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I. ARTICLES IN THE SPECIAL ISSUE

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An introduction to the LSP-TEOC.Pro project (Language for Specific Purposes Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development) and its findings: Overview of the thematic issue

Abstract. The article introduces the LSP-TEOC.Pro project (Language for Specific Purposes Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development, https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/), as presented in this post-conference issue of *Glottodidactica*. Its first part discusses the project, including its rationale, consortium, approach and project phases as well as the self-directed online course developed as its main result. In the second part, an overview of the different contributions collected in this special issue is given.

Keywords: language for specific purposes, distance learning, self-directed learning, lifelong learning, learning management system, open educational resource, badges; micro-credentials.

1. CONTEXT

Language skills are one of the basic skills needed to participate successfully in our knowledge-based society. Alongside the direct expression of culture, language skills are the basis for labour mobility, employability and growth, but also (personal) well-being. Therefore, a functioning education system is a necessary pre-requisite for the teaching and learning of languages and education in general. However, a communication from the European Commission (2017: 5) on a renewed EU agenda for higher education mentions the worrying fact that "[t]oo many higher education teachers have received little or no pedagogical training." This is a concern for teachers and learners of languages in general, and for teachers and learners of languages for specific purposes (LSP[1]) in particular

[1] "Language for special or specific purposes, *LSP*, is the traditional term for the various linguistic variants used in professional settings. The history of the field reveals an early theoretical interest

(European Commission 2017). In this context, emphasis should also be placed on vocational education and training, but especially to those higher education institutions across Europe (and beyond) that do not award language degrees, but for which LSP are nevertheless important in teaching and learning, as well as research, for example, in the maritime sector[2]. This aspect is also particularly worth mentioning, as LSP is directly linked to the world of work; the importance of language skills and language policy is addressed in various EU documents (for a summary see, for example, European Parliament 2023). There are lots more challenges and problems in terms of the importance of language proficiency in general that have to be recognised, appreciated and tackled in a systematic way (European Commission 2021, 2008a, 2008b). The LSP-TEOC.Pro project[3] and the self-learning course developed respectively address the aforementioned aspects and cater for these demands. This importance is also underlined by the fact that the command of languages (especially English) also enables participation and self-determination of people in general, (personal) well-being, gender equality, mobility of work forces on labour markets, multilingualism and multiculturalism, and forms the basis for social rights and Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations 2015). Moreover, language skills (mostly English as lingua franca) are absolutely necessary in a globalised world where people from different countries around the globe have to communicate with each other which could lead to severe risks for people and our environment, for example, in shipping (see above).

2. OBJECTIVES

The LSP-TEOC.Pro project was undertaken from September 2020 to August 2023 with the aim of tackling these shortcomings and improving teaching and learning in the field of LSP. The project was co-funded by the Erasmus+ programme of the European Union (Reference Number: 2020-1-DE01-005687). The main objective of the project was to implement solutions which support competence development for both future and already fully trained and actively working LSP teachers (in higher education). The development of the course

in the description of various *sublanguages*, which are assumed to exist within the general language system in response to specific professional needs. […]" (Gunnarsson 1997: 105; emphasis in original).

[2] "AGCS analysis shows that 75% of shipping incidents involve human error" (Allianz Global Corporate & Specialty 2022: 55). This includes communication (miscommunication) as one (main) contributing factor (see, for example, Dominguez-Péry et al. 2021; Sánchez-Beaskoetxea et al. 2021).

[3] The consortium included the following higher education institutions (tertiary level) and one research institute/centre: Jade University of Applied Sciences (co-ordinator), University of Bergamo, University of Bordeaux, University of Cadiz, University of Cukurova, University of Ljubljana, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, University of Zagreb, Arcola Research.

itself constitutes an innovative aspect, as there is only a very limited number of such courses available. Within this context, the project builds on the results of the preceding project called TRAILs[4] which can be seen as a starting point. In addition, existing teaching and learning materials developed by project partners themselves were also considered. Moreover, the (few) existing LSP training courses were analysed and needs analyses were carried out with the aim of defining relevant competences of LSP teachers. Based on this, a multilingual learning platform was developed and a free self-study course was designed, implemented, tested and evaluated. With the completion of the project, the self-directed online course is ready for use, and it is available to the public as an Open Educational Resource – it is available as an asynchronous learning offer, and therefore all its learning instructions, teaching and learning materials (videos, presentations, further readings, activities, optional materials, model answers, etc.) and quizzes are accessible irrespective of time and place; the only pre-requisites are a computer or mobile device with an Internet browser, as well as an Internet connection. Even though it was planned from the beginning that the course would be available in distance learning mode[5] – simply in order to address potential participants not only from all countries of the consortium but across Europe in general (and beyond) – the Covid-19 pandemic and its consequences have clearly shown how important it is that such educational offers exist and are systematically designed and well planned.[6] The course is available in two ways: it can be accessed via the project's Learning Management System (LMS)[7] or it can be implemented into existing (universities') LMS. It is available in all the languages of the nine consortium members: Croatian, English, French, German, Italian, Polish, Slovenian, Spanish and Turkish. Thus, since September 2023, members of the LSP community worldwide have been able to acquire the

[4] LSP Teacher Training Summer School, co-funded by the Erasmus+ programme of the European Union, Reference Number: 2018-1-FR01-KA203-048085, https://trails.hypotheses.org/.

[5] Schlosser and Simonson (2010: 1) define distance education as "institution-based, formal education where the learning group is separated, and where interactive telecommunications systems are used to connect learners, resources, and instructors."

[6] Hodges et al. (2020) developed the term of "Emergency Remote Teaching" in March 2020 for ad-hoc solutions and wrote: "Faculty might feel like instructional MacGyvers, having to improvise quick solutions in less-than-ideal circumstances [… and] many instructors will understandably find this process stressful." In general, Hodges et al. (2020) distinguish between "[w]ell-planned online learning experiences [that] are meaningfully different from courses offered online in response to a crisis or disaster."

[7] Moodle is used in this project: "Moodle is a learning platform designed to provide educators, administrators and learners with a **single robust, secure and integrated system** to create personalised learning environments" (Moodle 2023; emphasis in original). It "is provided freely as Open Source software" (Moodle 2023). Furthermore, Moodle is the most used LMS in the university sector on a global level (Hill 2017).

skills and competences required for language teaching in a specific professional field at an advanced level, be it Business English, Technical English, Scientific English, Medical English, Hospitality English, Tourism English or Maritime English. In addition, the course developed can be used in the context of lifelong learning (see below) to refresh or extend existing skills and competences given the fact that the course addresses teachers at all levels – prospective teachers, teachers on junior level but also very experienced teachers on senior level.

3. LSP-TEOC.PRO COURSE

The LSP-TEOC.Pro course consists of the following modules[8]:

- Module 0: Introduction to LSP,
- Module 1: Needs analysis,
- Module 2: LSP course and syllabus design,
- Module 3.1: LSP communities,
- Module 3.2: Disciplinary genres,
- Module 3.3: LSP corpora,
- Module 4: LSP Teaching skills,
- Module 5: LSP Materials evaluation and design,
- Module 6: Task- / Project- / Problem-based learning in LSP,
- Module 7: LSP Assessment.

The course has a clear structure, following a uniform instructional design, which means that several didactic elements re-appear throughout all learning modules (for further information on online learning design options, see, for example, Means et al. 2014; for further information on language teaching curriculum development, see, for example Richards 2001). The modules (and the course respectively), for example, start with an introduction including information on learning outcomes, content and estimated learning time in order to not only make learning visible (Hattie 2009) but also to activate prior knowledge and help users to plan their progression. Although the modules build onto each other to some extent (see Footnote 8), they can also be studied independently, for example, based on prior learning or professional experience. In line with that, participants can decide whether they prefer to study the whole course or instead study single learning modules only due to a special interest in single subjects or other reasons.

[8] "A self-contained, formally structured learning experience. It should have a coherent and explicit set of learning outcomes, defined learning activities consistent with the time allocated within the curriculum, and appropriate assessment criteria" (European Union 2015: 68).

Upon successful completion of the course, or all eight modules respectively, participants should have achieved the following learning objectives, should be able to carry out the following tasks and should be able to do all the following in the context of LSP (see Internet pages of the project: https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/ and course or LMS: https://moodle.lsp-teoc-pro.de/):

- explain the general principles including their challenges, opportunities and limitations,
- methodologically analyse the needs and requirements of learners,
- design, develop and evaluate curricula, courses, materials and examinations,
- collaborate with national and international language teachers, professionals and the industry, and
- plan and support task-, project- and problem-oriented teaching and learning as well as independent and self-directed learning.

From a learner's perspective, a required workload of 48 hours is assumed for completing the whole course. This value corresponds approximately to two credit points according to the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System, which is one central element of the European higher education reform known as the Bologna Process (European Union 2015: 10). Furthermore, the course should be understood as a starting point or minimum standard that can be achieved with a manageable amount of time and is recognised accordingly. Further learning could be taken up independently by participants on the basis of the topics presented within the course.

Small-scale piloting and large-scale trialling phases were carried out as part of the project, in order to ensure the provision of a fully functioning and user-friendly course and to be able to collect and analyse data for the analysis of the learning paths taken by users. The results were taken into account in the revision and further development of the course, but were also analysed, presented and published (see articles in this issue as well as the project website). Thus, they are available for future potential course takers as lessons learned from course participants for future course participants. The results should also contribute to general discussions about teaching and learning languages in general and LSP in particular, but also for distance learning, self-directed learning and lifelong learning (see below). Moreover, the concept with its transnational and collaborative character and approach, as well as results achieved, too, could serve as a blueprint for other (international) courses, concepts and projects.

Some basic data and information on the piloting and trialling phases carried out as part of the project are presented here:

1. Small-scale piloting phase: The piloting phase took place from 17 October to 1 December 2022. A total of 21 people (six of whom were male) from nine countries (England, France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Portugal,

Slovenia, Spain, Turkey) took part in the piloting phase; nine people successfully completed all eight modules (the entire course). The piloting phase focused in particular on the further development and improvement of the course itself in order to guarantee a very high level of usability and user-friendliness.

2. Large-scale trialling phase: Following the revision of the course based on feedback collected during the piloting phase, the trialling phase took place from 24 January to 14 March 2023. A total of 300 potential test takers declared interest in studying the course. Of these, 183 people (three of them non-binary / other, 36 of them male) from 17 countries (Argentina, Belgium, Chile, Croatia, England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Poland, Portugal, Saudi Arabia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United States of America) and from different age groups, from under 20 to over 60 years of age (< 20 years: n = 7; 21–30 years: n = 62; 31–40 years: n = 40; 41–50 years: n = 45; 51–60 years: n = 27; > 61 years: n = 2) completed the first questionnaire ("Data on trialee and Privacy Notice as well as information on evaluation") with questions on their demographic background, previous learning experiences and motivations for studying the course, among other background information. This step constituted active enrolment in the course from the project's viewpoint. A total of 90 out of 300 subscribers completed at least four of the total of eight modules[9] (= passed[10], 30%) which was regarded as successful completion of the self-learning online course. Upon successful completion of the course, a certificate was issued by the co-ordinating institution. A further 93 people (31%) started the course with varying levels of engagement and success. In all, 42 of these (= drop-outs) successfully completed one (n = 28), two (n = 4) or three (n = 10) module(s); 51 of these (= draw-backs) completed at least one 'pre-participation test', which constituted the starting point of learning within each module or the course respectively, but did not afterwards complete any of the modules. The other 117 people (= non-starters, 39%) declared their basic willingness to participate in the course at an earlier stage (see above), but ultimately showed no activity at all.

[9] During the piloting phase, many participants felt that the time allotted for completing the course was too short. The main reason for this is that most of them have other commitments to fulfil: in particular (full-time) jobs, studies and private life. The consortium therefore decided that at least four of the eight modules had to be completed in full for successful completion of the course, or receipt of the certificate during the trialling phase; the module choice was left to the participants.

[10] Participation in the piloting and trialling phase was evaluated on the basis of the definition according to Fritsch (1988), whereby a distinction was made in particular between the four groups of 'passed', 'drop-outs', 'draw-backs' and 'non-starters'.

4. IMPLICATIONS

Lifelong learning (LLL) is "an organizing principle or 'master plan' for a potentially new approach to teaching and learning" (Slowey & Schuetze 2012: 3). The concept is based on two basic ideas: people learn 1) throughout their lives and 2) not only in formal educational institutions, but also in the workplace and in the social environment (non-formal and informal contexts). In line with this, the European Commission (2001: 9) defined LLL more than 20 years ago as "all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and / or employment-related perspective." Further learning in the context of LLL is mainly voluntary and self-determined but not usually mandatory. Concepts of autodidactic learning come to the fore, which is reflected in different learning situations with regard to the dimensions of place, time, level of structure, intention, certification as well as the relationship between teachers and learners. All learning activities aim at improving personal development, acquiring new qualifications, skills and competencies, and the like. Considering social changes and (global) developments driven by mega trends (especially demographic developments, climate change, digitalisation and knowledge society) into account, it will no longer be enough to focus on a rigid education system from (pre-)school to higher education (Golowko 2021; Ehlers 2020). What is needed are concepts that enable people to continue their education in a field of changing conditions in a timely, appropriate and self-determined manner, and to acquire these qualifications needed throughout their life, in the sense of their own LLL, in order to deal with ambiguities, new situations and resulting challenges and requirements (Richards 2020). In other words: flexible training systems, or LLL, replace rigid training systems or 'learning in advance'.

Taking all this into account, the LSP-TEOC.Pro course contributes to meeting the challenges outlined at the beginning of this article, and accordingly fills a gap in the context of LLL. However, the distance learning and self-study format of the course places high demands on the students' self-organisation, motivation and time management. Moreover, it should be taken into account that this effect is further intensified by the fact that there is a shortage of (LSP) teachers (see above) in several European countries. This leads to more work, and simultaneously to less time for further education.

In the context of LLL, a typology with seven groups of so-called 'lifelong learners' was presented by Slowey and Schuetze (2012: 14–16). The group of so-called 'refreshers' is particularly important for the LSP-TEOC.Pro online course, and for this special issue respectively. The people who belong to this

group are typified by the fact that they have completed an under-graduate, or even a post-graduate degree in the past and have subsequently acquired professional experience. In line with the aforementioned demands, they take on further learning opportunities in order to 'refresh' or expand their knowledge in a special area of interest.

In addition to entire degree courses, smaller learning programmes are increasingly becoming more important, particularly due to dynamic developments. What is crucial for this is that universities and other educational institutions can respond quickly and specifically to current needs, such as key skills, future skills or transversal skills. The offer and certification of such programmes is subsumed and discussed under the keywords of certificates, badges[11] or micro-credentials[12] (European Commission 2020). Such smaller formats can also be used to address people who, for various reasons, have no interest in, or no time for studying (another) entire degree course, for example, for private or professional reasons, but also as a result of the effects of a labour shortage in various fields. Multiple commitments and reconciling the triad of duties from work, studies and private life is seen as the greatest challenge in distance education and co-operative programmes of work and study (International University of Applied Sciences 2023: 25). In the context of LLL, such people are referred to as 'recurrent learners' who return to universities to acquire a further qualification. According to the aforementioned typology, this generally means a second, and usually higher degree (master). In line with that, the LSP-TEOC.Pro course corresponds to level 7 (Master) according to the European Qualifications Framework (European Union, n.d.).

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In this special issue of *Glottodidactica*, five contributions focus on results achieved in the context of the LSP-TEOC.Pro project[13]. Although the project

[11] Digital badges are "a representation of an accomplishment, interest or affiliation that is visual, available online, and contains metadata including links that help explain the context, meaning, process and result of an activity" (Gibson et al. 2015: 404).

[12] "Micro-credentials certify the learning outcomes of short-term learning experiences, for example, a short course or training. They offer a flexible, targeted way to help people develop the knowledge, skills and competences they need for their personal and professional development" (European Commission 2022).

[13] The LSP-TEOC.Pro project was divided into eight work packages (Intellectual Outputs). The main project results were achieved as part of the five work packages that are collected here, whereas the other three work packages were rather more of a supporting nature and are not included in this special edition.

results were presented during the final conference[14], and single aspects of these texts are discussed as part of the final report (see Internet pages of the project), these discussions go further, and constitute an expansion of the aforementioned works. Moreover, the articles provide a summary that is appropriate to the project goal achieved. Based on the above introduction, a brief summary of the contributions collected in this special issue will be given. The order of the texts, but also the texts themselves define not only the structure of the articles and this issue, but also reflect the principal development and course of the entire project:

Snježana Kereković, Olinka Breka and Brankica Bošnjak Terzić present the results of the project's first stage: *The need for online LSP teacher development courses in higher education institutions*. The article presents the methodology of the data collection, analysis and synthesis of existing online teacher education, training and development programmes in the European higher education area. The main research question they focus on is: which (online) resources exist for acquiring the necessary skills to become a well-versed teacher of languages for specific purposes? The results show that very few such programmes exist and that there is a need for the LSP-TEOC.Pro course developed as part of the project. Thus, it tackles a gap in language teacher education. This result constitutes the basis for any further steps taken during the further course of the project which was followed by the conceptualisation and actual development, as well as piloting and trialling phases of the course.

Violeta Jurkovič and Saša Podgoršek present the results of the conceptualisation of the actual course content for the online LSP teacher education and development course: *Developing a module structure in an online course for LSP teacher professional development*. The development of the self-learning online course stems from Richards (2001) approach to curriculum development in language teaching. The development of course content of all modules is based on templates for the purpose of an efficient integration and in order to guarantee uniformity in terms of constant format with very little variation amongst the different modules and languages. Moreover, the article includes a qualitative analysis which discusses and evaluates notes and diaries which have been written by course participants during the trialling phase. Results of the analysis indicate the overall satisfaction of the users with the intra-module structure and the course respectively. On the

[14] The final conference was held in Poznań on 5 July 2023 and presented the results of the project Language for Specific Purposes Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development. Moreover, challenges, lessons learned and the outlook were discussed during a round table discussion. The international event gathered a total of 76 participants of the LSP community from 16 countries. It was supplemented by a conference on LSP teaching – Current research trends, desiderata, research perspectives which took place the following day.

other hand, it also shows potential for improvement, which has been considered before making the course available for the public.

The article *An investigation into Moodle quizzes as assessment practices in an online LSP teacher professional development course* by Yasemin Kırkgöz presents results of the large-scale trialling phase of the course. 183 external individuals used the online teacher training course and gave feedback on their experience (see above). This was a decisive step in the dissemination of the project, whilst at the same time gathering valuable empirical information of user needs and usage patterns. The user experience was analysed and is presented here. The data collection was supplemented by conducting 13 interviews to elicit the thoughts and opinions of course participants. This led to a deeper knowledge and understanding of practitioner needs, as well as the use of pedagogical and didactic elements. The discussion focusses on the use of quizzes with different question types, their distribution within the modules, and the rational for their choice and design.

The article *Learning pathways of external and internal motivated learners in the teacher training self-study course LSP-TEOC.Pro* by Nicolas Nause and Joanna Woźniak puts the learners (course participants) in the foreground and refers to the analysis of the user data collected, and application of learning analytics. During the large-scale trialling phase of the project an extensive dataset of empirical data of user interaction with the online LSP teacher training course was gathered. The main research question is: Which typical pathway groups can be identified and classified based on the data collected? The approach taken is highly innovative as it uses actual user data (for example, logs of course activity) instead of relying on more subjective means of data collection (for example, surveys). The most important result of the retrospective analysis of the learning pathways taken is the presentation of differences and similarities in terms of user groups' learning in terms of their choice of the learning content (modules), the time devoted to different course content (mandatory and optional materials), the number of quiz attempts undertaken, as well as the quiz results achieved, to name but a few. A distinction can be made between intrinsically and extrinsically based decisions, which in turn entails superficial or in-depth engagement with the self-directed learning course. The analysis of the user groups and pathways taken also includes the reasoning behind the classification, and thus serves to improve the user experience of future course takers.

Joe Cullen and Greg Holloway present the results of the quality management and evaluation method and tool: *Evaluating LSP-TEOC.Pro: What we did and what we found out*. The article sets out the overall evaluation approach and design for the entire project, including the 'internal' evaluation of the project, process evaluation, formative and summative (outcomes) evaluation. Moreover,

it provides the data collection instruments and templates but also indicators for data collection and analysis, such as automated data capture (for example, website logfiles), self-administered questionnaires and interviews, diaries and logs as well as observation. The different elements altogether constitute a 'Theory of Change' journey which is used to describe how far the project leads to its desired or anticipated outcomes and impacts, namely tackling the skills gap in language teacher education by implementing the self-learning online course. These outputs have a very high impact for the project, by ensuring effective monitoring and robust evaluation of project outcomes.

In addition to the five above-mentioned contributions from consortium members of the LSP-TEOC.Pro project, this special issue includes also two further articles which address single key aspects in the context of teaching languages for special or specific purposes. These include:

The article *Advancing ESP instruction through DDL: A structured training framework* by Maria Ammari explores the need for advanced corpus-based instruction within LSP, with the focus on the English language. The use of corpora in classrooms is often limited as teachers lack sufficient pedagogical training (which was also the starting point for the LSP-TEOC.Pro project, see above). One way to enhance quality and extent of learner achievement is to improve teacher competence, sensitivity and motivation. Moreover, it is important to put the (unique linguistic needs of) learners in the foreground. Therefore, an integrated training framework to tackle this gap is proposed by extending existing concepts across the learning phases of introduction, illustration, interaction, induction, intervention and integration ('six Is'). The concept highlights the necessity of specialised training to empower teachers with the skills needed for the improvement of the overall educational language teaching experience in general and the implementation of 'data-driven learning' in language teaching concepts in particular.

The article *Academic writing skills in the eyes of university students of English and their teachers* by Agata Wolanin deals with the topic of academic writing from both perspectives, learners and teachers. The research questions emphasise the students' attitudes towards academic writing courses, their expectations, as well as teachers' perspectives and experiences. Answers to the questions are derived based on results from a questionnaire survey conducted at two universities among both study groups (students, n = 67; lecturers, n = 15). In general, teachers assess the topic more positively than learners. However, a vicious circle is described, which starts with negative experiences with academic writing courses from students, continues with a negative attitude and finishes with unsatisfactory academic results and little self-confidence. This also negatively affects teachers' attitudes towards teaching academic writing courses, although they previously associated a positive attitude with academic writing. The text

finishes with suggestions and measures which could positively impact the situation for students and lecturers.

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Wprowadzenie do projektu LSP-TEOC.Pro (Kurs online – kształcenie nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych na potrzeby rozwoju zawodowego) i jego wyników: wprowadzenie do numeru tematycznego

Abstrakt. Artykuł omawia główne założenia projektu LSP-TEOC.Pro (Language for Specific Purposes Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development, https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/), któremu poświęcony jest niniejszy numer tematyczny czasopisma *Glottodidactica*. W pierwszej części przedstawiono cel i uzasadnienie projektu, skład konsorcjum wykonawczego, podejście oraz poszczególne fazy realizacji, a także opracowany w ramach projektu samokształceniowy kurs

online będący jego głównym rezultatem. W drugiej części zaprezentowano przegląd pozostałych artykułów skoncentrowanych wokół tematu dydaktyki języków specjalistycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: języki specjalistyczne, nauczanie na odległość, samokształcenie, uczenie się przez całe życie, system zarządzania nauczaniem, otwarte zasoby edukacyjne, odznaki, mikropoświadczenia.

