learning is by far one of the most innovative and changing areas across Ukrainian higher education. English teaching to non-English majors has already undergone dramatic changes made by Ukrainian universities in collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council in Ukraine. The ESP transformational process has primarily been affected by several factors on the legislative level: joining the Bologna process and adopting the new Law on Higher Education in 2014.
Some important steps have already been taken in this direction. In December 2013 the English for Universities project was initiated by the British Council Ukraine with the aim to help Ukraine bring about transformational change in the level of English to promote internationalisation. The project focuses on three main groups: ESP and EGAP teachers; EMI teachers and general students (British Council, n. d., *a*). Since 2015, within the framework of the project 22 ESP teachers from Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University and 21 ESP teachers (35,0% of all ESP teachers) from Uzhhorod National University undertook ESP training in summer and winter professional development schools. Most of them have delivered dissemination workshops on the topics covered in ESP professional development schools.
Another important step was taken as far back as 2005 when the National ESP Curriculum was developed by a team of Ukrainian and British universities in collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine. The project aimed at delivering an English Language Curriculum of a new generation which is level specific, competence based and job related (British Council, n. d., *b*). to ensure the development of learners' professional language competences and their effective functioning in diverse academic and professional environments. Although the curriculum was adopted by many universities in Ukraine, until recently, there has been an urgent need in a standardized approach to the balance between EGP and ESP and unified requirements for syllabus design with a strong focus on the four macro-skills, communicative activities and the specified CEFR level to be reached on graduation.
In 2016 the heads of departments of 15 Ukrainian universities with the support and expertise from the British Council in Ukraine took on the task and developed unified criteria for course syllabus. The purpose was to make it transferrable to varied specialisms and to enable the ESP course delivery irrespective of the number of contact hours allotted to English learning/teaching in some faculties. Hence, the modern communicative syllabus was developed and implemented in Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University and in Uzhorod National University in 2016 and 2017 respectively.
One of the outcomes of the "National ESP Curriculum Project" was building the capacity of a team of ten Ukrainian curriculum writers (British Council, n. d., *b*). In 2017, this was followed by training a team of Ukrainian ESP teacher trainers within a train-the-trainer course 'Professional Award in Teacher Development' delivered by the British Council Ukraine. A pool of Ukrainian ESP teachers were trained in teaching knowledge, expertise and skills needed to take on a new role of ESP teacher trainers. 16 Ukrainian ESP teachers successfully completed three units with a total value of six credits (60 hours) in mentoring and supervisory roles, teacher development, making training effective and workshop design and delivery. Both Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National

University and Uzhhorod National University participated in the project: two teachers from each university were certified as ESP teacher trainers. Since then, four schools of professional development have been delivered by Ukrainian trainers within the British Council teacher development events focused on a range of ESP topics: understanding students' needs, lesson planning and materials, the language of ESP, testing and evaluation in ESP, the role of CPD, etc.
However, efficient ESP course delivery rests on many aspects, the application of relevant to the ESP methods and approaches being one of them. A communicative approach along with a variety of other ones has proved to be more effective while planning and structuring lessons offering more advantages over traditional PPP and grammar-translation methods. A move away from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach has allowed several developments in English language teaching and learning. Materials included in the syllabi are based on learners' reasons for learning; real-life tasks that reflect learners' personal and professional world are the priority. The learners have received more autonomy and started taking responsibility for the outcome of their learning. The choice of the method depends on the level of learners' language competence and their needs.

Conclusions

The delivery of the National ESP curriculum in 2005 seems to be the first important step in transforming ESP teaching and learning across higher education in Ukraine. However, considerable changes in the ESP field have been made in the last five years following the launch of the English for Universities project by the British Council in Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine. These changes have resulted in building teams of Ukrainian ESP curriculum writers and ESP teacher trainers acting as agents of change in ESP teaching and learning, in the development and implementation of the modern communicative ESP syllabus in universities participating in the project and in the ongoing professional development of ESP teachers. These changes are taking place against the shift from decontextualised teacher-centred EGP teaching to new ESP approaches and practices focused on learners and their professional needs. The experience of Odessa I. I. Mechnikov National University and Uzhhorod National University shows that transformational change is a gradual process involving slight shifts made by all interested parties: ESP teachers, students, university administrations and respective national agencies. Learning to collaborate to bring about positive improvements in ESP delivery in Ukraine is one of the challenges Ukrainian universities are facing today.