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The need for online LSP teacher development courses in higher education institutions

Abstract. This paper aims to present the European project "Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development" (LSP-TEOC.Pro) which addresses the need for online LSP teacher development courses to be provided by higher education institutions. The project's objective was to equip future and early-career LSP teachers with a multilingual online course designed to build essential competencies and skills for effective foreign language instruction in specific contexts. The project was conducted over three years (2020–2023) and completed in seven stages plus evaluation. The paper focuses on the findings from the project's first stage, which examined existing online LSP teacher training and development programmes across six European countries. Through a structured methodological approach, the paper gathers relevant information about such programmes, revealing a scarcity of specialised online training and development programmes for LSP teachers. These results underscored the pressing need for an innovative, accessible online course for LSP teacher education, which ultimately became the primary outcome of the project.

Keywords: Erasmus+ project, LSP teachers, LSP teacher education, online course.

1. INTRODUCTION

To increase their employability and professional mobility, young people need education and skills relevant to the present and, possibly, future labour market. One of the essential requirements is the ability to communicate effectively in a foreign language in their work settings (Knezović 2016). To achieve this goal, the educational system should help them gain and/or improve their language skills, particularly the knowledge of specialised languages. In other words, what

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is required is efficient teaching practices of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP)[1] and more opportunities for LSP teacher education and training (Kakoulli Constantinou et al. 2019; Belcher 2006; Basturkmen 2010; Bracaj 2014; Bojović 2006).

1.1. Languages for Specific Purposes – definition

Upton (2012) states that LSP aims to help language learners "gain access to the language they want and need in order to become successful members of the academic, professional or occupational community of which they seek to be a part" (Upton 2012: 26). Hyland (2006, 2011) argues that language is only effective when individuals use conventions that other members of the community find familiar and convincing. This entails, as stated previously, the task of LSP practitioners – enabling the learners to meet their needs. To perform this task properly and efficiently, LSP practitioners first and foremost need to understand what LSP actually represents. Languages for Specific Purposes are characterised by diverse teaching and learning contexts, thus, they are characterised by diverse target learners or rather diverse target learner needs (Sowa & Krajka 2017; Dudley-Evans 1997; Flowerdew & Peacock 2001; Belcher 2006, 2009; Nhã 2015; Basturkmen 2012; Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019; Anthony 1997, 2011). Sowa and Krajka (2017) claim that LSP instruction is unique "taking into account who and what is going to be taught for successful professional communication" (Sowa & Krajka 2017: 9). Another specific aspect of LSP is its specificity (Flowerdew & Peacock 2001; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998; Hutchinson & Waters 1987; Hyland 2002; Huckin 2003). Huckin (2003) clarifies that LSP specificity refers to the specific and purposeful use of language and poses a question pertaining to the extent of specificity: How specific should this specificity be? According to Huckin, "specificity should be defined not in terms of content *per se* but in terms of the learner and his or her needs" (Huckin 2003: 9). Another issue related to LSP specificity is the question whether and how much subject specialist knowledge LSP practitioners need to have. On the one hand, LSP practitioners are viewed predominantly as language specialists who need to be familiar only with the language of the subject (Ferguson 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998), whereas on the other, it is assumed that they should be familiar with the subject or carrier content as well, so that they can decide on their students' specific needs, choose appropriate texts, take part in discussions as equal partners and ask their students relevant and intelligent questions. In

[1] For the purpose of this paper, the terms Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are used interchangeably.

addition, LSP practitioners need to be able to learn from their students, ask for help from content-area specialists and cooperate with other LSP practitioners (Belcher 2009). Anthony (2015) emphasises this aspect of LSP teaching in the future and predicts that "this model will increasingly become more the norm and ESP experts will no longer need to be ESP 'practitioners' but instead serve as ESP 'team members'" (Anthony 2015: 11).

1.2. LSP teacher professional development

The LSP work is much more than teaching (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998). LSP practitioners engage in diverse contexts, perform diverse tasks taking up not only the roles of a teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998; Bojović 2006; Bracaj 2014; Anthony 2018), but they also adopt the roles of motivators, facilitators and organisers, or those of intercultural mediators and mentors for lifelong learning (Basturkmen 2014). In fact, since we live in fast-changing times, some new roles will obviously be defined in the future for LSP teachers to cater to newly created LSP learners' needs and wants and it is, therefore, crucial to respond to LSP teachers' needs with appropriate and effective education and professional development (Breka et al. 2023: 244). Belcher (2006) points out that needs assessment, content-based teaching methods, and content-area informed instruction are of utmost importance to the practice of specific-purpose teaching and adds that these concepts and effective teaching methodologies, unfortunately, have not been defined clearly yet. Basturkmen (2012) disapproves of the fact that LSP research is mainly concerned with what should be taught, neglecting how LSP should be implemented.

Bearing in mind these views and a huge demand for competent professionals capable of effective communication in foreign languages in their professional settings, we can state that there is a pressing need for more efficient "ESP teaching practices and more proficient and research-based ESP teacher training" (Kakoulli Constantinou et al. 2019: 2), the training that should offer "both a theoretical aspect of ESP and learning in general as well as more practical hands-on aspect where issues of teaching methodology and curriculum design would be central" (Kakoulli Constantinou & Papadima Sophocleous 2023: 15). Overall, there is a problem of institutional lack of understanding of the urgency of the matter and the scarcity of provision of professional training for both pre-service and in-service LSP practitioners (Swales 2000; Basturkmen 2014; Belcher 2013; Sowa 2017; Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019; Kakoulli Constantinou et al. 2019; John et al. 2023).

The results of the research carried out in the first stage of the Erasmus+ "LSP Teacher Training Summer School" (TRAILs) project, designed to promote high-quality and innovative LSP teaching confirmed the abovementioned problem (John et al. 2023). It revealed that out of the 25 countries surveyed in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), only 14 countries were found to provide LSP teacher training at a tertiary education level. The courses offered were significantly diverse with regard to the scope, content and the format of their programmes as well as with regard to their entry requirements and teaching and learning methods employed.

To truly understand LSP teachers, the multiple roles they play and challenges they face in their teaching, it is essential to learn about their education and training needs (Bocanegra-Valle & Perea-Barbera 2023). A quantitative LSP teacher needs analysis, conducted within the framework of the TRAILs project, yielded 45 knowledge- and training-related needs and 17 professional development needs. Analysis of target and learner needs, LSP vocabulary teaching, materials design and development, disciplinary context awareness, and course design and development were considered as the most relevant knowledge- and training-related needs, while content and language teacher collaboration, critical reflection on own practice, formal professional development opportunities, LSP peer collaboration, and participation in international groups were rated as the most important among the professional development needs.

In a study carried out on the expertise and needs of 19 experienced in-service ESP teachers in two Spanish universities (Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019), five main groups of needs, namely specific training and qualifications in the field of ESP, enhanced disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, peer collaboration initiatives at various levels and provision of continual professional development opportunities (Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019: 144) were pinpointed. The specified needs directly point to the complexity of the LSP teacher development issue.

We believe that LSP teaching courses created by experienced LSP practitioners, that would provide a comprehensive overview of the LSP field and offer both theory and practice-oriented materials, incorporating reflective teaching and learning principles, could be an effective way of dealing with the problem of LSP practitioner professional education and development.

1.3. Online LSP teacher professional development

The world has gone through dramatic changes in the last few decades. The systems of education have changed accordingly (Linde et al. 2023). A significant

change in using information communications technologies (ICTs) in language learning, in general, and in LSP teaching, in particular, has taken place, which "has proceeded with the creation of the Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), communities of practice (CoPs) and Open Educational Resources (OERs) and tools such as Learning Management Systems (LMSs), cloud technologies, and artificial intelligence systems" (Kakoulli Constantinou & Papadima-Sophocleous 2020: 18). Today teachers are required not only to use ICTs, but to learn through this format themselves as well. No matter how challenging this might seem to be, new technologies have brought into LSP teaching increased learning possibilities and can provide a valuable experience for both students and practitioners (Bocanegra-Valle 2023). Online teacher professional development courses can be delivered synchronously and asynchronously. The former enables online learners to meet and directly communicate with their instructor over the internet, while the latter represents a self-paced form of learning where course content can be accessed by the learners enrolled in the course any time, as long as the course is available.

Some of the most relevant principles that underlie efficient online teacher education and professional development can be summarised as follows: 1) being different from regular classroom learning, online learning should be adjusted and constantly guided by the teachers, 2) teachers need to be engaged in meaningful activities informed by sound pedagogy relevant to learners, 3) online classes should create a sense of real communication with both the facilitator and learners, 4) the activities learners get involved in make difference, not the technology *per se*. Technology is just a tool that supports learners in the process of learning, and 5) continuous assessment should be provided (Kakoulli Constantinou & Papadima-Sophocleous 2021).

Boyd (2004) studied different aspects of online learning environments and online learners in order to understand what makes them successful. He defined four sets of factors that affect their performance: 1) technical, 2) environmental, 3) personal, and 4) the factors related to the very process of learning. Let us elaborate what each of the listed factors in practice mean. Successful online learners possess appropriate skills for effective use of modern technologies (1 – technical factor). They can manage time and space effectively, and possibly have support from significant others (2 – environmental factor). They can balance between autonomy and interactivity and they are self-motivated and self-disciplined, exhibiting a high level of integrity (3 – environmental factor). Finally, successful online learners are accustomed to independent and self-directed learning and possess excellent reading and writing skills (4 – factor related to the process of learning). Teachers' performance and learning outcomes in online education are significantly influenced by their beliefs of self-efficacy, "beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce

given attainments" (Bandura 1997: 3). Closely related to self-efficacy as a relevant factor in online teacher education and professional development is motivation, especially in self-directed courses (Anesa 2024).

The demand for online LSP teacher training courses arises from the need to address the professional development requirements of both pre-service and in-service LSP teachers. These courses support continuing education by providing flexible, ICT-enabled distance learning that ensures accessibility and accommodates adult learners' preferences for self-directed learning. Such an online course was the primary outcome of the European project "LSP Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development" (LSP-TEOC.Pro) (Erasmus+ programme of the European Union, Reference Number: 2020-1-DE01-005687).

2. LSP-TEOC.Pro

The objective of the project "LSP Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development" (LSP-TEOC.Pro)[2] was to provide LSP teachers with a multilingual online course which would enable them to acquire the competencies needed for the successful teaching of languages in specific contexts. The online course targeted future and early career teachers who may not have received sufficient education in LSP teaching given the gaps in LSP teacher training in the EHEA that had been identified in the project "Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA)" – TRAILs (John et al. 2023; Chateaureynaud & Deyrich 2023; Deyrich 2023; Anesa & Deyrich 2023; Bocanegra-Valle & Perea-Barbera 2023; Lopez-Zurita & Vazques-Amador 2023).

The project LSP-TEOC.Pro was carried out in seven stages. In the first stage, existing LSP teacher education and development programmes were analysed, in the second stage, the teaching methodology to be applied in the online course to be yet developed was defined, in the third stage, the content of the online course was developed, and in the fourth stage, the newly developed course was implemented on the internet platform. The online course was piloted in the fifth stage, it was trialled in the sixth stage, and finally, the trialling user data were analysed in the seventh stage. Throughout the project, all the activities were evaluated.

This paper focuses on the first stage of the project, namely, on the investigation into online LSP teacher education and development programmes offered at selected European universities. The activities were divided into two phases. In the first phase, the data about online LSP teacher education and development programmes were collected by six project partners (researchers coming from

[2] See also the editorial by Nause (2025) and Intellectual-Output-3-Final-Report.pdf.

two universities in Germany, one from Croatia, Italy, Poland and Spain) for their respective countries. In the second phase, the collected data were analysed.

3. METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS

The research activities were carried out in several steps as follows: the data on existing online LSP teacher education and development programmes were collected by the six partners through desk research, the collected data were analysed and conclusions were made, which was all used to define the teaching methodology and the content of the online course to be developed in the later stages of the project.

3.1. Phase one: Driving questions and key activities

With the aim of collecting as much information as possible about the existing online LSP teacher education and training programmes the investigation was driven by the following questions:

a) Which online resources (courses) exist for acquiring the necessary skills to become a well-versed teacher of languages for specific purposes?
b) If such courses exist, what is their content, i.e. which topics do the syllabi cover?
c) What are the learning outcomes of such courses?
d) Which teaching/learning methods are used in such courses?
e) Which assessment methods are used in such courses?
f) Which ICT is used in such courses?
g) Which reference materials / books are used in such courses?

The researchers carried out their desk research following the developed guidelines for identifying online LSP teacher education and development programmes offered by universities and the guidelines for collecting and analysing data on these programmes. To keep track of the progress, the researchers used a particular form, and a questionnaire was developed for filling in the data. After all the data had been collected, it was analysed and conclusions were made.

The guidelines for analysing existing online LSP teacher education and development programmes and synthesising the data on them refer to two activities. Activity 1 refers to desk research including searching all the universities / faculties / accredited institutions in a particular country to find online LSP teacher education/training programmes and keeping track of the websites visited by the researchers. To this end, the following keywords in the national language

could have been used: language(s) for specific purposes, LSP teacher education, LSP workshop, LSP teacher professional development, LSP webinar. The desk research results were documented in a form keeping track of the institutions searched and the information found (Table 1).

Table 1. Data collection form

Country	Name of the university / faculty / accredited institution	URL of the university / faculty / accredited institution you googled	Offers an online programme for LSP teachers Yes / No	Online programme URL
–	–	–	–	–

Source: own study.

Once / If an online LSP teacher education and development programme had been found on some website, the questionnaire related to the details about the programme, course or module provided by some university should have been filled in (Annex 1), which was Activity 2 of this phase.

3.2. Phase two: Quantitative and qualitative data analyses

In total, 532 websites of universities, faculties and other accredited institutions were visited and surveyed. Table 2 presents the quantitative results of the desk research, showing that in five European countries (Croatia, Germany, Italy, Poland, and Spain) – 532 visited websites – only 12 online LSP teacher education and development programmes were found.

Table 2. Quantitative results of desk research

Researching institution	Number of university / faculty / accredited institution websites surveyed	Number of online LSP teacher education and development programmes found
Jade University	172	–
Pforzheim University	120	–
Bergamo University	67	–
Cádiz University	83	11
Poznań University	85	1
Zagreb University	5	–
TOTAL	532	12

Source: own study.

As can be seen from Table 2, only in Spain (11) and Poland (1) online LSP teacher education and development programmes were found. Here is a list of online LSP teacher education and development programmes offered by the Spanish and Polish institutions:

1. Teaching Spanish for specific purposes (SSP), Antonio Nebrija University
2. SSP Curriculum design, Francisco de Vitoria University
3. Teaching SSP, Pablo Olavide University
4. SSP, Alfonso X El Sabio University
5. Basic training for SSP teachers, Centro universitario CIESE (Fundación Comillas) and Instituto Cervantes
6. Teaching materials design in the SSP classroom, Centro universitario CIESE (Fundación Comillas) and Instituto Cervantes
7. Certificate of Specialization in Didactics of Spanish L2 / FL for Specific Purposes, La Rioja University
8. SPP in the Spanish Classroom, UNED University
9. University refresher teacher training course in SSP, Miguel de Cervantes University
10. Introduction to teaching Spanish for Business: Methodological and interdisciplinary issues, Instituto Cervantes and Modern Languages Institute of the University of Granada
11. Designing, creating and planning SSP courses, Universidad a Distancia de Madrid and Instituto Cervantes
12. Professionally-oriented language teaching methodology, Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin.

In the analysis of the data related to the 12 identified online LSP teacher education and development programmes collected using the questionnaire, a variety of data was studied. Firstly, the data reveal that eight of the online programmes are designed for profit, one is not designed for profit and there is no information in this respect about three programmes (Questionnaire, Q5).

Further, it was found that almost all of the online programmes are suitable for LSP teachers, namely, ten online programmes are suitable for LSP novice teachers, nine are suitable for LSP experienced teachers who have over five years of experience, eleven are suitable for general language teachers, and three are suitable even for general language students (Q6). However, although most of these online programmes are suitable for LSP teachers, they do not qualify the participants to teach LSP (eight out of 12 responses), i.e. they qualify the participants to teach LSP only partially (Q11).

The qualifications obtained upon completion of the online programmes are quite different. These are attendance certificates, certificates of specialisation in Didactics of Spanish L2/FL for Specific Purposes, or the programme is a compulsory

course within a 60-credit Master of Spanish as Second Language or a course within the master's degree in Teacher Training of Spanish as a Second Language (Q12).

In most cases (eight institutions out of 10 responses to this question), the researchers could not find the information on how many participants could apply for the online programme, and in two cases, 40 participants could apply for the online programme (Q7).

Regarding the entry requirements for the online programme, for three institutions (11 responses) there was no information about entry requirements, one institution did not set any entry requirements and seven institutions set some entry requirements. These were: university degree and B2 in Spanish; C1 in Spanish; advanced level of Spanish; graduates in the area of Hispanic Philology, Linguistics, Translation and Interpretation or some other philology (English, French, German); a graduate degree; a university degree or the candidate is enrolled in the last academic year of a university degree programme (Q8 and Q9).

The online programmes offer classes of different duration. The minimum number of working hours offered is 15 and the maximum is even 150 working hours. Most of the programmes offer between 40 and 75 working hours (Q10). As most of the identified online programmes are provided by Spanish institutions it was expected that these programmes prepare the participants to teach Spanish (11 out of 12 responses). Also, all programmes offered by Spanish institutions are delivered in Spanish, and the programme offered by the Polish institution is delivered in Polish (Q13 and Q14).

The learning outcomes of the analysed online programmes were also summarised (Q15). They address the multiple levels of cognitive domain defined in Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom et al. 1956) and can be grouped as follows:

a) Knowledge: Upon completion of the programmes, the participants will be able to:
   - become familiar with the characteristics of SSP teaching,
   - learn to adapt the teaching of SSP to all levels;
b) Application: Upon completion of the programmes, the participants will be able to:
   - begin teaching Spanish for Business purposes,
   - use the fundamental tools in the LSP field concerning learning Spanish as a second language,
   - design and organise task-based activities for learning SSP,
   - select materials for lesson planning,
   - employ specific strategies to facilitate intercultural communication in class,
   - manage resources to integrate language skills and special content into the SSP classes,

- use ICTs in the SSP classes,
- acquire techniques and proposals for managing the SSP teaching-learning process,
- collaborate with external partners in acquiring authentic materials for their planned education;

c) Analysis: Upon completion of the programmes, the participants will be able to:
- analyse teaching materials and resources,
- identify and determine the teacher's own needs as well as the needs of learners and mutual expectations in the process of language education;

d) Synthesis: Upon completion of the programmes, the participants will be able to:
- develop skills and strategies to work with SSP contents,
- create and design specific materials for the SSP classroom,
- create curricula for teaching a professionally oriented foreign language;

e) Evaluation: Upon completion of the programmes, the participants will be able to:
- choose criteria for learning assessment and student assessment,
- reflect on the role of the SSP teacher,
- reflect on how to teach SSP at a distance.

As can be observed, no outcomes have been grouped under Bloom's category of Comprehension. However, the categories are hierarchical which means that each level subsumes the level that comes before. As stated by Bloom et al. (1956), Evaluation is placed at a relatively late stage in this complex process of thinking because "it involves some combination of all other behaviours" (Bloom et al. 1956: 185). Therefore, it can be concluded that for the participants to be able to do what has been listed under Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation requires first that they understand what these activities are about.

Most of the online LSP teacher education and development programmes are related to the domains of business, economics, finance and public administration (10 out of 12 responses), seven programmes are related to law, criminology and industrial relations, five are related to tourism and leisure, four to the domain of medicine and health, one to the academic context and two online programmes are not related to any specific discipline (Q17).

As regards the programme content, the online LSP teacher education and development programmes are related to the following subjects (Q16)[3]:

[3] The number in brackets refers to the programmes that cover the issue.

- analysis of target and learner needs (10)
- materials design and development (9)
- course design and development; general principles of LSP; lesson planning; syllabus design and development (6)
- materials evaluation (5)
- adult teaching; assessment methods; learning strategies (4)
- classroom management; information communications technologies; content-based teaching; disciplinary context awareness; disciplinary genres; general pedagogy; task-based teaching; teaching methodologies and disciplinary pedagogies (3)
- academic discourse; skills teaching (2)
- autonomous and self-directed learning; corpus-based teaching; group work and group management; LSP challenges, opportunities and constraints; LSP communities of practice; LSP vocabulary teaching; self-study, critical thinking and student autonomy; teacher and student motivation; interculturality (1).

Further, a variety of teaching and learning methods / approaches / techniques are taught in the analysed online LSP teacher education and development programmes, e.g. task-based approach, global simulation and case studies, e-learning, project tasks to identify audience needs, needs analysis, preparation of tasks based on authentic materials, development of teaching exercises, formative assessment (Q18). Also, it is required that participants observe at least one LSP class and fill in the evaluation questionnaire. The final verification of the learning outcomes (global assessment) consists of a qualitative evaluation of the outline of a professionally oriented foreign language teaching programme developed by the students with a detailed development of one methodological unit (Q19).

Concerning the ICTs used for teaching the identified online programmes, it was found that in most cases (9 out of 10 responses) online learning platforms such as Moodle, Blackboard, ILIAS, Sakai, or Microsoft Teams were used. Online communication software such as Skype, FaceTime, Google Meet or Zoom was used in three cases, e-mail in one case and Office software such as Microsoft Office, OpenOffice, or LibreOffice also in one case (Q20).

Not many reference materials and books were found to be used in the online programmes: only four programmes named reference materials and one e-book and a materials pack that can be used by the participants (Q21). Also, only three online programmes recommended reference materials to the participants for teaching LSP (Q21).

Finally, it was found that two of the 12 analysed online programmes issue no certificates, but ten do issue a certificate: in six cases this is a written certificate and in four cases ECTS credits are awarded (Q23 and Q24).

4. DISCUSSION

Researchers from six institutions participating in the project visited and surveyed 532 websites of universities / faculties / accredited institutions in their respective countries to search for information about online LSP teacher education and development programmes that would help LSP teachers to acquire the necessary skills to become well-versed teachers of languages for specific purposes. Only 12 online programmes were found, one offered by a Polish tertiary education institution and as many as 11 offered by Spanish institutions. It is surprising that in Germany, where 292 websites were surveyed, not a single institution could be found offering an online LSP teacher education and development programme. These findings led to the conclusion that such specialised online education and development programmes are extremely scarce, suggesting also that not much has changed in this respect since the 2000s (Swales 2000; Belcher 2013; Basturkmen 2014) and that the need for more proficient and research-based ESP teacher training remains a pressing issue (Kakoulli Constantinou et al. 2019: 2). The findings related to online LSP teacher training and development programmes were also not unexpected as the findings of the preceding project TRAILs revealed education and training gaps in the LSP education that were identified across the EHEA (John et al. 2023; Bocanegra-Valle & Perea-Barbera 2023).

More importantly, the major findings of this survey that refer to the domains or specialised areas that are covered in the analysed online LSP teacher education and development programmes reveal that there are no online LSP teacher education and development programmes focusing on the areas of engineering, hard sciences or shipbuilding. The domains of business, economics, finance, law, tourism, medicine and health seem to be more attractive or easier to cover in an online programme. This finding made the researchers realise that the online LSP teacher education and development course to be developed subsequently should be designed in such a way that it can meet the needs of LSP teachers teaching specialised languages in a wide variety of disciplines.

Further, the learning outcomes of the programmes as summarised above describe a wide range of knowledge and skills to be acquired upon completion of the online programme. As expected, not all the listed outcomes are covered fully by every identified online programme. Finally, the list of the programme content or teaching issues dealt with in the online programmes obviously covers the scope of LSP as the topics of needs analysis, course design, materials design and evaluation, teaching methodologies, and assessment methods are included in the curriculum. It can be concluded that both the learning outcomes and the programme content are highly relevant and cover a wide range of competencies and skills a contemporary LSP teacher should have.

Furthermore, the identified scarcity of online LSP teacher training programmes underlines the need for international cooperation and resource sharing to improve the availability and effectiveness of LSP teacher training in different academic and professional contexts.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper focused on the findings of the research conducted in the first stage of the LSP-TEOC.Pro project, which examined existing online LSP teacher training and development programmes across only six European countries. The results of this limited research show that a need exists for an online LSP teacher education and development course that would be of interest and use to LSP practitioners in different disciplines. Based on the results of this research, an online LSP teacher education course for professional development was developed within the LSP-TEOC.Pro project. The presented research data were also of utmost importance for the activities that were carried out in the next two steps of the project, i.e. the definition of the online teaching methodology and the development of the course content.

It is worth noting that the ultimately developed online LSP teacher education course included innovative digital learning activities allowing for individual progress, and further development of competencies and skills needed in LSP teaching. These innovative digital learning tools were implemented in the form of self-guided learning formats resulting in a self-directed course. The authors strongly believe that this online course will have a significant impact on the global LSP community and the whole project will serve as a source of future research in the area of LSP as it contributes valuable insights as to how to address the existing gaps in LSP teacher training and development.

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SOURCE

https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/wp-content/uploads/2023/10/Intellectual-Output-3-Final-Report.pdf?

APPENDIX

LSP-TEOC pro questionnaire
Analysis and synthesis of existing LSP teacher education and development programmes

1. Name of the surveyed online programme / course / module / webinar / workshop (hereinafter referred to as an online resource).
2. Provide the online resource URL.
3. Country of the European Higher Education Area that provides the online resource.
4. Name of the university / faculty / accredited institution that provides the online resource.
5. What type of online resource is it?
   a. For profit
   b. Not for profit
   c. Unknown / Unspecified
6. Who would this online resource be suitable for?
   a. General language teachers
   b. General language students
   c. LSP experienced teachers (over 5 years of experience)
   d. LSP novice teachers
   e. Unknown/Unspecified
   f. Other:
7. How many participants can apply for the online resource?
8. Are there any entry requirements for the online resource?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Unknown / Unspecified
9. If yes, state the entry requirements for the online resource (qualifications / pre-requisites / experience).
10. How many working hours / classes does the online resource offer?
11. Does this online resource qualify the participants to teach LSP?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Partially
    d. Unknown / Unspecified
12. Provide details about the type of qualification.
13. Specify the language the online resource prepares the participants to teach.
14. Specify the language the online resource is delivered in.
15. What are the learning outcomes of the online resource, e.g. as stated in the programme description or syllabus?
16. What teaching issues is the LSP online resource related to? Please, tick all issues that apply.
    a. Academic discourse
    b. Adult teaching
    c. Analysis of target and learner needs
    d. Assessment methods
    e. Autonomous and self-directed learning
    f. Classroom management and practice

g. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)
h. English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI)
i. Information communication technologies (ICTs)
j. Content-based teaching (CBT)
k. Corpus-based teaching
l. Course design and development
m. Disciplinary context awareness
n. Disciplinary genres
o. Disciplinary knowledge and training
p. EHEA and EU educational policies
q. Form-based teaching
r. General pedagogy
s. General principles about LSP
t. Group work and group management
u. Learning strategies
v. Lesson planning
w. LSP challenges, opportunities and constraints
x. LSP communities of practice
y. LSP research opportunities
z. LSP vocabulary teaching
aa. Materials design and development
ab. Materials evaluation
ac. Negotiation skills and time management
ad. Pronunciation teaching
ae. Quality management
af. Research methods
ag. Self-study, critical thinking and student autonomy
ah. Skills teaching
ai. Syllabus design and development
aj. Task-based teaching
ak. Teacher and student motivation
al. Teacher talk of LSP teachers
am. Teaching methodologies and disciplinary pedagogies
an. Testing practices
ao. Other (please, specify):

17. What specific domain/discipline is this LSP online resource related to? Please, tick as many domains / disciplines as appropriate.
    a. Academic context
    b. Business, Economics, Finance, Public Administration
    c. Engineering (Mechanical, Civil, Electronics, Computing, etc)
    d. Hard Sciences (Physics, Mathematics, Chemistry, etc)
    e. Humanities (Arts, Anthropology, History, Archaeology, Geography, etc)
    f. Language teacher education
    g. Law, Criminology and Industrial Relations
    h. Marketing, Advertising and Media
    i. Medicine and Health
    j. Natural Sciences (Biology, Geology, Environmental, etc)
    k. Shipping and Shipbuilding

l. Tourism and Leisure
m. No specific domain/discipline
n. Other (please, specify)

18. Which teaching and learning methods, if specified, are taught in this online resource?
19. Which assessment methods, if specified, are taught in this online resource?
    a. Online quizzes
    b. Online polls
    c. Essay questions
    d. Peer assessment
    e. Self-assessment
    f. E-portfolio
    g. Online discussion
    h. Video podcast
    i. Other (please, specify):
20. What Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is used to teach this online resource? Please, tick all that apply.
    a. Audio-visual sites such as YouTube, Vimeo, Dailymotion etc.
    b. Online learning platforms such as Moodle, Blackboard, ILIAS, Sakai, Microsoft Teams etc.
    c. Online communication software such as Skype, FaceTime, Google Meet, Zoom etc.
    d. Social media such as Facebook, Google Places, LinkedIn, Twitter, Snapchat
    e. E-mail
    f. Office software such as Microsoft Office, OpenOffice, LibreOffice etc.
    g. Digital projectors
    h. Smartboards / interactive whiteboards
    i. Smartphone applications
    j. Other (please, specify):
21. Which resources (reference materials and books) are used in this online resource?
22. Which resources (reference materials and books), if any, does this online resource recommend to the participants for teaching LSP?
23. Does this online resource issue any certificates?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Unknown
24. If yes, tick the one(s) that apply.
    a. Written certificate
    b. ECTS points
    c. Badge
    d. Other (please, specify):
25. Is there any other pertinent information about this online resource?

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O konieczności opracowania internetowych kursów doskonalenia nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych na uczelniach wyższych

Abstrakt. Celem artykułu jest zaprezentowanie częściowych wniosków płynących z realizacji europejskiego projektu „Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) Teacher Education Online Course

for Professional Development" (LSP-TEOC.Pro), którego głównym zadaniem było stworzenie metodologicznych podstaw i opracowanie wielojęzycznego kursu doskonalenia zawodowego dla nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych odpowiadającego ich potrzebom. Kurs online przeznaczony jest dla przyszłych oraz początkujących nauczycieli języków obcych w określonych kontekstach zawodowych. Projekt realizowano w latach 2020–2023, dzieląc go na siedem etapów. Artykuł koncentruje się na wnioskach z pierwszego etapu, w którym przeanalizowano dostępne w sześciu krajach europejskich programy szkolenia i rozwoju nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych w formie online. Dzięki usystematyzowanej metodologii zgromadzono kluczowe informacje o istniejących programach, ujawniając przy tym niewielką liczbę kursów internetowych w tej dziedzinie. Wyniki jednoznacznie podkreślają konieczność opracowania innowacyjnego i łatwo dostępnego kursu online do kształcenia nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych, który stał się najważniejszym rezultatem projektu.

Słowa kluczowe: projekt Erasmus+, nauczyciele języków specjalistycznych, kształcenie nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych, kurs online.

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Developing a module structure in an online course for LSP teacher professional development

Abstract. Self-directed open educational resources can serve as valuable tools for the continuing professional development of LSP teachers. This paper introduces an open educational resource, the LSP-TEOC.Pro course, which has been available since 2023. The course is organised into instructional modules, each serving as a distinct learning block. However, a research gap remains in understanding how intra-module design influences user experience and learning outcomes in self-directed courses. Given that module structure is of utmost importance for efficient learning, the main objective of this paper is to provide an intra-module presentation and analysis from the user perspective with respect to the following elements: difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, development and sequencing, interior feature strands, design, and clarity. The qualitative data were derived from the diaries kept by the course users when engaging with course content, and the open-ended questions in the post-participation surveys completed by the users. The results of the qualitative data analysis concerning module structure revealed overall user satisfaction with the intra-module structure. However, the results also highlight several points for consideration when designing self-directed courses, particularly concerning module design and clarity, efficient use of digital tools, and the users' needs for feedback and a sense of belonging to a community of practice. These results may assist LSP teacher educators in the application of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course in in-person, blended, or online educational events, as well as course designers of self-directed courses in reflecting on various aspects of structure at the level of individual instructional blocks.

Keywords: LSP-TEOC.Pro, teacher professional development, LSP teachers, self-directed online course, open educational resource, intra-module structure.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, several professional development programmes for LSP teachers have been proposed, along with the introduction of various frameworks to support their professional growth (Master 1997; Howard 1997; Hall 2013; Turula & Gajewska 2019). However, most language teachers working in

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LSP contexts have not received formal pre-service education specifically tailored to this specialized field (Basturkmen 2014; Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019; Podgoršek et al. 2021). This gap was addressed by three Erasmus+ initiatives:

1. the Catapult project created a Language Teacher Education Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) for LSP teachers (http://catapult-project.eu),
2. the TRAILs project developed an LSP teacher training programme curriculum (https://trails.hypotheses.org), and
3. building on the TRAILs curriculum, the LSP-TEOC.Pro project developed a self-directed online open educational resource (https://moodle.lsp-teoc-pro.de).

The data collected during these projects provided a solid research-based background for the implementation of LSP teacher development programmes (see e.g. Bocanegra-Valle & Perea-Barbera 2023; Jurkovič et al. 2024; Podgoršek et al. 2021; Zourou & Torresin 2019). However, further research is required to identify the key factors that can maximise the effectiveness of the results generated by these three Erasmus+ projects and further enhance the design of LSP teacher development programmes.

This paper adds to the body of research by analysing the LSP-TEOC.Pro course. This course was designed primarily to be used by future or in-service LSP teachers to develop and upgrade their LSP teacher competences autonomously by selecting their learning objectives, the modules that they wish to focus on, and the strategies that they prefer to adopt in their continuous professional development. However, the LSP-TEOC.Pro course, whether as a whole or through individual modules, can also be used in in-person, blended, or online instructor-led LSP teacher development programmes or workshops based on flipped learning. Given that the issue of unit structure (i.e. module structure in the case of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course) is of utmost importance for efficient learning (Skela & Burazer 2021), the main objective of this paper is to provide an intra-module presentation and analysis of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course from the user perspective.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Designing education programmes for LSP teachers is crucial for equipping them with the skills and competences necessary to address the specialised needs of their LSP learners. Based on Richards (2001), course development for language teaching must consider various factors and follow a systematic process. This process consists of developing a course rationale, describing entry and exit levels, selecting course content, determining the scope and sequence, planning the course structure, and, finally, preparing the scope and sequence plan.

The first step in the process involves establishing a clear course rationale, which defines the programme's purpose, target audience, and objectives. This rationale should align with the learners' specific needs and the learning contexts, serving as a statement of the course guiding philosophy. Following this, entry and exit levels are determined to identify the learners' baseline competences at the start, and the expected proficiency upon course completion. The third step focuses on defining the course content. This should be based on the results of the needs analysis process and ideas from different sources (e.g. materials on the topic, analysis of similar courses and consultations to match the specific needs of the learners), and should reflect real-world tasks and relevant materials. This is followed by the next step, in which the scope and sequence define the breadth and order of topics, skills, and competences to be covered in the course. This helps organise the course logically and progressively, ensuring that learners build on their knowledge, skills, and competences systematically. The fifth step, which this paper focuses on, involves course structure planning. In other words, here the overall framework of the course is organised, including the distribution of topics, activities, and assessments. Richards (2001) suggests that a course should be organised around instructional blocks, which can be modules or units. Modules are self-contained and self-standing learning sequences with their own objectives and a final assessment part. On the other hand, units are shorter than modules but usually longer than one single lesson. The last step of course development involves the description of the course in the form of the scope and sequence plan that includes the listing of modules and the estimated required teaching and learning time.

Focusing specifically on modules as instructional blocks, Richards (2001) identifies several factors that contribute to a module's success: length, development, coherence, pacing, and outcome. Therefore, a module should include sufficient material but be manageable. Each activity within the module should lead effectively into the next, ensuring smooth transitions and module development. This means that the module should have an overall sense of coherence, with activities and lessons that are logically connected. Activities should move reasonably, avoiding significant discrepancies in the time required to complete them. By the end of the module, learners should be able to display knowledge or skills related to the objectives stated at the beginning of the module as the instructional block. To summarise, instructional blocks should make the course content easier to teach and learn, provide a progression of difficulty levels, and create coherence and structure throughout the instructional block and course. Importantly, a sequence of module components or building blocks will create a learning pathway (Skela & Burazer 2021).

In the context of textbook writing, Schneider (2008) undertook a comprehensive review of relevant literature and provided four distinct categories of

structural components of instructional blocks tailored to facilitate learner motivation and effective learning, namely openers, closers, integrated pedagogical devices, and interior feature strands. Openers encompass overviews, introductions, outlines (in textual, bulleted, or graphical form), focus questions, learning objectives, and case problems. Closers, on the other hand, encompass elements such as conclusions, summaries, definition lists, review questions, reference boxes, tools used for self-assessment, less and more complex exercises, problem cases, and tables tailored for real-world application, project ideas, bibliographies, and hyperlinks. Integrated pedagogical devices manifest as various techniques including word emphasis, summarising marginalia, point-highlighting lists, summary tables and graphics, cross-referencing key concepts, markers identifying embedded subjects, study and review questions, illustrative teaching and learning materials, advice, and reminders or previous elements. Finally, the fourth category pertains to interior feature strands, which encompass case studies and descriptions, problem descriptions, reflections, primary references, data, and models. The strategic planning of these structural elements is important for course and instructional block design, and plays a paramount role within the context of LSP teacher development in line with the focus of this paper.

Borg (2023) outlined ten key principles to ensure the success and impact of effective continuous professional development for teachers, which largely overlap with Richards' (2001) steps to be taken in a course development process, and emphasised the concept of teacher cognition and the need for ongoing teacher support. The first principle is to define learning-oriented and feasible objectives and set clear goals to improve learning outcomes and enhance teacher competences. The second principle emphasises the importance of understanding the context and audience. Building on existing practices and cognitions forms the third principle. A constructivist approach should be used to start from where teachers are and gradually extend their practices. The fourth principle is to make continuous professional development a situated process, closely connected to classroom practices and the local context. Focusing on both the content and process of continuous professional development is the fifth principle. The content should align with the defined objectives and context, emphasizing active learning processes such as constructivist, dialogic, collaborative, and reflective approaches. Continuous professional development should promote practical application in teaching. The sixth principle is to make teacher learning a social process. Collaborative learning through peer observation, mentoring, reading groups, and professional communities should be encouraged. The seventh and eighth principles view continuous professional development as an ongoing process that should provide continuous teacher support. Prioritising teacher educator competence is the ninth principle. Finally, the tenth principle is to

optimise practical arrangements such as timing, duration, location, delivery mode, and available resources.

Sarré et al. (2021) report on a study, conducted upon delivering three seasons of the Catapult LTEMOOC. An important finding is that the participants of the MOOC initially favoured the xMOOC model, which focuses on content delivery, practical ideas, and certification. This preference was evident as most participants were interested in gaining theoretical knowledge, practical tips, and obtaining a certificate. The xMOOC model's structured approach, with clear syllabi and sequences of activities, was appreciated for its ability to provide these elements effectively. However, the results also seem to indicate that the participants' objectives evolved over time, with an increasing appreciation for interactive elements and community building functionalities typically associated with cMOOCs [for a discussion of different types of MOOCs, see also Guerrero-Quiñonez et al. (2023) and Sallam et al. (2020)].

This paper aims to present and analyse the LSP-TEOC.Pro course at the intra-module level from the user perspective, focusing on the design and user experience in relation to key pedagogical elements: difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, development and sequencing, internal feature strands, design quality, and clarity. By examining these aspects, this study contributes to understanding how modular open educational resources can support the professional development needs of LSP teachers. Furthermore, the results of this analysis should assist LSP teacher educators in applying the LSP-TEOC.Pro course in in-person, blended, or online educational events of various formats. Additionally, this analysis will help course designers of self-directed courses, also in fields beyond teacher education, reflect on various aspects of course structure at the module level as individual instructional blocks.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Context

The main objective of this paper is to provide an intra-module presentation and analysis of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course from the user perspective. Discussing the needs-based content of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course falls beyond the scope of this paper. Hence, readers interested in the selection of the course content are invited to refer to Bocanegra-Valle and Perea-Barbera (2023), Jurkovič et al. (2024), and Kic-Drgas and Jurkovič (2024).

Module structure and content were developed in Intellectual Output 3 titled "Development of course content for LSP teacher education and development",

which corresponds with Richards' (2001) step five of course design, i.e. planning the course structure. The intra-module structure of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course is presented in Figure 1 (see Jurkovič et al. 2023: 5).

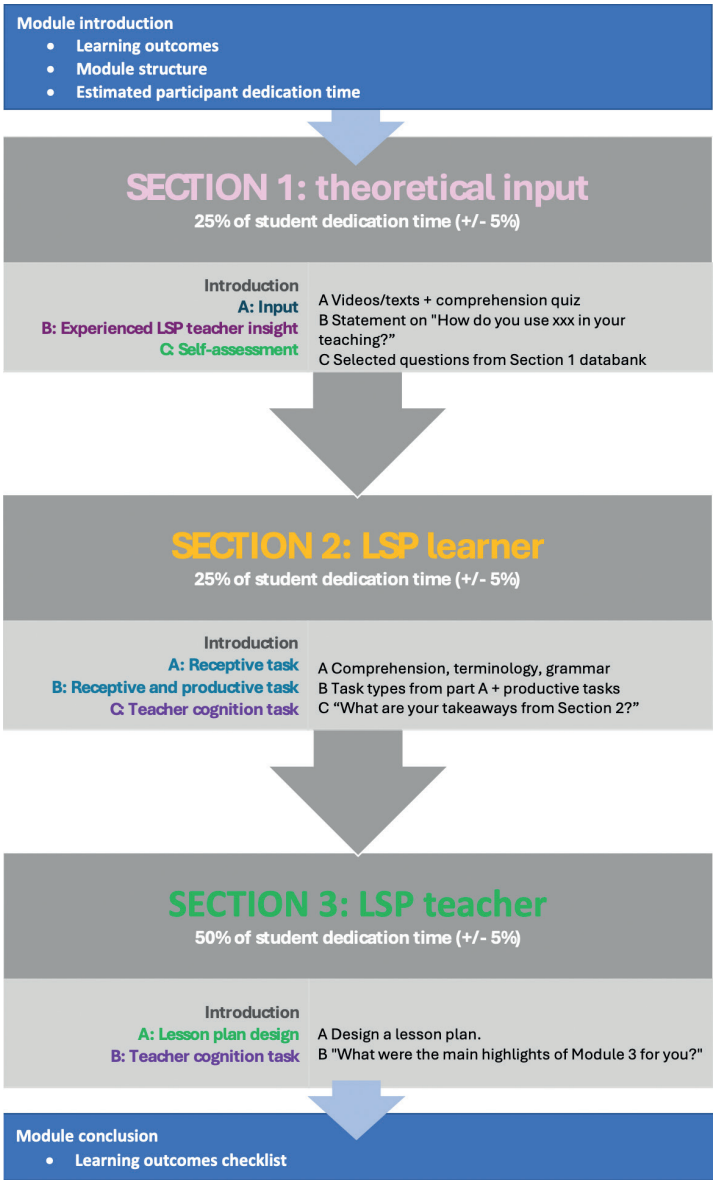

Figure 1. LSP-TEOC.Pro module structure

Source: Jurkovič et al. (2023: 5).

As Figure 1 shows, each module opens with an introduction that describes the learning outcomes that the module users should reach after module completion, the overall module structure, and the purpose of each of the main sections, and the estimated time that completing the module should take.

Each module is then further subdivided into three main sections. The purpose of Section 1 is to provide course users with the theoretical input they will need to work on the activities in the other two sections. Section 1, which should take about 25% of the module user's dedication time, is further subdivided into:

- an introduction with an explanation of the content and purpose of this section,
- the theoretical input enacted through audiovisual or textual input,
- PDF files with the slides used in each audiovisual presentation,
- quizzes for the self-assessment of the acquired knowledge and potential acquisition of Moodle badges,
- a short video or audio recording of an experienced LSP teacher explaining the practical importance of the topic examined by the module, and
- a self-assessment quiz with randomly selected questions from the Section 1 question bank.

Section 2 aims to guide course users through the module first in the role of LSP learners (learning pathway A) and then in the role of LSP teachers (learning pathway B). This approach enables users to first experience the learning process of LSP learners, and then reflect upon it from an LSP teacher's perspective. In this way, the users are provided with a model for the development of their own materials in Section 3. Section 2, which should take about 25% of module users' dedication time, is further subdivided into:

- an introduction with an explanation of the content and purpose of this section, as well as the roles that the user will undertake (LSP learner in learning pathway A, and LSP teacher in learning pathway B),
- a task or a series of tasks in which the course user goes through the topic of the module as an LSP learner (e.g. by completing a needs analysis survey provided by the course designers, by going through a series of tasks aimed at the development of discipline-specific genre awareness, or by completing LSP terminology exercises), and
- a teacher cognition task in the form of an essay question in which the user takes over the role of an LSP teacher and is encouraged to reflect on the tasks and process that they experienced as LSP learners.

Section 3 of each module is designed to guide and assist the course users in the design of module-related LSP materials for a hypothetical (if the user is not an in-service LSP teacher) or real (if the user is an in-service LSP teacher) group of LSP learners. In this section, the users are advised to refer to the concepts

presented in the previous two sections, and to use the materials prepared by course designers as models. Section 3, which should take about 50% of module user dedication time, is further subdivided into:

- an introduction with an explanation of the content and purpose of this section,
- a task or a series of tasks in which the module user assumes the role of an LSP teacher and is assisted in the creation of their own resources (e.g. a lesson plan for the teaching of subject-specific genres, a task designed for the consolidation of subject-specific terminology, or an achievement test),
- a teacher cognition task in the form of an essay question in which the user is encouraged to reflect on the module content (in a reflection journal, in a forum, or through chat), to upload their products (in a user portfolio) and compare them with those uploaded by other users and course designers.

At the end of each module there is a conclusion with a learning outcomes checklist where the module user can self-assess the achievement of the learning outcomes designed for each module. Additionally, a list of recommended further reading resources is provided for users who wish to further enhance the competences developed by completing each module.

3.2. Research question

In this paper, we will attempt to provide an answer to the following research question: "What are the opinions of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course users in terms of intra-module structure regarding its difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, development and sequencing, interior feature strands, design, and clarity?"

In order to provide a comprehensive answer to this research question, the following research model will be used (Figure 2).

3.3. Instruments and data collection

Data for the present study were derived from three instruments used for data collection during the large-scale trialling in Intellectual Output 6 titled "Trialling developed LSP Teacher Education online course."