References

British Council (n. d., a) *The English for Universities*. Retrieved 10 April, 2018, from: http://www.britishcouncil.org.ua/en/teach/projects/english-universities

British Council (n. d., b). *The National ESP Curriculum project, Ukraine*. Retrieved 10 April, 2018, from: https://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/global-projects/track-record/national-esp-curriculum-project-ukraine

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Reitynh universytetiv za pokaznykamy Scopus 2018 roku [Рейтинг університетів за показниками Scopus 2018 року]. Retrieved 10 April, 2018, from: http://osvita.ua/vnz/rating/60539/

Using the same teaching material across ESP domains - Rhetorical Structures in English for Electronics and English for Medicine

Nadežda Stojković

English for Specific Purposes: A multidimensional challenge.

USING THE SAME TEACHING MATERIAL ACROSS ESP DOMAINS - Rhetorical Structures in English for Electronics and English for Medicine

Nadežda Stojković

University of Niš, Serbia

Abstract

The foundation premise of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) material desing is facilitating the provision for specificites of the learners – their reasons for study, psychological and learning profiles, as well as contextual target linguistic requirements. Learning material is the result of a constructivist, inclusive, dialogic interaction between teachers on one side and the students and domain professionals on the other. It is imbued with exceptional, minute research and original pedagogical approach, created for a small number of particular students in a precisely defined learning situation. This makes ESP teaching material unsuitable for mass publication, as only segments of it are useful across ESP settings. Identifying those overlapping segments is based on resourcing shared characteristics between scientific and/or business domains. This, undeniably being significant help to an ESP lecturer, has an even more profound aspect, and that is putting into teaching practice the principle of inter- and multi-disciplinary approach to teaching. One of such examples are rhetorical structure models that can be used in two distinct sciences, the field of electronics and medicine.

Distinguishing Characteristics of ESP Teaching Material Design

Material design for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the axial segment of an ESP course design. It reflects the pedagogical conceptualization of the course, subsuming in itself all the characteristics of the decisive parameters that are taken into account, such being the target population of learners with their own professional needs but also learning and psychological profiles, linguistic simulation of the aimed professional/scientific environment in the form of teaching/learning units whose aim is to instruct students to be communicatively fully competent to immediately take active and successful part in the given surrounding. According to these, methodology of teaching and pedagogical approach is conceived and incorporated. Next, there within are elements of evaluation for the successful realization of the course conceptualization in terms if the students have acquired the pre-set linguistic/communicative goals.

By its foundation principles, ESP teaching and learning material follows the principles of language course design in general, in particular of English as a foreign language (EFL), or General English (GE), by first researching the communicative characteristics of the professional environment, then analyzing that body of acquired linguistic material to segment it into lexical, morphological, syntactic, grammatical units. It is the key area of language teaching (Cunningsworth, 1984; McGrath, 2002), and a key merit of language lecturer's expertise.

However, since ESP courses are mostly idiosyncratic in nature, conceived and organized for a specific group of learners in a specific environment, the teaching and learning material needs to be created just for that particular group. Material is most often created in its entirety from the beginning as in corpus-based approach using the corpora of target environment linguistics and communicative features, to its final form as it will be used in class. This is the process of turning course design into material design – transforming the educational goals foundations of the course into actual reading passages and exercises of all kinds, along with teaching pedagogy and evaluation techniques incorporated, that will eventually provide for the successful completion of the course, that is successful and immediate involvement of the course participants into the needed professional and/or scientific surrounding (Stoller et al., 2006: 175).

The role of the lecturer in designing course material is all encompassing. They are usually performing the whole process on their own, and most often that is a single lecturer. On top of all that has been said on that most specific and demanding situation within the universe of English language teaching, hereby we want to stress the following aspect of it. The lecturer of ESP (with no formal education in the professional domain for which the course is designed, but their own individual efforts to ponder and educate themselves in that field (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 14)) in designing the course and the course teaching material, needs to find the right measure between visible features of the target situation (linguistic characteristics) and the intangible factors (content knowledge which is fundamental to ESP materials). This means balancing the needed cognitive load so that the material with the carrier knowledge does not outweigh the amount of language input. Thus, materials designed for an ESP course have a pivotal role in exposing the participants to the actual language of the particular discipline, being a source of "real language" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 171).

Dissemination and Resourcing of ESP Teaching Material

Due to this basic ESP course requirement that the material fits the prescribed specialist domain actual environment so much so that even the major ESP areas become minor when the specificities of the given setting are applied in the material design, most of the teaching material is sensible to this reality and is therefore of in-house nature, and not widely available. This has been clearly noted since the official rise of ESP as a discipline (though it being a disciple is still debated), that Hutchinson and Waters remarked that "publishers are naturally reluctant to produce materials for very limited markets" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 106). Instead, ESP teaching material, though undeniably present in the offer of publishing houses is of far too general kind, approximating general knowledge in a particular domain.

In Higher Education context, ESP lecturers most often write their own teaching material and there a huge number of ESP textbooks are published. This has a double cause, on one side, that material is needed for their teaching practice, and on the other, it is frequently a precondition for their advancement in academic ranks as prescribed by university statutory regulations. Whatever the actual context, the additional role of an ESP lecturer as of a material developer makes them language practitioners and shows the intrinsic complexity of their position (Robinson, 1991).

ESP teachers often resort to combining, resourcing the available teaching material they can find. It is a common fact that extracts from various textbooks, or published material are used alongside in-house designed material. This again is the result of the ESP exemplary situation, that while some teaching material is thoroughly adequate for a certain course, it is not, or is only partially appropriate in another teaching context (Littlejohn, 1998). Therefore, resourcing of the ESP material for one course is done as a combination of selecting from the existing (Ellis 1997: 37), that is a lecturer writing their own and acting as material developer and modifying the available material, the guiding premise in evaluating the available material being relative merit, fitness for the course in question (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Other major guiding principles are that material needs to be usable for a variety of related specializations so that it can be properly adapted, that the vocabulary it presents can be used both literally and metaphorically (scientific discourse being based on metaphors, students to be made aware of this both for the principles behind scientific terminology formation and to enhance their ability of critical thinking), as well as taking into account the overall sociocultural contexts in which language will be used (Johns and Price-Machado 2001). Available material selection and evaluation for classroom use involves predictive evaluation (needs analysis based to ensure validity) and post-use retrospective evaluation through the analysis of the learning outcomes, which in turn leads to yet another predictive evaluation - for the next course (Ellis 1997: 36).

When all these idiosyncrasies of an ESP course material design are considered plus those within the actual educational setting, the specificities of each group of students taking the course, their learning style preferences, motivation at the time, demonstrates why using ESP textbooks as pre-given teaching content is not always appropriate. Available material selection then becomes a vital skill for an ESP practitioner.

For all these reasons, it is highly useful to identify overlapping areas of ESP instruction among domains in order for lecturers to ease their work on material creation, to enrich their classes with additional, appropriately modified units or exercises.

Electronics and Medicine – Common Rhetorical Structures

In the fields of English for Electronics and English for Medicine, though at first sight essentially different, yet both hard sciences, we have identified a significant common core of rhetorical structures inherent and crucially relevant to either. This segment of teaching material is essentially part of English for Academic Purposes field, but in Higher Education context, it comes only natural to include it into the ESP carrier course to prepare students for high profile jobs where they can fully exploit their potential. Those rhetorical structures are ever present in most types of spoken and written pieces in the two fields, they are core structures of representative logical analysis and coherence, economy and precision of expression, mutually interconnected and present in their enlarged or modified forms in all professional and scientific communication future engineers and medical doctors are being trained for in classes of English for their professional use.

Rhetorical structures teaching material is to be chosen on the basis of preliminary, pre-course evaluation. It offers possibilities for applying valuable teaching methodology which fosters

dynamic and interactive work in practicing organizing information, the means for expressing students' ideas, enhancing abstracting reasoning - their profession context usable interpretation of its pattern. Process of this discovery fosters students' motivation, it offers a gradual movement from guided to more open-ended, independent students' work, in line with their specific skills and content needs, the preconditions for a successful ESP course running and completion.