The description of the users' sample will be based on the data derived from the "trialee and privacy policy notice" survey (gender, age, location, pedagogical background, work experience, work status, languages taught or studied, and LSP discipline).

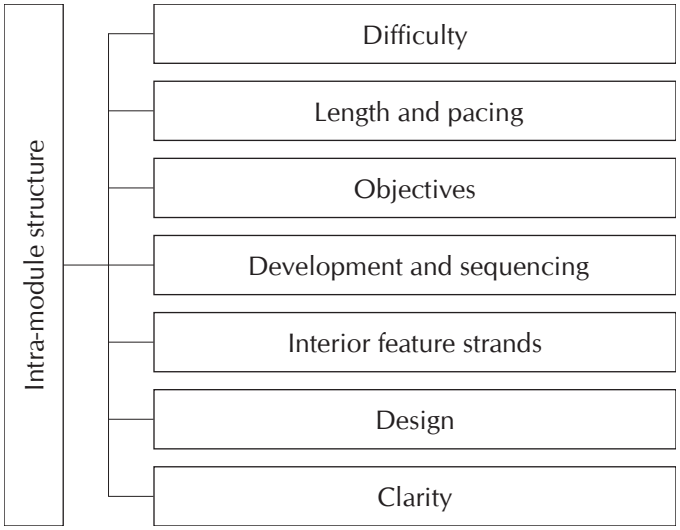

Figure 2. Research model

Source: based on Richards (2001), Schneider (2008).

The qualitative data used to analyse user perspectives on the LSP-TEOC.Pro course at the intra-module level, which will enable us to answer the research question posed for this study, will be derived from:

- the diaries kept by the course users when engaging with course content, and
- the answers to open-ended questions in the post-participation survey completed by the users with an overall evaluation of the four LSP-TEOC.Pro modules that they had selected.

3.4. Participants

The Intellectual Output 6 large-trialling of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course (see Kırkgöz et al. 2023) involved a total of 183 users, among whom 79% were female, 20% were male, while three participants identified their gender as 'other' or preferred not to express it. Most users were aged between 21–30 years (34%) while only two users were 61 or older (1%). The users mostly came from the countries involved in the project: Spain, Turkey, Poland, Slovenia, Croatia, France, Germany, and Italy, while 7% came from other countries. Most users were already LSP teachers at the time of taking the course (38%), 29% were general foreign language teachers, 27% were students, while 6% did not mark their status. The

foreign language that a vast majority of the users taught was English (75%), followed by Spanish (8%), and German (7%) while the other LSPs were taught by only two users or one. The field or discipline that the users had experience with LSP teaching included the humanities (30%), followed by business (20%), engineering (15%), education (9%), and tourism (7%). The other disciplines such as law, medicine, health, or chemistry were marked by less than 4% of users each.

The inventory of users who were involved in the large-scale trialling but also decided to keep a user diary was 30.

3.5. Data analysis

As mentioned in the Introduction, the primary objective of this paper is to provide an intra-module presentation and analysis of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course from the user perspective. During the large-scale trialling, a survey was conducted to collect demographic information about the users and measure their overall satisfaction with the selected modules. Additionally, the users completed pre- and post-participation tests, the results of which were used to assess improvements in their knowledge and skills related to each module's topic. However, the surveys did not include specific questions designed to generate quantitative data on participants' opinions of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course at the intra-module level regarding its difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, development and sequencing, interior feature strands, design, and clarity.

Therefore, the results presented in this paper are based on the analysis of qualitative data. This facilitated a deeper understanding of the users' experiences and the meanings they derived from them (Seidman 2006). The analysis of responses to open-ended questions in post-participation tests and user diaries was conducted in two stages. Initially, the data were read multiple times to identify relevant aspects of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course at the intra-module level that the users addressed in their entries. Subsequently, the entries were coded to reveal common themes and concepts, which were then connected to the analysed intra-module elements.

4. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In the following section, the results of the qualitative data analysis, conducted in accordance with the research model presented in Figure 2, will be presented. The main findings will be supported by quotes from user diaries (labelled as D) or answers to post-participation survey open-ended questions (labelled as PP).

4.1. Difficulty

We first aimed to find out whether the difficulty level of the modules and module activities was appropriate for the objectives pursued by the course. In this respect, there seems to be a certain degree of disagreement among the users. In fact, some have expressed that the modules can be passed with relative ease if you are an experienced LSP teacher but may be quite difficult for inexperienced LSP teachers or students (D4):

> I must say that some activities and quizzes can be passed without much effort when you are an LSP practitioner but I guess that some of the modules' content must be rather difficult for advanced learners or novice teachers.

4.2. Length and pacing

The second aspect we considered was whether the length of the modules as a whole and the module activities were appropriate, and if any module or activity took considerably more time than others. Some activities embedded in the modules are estimated to require more time than intended by the designers and the unanimous agreement appears to be that the modules can be shortened (D17):

> Planning lessons takes a lot of time – not enough time to do all the activities properly.

4.3. Objectives

The point of analysis here is to examine whether the objectives of each module as an instructional block were clearly stated and whether they met the needs of the course users. The users agree that (D6):

> Objectives and learning outcomes are specified at the beginning and you are introduced to what you are going to learn.

Nevertheless, some users expressed their lack of understanding of the link between the stated learning outcomes and some module activities (D8):

> The link between the practical outcomes and the teaching / learning materials […] was not clear to me.

Another question that emerged from the analysis is whether the module activities should be related to a single discipline or different disciplines (D1):

> On the one hand, it is desirable that course participants have to go into detail in every activity in every possible LSP field […] because they don't know in which field they'll be working in the future. But, on the other hand, as an LSP teacher I would have preferred activities specifically related to technical English.

4.4. Development and sequencing

The examination of development and sequencing concerned the question whether the components of each module created a properly developed and sequenced learning pathway; in other words, whether the sections and activities within each module were logically connected and developed. Overall, the modules seem to be well developed and sequenced (PP53):

> I like the variety of the activities as well as their gradual growth in complexity.

This aspect of intra-module design seems to have motivated most user comments in the diaries as well as answers to the post-participation test open-ended questions, particularly with reference to the structure of Section 2 of each module, which has been further subdivided into learning pathways A and B, as described in section 3.1. Context. Few users appreciated this sub-division and experiencing the process through the eyes of an LSP learner in learning pathway A (PP101):

> I found this to be a great way to look at the subject from different perspectives.

On the other hand, most users found in particular learning pathway A highly confusing (PP123):

> The activities where you have to take the role of a learner are very confusing, perhaps they are not well executed or well explained but they are VERY confusing and also I don´t think they are useful at all.

Moreover, several users found learning part B redundant because the third section of each module was dedicated to the course users in the roles of LSP teachers (D4):

> In section 2 parts there are LSP user and teacher parts and then whole section 3 is devoted to the LSP teacher. Isn't it a bit of repetition and doesn't it make the modules longer?

In addition to the modules' macro-structure at the level of its three sections, some doubt was expressed concerning the development of activities at the

micro-level within the main sections, in particular inconsistencies between the theoretical content presented in the video presentations and the subsequent quiz questions (D27):

> It might be sometimes the case that the questions do not exactly correspond to what has been explained in the video.

Nevertheless, a shared opinion among the users seems to be that several elements were particularly beneficial to the module development and sequencing. The first is the module introduction section (PP95):

> In all the modules, I liked how the introduction section introduces the segments of the specific modules and the learning outcomes clearly.

All users seemed to agree that the structure of all modules is coherent. The coherence of the modules is also aided by a clear division into the theoretical and practical parts, where the necessary theoretical input is provided first to lay the foundations for the practical tasks (D12):

> The layout of each module is truly comprehensive. I really appreciate the idea of having three different headings, one from the theoretical point of view, the second one from the LSP user, and the third one from the point of view of the teacher.

Moreover, the audiovisual theoretical input is followed quizzes with questions designed to support the users' comprehension and consolidation of the topic examined by each module, which was also highlighted as beneficial by several users (D20):

> The fact that you have: video + presentation (and not very long), and then the quiz helps a lot organising the activities and learning required, acquiring the knowledge, and then testing it.

Last but not least, another benefit is that module development and sequencing is supported by the use of examples and models (D17):

> A huge benefit is a hands-on approach at the end of the modules which provides both students and teachers with opportunities to apply the acquired knowledge in doing or designing classroom activities.

4.5. Interior feature strands

In this section, we will examine the user views on a variety of interior feature strands embedded in the individual modules and overall to facilitate learning and enhance user motivation: audiovisual theoretical input, presentation slides, quizzes, insights of experienced teachers, portfolios, forums and chats, reflection journals, and further reading sections.

4.5.1. Audiovisual theoretical input

The audiovisual theoretical input provided in Section 1 of each module was appreciated by all users in their diaries and answers to post-participation open-ended survey questions (PP73):

> I liked video presentations and especially the fact that they have the same format. This is a nice inspiration.

In fact, some users suggested incorporating additional video explanations at other points of the modules, such as when giving instructions to the practical exercises. However, the users also expressed a degree of dissatisfaction with the format or the presentation mode, especially concerning the monotonous narration in some video presentations (D7):

> I am aware that it is difficult to improve this, but the videos were a bit monotone, and because it is just an introduction, it makes you want to attempt the quizzes without watching the videos first.

Another improvement they suggested concerned the lack of interactivity, insufficient user-centredness, and therefore disconnectedness with the audience (D15):

> The videos need to be made more attractive to engage the viewer. At the moment they look like a recorded class. They can be made more interactive, for example integrating relevant questions at some points that students can answer without going to a quiz afterwards.

4.5.2. Presentation slides

In all modules, the audiovisual theoretical input is followed by PDF files with the slides used by the speakers. This is an interior feature strand that was positively commented upon by several users (D22):

> Placing the slides after the video was useful to read and review some points that were not clear in the video.

4.5.3. Quizzes

The objective of the quizzes that follow each presentation with audiovisual or textual theoretical input was to check and consolidate the main points presented in the theoretical input. The quizzes can be attempted several times and the correct answers are provided after a failed attempt. In the views of the users, this is useful for the consolidation of knowledge (D23):

> Many of the activities have a suggested answer key (and all the self-assessment tests) and the student can check their answers with the suggested ones immediately after they are done, as a way of self-correction and learning.

In addition, having a question bank so that the questions can change with each quiz attempt avoided question repetition and seems to have a positive effect on learning (D12):

> It is nice to see that each time I take the quizzes, the options / choices change.

However, several users noted that the quizzes often have a repetitive format and fail to encourage active engagement with the content, as the quiz questions are not integrated into the video presentations but are instead presented as stand-alone sections (PP27):

> I would like some tasks that wouldn't be so passive, just clicking the right answer.

4.5.4. Insights of experienced teachers

The insights of experienced teachers presented in the form of brief video presentations at the end of each theoretical section seem to have received a positive response among all users (D2):

> This was a very good idea – it is much more interesting than the lecture – and there is a personal touch it is not monotonous, a real person.

Nevertheless, some suggestions for improvement were also provided, such as adding explanations of how an activity related to a particular topic was applied in an LSP context, including activities based on these narratives, or using a dialogue or interview technique instead of a single-person narrative (D12):

> The videos with experts' testimonies would be more interesting and enjoyable if they were framed as interviews (e.g. a written question can be shown and then the expert's answer).

4.5.5. Portfolios

The portfolios were used in Section 3 of some modules to encourage users to upload user-generated content or materials created on the basis of the provided theoretical input in Section 1 or examples provided by course designers in Section 2. The portfolios appear to be viewed as a useful activity by some users. However, most users suggested that having a portfolio in a self-directed course where no feedback is provided is less useful (D8):

> If detailed individual feedback was given, then these tasks would be useful.

4.5.6. Forums and chats

As activities that aim to build a community of users, forums and chats were included into some modules so that the users could compare their answers and thoughts with those of others, which was perceived as beneficial. However, not many users decided to share their views, which contributed to the sense of isolation felt by some users (D11):

> We need more community building tasks. […] Am I alone on this course?

4.5.7. Reflection journals

Reflection journals were incorporated into the modules to encourage users to reflect on the activities that they completed, and then upload their reflections. The views of the users on this interior feature strand are mostly positive (D14):

> It is important to reflect on how these tasks have contributed to our understanding of language teaching and learning.

Nevertheless, as was already noted in relation to forums and chats, few users decided to upload their reflections. Therefore, some users suggested removing reflection journals altogether while encouraging the users through instructions to reflect on the completed activities on their own (PP134):

> I would perhaps remove reflection journals as participants can easily take notes on their own account.

4.5.8. Further reading suggestions

At the end of each module, suggestions for further reading were provided for users who wanted to explore further what was presented. While most users found these to be useful, some emphasised the importance of having updated and comprehensive lists (D2):

> The further reading / references recommended are really good but, in some modules, they do not seem to be very updated or there are not many.

4.6. Design

Design refers to the attractiveness and clarity of the module visual design. Although some users thought that the course design was appropriate, most thought that this is one of the shortcomings of the modules and course as a whole. Their remarks refer to various design aspects. The first one is lack of consistency of punctuation. Second, the users' comments referred to vertical coherence or the need for splitting of module content across several pages (D15):

> Visually, I´ve got very overwhelmed with the amount of things that were inside each module. As you scroll down, there are way too many things to pay attention with and it can be easy to forget one exercise.

Moreover, in the users' opinions, slide design should have been made simpler and more consistent across presentations (D18):

> The presentations in the introductory modules could have had less text (especially quotes) on the slides and perhaps a bit more visuals which would make them more appealing.

Another suggestion made by the users concerned the functionality of opening the attached documents in new tabs and not in the same window (D3):

> All documents should open in a new window.

Moreover, user engagement would be greater if the speakers were visible in all video presentations (PP22):

> There were only their voices which can create a perception for the learners that they don't take them into consideration. It is important for people to see their teacher. To create a bond with them.

Next, the absence of progress tabs that would provide the users with visual information on the share of the module already completed was seen as another shortcoming (D24):

> I thought I had completed the module but it seems that there is something I should do and I don't know what and I have no idea what to do with it. It is very frustrating. Could we have a checklist with progress to verify what to do in such a case?

Last but not least, activity instructions are provided on the Moodle desktop but are not repeated in the attached files, which meant the users needed to return to the Moodle desktop to find the required instructions (D18):

> I'd like to find instructions for portfolio activities inside the activities themselves.

4.7. Clarity

The final aspect of the intra-module structure that will be analysed is its clarity, in particular the clarity of the purpose of individual activities, and activity instructions. A large number of user comments extracted from their diaries and answers to post-participation test open-ended questions can be classified under this aspect.

Generally, the users thought that more and clearer instructions should be provided while several comments also questioned whether the purpose of various activities was clearly stated (D8):

> What should we do here? I added the entry, but have no idea what to do with that. […] Adding tasks with no clear purpose, without explanation, shouldn't take place here.

Finally, the users were not certain whether any feedback would be provided on the assignments that they had uploaded (D4):

> Will there be an evaluation process of the assignments after uploading these documents to the system, if so, how long will it take?

5. DISCUSSION

The main objective of this paper was to provide an intra-module presentation and analysis of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course from the user perspective.

First of all, the step of course design in which the intra-module structure is defined cannot entirely be separated from the preceding steps of course design nor the key principles that support effective continuing professional development for teachers (see Borg 2023; Richards 2001). In fact, these steps are mutually interacting and intertwining, and should therefore be seen as recurring rather than isolated elements in a sequence. This means that the structure of the instructional blocks (i.e. modules in the case of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course) will be informed by the course rationale, entry and exit levels, course content, and course content sequencing developed in the first four steps of curriculum development (see Richards 2001). Vice versa, the findings resulting from an analysis of modules as instructional blocks can inform course designers in adjusting these elements to other modes of delivery than the ones that the course has originally been planned for. In other words, the findings of the analysis of module structure presented in this paper can lead to adjustments in the course rationale, entry and exit levels, course content, and course content sequencing if the LSP-TEOC.Pro course, primarily designed as a self-directed open educational resource, or its modules are used in in-person, blended, or online instructor-led LSP teacher development programmes.

The results of the qualitative data analysis concerning module structure in the LSP-TEOC.Pro course indicated the overall satisfaction of the users with the intra-module structure. Most users made positive comments on most requirements that – according to Richards (2001) – account for a successful module: difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, and development and sequencing. These requirements were also met through the efficient use of openers, closers, integrated pedagogical devices, and interior features strands (see Schneider 2008). The interior feature strands that the users mostly appreciated include audiovisual theoretical input that was accompanied by the slides in PDF format used by the presenters, the insights of experienced LSP teachers used to conclude each theoretical section, further reading suggestions provided for users who wanted

to further explore the aspects examined by each module, and reflection journals. The latter is particularly relevant because the LSP-TEOC.Pro course was built on the notion of the development of an LSP teacher as a reflective practitioner (see Borg 2023). In other words, this is an LSP teacher who reflects on their own teaching practice to develop their teaching expertise (Burazer & Skela 2023).

However, the results also highlight several points for consideration that may assist developers of online self-directed courses in different fields. First, several users expressed a sense of isolation because of the lack of engagement in a community, which can be identified as one of the shortcomings of self-directed courses designed for autonomous learning. In these courses, opportunities for peer observation or mentoring as examples of collaborative learning are not provided. Therefore, teacher learning does not develop into a social and collaborative process, defined by Borg (2023) as one of the key principles of teacher education. In addition, the findings highlight the importance of interactive elements and community-building functionalities, as emphasised by Sarré et al. (2021), and the need to engage in LSP communities of practice, identified as a professional development need of LSP teachers by Bocanegra-Valle and Basturkmen (2019) and Jurkovič et al. (2024).

Next, the present findings indicate that in addition to the requirements that support a successful module identified by Richards (2001) and presented above (difficulty, length and pacing, objectives, and development and sequencing), two additional requirements should be added to the properties of effective self-directed courses in online environments. These are design and clarity. The results of the qualitative data analysis highlight the importance of visual design and ease of navigation through module sections for user motivation. The visual design refers both to the design of the slides used for theoretical presentations, the design of the quizzes, and well as the design of modules as a whole. Here we may claim that the affordances of the applied digital tools and Moodle as the selected virtual learning environment have not been exploited to their full potential.

With reference to clarity, in self-directed courses there is no teacher who can explain the tasks or activities if the users fail to understand their instructions. This highlights the need for clear and comprehensive instructions, possibly repeated in attached documents that open in new tabs or windows, as users do not have the opportunity to ask anyone for clarification. In other words, instructions to tasks and activities in learning materials for self-directed courses need to be much clearer and more comprehensive than instructions to tasks and activities in instructor-led courses.

Last but not least, the issue of clarity of intra-module structure was also noted with regard to the division of each module into sections, and further into subsections. In fact, many users expressed their doubts specifically with

reference to learning pathway A as a subsection of Section 2. Here, the users were guided through the module topic in the role of LSP learners, where the users were expected to experience the process of learning an LSP as a learner. In this way, they would reflect on the process that LSP learners experience in their LSP classes. This means that the users were asked, for example, to fill out needs analysis questionnaires, complete grammatical and lexical exercises, or complete language tests. However, even if this approach proved to be efficient and successful in in-person instructor-led workshops (see Jurkovič 2003), it seems much less relevant or even detrimental in self-directed courses. Given that several users suggested that the modules could be shortened, abandoning this subsection represents a feasible option. However, if the LSP-TEOC.Pro course content or its modules are used in instructor-led events, experiencing the LSP learning process by assuming the role of an LSP learner once again becomes fertile ground for reflection.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper adds to the developing body of knowledge regarding the requirements underpinning efficient and relevant professional development of LSP teachers. Among the needs that the LSP-TEOC.Pro course did not seem to meet at the intra-module level were the users' need to receive feedback, the need to receive support, and the need to belong to a community of practice. In a self-directed online course designed for autonomous learning, these needs can be met with difficulty. However, with the promising developments of artificial intelligence for interaction with different categories of users, it will certainly become worth exploring if artificial intelligence can replace human interaction in providing feedback, support, and a sense of belonging to a professional community of practice. Therefore, an issue that the LSP community and broader community of course designers must address is the efficient use and implementation of the available and constantly developing digital technologies that will bridge the shortcomings identified through the analysis of the user experience with the LSP-TEOC.Pro self-directed online course at the intra-module level.

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Opracowanie struktury modułów w kursie online dla doskonalenia zawodowego nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych

Abstrakt. Otwarte zasoby edukacyjne do samodzielnej pracy mogą służyć jako cenne narzędzia ustawicznego rozwoju zawodowego nauczycieli LSP. Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia kurs LSP-TEOC.Pro jako przykład zasobu, dostępnego online od 2023 roku. Kurs jest podzielony na moduły, z których każdy służy jako odrębny blok edukacyjny. Jednak nadal istnieje luka badawcza w zrozumieniu sposobu, w jaki projektowanie modułu wpływa na doświadczenie użytkownika oraz efekty uczenia się w kursach samokształceniowych. Kurs jest podzielony na moduły instruktażowe. Struktura modułów ma kluczowe znaczenie dla efektywnego uczenia się, dlatego głównym celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie i analiza tych modułów z perspektywy użytkownika, z uwzględnieniem takich elementów, jak trudność, długość i szybkość wykonywania poszczególnych komponentów, cele, rozwijanie treści i ustalanie jej kolejności, komponenty kursu, wygląd i przejrzystość. Dane jakościowe pochodzą z dzienników prowadzonych przez użytkowników kursu podczas jego realizacji oraz z otwartych pytań zawartych w ankietach wypełnianych przez użytkowników po ukończeniu kursu. Analiza danych jakościowych dotyczących budowy modułów wskazała na ogólne zadowolenie użytkowników ze struktury modułów. Jednak wyniki ujawniają również kilka aspektów, które warto wziąć pod uwagę przy kolejnym projektowaniu kursów w trybie samokształceniowym, w szczególności w odniesieniu do wyglądu i przejrzystości modułu, efektywnego wykorzystania narzędzi cyfrowych, potrzeb użytkowników w zakresie otrzymania informacji zwrotnej i bycia częścią społeczności. Pozyskane wyniki mogą pomóc nauczycielom języków specjalistycznych w wykorzystaniu kursu LSP-TEOC.Pro na zajęciach stacjonarnych, hybrydowych lub online, a także projektantom kursów.

Słowa kluczowe: LSP-TEOC.Pro, rozwój zawodowy nauczycieli, nauczyciele LSP, samokształceniowy kurs online, otwarta edukacja.

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An investigation into Moodle quizzes as assessment practices in an online LSP teacher professional development course

ABSTRACT. Although quizzes have become widely used for assessment purposes in online courses, the specific types of questions employed in quizzes have received less scholarly attention. To address this gap, this study investigates the question types used in quizzes within an online LSP teacher professional development course (LSP-TEOC.Pro) based on the Moodle platform, the rationale behind the question types and the test takers' attitudes towards quizzes. The study employed a descriptive research design, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data. Initially, a descriptive statistical analysis was conducted to identify the question types used in the online LSP-TEOC.Pro course, and the rationale for each question type. Then, interviews were conducted with a group of Turkish native-speaking test takers who voluntarily completed at least four modules during the trial phase of the course (IO6). Findings revealed that a variety of question types was used to evaluate the test takers' knowledge at both receptive and productive levels. Content analysis of the interview data indicated that test takers found the assessment system used in the online course highly useful for self-evaluating their knowledge of each respective module. The results of this study offer valuable insights for online course designers in designing quizzes for summative assessment purposes.

KEYWORDS: assessment, question types, Moodle quiz, online course, Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP).

1. INTRODUCTION

Recently, there has been a significant increase in the number of online teacher professional development courses worldwide (Blanco & Ginovart 2012). Educators everywhere are incorporating virtual classes through learning management systems (LMS) to complement traditional face-to-face instruction (Benson 2003; Ferrão 2010). An LMS is a software application designed to develop instructional content, facilitate communication between teachers and learners, assess learning activities, and manage the teaching-learning process (Piña 2010). One of the most widely used LMS platforms globally is Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment). Moodle's popularity can be attributed to several

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factors, including its low cost, free accessibility, and robust socio-constructivist pedagogical framework, along with its foundation as a free open-source technology (Al-Ajlan 2012). The integration of Moodle into language teaching is particularly noteworthy due to its versatility and adaptability to diverse instructional needs. Its various functions facilitate interactive and collaborative learning experiences, aligning well with modern pedagogical approaches in language education.

An essential component of online courses is the assessment of students through both formative and summative practices. Numerous studies have highlighted the growing role of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in the field of assessment (Davies & Graff 2004; Steegmann et al. 2008). This increasing reliance on ICTs has led to the emergence of eassessment as a significant topic in the educational arena (Brink & Lautenbach 2011; Ferrão 2010). Given the importance of formative assessment in online courses, it is crucial to explore innovative evaluation practices. As Ferrão (2010) points out, an effective e-assessment system requires the necessary hardware and software for test generation and administration.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the types of questions used in quizzes within an online LSP teacher professional development course (LSP-TEOC.Pro) utilizing the Moodle platform, the rationale behind the question types and the test takers' attitudes towards quizzes. The introduction sets the context for the study, followed by a review of relevant previous research on Moodle and its quizzes, identifying the gaps the current study aims to fill, and presenting the research questions. The methodology section details the research design, the collection of Moodle quizzes, and the analysis methods employed. The findings are presented in the results section of the article, supported by one figure and one table. The article concludes with a summary of the main findings and provides suggestions for future research.

2. MOODLE

Moodle has been widely adopted by many higher education institutions as an LMS to aid educators in developing online courses. Moodle serves various educational purposes, including assessment through its quiz module, which enables course designers to create sets of questions for evaluation (Stanford 2009). A key feature of Moodle is its ability to create quizzes with diverse question types tailored to the specific objectives of course content, thereby effectively evaluating students' learning (Blanco & Ginovart 2012; Ferrão 2010). A Moodle is one of the powerful platforms that is used for creating online courses, and

one of its key properties is its potential to create interactive quizzes and assessments. Moodle offers a wide range of assessment question types to cater to various learning objectives and subject areas. Using Moodle facilities, it becomes possible to create different question types for quizzes, enabling the assessment of learners' knowledge and understanding from multiple perspectives. In this respect, Moodle's online quizzes represent an alternative to traditional face-to-face courses and paper-based testing (Blanco & Ginovart 2012; Ferrao 2010), making the assessment practice holistic. As a result, the distinction between formative and summative assessment becomes blurred (Daly et al. 2010). It has also been found that the main reason for using a range of question types in the quizzes is to evaluate test takers' receptive and productive knowledge in the online learning environment. Receptive knowledge refers to the ability to understand information related to a module, whereas productive knowledge involves recalling and applying that knowledge in practical contexts (Nation 2001). In online learning environments, well-designed quizzes can effectively assess both receptive and productive knowledge, contributing to learning engagement and retention (Benson 2003). For example, true / false, multiple-choice, and drag-and-drop questions primarily assess test-takers' ability to recognize and recall information of various topics. On the other hand, matching, short-answer, and select-missing-words questions evaluate productive knowledge. This demands not only recognition but also the ability to manipulate, organize, and integrate information.

Notably, all question types in Moodle, except for essay questions, can be automatically graded and provided with feedback based on the settings established by the quiz creator (Syahid 2019). Questions can either be created directly within the quiz or first added to the question bank and subsequently integrated into quizzes. Each question requires individual setup procedures. It is important to recognize that certain question types may require more advanced configurations to function effectively (Benson 2003).

In their comprehensive review of the benefits of online testing, Alruwais et al. (2018) identified numerous advantages for students, teachers, and institutions. Specifically, students benefit from increased autonomy, flexible scheduling, and user-friendly interfaces resembling games, rapid navigation, and immediate feedback. These advantages enhance academic performance and motivation among students. At the institutional level, "online testing through Moodle provides rapid and precise assessment methods, time and cost savings, and enhanced security measures" (Alruwais et al. 2018: 35). The Moodle quiz activity module offers functionalities such as efficient sorting of questions, a capability not available with traditional paper-based tests. This feature enables tests to be presented simply and expediently. Moreover, online tests yield more accurate results com-

pared to paper-based counterparts, and their adaptive nature allows for easier customization based on students' responses. These advantages contribute to the fulfilment of educational objectives within the Moodle quiz activity module.

For educators, online testing offers significant timesaving benefits, allowing them to allocate their time more efficiently. It also empowers teachers to improve the quality of feedback provided to students, enhance their ability to monitor student progress, "streamline learning analysis processes, and mitigate the challenges associated with assessing large cohorts of students, such as physical and mental fatigue" (Alruwais et al. 2018: 35).

Despite the clear importance of quizzes in Moodle, there has been little investigation into the types of questions used, and the reasons behind their selection. Borromeo (2013), one of the few researchers to explore this area, studied the Moodle question types preferred by university teachers in the Philippines. Participants in the study by Borromeo (2013) were shown Moodle's eight standard question types, and then asked which types they used and would use. In the context of teaching Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), such research remains comparatively rare.

3. MOODLE QUIZZES

Quizzes have become a widely used tool for assessment in recent years (Ferrão 2010), and they are a vital component of LSP courses, facilitating the evaluation of students' achievement of intended learning outcomes. Moodle's quiz function offers an innovative alternative to conventional paper-and-pencil tests. Moodle quizzes serve as a valuable tool to inform students of their performance throughout the learning process, representing an effective form of formative e-assessment (Blanco & Ginovart 2012). As noted by Blanco and Ginovart (2012, 2009), the automated assessment feature provided by Moodle quizzes not only streamlines grading processes but also allows educators more time to focus on other aspects of the learning experience. Moodle's quiz module is a powerful tool for monitoring and diagnosing students' learning, offering a compelling alternative to traditional face-to-face courses and paper-based testing.

Syahid (2019) examined the usability of various question types in Moodle's quiz activity module. In the study, 30 teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) who had no prior experience with Moodle evaluated 23 question types using the Usefulness, Satisfaction, and Ease of Use questionnaire in order to determine which question types were perceived as useful, easy to use and learn, and satisfying. The participants agreed on the dimensions of usefulness, ease of use and learning, and satisfaction for 10 question types, with Random Short-

Answer Matching, Multiple Choice, Multiple Response, and True/False being the most highly rated. The findings suggest that the levels of agreement on the usefulness and ease of use were comparatively higher than for the other dimensions. The adoption of Moodle question types in classrooms could be driven by their perceived usefulness and ease of use.

4. MOODLE QUIZZES AS ASSESSMENT PRACTICES

LSP-TEOC.Pro is an online, multilingual teacher professional development course funded by the European Union, comprising eight modules. Each module focuses on a specific aspect of teaching LSP, such as course and syllabus design and needs analysis. The objectives of each module are articulated in terms of learning outcomes, which describe "the competencies that students will know, understand, or be able to demonstrate after completing the learning process" (Blanco & Ginovart 2012: 356). These competencies represent a dynamic combination of attributes, abilities, and attitudes, corresponding to the specified learning outcomes. In this self-study online LSP Professional development course, at the end of each module, a quiz with various question types assesses the LSP user's learning according to the module's objectives. Upon completing each module, LSP users take the quiz to self-evaluate their comprehension of the intended learning outcomes for each module. Within this framework, the workload of an LSP user includes the time required to complete all designated learning activities within each module through independent study. Typically, a standard duration of 6 hours per module is allocated for this purpose.

The primary objective of this study is to explore the utilization of Moodle quizzes as an assessment tool within the context of the online LSP-TEOC.Pro teacher education course project. Despite the widespread use of quizzes for assessment in Moodle (Ferrão 2010), there is a lack of detailed research investigating the specific question types employed for assessment purposes, the rationale behind their design, and the perspectives of users regarding Moodle quizzes in an online LSP teacher professional development course tailored for LSP educators.

To address this gap, the present study aims to answer the following research questions:

- What types of questions are utilized in the quizzes within the online LSP-TEOC.Pro Teacher Professional Development course, which operates on a Moodle platform?
- What is the distribution of question types across the quizzes in different modules of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course?

- What rationale informs the design of the question types employed in these quizzes?
- What are the attitudes of test takers towards computer-assisted assessment via Moodle quizzes?

5. METHODOLOGY

This study employs a descriptive research design, which aims to describe a phenomenon or situation (Fox & Bayat 2007). It incorporates both quantitative and qualitative data to gain a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon being investigated (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). The study unfolds in two stages. In the initial stage, an analysis of the question types utilized in the online LSP-TEOC.Pro teacher professional development course, comprising eight modules, was conducted through descriptive statistical analysis. Additionally, the rationale behind each question type was scrutinized. To discern the types of questions employed in the LSP-TEOC.Pro online course, each project partner, also serving as module creators, identified and listed the question types used in their respective modules. These question types, featured in the quizzes, were then compiled and analysed by the author of this paper, along with an explanation of the rationale behind each question type. Data was extracted from the Moodle platform of the project. The results obtained from the quizzes are presented in the Findings section of the paper.

In the second stage of the study, the aim was to gather the opinions of a group of Turkish native-speaking test takers who voluntarily completed at least four modules during the trialling phase of the online LSP-TEOC.Pro course. Thirteen Turkish test takers were selected through purposive sampling (Oliver & Jupp 2006), and interviewed using an Interview Protocol specifically developed for the study. The interview protocol included questions regarding the test takers' biographical information and their thoughts on the assessment part of the course, particularly the quizzes. The interview data were analysed using content analysis to achieve a systematic and objective analysis of the participants' opinions (Neuendorf 2002) regarding assessment through the quizzes.

6. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. The question types in Moodle quizzes

Research findings revealed that the Moodle quizzes in the online LSP-TEOC-Pro course utilized six distinct question types. These included True / False ques-

tions, Short Answer questions, Multiple Choice, Matching, Drag and Drop, and Select Missing Words question types.

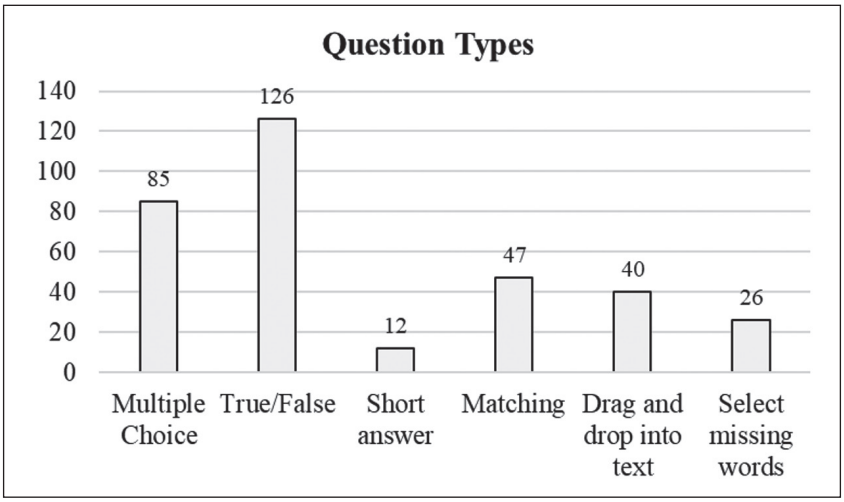

Figure 1. Question types used in Moodle quizzes

Source: own study.

As depicted in Figure 1, descriptive analysis of the question types revealed that the "True / False" question type (n = 126; 37.5%) constitutes the largest portion of all questions, while the "Short answer" question type represents the smallest portion (n = 12; 3.6%). Furthermore, following the "True / False" question type are "Multiple Choice" (n = 85; 25.3%), "Matching" (n = 47; 14.0%), "Drag and Drop into text" (n = 40; 11.9%), and "Select Missing Words" (n = 26; 8.28%) question types, respectively. Annex provides samples of each question type from Module 1: Course and Syllabus Design in the LSP-TEOC.Pro Course. These diverse question types cater to various assessment needs, enhancing both the breadth and depth of evaluation. Each type serves a unique purpose in assessing learners' comprehension and knowledge effectively.

6.2. Distribution of question types in each module

Table 1 illustrates the number of questions across each module in the LSP-TEOC-Pro course. The "Short answer" question type is observed to represent the smallest portion of question types in the quizzes throughout the entire online course.

Table 1. Total number of questions in each module

Modules	Multiple Choice	True/False	Short answer	Matching	Drag and drop into text	Select missing words	Total number of questions in each module
Module 0	7	13	2	1	1	0	**24**
Module 1	17	12	4	6	14	7	**60**
Module 2	3	7	0	8	2	4	**24**
Module 3.1	2	2	1	1	0	0	**6**
Module 3.2	24	14	5	0	0	0	**43**
Module 3.3	7	15	0	0	0	0	**22**
Module 4	5	15	0	13	12	4	**49**
Module 5	4	9	0	10	9	11	**43**
Module 6	16	15	0	5	2	0	**38**
Module 7	0	24	0	3	0	0	**27**
Total number of questions for each question type	**85**	**126**	**12**	**47**	**40**	**26**	**336**

Multiple Choice: Receptive knowledge – checking the understanding of notions related to the modules.
True/False: Receptive knowledge – checking the understanding of notions related to the modules.
Short answer: Productive knowledge – checking the recalling of a notion related to the modules.
Matching: Productive knowledge – checking the recalling of a notion related to the modules.
Drag and drop into text: Receptive knowledge – checking the understanding of notions related to the modules.
Select missing words: Productive knowledge – checking the recalling of a notion related to the modules.

Source: own study.

As illustrated in Table 1, Module 1 contained the highest number of questions (n = 60; 19.10%) in the course, followed by Module 4 (n = 49; 15.60%), Module 3.2 (n = 43; 13.9%), Module 5 (n = 43; 13.9%), Module 6 (n = 38; 12.10%), Module 7 (n = 27; 8.59%), Module 2 (n = 24; 7.64%), Module 0 (n = 24; 7.64%), Module 3.3 (n = 22; 6.6%), and Module 3.1 (n = 6; 1.91%). The results indicate that Module 1 had the highest number of questions (60; 19.10%) in the course. Module 4 followed with 49 questions (15.60%), while Modules 3.2 and 5 each contained 43 questions (13.9%). The distribution of questions suggests a structured approach to content delivery, with some modules receiving significantly

more emphasis than others. Notably, Module 3.1 had the fewest questions (6; 1.91%), indicating a comparatively lower focus on this section. This design of question distribution may reflect the complexity or importance of topics covered in each module, with higher question counts requiring deeper engagement or assessment.

6.3. The rationale underlying the design of the question types

The quizzes aimed to evaluate the LSP users' both receptive and productive knowledge. In the LSP-TEOC.Pro course, true/false and multiple choice questions and drag and drop questions, are designed to assess test takers' receptive knowledge and understanding of concepts on a variety of topics in the course; whereas the remaining question types including matching questions, short answer questions, and select missing words question types are designed to assess the test taker's productive knowledge and understanding of the course material.

Specifically, *True/False questions* are binary-choice questions where test takers have to ascertain whether a given statement is true or false. Such questions assessed test takers' understanding of concepts or facts.

Short Answer questions prompt test takers to recall specific information and provide a brief response, typically a single word or short phrase, evaluating their ability to recall specific information or demonstrate understanding of concepts.

In *Multiple Choice questions*, test takers are presented with a list of possible answers to a given question or statement related to the content of the module. They are expected to select the correct answer from the options provided. Multiple choice questions were intended to assess test takers' receptive knowledge across a variety of topics covered in the LSP course.

Matching questions assess test takers' capacity to recognize relationships between concepts presented in the modules and their corresponding meanings or definitions. These questions involved pairing items from two lists, such as terms and definitions, requiring LSP users to match each item from one list to its corresponding item in the other. This type of questions evaluated test-takers' ability to identify relationships between concepts or recall specific details, thereby assessing LSP users' knowledge at the recognition level.

Drag and Drop questions prompt test takers to relocate items to designated areas, such as matching terms to their corresponding definitions. They offer an engaging and interactive experience, enabling test takers to display their comprehension of concepts or relationships. These questions are a variant of cloze questions, where a passage of text contains embedded answers. This question type could be presented in drag-and-drop, gap-fill short answer, or drop-down

format, allowing test takers to demonstrate their understanding of concepts or relationships by moving items to specific areas within Moodle.

Lastly, in the LSP course, *Select Missing Words* question types asked test takers to choose a missing word or phrase from Moodle's dropdown menu, assessing their ability to identify and apply specific information within a given context.

6.4. Test takers' attitudes to Moodle quizzes

Interview findings revealed that test takers considered the online LSP teacher professional development course's assessment system highly effective in facilitating self-evaluation of their knowledge and understanding of specific modules, such as syllabus design, needs analysis, and other LSP-related topics. One participant exemplifies this, saying, "The quizzes made me think critically about the content, which deepened my understanding of the topics presented in the modules." (P2). Another participant added, "I found the questions closely related to the module content." (P5)

The quizzes at the end of each module played a crucial role in assessing learners' comprehension and highlighting areas that required further practice. While some test takers found the questions challenging, they appreciated how these challenges prompted deeper engagement with the material. As one test taker explained, "Some of the questions were quite challenging, but they encouraged me to explore the material more deeply." (P1) Additionally, the quizzes were instrumental in helping learners identify and correct misconceptions. One participant (P9) noted, "Sometimes I realized I had misunderstood a concept, and the quizzes helped me correct that." This underscores effectiveness of the quizzes in fostering critical reflection and reinforcing understanding.

Completing the quizzes constituted a source of motivation for participants. As one participant remarked, "Upon finishing the quizzes, I felt a sense of accomplishment that sustained my motivation to proceed." (P11) Furthermore, participants agreed that the quizzes offered valuable learning experiences. One participant remarked, "The anticipation of an assessment at the conclusion of each module motivated me to engage more attentively with the content." (P13) Others highlighted the active learning process enabled by the quizzes, with one remarking, "I felt engaged in my learning rather than merely passively reading or listening." Another participant stated: "The questions were not only about recalling information; they encouraged me to use what I learned in a practical way." (P14)

The interview findings highlight the significance of a well-structured assessment method in promoting critical reflection, enhanced engagement, and enduring motivation within the LSP-TEOC.Pro professional development course.

These insights emphasise the role of quizzes in promoting active engagement, motivation, and enhanced comprehension. The integration of demanding yet relevant questions and immediate feedback fosters a dynamic learning environment. This approach not only facilitates personal learning objectives but also fosters a sense of accomplishment among participants.

However, it is important to acknowledge certain limitations in the feedback obtained from participants. While the participants' opinions about the quizzes were overwhelmingly positive, their responses often lacked sufficient detail. Many participants provided brief, generalized comments, which suggests they may not have fully explored or articulated their thoughts on the assessment system. Furthermore, the interviews were conducted with a relatively small sample of 13 test-takers. This limited number of participants restricts the generalizability of the findings and reduces the potential for uncovering diverse perspectives. A larger and more diverse group of participants might have provided richer insights and a more comprehensive understanding of the specific aspects of the quizzes that contributed to their learning experience. Consequently, while positive, this combination of factors may have resulted in feedback that somewhat offers limited insight into the specific aspects of the quizzes.

Future research should address these limitations by incorporating more detailed and open-ended feedback mechanisms. This approach would allow participants to elaborate on their experiences, providing richer and more comprehensive insights into the effectiveness of the assessment system. Moreover, increasing the sample size in future studies could enhance the reliability and depth of the findings.

7. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the types of questions used in quizzes within an online LSP teacher professional development course (LSP-TEOC.Pro) based on the Moodle platform. It explored the rationale behind the design of these question types and assessed test takers' attitudes towards Moodle quizzes. The course was tailored for teachers of LSP, and Moodle's diverse range of assessment question types was utilized to address various learning objectives. In line with the findings of Blanco et al. (2009), the questions used in these quizzes were of several types: multiple-choice, true / false, and short-answer. Each question type was selected for its specific educational benefits: multiple-choice questions were used to assess comprehension and recall, true / false questions were employed for evaluating understanding of factual knowledge, and short-answer questions were designed to gauge more detailed understanding and application of concepts.

Participants perceived the quizzes as highly beneficial for self-evaluating their knowledge and enhancing their learning experience. The use of varied question types not only helped in assessing different cognitive levels but also maintained engagement and interest among test takers. Moreover, the study highlights the importance of aligning question types with learning objectives to maximize the effectiveness of online assessments. For instance, multiple-choice and true / false questions are efficient for testing breadth of knowledge, while short-answer questions are more suited for assessing depth of understanding. The findings of this study provide valuable insights for online course designers, especially in the context of summative assessments. Overall, these insights can inform the design of more effective and engaging assessment strategies in online LSP teacher development courses, ensuring that the quizzes not only evaluate knowledge but also contribute to the learning process.

Key recommendations for online course designers include the use of a variety of question types to comprehensively evaluate LSP users' knowledge and understanding while maintaining engagement. It is essential to align assessments with the purpose of the evaluation, the targeted learning outcomes, and the specific characteristics of LSP users. Clear and concise questions are crucial to avoid confusion and ensure that learners can provide accurate responses.

The study highlights the potential of quizzes to create unique learning experiences for LSP users. By incorporating a range of question types, course designers can enhance the effectiveness of quizzes in measuring both receptive and productive knowledge. This approach not only aids in achieving a more thorough assessment but also sustains learner engagement throughout the evaluation process.

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APPENDIX

Samples of question type from Module 1: Course and Syllabus Design in the LSP-TEOC.Pro Course

(1) Sample True/False Questions

A syllabus can be considered as a public document.

A) True
B) False

Needs analysis is fundamental to course planning, curriculum design and material. development.

A) True
B) False

(2) Sample Multiple Choice questions

The focus of instruction in this type of syllabus is not teaching language explicitly, but it is to teach the topic by using the target language. In this syllabus type, language learners are taught the subject matter in the target language, and they are expected to acquire the language incidentally and concurrently.

A) Notional syllabus
B) Skills-based syllabus
C) Content-based syllabus
D) Situational syllabus

In a syllabus, learners are expected to carry out tasks such as solving a problem or preparing a project.

A) Structural/lexico-grammatical syllabus
B) Discourse-based syllabus
C) Content-based syllabus
D) Skills-based syllabus

(3) Sample Matching Questions

Here you have some information about the benefits of having a syllabus. Match the sentences about the necessity of having an LSP syllabus so that they complete each other in terms of meaning.

Sentences:

1) If language learning is a journey, the course syllabus is said to be the learner's map.
2) Language is a very complex system full of varying components.
3) An LSP course syllabus can be considered as a nice advertisement method for the course itself.
4) Offering standardization and uniformity in education is another advantage of having a syllabus.

LSP syllabus:

1) The reason for this is that a syllabus shows both where to go and how to go there.

2) Hence, an LSP learner needs to break this system into manageable parts for a better learning experience.
3) This is more appropriate especially when commercial sponsors are involved within the program.
4) This is because a syllabus can be utilized as a tool to prevent possible discrepancies between educational institutions.