Rhetorical structures in ESP are best taught using authentic texts (Barnard and Zemach, 2003: 313), and not texts prepared specifically for language teaching, in order to expose students to language as used in the professional/scientific setting, its genre, lexis, etc., (Islam and Mares, 2003). In the case of cross usage of rhetorical structures across ESP domains, what needs to be done, is extract the authentic text and use only the very structure as *readily* presented in material for one domain, and of course, compliment it with the authentic material from the target domain. In cases when there is cross referencing of rhetorical structures, core practice is also inter-usable, with again, substituting the domain vocabulary. The material referring to rhetorical structures hereby elaborated is authentically representative of structuring the domain content and tasks, all methodologically considered pre-linguistic activities that serve as a starting point from which an integrated world of domain science is brought into being. Therefore, speaking of which language ability components this practice enhances, those would be textual and functional. Using the core concepts of developing pragmatic competences in domain specific and typical rhetorical structures, a significant amount of teaching material can be more easily obtained for ESP practitioners[1]. An additional value of exploiting this course segment relates to methodology of teaching which is student centered, fostering their independence and immediate putting into practice their professional knowledge. The rhetorical structures are presented to students and then they are asked to illustrate them, fill them in with actual, domain specific content.

Nucleus logical unit – paragraph

Practice on teaching paragraph is a pre-linguistic activity which has the following principal aims: making students master the logic of defining and categorizing the concept in question, analytical presentation of its constituent parts and/or primary functions, and placing the concept under scrutiny into a larger, relevant context, this usually as an example of where the concept is found and used (Stojković, 2005).

The overall relevance of this is for students to learn to always start their presentation with defining the issue they are focusing on, and to which category of alike issues it belongs. Using this basic piece of logic, students learn they can define almost anything with very little effort, they learn the inherent, underlying logic, which in turn reflects the very logic of the two scientific areas, electronics and medicine. It is important they realize linguistic structuring of the content of their major has the same governing principles with that of their major, that one mirrors the other. This makes them comprehend more profoundly the importance of taking the particular ESP course.

[1] The author intentionally limits the scope of application of the rhetorical structures presented here to the fields of ESP she is professionally engaged in. However, this does not preclude the most realistic possibility of using these particular structures across other domains.

paragraph, that is define/state clearly what the visual, let's say graph in question illustrates (corresponding to the topic sentence in a paragraph), then identify the segments of the graph (e.g. axes in the cartesian coordinate system and the parameters they stand for) as well as curve(s) or line(s), and then start interpreting each in relation to both parameters. Students need to finalize this reading (again like in paragraph structure) with the summing up, the final reading of what the trends indicated by the curve(s) tell of the concept graphically presented.

This practice contains within (depending on the type of visual) what later in the course is used separately – spatial orientation, that is denoting from which point of the visual the reading begins and in which direction it is moving. Reading visual representations of data is also used to practice verbs and nouns, and adjectives and adverbs of movement, speed, frequency, numbers.

The introduction to spatial description practiced in visuals interpretation is elaborated fully in *describing a complex system*. Students of either major are often faced with the need to describe the component of a device or a human organ, either separately, in isolation, or within a larger context of an entire device or a human body. For that purpose, the spatial orientation practice is the starting point, to proceed with practice of minute description of shapes, most often irregular ones, including dimensions and relational positioning. Grammar points of interest here are certainly prepositions and prepositional phrases, adjectives and adverbs, terms denoting shapes and dimensions.

Possible Solution for Teaching Material Exchange

Lecturers of ESP devise their own ways of complementing the teaching material they have devised and which they use in their teaching practice with the material designed by other lecturers. As the demands on ESP lecturers are high regarding the provision of adequate and moreover engaging study material for narrowly specialized group of students, these practitioners comprise their syllabus of material of diverse origin, very often from the sources of colleagues in the same ESP domain. It was our attempt to illustrate herby one such example drawing from the work practice of the author.

Indisputably, this (cross)borrowing in itself is not an easy task, on top of all the research a lecturer needs to do, this being yet another. A possible solution to this would be a *virtual repository of ESP material* which should be of open access type, categorized according to various relevant criteria (to allow for cross referencing), in which the practitioners would upload the material they designed under an adequate public copyright license. Such repository would need administrator(s) and moderator(s) and for that reason institutional support for maintaining it. Similar repositories already exist and are mostly run by ESP enthusiasts. Of course, the author is aware of the related issues of funding this project and foremost an institution finding interest in running it. Nevertheless, the author believes that if the existing, available ESP teaching material could be centralized into one well it would significantly ease the everyday work of ESP lecturers and would certainly help raise the awareness of the relevance of this field and so enhance the quality of ESP courses.