According to Alderson and Waters (1983), there are 4 main aspects of LSP course evaluation to be considered. Match the given considerations with the relevant aspect.
Considerations:

1) What should be evaluated related with the course design?
2) When and how often should evaluation take place?
3) How can LSP courses be evaluated?
4) Who should be involved in the evaluation?

Relevant aspects:

1) What areas of need are not being / have not been fulfilled?
2) How will the scheduling be arranged for a sound evaluation system?
3) Which techniques need to be used for a better evaluation?
4) What are the bodies most closely concerned in order to get a representative cross-section of views?

(4) Sample "Drag and Drop into Text" question.

Put the following steps of LSP course evaluation in a logical order.
Steps:

- Choosing the techniques you use will depending on what suits your teaching situation best.
- Gathering the evaluation information.
- The information must be collated, and if it is extensive, summarized.
- The data needs to be discussed with all interested parties, and some conclusions drawn.
- A detailed course evaluation report is prepared as a basis for further discussions and decision making.

(5) Sample "Short Answer" question type.

Briefly state your opinion on the primary benefit of aligning learning outcomes with syllabus content.

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Quizy Moodle jako narzędzia oceny w internetowym kursie dla nauczycieli języków obcych specjalistycznych

Abstrakt. Chociaż quizy są obecnie szeroko stosowane do oceny w kursach online, konkretne typy pytań stosowanych w quizach nie zostały, jak dotąd, zbadane. Aby wypełnić tę lukę, w niniejszym badaniu przeanalizowano typy pytań stosowanych w quizach w ramach internetowego kursu

rozwoju zawodowego nauczycieli LSP (LSP-TEOC.Pro) z wykorzystaniem platformy Moodle, uzasadnienie typów pytań i postawy uczestników tych pilotaży wobec quizów. W badaniu zastosowano opisowy projekt badawczy, obejmujący zarówno dane ilościowe, jak i jakościowe. Początkowo przeprowadzono opisową analizę statystyczną w celu zidentyfikowania typów pytań wykorzystywanych w internetowym kursie LSP-TEOC.Pro oraz uzasadnienia dla każdego typu pytań. Następnie przeprowadzono wywiady z grupą rodzimych użytkowników języka tureckiego, którzy dobrowolnie ukończyli co najmniej cztery moduły podczas fazy pilotażowej kursu. Uzyskane wyniki ujawniły, że do oceny wiedzy zdających wykorzystano różne typy pytań, zarówno na poziomie rozpoznawania, jak i produkcji. Analiza danych z wywiadów wykazała, że uczestnicy testów uznali system oceny zastosowany w kursie online za bardzo przydatny do samooceny ich wiedzy na temat każdego modułu. Wyniki tego badania oferują cenne wskazówki dla projektantów kursów online w zakresie projektowania quizów przeznaczonych do oceny podsumowującej.

Słowa kluczowe: ocena, rodzaje pytań, quiz Moodle, kurs online, języki specjalistyczne (LSP).

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Lernpfade von extrinsisch und intrinsisch motivierten Fachsprachenlernenden im Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro

Learning pathways of external and internal motivated learners in the teacher training self-study course LSP-TEOC.Pro

Abstract. The paper examines differences and similarities among learners regarding their approaches to the LSP-TEOC.Pro self-study course designed for enhancing competences in LSP teacher training. The inquiry addresses differences and similarities between extrinsically and intrinsically motivated course participants, and explores how forthcoming participants could benefit from these insights. Within this discussion, an already existing typology is continued, with a qualitative approach which analyses, interprets and explains the quantitative results in depth, specifically, the two identified groups of learners distinguished by their extrinsic or intrinsic motivation. The discussion reveals differences in approaches between the two groups, and findings suggest that these differences manifest across three levels: 1. time actively spent in the system, 2. activities completed, including optional materials and tests, and 3. the sequence in which modules are completed.

Keywords: LSP teacher training, self-directed learning, moodle-course, motivation, approaches to learning.

Schlüsselwörter: Fachsprache, Lehrerfortbildung, selbstgesteuertes Lernen, Moodle-Kurs, Motivation, Lernstrategieansätze.

1. EINLEITUNG

Die weltweite zunehmende Notwendigkeit der beruflichen Kommunikation in Fremdsprachen hat dazu geführt, dass der Beginn des Erlernens von Fachfremdsprachen auf immer früheren Stufen der Sprachbeherrschung erfolgt. Das

wachsende Interesse an spezialisierten Fremdsprachenkursen und die Relevanz von Mehrsprachigkeit als Schlüsselkompetenz führen zwangsläufig zu einer gesteigerten Nachfrage nach qualifizierten Lehrkräften, die in der Lage sind, diese Kurse angemessen vorzubereiten und zu unterrichten (Rat der Europäischen Union 2018, 2008). Die bisherigen Forschungsergebnisse (vgl. u. a. Basturkmen 2017; Bocanegra-Valle & Basturkmen 2019; Kic-Drgas & Woźniak 2020, 2022; Kic-Drgas et al. 2023) verdeutlichen, dass ein systemischer Wandel in der Ausbildung, der den Bedürfnissen von künftigen Fachsprachenlehrkräften gerecht würde, nach wie vor eine offene Herausforderung darstellt. Daher ist die Einrichtung institutionell unabhängiger Kurse und Schulungsprogramme von großer Bedeutung. Diese ermöglichen es engagierten Lehrkräften, ihre Kompetenzen im Unterrichten von Fachsprachen autonom zu entwickeln. Als Beispiel für einen umfassenden Kurs zur Ergänzung der Kompetenz im Bereich des Fachsprachenunterrichts gilt der Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro[1], der im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojekts realisiert (mehr zum Projekt vgl. Nause 2025), getestet und evaluiert wurde. Die Ergebnisse aus der Evaluation deuten auf gewisse Trends hinsichtlich der Nutzung des Kurses hin.

Im Mittelpunkt des Beitrags steht die vergleichende Diskussion der Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zweier Gruppen von Lernenden hinsichtlich ihrer Herangehensweisen an den LSP-TEOC.Pro-Kurs[2] bzw. der von ihnen beschrittenen Lernpfade: Das sind einerseits „Pragmatiker-Oberflächenlernende", die nur die obligatorischen Aufgaben bearbeitet bzw. den Lernaufwand auf ein Minimum beschränkt haben mit dem Ziel, das Zertifikat zu erhalten. Andererseits sind es „Tiefenlernende-Perfektionisten", die sich intensiv mit dem Kurs bzw. den Aufgaben auseinandergesetzt und darüber hinaus optionale Materialien bearbeitet haben. Die abgeschlossene quantitative Auswertung wird mittels einer qualitativen Analyse, basierend auf dem bereits vorhandenen Datenmaterial, weitergeführt, um die Ergebnisse bzw. identifizierten Typen und Lernpfade besser interpretieren und erklären zu können.

Vor dem Hintergrund der Selbstbestimmungstheorie (Deci & Ryan 1985, 1993, 2000), Fachsprache und Fachsprachenvermittlung (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998; Krajka & Sowa 2017; Anthony 2018) sowie Lernstrategieansätze (Marton & Säljö 1976a, 1976b) werden Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen den skizzierten Gruppen herausgearbeitet und diskutiert.

[1] Language for Specific Purposes Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development.

[2] LSP Teacher Education Online Course for Professional Development, https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/.

2. THEORETISCHE RAHMUNG

2.1. Motivation

Der Begriff *Motivation* stammt vom lateinischen Begriff *movere* ab. Das bedeutet „sich oder etwas bewegen" (Brandstätter et al. 2013: 91). Es wird angenommen, dass „Kräfte", die von uns selbst stammen oder von außen hinzugefügt werden, uns dazu bewegen, etwas zu tun. Für intrinsische Motivation ist zentral, dass eine Tätigkeit um ihrer selbst willen ausgeführt wird, bspw. Lernaktivitäten durchführen, in Hobbys aufgehen usw. Für die ausdauernde Ausübung ist kein Steuerungsinstrument (von außen) erforderlich. Das Handlungserleben stellt die Motivation dar. Im Gegensatz dazu ist für extrinsische Motivation zentral, dass äußere Faktoren in der Form von Belohnungen oder Bestrafungen als Steuerungsinstrument wirken. Sobald die Steuerungsmaßnahmen wegfallen, werden die Tätigkeiten nicht mehr ausgeführt.

Ausgehend von dieser grundsätzlichen Einteilung wird die Selbstbestimmungstheorie (*Self-Determination Theory*, SDT) von Deci und Ryan (1985, 1993, 2000) detaillierter diskutiert. Dafür ist ausschlaggebend, dass die SDT zu den meistzitierten Theorien bzw. angewandten Ansätzen bei der Erforschung von Motivation in verschiedenen Bereichen gehört (vgl. Gagné & Deci 2014). Sie besteht aus fünf Teiltheorien, wobei die (Teil-)Theorie der organismischen Integration (*Organismic Integration Theory*, OIT) eine zentrale Rolle im Kontext der (Lern-)Motivation einnimmt. Die Theorie setzt drei angeborene menschliche Bedürfnisse voraus, die unabhängig von der Art der Motivation vorhanden sind: Bedürfnis nach 1. Kompetenz und Wirksamkeit, 2. Autonomie und Selbstbestimmung sowie 3. sozialer Eingebundenheit (vgl. Deci & Ryan 1993: 229). Darüber hinaus ist die OIT insbesondere für die vorliegende Auseinandersetzung sowie für das Thema *Lernen* geeignet, da sie sowohl alle Phasen des Lernprozesses zu erklären versucht (1. Vorerfahrungen bzw. Entwicklungsbedingungen, 2. aktuelle Lernsituation und 3. Handlungsfolgen), als auch explizit auf selbstgesteuertes Lernen ausgerichtet ist. Weiterhin fußt die Idee auf dem Konzept der Intentionalität, wobei verschiedene Ausprägungen des motivierten Handelns betrachtet werden. Gemäß der OIT unterscheiden sich Ziele danach, inwieweit sie von einer Person als selbst gewählt oder extern vorgegeben wahrgenommen werden. Es können fünf Grade der Regulierung entlang eines Kontinuums unterschieden werden; daneben besteht Amotivation. Das Modell ist in der nachfolgenden Abbildung dargestellt:

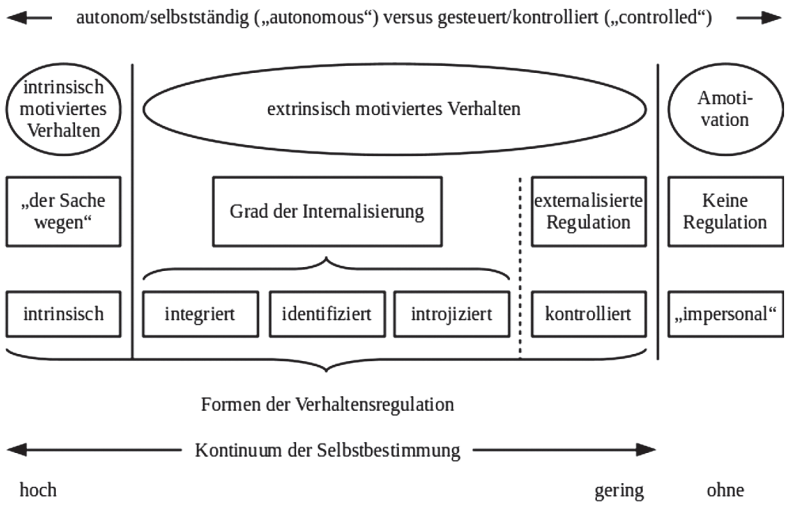

Abbildung 1. Das Kontinuum der Selbstbestimmung in der Theorie der organismischen Integration

Quelle: Deci und Ryan (2000: 237); Brandstätter et al. (2013: 93).[3]

Aufgrund zahlreicher Befunde aus Forschungsarbeiten, bspw. in den Bereichen Bildung, Sport, Gesundheit und Arbeitsplatz (siehe zusammenfassend bspw. Gagné & Deci 2014: 3), konnte gezeigt werden, dass intrinsische Motivation zu positiven Effekten führt. Entlang des Kontinuums nehmen sie (insbesondere Wohlbefinden) zur external kontrollierten Regulation hin ab. Gleichzeitig nehmen umgekehrt die negativen Konsequenzen (bspw. Depressivität) zu (vgl. Deci & Ryan 1985, 1993, 2000; Brandstätter et al. 2013: 93). Weiterhin zeigt dieser Ansatz, dass das Bedürfnis nach Autonomie besonders zentral ist und sich positiv auf das Durchhaltevermögen auswirkt. Andererseits ist darauf hinzuweisen, dass in formalen Lernkontexten das Lernen immer (!) zu einem gewissen Grad auch extrinsisch motiviert ist, da es stets zielgerichtet und zweckorientiert erfolgt (vgl. Krapp 1999: 391). Einschränkend kann davon ausgegangen werden, „dass für die unterschiedliche Bereitschaft zu lebenslangem Lernen *primär motivationale Faktoren verantwortlich sind!*“ (Krapp 2000: 55; Hervorhebung im Original). Weiter führt Krapp (2000: 55 f.) aus, dass Lern- und Bildungsmotivationen im Kontext Beruf extrinsisch begründet sein können, wenn sie bspw. mit dem Erhalt des Arbeitsplatzes oder beruflichem bzw. finanziellem Aufstieg verknüpft sind. Anders ausgedrückt: Ohne die vorbenannten Anreize würden sich in

[3] Für Beschreibungen der verschiedenen Formen der Regulation nebst Beispielen siehe bspw. Deci und Ryan (1993: 228) sowie Ulrich (2020: 124).

dieser Art motivierte Personen keinen Weiterlernaktivitäten (mehr) unterziehen. Traditionelle (extrinsische) Anreize hingegen verlieren mit der Zeit zunehmend an Einfluss und führen häufig zu qualitativ schlechteren Lernergebnissen.

Ferner ist anzumerken, dass die Einstellung lernender Personen zu Lernaktivitäten allgemein, individueller Lernzeit, Ausdauer und Disziplin, dem individuellen Leistungsanspruch sowie den persönlichen Interessen maßgeblich ist (Behm & Beditsch 2013: 27 f.). Es wird davon ausgegangen, dass solche Personen, die sich mit dem Lerninhalt identifizieren und ein Interesse am Lerngegenstand haben, im Durchschnitt eine höhere Lernzeit investieren und ein größeres Engagement zeigen als diejenigen, die ein deutlich geringeres Interesse mit den vorbenannten Aspekten verbinden (vgl. Behm & Beditsch 2013: 28).

Hinsichtlich der Motive für die Wiederaufnahme von Lernangeboten im Kontext des Lebenslangen Lernens (*Lifelong Learning*, LLL) lässt sich zusammenfassen, dass Teilnehmende zumeist sowohl persönlich als auch beruflich gefestigt sind und sich durch Weiterlernaktivitäten weiterentwickeln möchten. Die Beweggründe lassen sich entlang des gesamten Kontinuums der Motivation verorten (vgl. Datenreport 2021; IU 2022, 2023).

Abschließend wird für die vorliegende Auseinandersetzung – und für den Bereich des LLL insgesamt – davon ausgegangen, dass die Teilnahme an Weiterlernaktivitäten einerseits stets freiwillig erfolgt, andererseits jedoch in einem individuell unterschiedlichen Maße intrinsisch oder extrinsisch motiviert ist. Jedenfalls darf angenommen werden, dass einer Teilnahme keine amotivationale Haltung zugrunde liegt, was bspw. infolge einer bestehenden Schulpflicht begründet sein könnte. Weiterhin darf angenommen werden, dass die Wiederaufnahme von Lernaktivitäten auch – zumindest teilweise – durch Karrierewünsche motiviert sein wird. Grundlegend dafür ist die Annahme, dass eine bestimmte Kompetenz – insbesondere aber dessen Nachweis – erforderlich ist, um sich beruflich weiterentwickeln zu können, was dem Grundsatz nach den beschriebenen Gründen für die Aufnahme von Aktivitäten im Kontext LLL allgemein entspricht.

2.2. Fachsprachen und Fachsprachenvermittlung

Das Postulat von LLL kann u. a. im Bereich des Fremdsprachenlernens, insbesondere des Lernens einer Fachsprache, und der kontinuierlichen Lehrkräfteweiterbildung umgesetzt werden. Mit dem voranschreitenden Prozess der Internationalisierung in diversen Lebensbereichen, insbesondere im beruflichen Kontext, haben sich Kenntnisse und Kompetenzen in Fachfremdsprachen in der heutigen Welt als besonders relevant erwiesen. Bislang ist der Wunsch nach einer

systematischen Einführung der Fachsprachendidaktik in die Ausbildungsmodule für künftige Fremdsprachenlehrkräfte auf europäischer Ebene nur in geringem Umfang erfüllt worden (vgl. John et al. 2022; Kic-Drgas & Woźniak 2020).

Die Fachsprachendidaktik hilft den künftigen Unterrichtenden zu verstehen, „wie Sprache unter realistischen fachlichen Umständen verwendet wird und wie die Merkmale fachspezifischer Kommunikationssituationen identifiziert werden können" (Kic-Drgas et al. 2023: 105). Der Definition der Fachsprachendidaktik muss aber ein angemessenes Verständnis der Fachsprachen als Unterrichtsgegenstand vorausgehen. Fachsprachen sind Idiolekte von Fachleuten, die als Verständigungsmittel unter ihnen im bestimmten Kommunikationsbereich gelten (Fluck 1997: 16). Im Vergleich zur Allgemeinsprache zeichnen sie sich durch Besonderheiten auf den morphologischen, syntaktischen, lexikalischen, textuellen, pragmatischen und semantischen Ebenen aus. Demgemäß wird in den philologischen Studiengängen die Fachsprache meist unabhängig vom praktischen Fremdsprachenunterricht unterrichtet. Der Fachsprachenunterricht ist eine multidisziplinäre Aktivität bzw. ein eklektischer Ansatz (vgl. Anthony 2018: 9) und zeichnet sich durch die Kooperation, Einbeziehung von disziplinärem Wissen, Innovation und Flexibilität sowie Interaktion in authentischen Situationen mit realistischen Materialien aus (vgl. Arnó-Macià 2014). Seine Einzigartigkeit liegt in der Verpflichtung zum lernendenzentrierten Unterricht, der engen Verbindung mit den Fachgebieten und der Konzentration auf die Zusammenarbeit sowohl bei der Planung als auch beim Unterricht selbst (vgl. Anthony 2018: 9). Mit Hilfe der Brückenmetapher lässt sich Fachsprachenunterricht gemäß Buhlmann und Fearns (2000) allgemein wie folgt definieren:

> Der Fachsprachenunterricht bildet also gewissermaßen eine Brücke zwischen allgemeinsprachlichem Unterricht und dem Fachunterricht. Er kann die Lerner auf den Fachunterricht vorbereiten, einmal indem er kompensatorische Strategien im Bereich der Informationsentnahme und Textproduktion aufbaut, zum anderen indem er Denkelemente zur Verfügung stellt und damit den Auf- bzw. Ausbau von Denkstrukturen ermöglicht, zum dritten, indem er die Lerner mit bestimmten stilistischen Eigentümlichkeiten der Kommunikation im Fach bekannt macht (Präzision, Differenziertheit, Hierarchisierung, Ökonomie etc.) (Buhlmann & Fearns 2000: 85).

Die Haupteigenschaften des Fachsprachenunterrichts[4] sind Dudley-Evans und St. John (1998: 4 f.) zufolge die Ausrichtung an den Bedürfnissen der

[4] Fremdsprachen für berufliche Zwecke werden oft anhand von Englisch als Fachsprache beschrieben. Die Merkmale, die dem Englischen als Fachsprache zugeschrieben werden, gelten jedoch auch für andere Fachsprachen, sodass die folgenden Ausführungen allgemeiner gefasst werden sollten.

Lernenden, die Nutzung entsprechender Methodik und Aktivitäten – die aus den mit den Fachsprachen verbundenen Fachgebieten resultieren und den Fokus auf die Sprache legen (Grammatik, Lexik, Register) – sowie der Diskurs und die Gattungen, die für diese Aktivitäten geeignet sind. Der Ansatz setzt auch aktives Lernen ein, berücksichtigt affektive Faktoren (bspw. Steigerung der Motivation und Förderung des kooperativen Lernens) und verwendet vielfältigen Input für kommunikative Zwecke (vgl. Hutchinson & Waters 1987). Daraus resultiert, dass Lehrkräfte nach Abschluss einer Weiterbildung die folgenden Tätigkeiten durchführen können sollen:

1. Bedarfsanalysen vornehmen,
2. Kurse und Lehrpläne gestalten sowie Lernziele festlegen,
3. Materialien vorbereiten und entsprechende Methoden auswählen,
4. Unterricht planen,
5. Lernende, umgesetzte Methoden, erreichte Lernziele etc. beurteilen,
6. Lernende beim Erwerb transversaler Kompetenzen unterstützen,
7. sich im jeweiligen Kontext der Fachdisziplinen zurechtfinden und mit typischen Textgattungen arbeiten,
8. Korpora im Unterricht implementieren,
9. aufgaben-, projekt- und problembasierten Unterricht durchführen, sowie
10. nach aktuellen Theorien und Informationen zur Fachsprachenforschung suchen (vgl. Kic-Drgas et al. 2023: 115; auch Anthony 2018: 9; Krajka & Sowa 2017: 67; Tellmann et al. 2012).

Von zentraler Bedeutung sowohl für das Fachsprachenlernen als auch für die Fachsprachenvermittlung selbst ist die Förderung des autonomen bzw. selbstorganisierten Lernens, verstanden als ein Vorgang, bei dem der „Handelnde die wesentlichen Entscheidungen, ob, was, wann, wie und woraufhin er lernt, gravierend und folgenreich beeinflussen kann“ (Weinert 1982: 102, zitiert nach Forneck 2002: 243). Autonomie ist eine komplexe Kompetenz, die bestimmte Stufen umfasst. Ein Teil davon wird erst mit dem Alter und der Erfahrung der Lernenden erreicht (vgl. Nunan 1997; auch Krajka & Sowa 2017: 71). Nunan (1997: 194) schlägt folgende Stufen der Umsetzung der Lernendenautonomie in Hinsicht auf Lernziele, -ansätze und -methoden vor: Bewusstheit, Beteiligung, Eingriff, Kreation und Transzendenz. Die Lehrkräfte, die ihre Kompetenz entwickeln wollen, gelten als Lernende. Aufgrund ihres Alters und ihrer Erfahrung ist es wahrscheinlicher, dass sie im Vergleich zu jüngeren Lehrkräften auch die letzten drei kreativen Stufen der Lernendenautonomie, d. h. Eingriff, Kreation und Transzendenz, realisieren. Insbesondere neigen sie öfter dazu, 1. die Lernziele eines Kurses an ihre eigenen Lernziele anzupassen, indem sie beispielsweise Aufgaben ändern, 2. ihre eigenen Lernziele zu schaffen, indem sie ihre eigenen Aufgaben erstellen oder 3. die Verbindungen zwischen dem gelernten Stoff und

der realen Welt zu suchen (vgl. Krajka & Sowa 2017); sie verfolgen somit ihre eigenen Lernstrategien.

2.3. Lernstrategieansätze

Die geschickte Nutzung von Lernstrategien ist ein wesentlicher Teil der Lernkompetenz und trägt damit – insbesondere im Kontext des selbstorganisierten Lernens – wesentlich zum Lernerfolg bei (vgl. u. a. Liebendörfer et al. 2021; Wuttke 2000). Weinstein und Mayer (1986: 315) definieren Lernstrategien als Verhaltensweisen und Gedanken, die ein Lernender oder eine Lernende während des Lernens zeigt und die den Kodierungsprozess des oder der Lernenden beeinflussen sollen (ähnlich in Mandl & Friedrich 2006: 1; Wild 2005: 193).