Students are explicitly told this instruction and practice is a starting point for work on larger, more complex text structures, but that it also can serve as a speaking practice. Students are instructed when speaking of a particular device, or human organ, to use this guidance in organizing their presentation. This is of particular relevance for the geographical and cultural area of the author, where historically the influence of the East has been strong, resulting in large amount of decorum and meandering in explanations, rather than being straightforward and concise.

Analytical report (hidden within an essay)

After mastering paragraph structure, the nucleus piece of logic both of written and spoken pieces, students proceed to learn how to sequence their knowledge into larger pieces. Essentially, this implies instruction on building a case, formulating argumentation, critical awareness of the counter stance, abstracting, balancing arguments and counter arguments – refining critical thinking, cultural awareness, collegial behavior and mutual respect of colleagues both sharing and opposing their own stance, cautious hedging their expressions where their opinion is not substantiated enough.

In order to lecture and practice this, the model of a five paragraph argumentative essay of a pro et contra type is exploited. Special attention is paid to sign posting to clearly delineate and announce the sort of information further coming. Students are made aware this model can be used, remodeled, expanded for various professional occasions, conferences presentations, in-house documents writing, discussions, debates, scientific work (Stojković, 2005).

Instructions, process, visual description

Both sciences hereby heavily exploit the following formats: instructions, processes, visual descriptions. Through these particular rhetorical structures, numerous grammatical units are revised, those primarily being sequencing, attention signal words, imperative mood, passive, adjectives and adverbs, prepositions, words denoting shapes and dimensions, numbers, verbs of movements.

As an illustration, in electronics, *instructions* are practiced on how to install a software, set up a power grid, etc. In medicine instructions are illustrated on the steps in performing a biochemical analysis, checking the pulse, reanimation technique, and the like. Students here need to be aware to clearly delineate stages by using signal sequencing words and imperative mood. They practice clarity of expression and economy of wording. Understanding the utmost relevance of the situations simulated through this practice, students realize the highest relevance of each phrase and word they use, they realize how their domain expertise depends on language with which they express it and put it into practice with their actual domain knowledge.

Instructions format are then incorporated into the structure of *process description*. The phases determined in the instructions practice are used now turning the imperative into an affirmative sentence, possibly using passive and retaining sequencing structure with the attention grabbing signal words. Process descriptions are used as a description method of, for instance, how a local area network is set up, or what stages of a surgery are.

Electronics and medicine exploit *reading visual representations of data*. This is another instance where the pre-linguistic practice of paragraph is used. Students are instructed that reading in the sense of interpreting visual representations of data necessarily needs to be structured as a

REFERENCES:

Barnard, R. and D. Zemach (2003) Materials for specific purposes. In Tomlinson, B. (ed) Developing Materials for Language Teaching, London: Continuum: 306-323.

Cunningsworth, A. (1984) Evaluating and Selecting ELT Materials. Heineman.

Dudley-Evans, T. and M.J. St John (1998) Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A Multidisciplinary Approach, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1998) The evaluation of communicative tasks. In Tomlinson, B. (ed) Materials Development in Language Teaching, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 217-238.

Hutchinson, T. and A. Waters (1987) English for Specific Purposes. A Learning-Centred Approach, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Islam, C. and C. Mares (2003) Adapting classroom materials. In Tomlinson, B. (ed) Developing Materials for Language Teaching, London: Continuum: 72-100.

Johns, A.M., & Price-Machado, D. (2001). English for Specific Purposes (ESP): Tailoring courses to student needs—and to the outside world. In M. CelceMurcia (Ed.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language (3rd ed). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Littlejohn, A. (1998) The analysis of language teaching materials: Inside the Trojan Horse. In Tomlinson, B. (ed) Materials Development in Language Teaching, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 190- 216.

McGrath, I. (2002) Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Robinson, P. (1991) ESP Today: A Practitioner's Guide, Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.

Stojković, N. (2005) Written and Spoken Communications in Englsih for Science and Technology, Faculty of Electronic Engineering, University of Niš, Serbia

Stoller, F.L., B. Horn, W. Grabe and M.S. Robinson (2006) Evaluative review in materials development, Journal of English for Academic Purposes (5) 3: 174-192.