Das Europäische Parlament und der Rat der Europäischen Union (2006: 7) beschreiben die Lernkompetenz unter Schlüsselkompetenzen für lebensbegleitendes Lernen wie folgt: „Lernkompetenz […] ist die Fähigkeit, einen Lernprozess zu beginnen und weiterzuführen und sein eigenes Lernen, auch durch effizientes Zeit- und Informationsmanagement […], zu organisieren." Anknüpfend daran werden in der Literatur zu Lerntheorien und -strategien regelmäßig Ansätze bzw. Orientierungen (*approaches to learning*) zur Verarbeitung des Lerngegenstands identifiziert und beschrieben, die einer tiefgreifenden und verstehensorientierten (*Deep-Level-Learning*) oder einer oberflächlichen und reproduzierenden Vorgehensweise (*Surface-Level-Learning*) zuzuordnen sind (Marton et al. 1984/2005: Kapitel 3, 6, 9 und 14). Das Konzept wurde im weiteren Verlauf vielfach zitiert, angewandt und weiterentwickelt und gilt als empirisch gut belegt (vgl. Schulmeister 2006: 100–103; Entwistle 2000; Biggs 1987).

Die Unterscheidung zwischen diesen beiden gegensätzlichen Strategien bzw. Herangehensweisen gilt als gut gestützt und wurde – neben der regelmäßigen Anwendung – auch systematisch mit Motivationen am Lerngegenstand bzw. -ergebnis verknüpft (Looß 2007: 146): Tiefenstrategien bzw. -verarbeitung werden dabei mit intrinsischen Motiven verbunden, während Oberflächenstrategien bzw. -verarbeitung mit extrinsischen Motiven einhergehen (siehe dazu auch Leopold 2009: 12–14). Im weiteren Verlauf wurde die bestehende Dualität um einen dritten Lernstil (*strategic approach*) ergänzt, in dem durch organisierte Lernmethoden und gutes Zeitmanagement die bestmöglichen Noten erzielt werden sollen (vgl. Entwistle & Ramsden 1983).

Weiterhin ist zu konstatieren, dass in der Forschung keine Einigkeit darüber herrscht, ob die beiden vorbenannten Strategien situationsspezifisch oder situationsübergreifend angewandt werden (Leopold 2009: 12–14). Einerseits darf angenommen werden, dass der Einsatz einer Strategie mit der grundsätzlichen

Einstellung einer Person verknüpft ist und demgemäß eine der beiden Strategien unabhängig von der Situation angewandt wird. Andererseits wird darauf hingewiesen, dass Lernende in Abhängigkeit von verschiedenen Lernsituationen, -aktivitäten, -gegenständen, -zeiten und Motiven durchaus unterscheiden, ob sie die eine oder die andere Lernstrategie anwenden.

Abschließend ist anzumerken, dass die Lernstrategieforschung nach wie vor auf die Frage nach dem Grad des Einflusses auf den Lernerfolg keine einheitlichen Antworten liefert (Looß 2007: 148 f.). Auch wenn der Erfolg von der Aufgabenstellung – Faktenwissen versus komplexe Fragestellungen – und der zugewiesenen Lernzeit abhängt, deuten einzelne Studien darauf hin, dass sich intrinsische Motivation und Ansätze bzw. Strategien des Tiefenlernens positiv auf die Lernergebnisse bzw. den Lernerfolg auswirken (vgl. Boerner et al. 2005; Artelt 1999).

3. LERNPFADE VON EXTRINSISCH UND INTRINSISCH MOTIVIERTEN FACHSPRACHENLERNENDEN IM SELBSTLERNKURS LSP-TEOC.PRO

3.1. Forschungsfragen

Anknüpfend an die obenstehenden Ausführungen wird die Fragestellung für den vorliegenden Beitrag abgeleitet und in zwei Teilforschungsfragen ausdifferenziert:

1. Welche Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten bestehen zwischen extrinsisch und intrinsisch motivierten Kursteilnehmenden im Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro vor dem Hintergrund der eingesetzten Lernstrategien und beschrittenen Lernpfade?
2. Wie können künftige Kursteilnehmende von den gewonnenen Erkenntnissen profitieren?

3.2. Methodik

Im Rahmen der vorliegenden Auseinandersetzung sollen keine neuen Daten gesammelt werden. Stattdessen wird auf eine bestehende Datensammlung zurückgegriffen, die im Rahmen der Testphase des LSP-TEOC.Pro-Kurses erhoben worden ist. 300 Personen haben mit unterschiedlichem Engagement an der Erprobung des entwickelten Kurses teilgenommen (vgl. Nause 2025). Die erfolgreiche Bearbeitung von mindestens vier der acht Module des Kurses garantierte den

Probanden ein Zertifikat, das von der koordinierenden Einrichtung ausgestellt wurde. Für besonders motivierte Personen wurden in den Sektionen 2 und 3 eines jeden Moduls offene Aufgaben vorbereitet. Darüber hinaus enthielten mehrere Module einen Abschnitt mit Inhalten, Tests und zusätzlichen Aufgaben, die über das erforderliche Minimum hinausgingen (Zusatzmaterial). Das am häufigsten gewählte Modul des Kurses war das Einführungsmodul 0, gefolgt von den Modulen 2, 1 und 4. Zufriedenheitsumfragen und Vorher-Nachher-Vergleiche zeigten, dass die Teilnehmenden den Kurs in den allermeisten Fällen positiv bewerteten und einen deutlichen Zuwachs ihrer Kenntnisse und Kompetenzen im Fachsprachenunterricht feststellten[5]. Die in dem vorliegenden Beitrag analysierten Daten umfassen die Antworten der Kursteilnehmenden, die sie vor, während und nach dem Kurs in Umfragen gegeben haben. Weiterhin zählen dazu die von ihnen erzielten Kursergebnisse sowie aufgezeichnete Daten zum Nutzungsverhalten des Kurses aus dem Lernmanagementsystem (*Learning Management System*, LMS). In der vorliegenden Diskussion werden die Daten in Hinsicht auf ausgewählte einzelne Kursteilnehmende untersucht und bewertet. Einzelne Fälle werden detailliert vorgestellt, analysiert und in einer induktiven Art und Weise diskutiert. Die Analyse basiert vorwiegend auf den sogenannten Logdateien aus dem LMS bzw. Moodle (vgl. bspw. Rotelli & Monreale 2022, 2023; Rotelli et al. 2021) und wird mit biografischen Informationen aus Umfragen ergänzt. Auf diese Weise sollen Porträts von einzelnen Probanden entstehen, um in einem weiteren Schritt die bereits (quantitativ) identifizierten Typen zu charakterisieren und genauer beschreiben zu können. Die Daten sind bereits hauptsächlich mittels quantitativer Methoden analysiert worden.[6] Im Rahmen des vorliegenden Beitrags wird die Auswertung in einer qualitativen Art und Weise fortgeführt, um die noch fehlende Charakterisierung und Beschreibung der Gruppen vornehmen zu können (vgl. zusammenfassend Mayring 2001: Absatz 24); Repräsentativität im quantitativen Sinne wird ausdrücklich nicht angestrebt. Aus der Grundgesamtheit werden Extremfälle ausgewählt und in der Form von Fallporträts präsentiert, um die sehr unterschiedlichen Herangehensweisen an den Kurs besonders anschaulich (für künftige Teilnehmende) vorstellen zu können. Im Kontext der Einzelfallanalyse ist gemäß Mayring (2016) zunächst zu klären, was als Fall gelten soll. In dieser Untersuchung stellt eine an der Testphase teilnehmende Person einen Fall dar. Hinsichtlich der Berücksichtigung in einer Analyse sind „[…] Extremfälle, Idealtypen, häufige Fälle, aber auch besonders seltene Fälle (‚Anti-Typen' […]), Grenzfälle, theoretisch interessante Fälle […]" (Mayring

[5] https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/.
[6] https://lsp-teoc-pro.de/.

2016: 43) denkbar. Im vorliegenden Beitrag werden sechs bewusst ausgewählte Einzelfälle in der gebotenen Kürze vorgestellt.

Die Logdateien aus Moodle enthalten Informationen zu der Nutzung des Kurses, wobei pro „Event“[7] eine Zeile aufgezeichnet wird: *Time* (Datum, Uhrzeit), *User full name, Event context* (Kurs, Test, Datei usw.), *Event name* (*Course viewed, Quiz attempt started/submitted/viewed*), *Description* (*„The user with id 'X' has viewed the attempt with id 'Y' belonging to the user with id 'X' for the quiz with course module id 'Z'.“*), *IP address*. Bei den aufgezeichneten Informationen handelt es sich also um „reale Daten“, die nicht den üblichen Fehlern unterliegen, wie es bei Befragungen der lernenden Personen selbst sehr häufig der Fall ist.[8] Einerseits kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass mit dieser Vorgehensweise exakt(er)e Daten erfasst und verwertet werden, als es regelmäßig bei Befragungen der Fall ist. Auf der anderen Seite sind wiederum systembedingt Verzerrungen zu nennen, die sich insbesondere durch Ablenkungen der Personen beim Lernen ergeben (können). Wenn bspw. während des Lernens – unabhängig von der Lernaktivität – ein Gespräch / Telefonat begonnen wird, ein anderer Tab im Browser geöffnet wird oder „nur“ einmal eben die Klicks bezüglich des aktuellen Status in den sozialen Medien geprüft werden, dann gilt diese Zeit dennoch als Lernzeit gemäß Ereignisprotokolldatei. Dieser Einflussfaktor ist für Phasen des Selbststudiums besonders bedeutsam, da diese sehr häufig zuhause stattfinden (vgl. Vogel & Woisch 2013). Hierbei darf angenommen werden, dass die gesamte Spannbreite möglich ist von Personen, die sich gar nicht ablenken lassen, bis hin zu Personen, die faktisch mehrere Tätigkeiten parallel durchführen.

Die Auswahl der Teilnehmenden erfolgte anhand der folgenden Kriterien:

1. Als **extrinsisch motiviert** wurden diejenigen Teilnehmerinnen eingestuft, die ausschließlich das Zertifikat als Motivation für die Teilnahme am Kurs in der Umfrage angegeben haben bzw. die offensichtlich im Rahmen einer Lehrveranstaltung zur Teilnahme „motiviert“ bzw. – passender ausgedrückt – gezwungen worden sind.
2. Als **intrinsisch motiviert** wurden diejenigen Teilnehmerinnen eingestuft, die die meisten Punkte im Kurs erworben haben. Das bedeutet zunächst eine hohe Anzahl an absolvierten Modulen und darüber hinaus eine relativ hohe Zahl an bearbeiteten Zusatzmaterialien (siehe oben), was als Indiz für das Interesse am Kurs bzw. Lerngegenstand bewertet worden ist.

[7] „Events are atomic pieces of information describing something that happened in Moodle. Events are primarily the result of user actions […]“ (Moodle 2023a).

[8] Analysen, die auf erhobenen Schätzwerten beruhen, sind insbesondere verzerrt infolge von sozialer Erwünschtheit und mangelndem Urteilsvermögen beim Erinnern „typischer“ Lernzeiten (vgl. zu kritischen Anmerkungen zusammenfassend bspw. Schulmeister & Metzger 2011: 26 ff.).

Da im Datensatz die (unterrepräsentierten) männlichen Teilnehmer gemäß vorbenannter Auswahlkriterien weder als besonders extrinsisch noch besonders intrinsisch motiviert aufgefallen sind, sind sie nicht in der vorliegenden Analyse berücksichtigt. Diese Tatsache wird an dieser Stelle akzeptiert.

3.3. Datenauswertung

Nachfolgend werden insgesamt sechs Fälle detailliert beschrieben. Die Fälle gelten aus der Perspektive des Forschungsprojekts als besonders geeignet dafür, die möglichen Herangehensweisen an den Selbstlernkurs für künftige Zielgruppen zu verdeutlichen. Die Erfahrungen und die potenziellen Herangehensweisen der ehemaligen Kursteilnehmenden können künftigen Teilnehmenden als Orientierung für ihre eigene Planung des Lernprozesses dienen. Neben den biografischen Daten der Personen (Geschlecht, Herkunftsland, Alter, pädagogischer Hintergrund, Motivation zur Kursteilnahme und beabsichtigte Modulbelegung[9]) basieren die Beschreibungen auf den Logdateien. In diesem Kontext erscheinen die folgenden Zahlen besonders belangvoll: Lernzeiten (Zeitspanne), Anzahl der Lernphasen während des gesamten Erprobungszeitraums (gemeint ist die zusammenhängende aktive Kurszeit bzw. Zeitspanne), Anzahl der belegten Module (pro Lernphase), Modulauswahl usw. Die berichteten Lernzeiten beziehen sich lediglich auf die Arbeit im LMS, Lernzeiten außerhalb des LMS wiederum bleiben unberücksichtigt. Das ist unabhängig davon, ob bspw. Extraufgaben des Kurses oder weiterführende Informationsquellen außerhalb des LMS bearbeitet worden sind.

Zunächst werden drei Fälle beschrieben, die sich in der Hauptsache dem extrinsisch motivierten Spektrum zuordnen lassen. Die Fälle werden im Folgenden als E1, E2 und E3 bezeichnet:

E1 hat insgesamt 9:04 Stunden, verteilt auf sieben Lernphasen, der Bearbeitung des Kurses gewidmet. Die Lernphasen hatten eine Dauer von 32 Minuten bis zu 3:13 Stunden (Spannweite). Der Median beträgt 1:07 Stunden. E1 hat – trotz der ausschließlich genannten extrinsischen Motivation – alle Module mit Ausnahme von Modul 3 (Modul 0, M0, M1, M2, M4, M5, M6, M7) absolviert. Dennoch sind die folgenden beiden Dinge besonders auffällig: 1. Nach zwei Lernphasen, die hauptsächlich dem Erlangen eines Überblicks gegolten haben, hat E1 die Module in der folgenden Reihenfolge bearbeitet: M4 und M5 (Lernphase 3, LP3), M0, M1, M2 (LP4), M6 (LP5), M7 (LP6). 2. Im Rahmen der letzten

[9] In der Umfrage vor dem Kurs wurden die Teilnehmenden gefragt, welche Module sie zu belegen planen. Daraus ließ sich auch die Motivation ableiten, mit der sie an den Kurs herangegangen waren.

Tabelle 1. Überblick über die biografischen Daten der extrinsisch motivierten Teilnehmerinnen

Fall	E1	E2	E3
Alter	21–30	31–40	21–30
Herkunftsland	die Türkei	Spanien	Frankreich
Status	Fremdsprachen-studentin (Bachelorstudiengang)	Professorin	Fremdsprachen-studentin (Masterstudiengang)
pädagogische Erfahrung	bis zu 5 Jahren	10–15 Jahre	bis zu 5 Jahren
Hauptmotivations-grund	Zertifikat	Zertifikat	von Lehrkraft auf-erlegte Verpflichtung
beabsichtigte Modulbelegung	M0, M1, M2, M4.	alle	M0, M1, M2, M3

Quelle: eigene Darstellung.

Lernphase (LP7) hat E1 auch noch M3 teilweise bearbeitet, wobei sie jedoch keine nennenswerten Ergebnisse erarbeitet hat. E1 hat kein Zusatzmaterial und keine optionalen Tests bearbeitet.

E2 hat insgesamt 22:29 Stunden, verteilt auf 40 Lernphasen, der Bearbeitung des Kurses gewidmet. Die Lernphasen hatten eine Dauer von einer Minute bis hin zu 1:43 Stunden. Elf der 40 Lernphasen hatten jeweils eine Dauer von ≤ 10 Minuten, die in der Summe einer Lernzeit von 1:02 Stunden entsprechen. Diese Zeiten können kaum als Lernzeiten verstanden, sondern eher als „einmal eben den Status der Lernplattform prüfen" angesehen werden. Der Median beträgt 32 Minuten bzw. – bereinigt um die elf Werte – 45 Minuten. E2 hat insgesamt fünf Module (M0, M1, M2, M3, M4) absolviert. Über das Studium der zur Verfügung gestellten Materialien (Videos und Präsentationen zum Inhalt der Module) und die Bearbeitung der obligatorisch zu bestehenden Tests hinaus hat E2 durchaus auch optionale Aufgaben bearbeitet, insbesondere die nicht obligatorisch zu bearbeitenden Zusatzmaterialien „Student Portfolios" in M1, M2, M3.2 und M4.

E3 hat innerhalb einer Lernphase alle Aufgaben erledigt, die für den erfolgreichen Abschluss von vier Modulen (M0, M1, M2, M7) bzw. für den Erwerb des Zertifikats zu bearbeiten waren. Für die Bearbeitung hat E3 eine Zeit von 2:24 Stunden benötigt. E3 hat sich erst im Verlauf der Bearbeitung des Kurses gegen das Studium von M3 entschieden, das sie zunächst belegen wollte (siehe oben). Augenscheinlich hat die Teilnehmerin sich später dagegen entschieden, da M3 das umfangreichste Modul des Kurses ist; dieser Hinweis ist auch im LSP-TEOC.Pro-Kurs enthalten. Neben den obligatorisch zu bearbeitenden Tests

hat E3 – abgesehen von drei als optional markierten Tests aus M7 – keine weiterführenden Aufgaben bearbeitet. Weiterhin hat E3 sich die Unterrichtsmaterialien (Videos und Präsentationen zum Inhalt der Module) nicht angesehen und die Tests ohne eine dazu passende Vorbereitung bearbeitet. Hierzu ist allerdings anzumerken, dass die Vorkenntnisse der Kursteilnehmenden nicht detailliert erfasst worden sind. Es wurde lediglich nach dem Status gefragt (hier: Fremdsprachenstudentin im Masterstudiengang; siehe oben). Anders ausgedrückt: Es bleibt offen, inwiefern die Vorgehensweise auf Basis des Vorwissens bewusst eingesetzt worden ist oder ob es sich um einen (bewussten) Einsatz der Vorgehensweise gemäß „Lernen durch Versuch und Irrtum“[10] gehandelt hat.

Im Gegensatz dazu werden nachfolgend drei Fälle beschrieben, die sich in der Hauptsache dem intrinsisch motivierten Spektrum zuordnen lassen; sie werden bezeichnet als I1, I2 und I3:

Tabelle 2. Überblick über die biografischen Daten der intrinsisch motivierten Teilnehmerinnen

Fall	I1	I2	I3
Alter	31–40	51–60	41–50
Herkunftsland	Italien	Slowenien	Spanien
Status	Fremdsprachen-/ Fachsprachenlehrerin	Fremdsprachen-/ Fachsprachenlehrerin in einer Berufsschule	Fachsprachenlehrerin mit Masterabschluss
pädagogische Erfahrung	bis zu 5 Jahren	15–20 Jahre	mehr als 20 Jahre
Hauptmotivationsgrund	Verbesserung der Unterrichtskompetenz Neugier auf Fachsprachendidaktik Zertifikat	Verbesserung der Unterrichtskompetenz Neugier auf Fachsprachendidaktik Zertifikat	Verbesserung der Unterrichtskompetenz
beabsichtigte Modulbelegung	alle	alle	alle

Quelle: eigene Darstellung.

[10] „Lernen durch Versuch und Irrtum, Versuch-Irrtums-Lernen, trial and error learning, Bezeichnung für ein Lernen, bei dem das Individuum in einer ihm unbekannten Problemlage zunächst eine Vielzahl stark variabler, anscheinend planloser Reaktionen ‚ausprobiert'. Führen bestimmte Reaktionen zufällig zu einem Erfolg, werden diese Reaktionen häufiger gezeigt. So wird in sukzessiven Annäherungen allmählich eine erfolgreiche Problemlösungsstrategie ausgebildet, die später bei gleichen oder ähnlichen Problemlagen sofort angewandt wird.“ (Klimke et al. 2016: 458)

I1 hat den Kurs in 18 Lernphasen mit einer Gesamtdauer von 24:18 Stunden (exklusive sehr kurzer Lernphasen) bearbeitet. Die Zeiten der einzelnen Lernphasen betragen zwischen fünf Minuten und 4:20 Stunden; der Median beträgt 54 Minuten. Hinzu kommen elf sehr kurze Zugriffe mit einer Gesamtdauer von 20 Minuten, die nicht als Lernzeit gezählt werden. Die Module wurden nacheinander in chronologischer Reihenfolge bearbeitet, wobei jeweils ein Modul pro Lernphase studiert wurde. Lediglich M5 und M6 wurden gemeinsam während einer Lernphase absolviert. Weiterhin hat I1 neun der insgesamt 24 Zusatzaufgaben sowie neun der zwölf optionalen Tests bearbeitet.

I2 hat für die Bearbeitung des Kurses 20:49 Stunden (exklusive lediglich einer sehr kurzen Lernphase), verteilt auf 20 Lernphasen, aufgewandt. Die Zeiten der einzelnen Lernphasen betragen zwischen sechs Minuten und 3:23 Stunden; der Median beträgt 53 Minuten. Die Module wurden nacheinander in chronologischer Reihenfolge absolviert, wobei jeweils ein Modul pro Lernphase studiert wurde. Allerdings wurden M5 bis M7 innerhalb eines Tages absolviert (13. März 2023); das war der vorletzte Tag der Testphase. Weiterhin hat I2 neun der insgesamt 24 Zusatzmaterialien sowie alle zwölf optionalen Tests bearbeitet.

I3 hat den Kurs in 45 Lernphasen bearbeitet und insgesamt 21:40 Stunden für die Bearbeitung des Kurses (exklusive zwei sehr kurzer Lernphasen mit jeweils einer Dauer von einer Minute) aufgewandt. Die Zeiten der einzelnen Lernphasen betragen zwischen zwei Minuten und 2:17 Stunden; der Median beträgt 22 Minuten. Die Module wurden nacheinander in chronologischer Reihenfolge bearbeitet, wobei jeweils ein Modul pro Lernphase absolviert wurde. Darüber hinaus hat I3 elf der insgesamt 24 Zusatzmaterialien studiert sowie alle zwölf optionalen Tests abgelegt. Im Vergleich zu I1 und I2 fällt auf, dass I3 den Kurs in deutlich kürzeren Zeitspannen bearbeitet hat, dafür jedoch in einer höheren Anzahl an Lernanlässen.

4. DISKUSSION

Aufbauend auf den beiden vorangegangenen Kapiteln werden nachfolgend die Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen den beiden Gruppen hinsichtlich der Vorgehensweise bei der Bearbeitung des Kurses vergleichend diskutiert.

Zunächst erfolgt die Diskussion anhand des Einflussfaktors der eingesetzten Lernzeit. An dieser Stelle ist auf die Studie von Schulmeister und Metzger (2011: 115–117) hinzuweisen, wonach kein Zusammenhang zwischen der investierten Zeit und dem Erfolg im Studium besteht. Wichtiger als die investierte Zeit ist das allgemeine „Lernverhalten" der Lernenden. In der obenstehenden Abbildung ist die investierte Lernzeit der sechs ausgewählten Personen dennoch

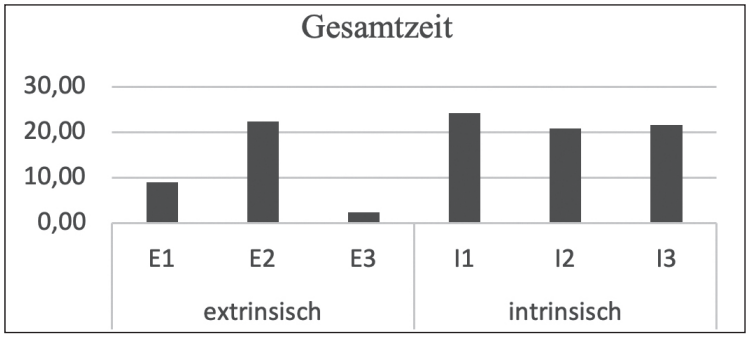

Abbildung 2. Überblick über die Lernzeiten der sechs Kursteilnehmerinnen

Quelle: eigene Darstellung.

dargestellt. Auch wenn – wie bereits angedeutet – kein Zusammenhang zwischen der Zeit und weder dem Erfolg noch dem Umfang der Kursbearbeitung hergestellt werden soll, so können die Ergebnisse als Richtwert oder Tendenz für die Bearbeitung des LSP-TEOC.Pro-Kurses angesehen werden. Weiterhin sollte im Kontext der Diskussion um das LLL angenommen werden, dass die Kursbelegung als Ausgangspunkt von und für weitere Weiterlernaktivitäten verstanden werden kann.

Die genannte Lernmotivation spiegelt sich in der Herangehensweise an den Kurs wider. Diejenigen Lernerinnen, die Lernmotivationen angeben, die dem Spektrum intrinsisch motivierender Faktoren zugerechnet werden können, bearbeiten den Kurs (eher) vollständig bzw. lückenlos, in der empfohlenen Reihenfolge und unter Berücksichtigung der Zusatzmaterialien; das Interesse am Lerngegenstand trägt zum Aufrechterhalten der Motivation bei (vgl. Kapitel 2.1). Auch darf angenommen werden, dass hier Strategien des Tiefenlernens angewandt werden, indem das Gelernte im Rahmen der Bearbeitung der Zusatzmaterialien aufgegriffen und weiter vertieft wird, bspw. im Kontext des eigenen Unterrichts (vgl. Kapitel 2.3). Umgekehrt nutzen extrinsisch motivierte Personen teilweise die zur Verfügung gestellten Materialien nicht, was als Indiz für die Strategie des bloßen Bestehens mit minimalem Aufwand gewertet wird.

Ein gewisses Differenzierungsmerkmal zwischen den beiden Gruppen lässt sich auch bei der Wahl der Modulreihenfolge erkennen. Intrinsisch motivierte Teilnehmende, die von vornherein vorhaben, den gesamten Kurs zu absolvieren, bearbeiten die Module des Kurses in der empfohlenen Reihenfolge (siehe oben). Extrinsisch motivierte Teilnehmerinnen und Teilnehmer hingegen – nicht selten Studierende, die den Kurs nur wegen der von den Lehrenden auferlegten Verpflichtung besuchen – absolvieren die Module prinzipiell auch in der

vorgegebenen Reihenfolge, obwohl sie sich von vornherein, unabhängig vom eigenen Interesse, für eine minimale Anzahl von Modulen entscheiden. Sie wählen die Module augenscheinlich vollkommen unbedacht, obwohl sie sich bei ihrer Wahl auf Inhalte hätten konzentrieren können, die in Übereinstimmung mit persönlichen Interessen stehen (vgl. Kapitel 2.2). Wenn sie jedoch mit M3 konfrontiert werden, das deutlich längste und zeitaufwändigste Modul, dann lassen sie es aus und wählen ein kürzeres.

Auch lässt sich die Vorgehensweise der Personen hinsichtlich der Anzahl der absolvierten Module analysieren, indem „nur" das geforderte Minimum von vier Modulen einerseits erfüllt wird, ggf. auch – im Sinne einer Optimierungsstrategie hinsichtlich der eingesetzten Lernzeit – unter Auslassung des umfangreich(st)en M3. Andererseits werden alle Module belegt, ggf. unter Berücksichtigung einer nicht chronologischen Reihenfolge hinsichtlich der Modulbearbeitung, was auf einen Zusammenhang zwischen der Rangfolge der Belegung und den individuellen Interessen hindeuten kann.

Im Rahmen der Diskussion ist eine Ausnahme zu nennen. E2 hat eingangs ausschließlich das Zertifikat als Motivation genannt. Ihre Herangehensweise bzw. ihr beschrittener Lernpfad legt allerdings die Vermutung nahe, dass sie entweder im Verlauf des Kurses „auf den Geschmack" gekommen ist bzw. ihre Meinung geändert und sich deshalb für das Studium weiterer Module entschieden hat oder – aus nicht nachvollziehbaren bzw. rekonstruierbaren Gründen – ihr intrinsisches Interesse am Lerngegenstand eingangs nicht mitgeteilt hat.

Hinsichtlich des Kurses bzw. dessen Bearbeitung ist allgemein anzumerken, dass das Konzept auf sich abwechselnden Phasen von Durcharbeiten der Materialien (Fakten, Konzepte und Theorien) und Prüfung des Gelernten mittels Tests basiert. Dabei beschränken sich – aus technischen Gründen – die obligatorisch zu bearbeitenden Tests auf Aufgaben mit verschiedenen „einfachen" Fragetypen, bspw. Multiple-Choice, Lückentext, Wahr / Falsch (Moodle 2023b). Hierfür sind Gründe ausschlaggebend, die sich aus der Anforderung des Einsatzes eines Selbstlernkurses ergeben: Der Kurs soll zeit- und insbesondere ortsunabhängig bearbeitet werden können. Die zuerst geplante Erprobung einschließlich der Bearbeitung von offenen Fragen hat jedoch ergeben, dass die manuelle Bewertung von Antworten der Teilnehmenden zwar im Rahmen des Projekts zu leisten wäre, im Anschluss an das Projekt jedoch nicht mehr, auch wenn dieses aus didaktischer Perspektive dringend geboten wäre (siehe dazu bspw. Schulmeister & Metzger 2011: 119 f.). Insofern wurden im Sinne einer Rückfallposition einzelne offene Fragen in „einfachere Fragen" (siehe oben) oder in Zusatzmaterialien mit Musterantworten umgewandelt. Es ist unbestritten, dass offene Fragen – mit dem Ziel der Erstellung eines Portfolios – die anspruchsvollere, kompetenzorientierte Prüfungsform darstellen. Es muss an dieser Stelle leider angefügt werden, dass

aufgrund des Projektcharakters bzw. des von Beginn an formulierten Ziels der Entwicklung eines Selbstlernkurses keine Rückmeldungen auf Aufgaben im Selbststudium bzw. auf freie Textaufgaben gegeben werden können. Anstelle dessen bleibt lediglich die Überprüfung des Gelernten mittels punktueller Prüfungen bzw. Online-Tests. Darüber hinaus haben einzelne Teilnehmende Gebrauch von der Bearbeitung offener Aufgaben gemacht oder sogar Portfolios erstellt. Es ist allerdings davon auszugehen, dass der Grund für die geringe Beteiligung neben reiner Pragmatik auf den Missstand zurückzuführen ist, dass die Antworten nicht korrigiert werden können, was sich wiederum (negativ) auf die Motivation auswirken dürfte; der Kurs „lebt" vom Engagement und der intrinsischen Motivation der teilnehmenden Personen am Lerngegenstand.

Woran es im Kurs aufgrund der Anforderungen weiterhin mangelt, ist die fehlende Interaktion innerhalb der Lernendengruppe. Angestrebt werden kann ein in das universitätseigene LMS integrierter Kurs im Sinne einer ganzheitlichen Lehrleistung, in dem die Kursteilnehmenden vom Tutor oder der Tutorin Rückmeldungen auf eingereichte Aufgaben erhalten und zur Interaktion angeregt werden, bspw. per Forum. In der vorliegenden Version des LSP-TEOC.Pro-Kurses in der beschriebenen Art und Weise und wie er auch erprobt worden ist, fehlte und fehlt weiterhin die beschriebene Interaktion innerhalb der Lernendengruppe sowie zwischen Lernenden und Lehrenden, was zweifelsohne ein Nachteil ist.

An dieser Stelle soll jedoch ausdrücklich erwähnt werden, dass der Kurs als Open Educational Resource zum einen im LSP-TEOC.Pro-Moodle frei zugänglich angeboten wird und bearbeitet werden kann. Der Kurs kann zum anderen auch in ein Moodle-System der Wahl, bspw. an der Hochschule interessierter LSP-Lehrender, eingebunden bzw. importiert werden. Dadurch haben Lehrende die Möglichkeit, den vorbenannten Missstand (aus didaktischer Perspektive) zu überwinden, indem sie den Kurs in ihr didaktisches Konzept einbeziehen und an ihre individuellen Belange anpassen. Dabei kann der Kurs vollständig oder teilweise genutzt werden. Auch können auf diese Weise die Vorteile beider „Welten" ausgeschöpft werden, indem Lehrende den Selbstlernkurs zeit- und ortsunabhängig zur Verfügung stellen und darüber hinaus Fragen bzw. Diskussionen oder zusätzliche Aufgaben moderieren. Die Besprechung kann asynchron im LMS selbst erfolgen, bspw. per Forum, oder synchron im Rahmen von Präsenzveranstaltungen bzw. des regulären Unterrichts.

In Bezug auf Teilnehmende, die den Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro bearbeiten, sollte nicht davon ausgegangen werden, dass extrinsisch motivierte Personen Aufgaben bearbeiten werden, die über das Minimum hinausgehen, während intrinsisch motivierte Personen sich mit sämtlichen (oder zumindest den weiteren sie interessierenden) Aufgaben beschäftigen werden (vgl. Kapitel 2). Es bleibt im Sinne einer Perspektive abzuwarten, inwiefern sich die Zahl der Teilnehmenden

und insbesondere deren Motivationen bzw. Teilnahmeverhalten am Kurs zukünftig entwickeln werden.

5. ZUSAMMENFASSUNG UND AUSBLICK

Ziel des Beitrags war die Diskussion der Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen Lernenden hinsichtlich ihrer Herangehensweisen an den Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro zur Entwicklung der Kompetenzen im Bereich der Fachsprachenvermittlung. Auf der Basis des hier präsentierten theoretischen Hintergrunds wurden Daten, die im Rahmen des Projekts LSP-TEOC.Pro gesammelt worden waren, hinsichtlich der Kursnutzung durch Probanden weiterführend analysiert und besprochen. Im vorliegenden Beitrag wurde den Fragen nachgegangen, welche Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen extrinsisch und intrinsisch motivierten Kursteilnehmenden im Selbstlernkurs LSP-TEOC.Pro bestehen und wie künftige Kursteilnehmende von den gewonnenen Erkenntnissen profitieren können. Mit der vergleichenden Diskussion konnte gezeigt werden, dass sich die beiden Gruppen hinsichtlich ihrer Vorgehensweisen unterscheiden und sich bestehende Befunde übertragen lassen. Allerdings bleiben auch einzelne Aspekte offen und sind differenzierter zu betrachten. Als Fazit lässt sich feststellen, dass bei der Analyse der Kursaktivitäten Unterschiede in den Lernstrategien und Lernpfaden zwischen denjenigen festzustellen sind, die den Kurs mit einer inneren Überzeugung und einem inneren Interesse beginnen, und denjenigen, deren Motivation für die Teilnahme am Kurs im Erwerb eines Zertifikats oder einem anderen (äußeren) Anreiz besteht. Die Unterschiede lassen sich auf drei Ebenen erkennen: Dazu zählen die 1. aktiv im System verbrachte Zeit, 2. abgeschlossenen Aktivitäten, einschließlich der optionalen Materialien und Tests, und 3. Reihenfolge, in der die Module bearbeitet wurden. Die intrinsisch Motivierten arbeiteten länger im System (mit hoher Wahrscheinlichkeit haben sie alle beigefügten theoretischen Materialien gelesen), bearbeiteten fast alle zur Verfügung stehenden Aufgaben und Tests und führten die Module in der vorgegebenen Reihenfolge durch, ohne die anspruchsvolleren Module auszulassen.

Die im vorliegenden Beitrag geschilderten Beobachtungen beziehen sich indessen lediglich auf die gewählten Lernstrategien und -wege und können nicht ohne Weiteres auf die Wirksamkeit dieser Strategien verallgemeinert werden. Die Effektivität eines beschrittenen Lernpfads könnte erst anhand von Daten überprüft werden, die nach Kursabschluss erhoben werden und sowohl theoretisches Wissen als auch insbesondere die Lehrpraxis der Kursteilnehmenden validieren. Schließlich besteht das übergeordnete Ziel des Kurses in der Sensibilisierung für und Vermittlung von grundlegenden Prinzipien des Fachsprachenunterrichts.

Sofern es den Absolventinnen und Absolventen des Kurses gelingt, das erlangte Wissen in konkrete Kompetenzen für die Sprachunterrichtspraxis umzusetzen, kann die Effektivität des Ausbildungsweges bestätigt werden. Hierfür sollte die Datengrundlage erweitert werden, um die offenen Fragen angehen zu können.

In Bezug auf die zweite Forschungsfrage, die sich auf den aus der Lernpfadanalyse abgeleiteten Mehrwert für künftige Kursteilnehmende bezieht, lassen sich die zwei oben beschriebenen Muster der Lernstrategie nennen. Es bleibt also abzuwarten, welche Module künftige Nutzerinnen und Nutzer wählen werden. Weiterhin bleibt abzuwarten, welche Motivationen für die Belegung der Module sich als ausschlaggebend erweisen. Darüber hinaus fällt künftig das Zertifikat aus der Testphase weg, sodass – abgesehen von den Badges – keinerlei Anreize, die sich unter extrinsischen Motiven subsumieren lassen können, (mehr) bestehen. Es bleibt – im Sinne einer Längsschnittstudie – abzuwarten, wie sich die Gesamtheit dieser Aspekte auf die Nutzungsmuster und Lernverläufe auswirken wird. Perspektivisch ist ein Vergleich der Erfahrungen bzw. gesammelten Daten aus der Projektphase und der Nachprojektphase angebracht.

Es muss auch berücksichtigt werden, dass es den Studierenden im Kurs überlassen bleibt, inwiefern sie das ihnen zur Verfügung stehende Angebot annehmen (oder nicht). Einerseits handelt es sich um einen Selbstlernkurs bzw. um eine Selbstqualifikation, andererseits haben (fast) alle Personen bereits ein Studium abgeschlossen und es darf ein hohes Maß an Eigenverantwortlichkeit erwartet bzw. für den Lernerfolg vorausgesetzt werden. Es sind Hinweise zum Weiterlernen vorhanden, allerdings kann der Mindeststandard (konkret das Bestehen der für die Badges qualifizierenden Online-Tests) mit einem überschaubaren Zeitaufwand erreicht werden; ein weiterführendes Selbststudium wird nicht didaktisch in den Kurs eingebunden bzw. gefordert. Der Kurs kann in 48 Stunden vollständig bearbeitet werden und er soll mögliche Perspektiven für ein weiterführendes Studium bzw. Felder weiterführenden Interesses aufzeigen. Inwieweit dies von den Teilnehmenden umgesetzt wird, hängt im Wesentlichen von ihrem Weiterlerninteresse bzw. ihrer intrinsischen Motivation ab.

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Ścieżki uczenia się osób z motywacją wewnętrzną i zewnętrzną na kursie doszkalającym z dydaktyki języków specjalistycznych w ramach projektu LSP-TEOC.Pro

Abstrakt. Celem artykułu jest analiza różnic i podobieństw w realizowaniu aktywności dydaktycznych między dorosłymi kursantami motywowanymi zewnętrznie i wewnętrznie. Badanie opiera się na uczestnikach kursu online LSP-TEOC.Pro, zaprojektowanego w celu rozwijania kompetencji dydaktycznych nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych. W ramach analizy istniejąca typologia jest rozwijana z wykorzystaniem podejścia jakościowego, które szczegółowo interpretuje i wyjaśnia wyniki ilościowe, w tym zidentyfikowane grupy i style uczenia się. Uzyskane wyniki nie tylko pogłębiają wiedzę na temat strategii stosowanych przez badanych, ale także mogą pomóc przyszłym uczestnikom kursu w wyborze odpowiedniej strategii nauki. Dyskusja ukazuje istotne różnice w podejściu obu grup, wskazując, że są one widoczne na trzech poziomach: 1) czasu aktywnie zainwestowanego w system, 2) ukończonych działań, w tym opcjonalnych materiałów i testów, oraz 3) kolejności, w jakiej moduły są realizowane.

Słowa kluczowe: język specjalistyczny, doskonalenie zawodowe nauczycieli, samodzielne uczenie się, kurs na platformie Moodle, motywacja, strategie uczenia się.

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Evaluating LSP-TEOC.Pro: What we did and what we found out

Abstract. This article presents an evaluation of the LSP-TEOC.Pro project. It sets out the evaluation methodology applied, how it was implemented and the key evaluation findings. Given the exploratory nature of the project, the range and complexity of the intervening variables involved and logistical constraints, it was not possible to use an experimental evaluation approach. Instead, the evaluation used an approach based on a 'realist' and 'theory-driven' framework to test whether the 'mechanisms' implicit in the project theory of change were supported by the evidence. The evaluation showed that LSP-TEOC.PRO has progressed significantly along its 'change journey', although further effort is required going forward to support scaling up and out, so that the project has an impact at the macro level.

Keywords: LSP, realist, evaluation, theory of change, mechanisms.

1. INTRODUCTION

This article focuses on the evaluation of the LSP-TEOC.Pro project. LSP-TEOC.Pro was a project that developed, tested and disseminated an innovative approach to training Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) teachers and students. It aimed to provide LSP students and teachers with a multilingual online course which allows them to acquire the competences needed for a successful implementation of teaching languages in a specific context. These competences cover nine areas, including needs analysis, syllabus design, teaching skills, materials evaluation and assessment. The developed online course targeted future and early career teachers who may not have received sufficient education in LSP teaching given the prevalent gaps in LSP teacher training in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). The online course was made available to the LSP community as an Open Educational Resource (OER) implemented

as self-directed course content on a learning management system (LMS). The online course content is comprised of eight modules – an introductory module and seven core modules covering the key elements and competences needed for a successful implementation of teaching languages in a specific context. These core modules cover needs analysis in LSP; LSP course and syllabus design; LSP communities, genres and corpora; LSP teaching skills; LSP materials evaluation and design; task, project, problem-based LSP teaching/learning, and LSP assessment. The course content was available in all languages of the strategic partnership consortium, namely in Croatian, English, French, German, Italian, Polish, Spanish, Slovenian and Turkish. The course was delivered and tested through extensive large-scale trials involving LSP teachers and students.

The main outcomes and impacts expected following completion of the project included increased LSP, digital and inter-cultural competences for participants; the development of trans-national partnerships aimed at providing and promoting knowledge and skills for high-quality teaching and learning of LSP in vocational education and training (VET) and in higher education and a more unified way of learning and teaching languages for specific purposes. Overall, it was expected that LSP-TEOC.Pro would contribute to increasing the attractiveness of LSP teaching in Europe.

Against this background, the evaluation approach chosen for LSP-TEOC.Pro needed to reflect its particular features and characteristics. Ideally, project stakeholders – people with a 'stake' in the project results, particularly those who fund it – look to the most robust evaluation approaches available in order to demonstrate results, impact and value. These approaches usually imply using 'experimental' methods to demonstrate results and impact – in particular the use of 'randomised controlled trials' (RCTs), which are seen as the 'gold standard' in evaluation and impacts assessment (Campbell & Stanley 1973). The attraction of experimental methods is that they are good at establishing the 'counterfactual' (Loi & Rodrigues 2012). Counterfactual evaluation involves comparing the outcomes of interest of those who have benefitted from an intervention (the 'treatment group') with those of a group similar in all respects to the treatment group (the 'comparison / control group'), but who have not been exposed to the intervention. The comparison group provides information on what would have happened to the participants in the intervention had they not been exposed to it. In the case of LSP-TEOC.Pro, this would have meant randomly selecting the participants for the online course and randomly selecting a similar group of teacher trainees and LSP professionals who did not participate in the programme, then comparing the two groups' levels of LSP, digital and inter-cultural competences following completion of the programme.

The main challenge with applying experimental methods like RCTs in the project evaluation is a methodological one. This reflects the difficulty in maintaining the 'temporal priority' required in RCTs – the assumption that a suspected cause precedes an event (for example, in clinical trials that the application of a particular drug will 'cause' the relief of particular symptoms). Evaluation challenges encountered in interventions like LSP-TEOC.Pro include complexity and unpredictable change. Problems in measuring outcomes, for example non-linear response outcomes and high rates of outcome variability, are also often encountered. Complexity and unpredictability challenges also include technical problems, such as handling treatments that comprise multiple interventions; infrequent data sampling, non-existent baselines, and large measurement error; long time lag between intervention and response; complex spill-over effects (Befani 2012; Ferraro 2009). The second main challenge in applying RCTs in LSP-TEOC.Pro is a pragmatic one. Random selection of participants and non-participants was virtually impossible logistically, given the time and resource constraints of the project and the difficulty in accessing, selecting and persuading LSP professionals who were not involved in the project to participate in its evaluation. In this context a different evaluation methodology was needed.

2. LSP-TEOC.PRO EVALUATION APPROACH

Taking the above factors into consideration, the overall conceptual framework chosen for the LSP-TEOC.Pro evaluation was based on an adaptation of the 'realist evaluation' approach. Realist evaluation allows for context to be taken into consideration when assessing interventions (Guba & Lincoln 1989; Chen & Rossi 1989; Pawson & Tilley 1997). The approach looks at how something is supposed to work, with the goal of finding out what strategies work for which people, in what circumstances, and how.

A realist approach is essentially about testing a theory about what 'might cause change', even though that theory may not be explicit. One of the tasks of a realist evaluation is therefore to make the theories within an intervention explicit, by developing clear hypotheses about how, and for whom, programmes and projects might 'work'. The implementation of the programme, and the evaluation of it, then tests those hypotheses. This means collecting data, not just about intervention impacts, but also the processes of the intervention implementation, as well as data about the specific mechanisms that might be creating change.

Two things that are crucial in carrying out realist evaluation are 'Theory of Change' and the 'mechanisms' that underpin the change process. Theory of Change tells the project 'story' – from the 'presenting problem' it addresses

through to the change it hopes to make on that problem at the end of the project and beyond (i.e. the project's expected 'impacts') (Weiss, 1995). Connecting the presenting problem and expected impacts are activities – actions carried out by LSP-TEOC.Pro, that lead to outputs – things that are produced by these activities. These lead to immediate outcomes – changes in awareness and knowledge, that lead to intermediate outcomes – changes in behaviour and structures. Underlying this 'change journey' are theories, assumptions and hypotheses, for example a theory of what is causing the 'presenting problem'; a theory of what is needed to bring about the desired solution and assumptions that if Action 'X', is taken this will produce Output 'Y', which will then lead to Outcome 'Z'. These theories, hypotheses and assumptions need to be tested as the project develops and, if necessary, revised in light of evaluation evidence.

Mechanisms can be defined as "underlying entities, processes, or structures which operate in particular contexts to generate outcomes of interest" (Astbury & Leeuw 2010: 368). Interventions like LSP-TEOC.Pro are intended to encourage the target groups they are aimed at to make and sustain different choices – for example choosing to participate in the LSP-TEOC.Pro online course. Making these choices requires a change in the participant's 'reasoning' (for example the values, beliefs, attitudes, or the logic they apply to a particular situation). It also requires a change in the 'resources' participants have available to them. For example, LSP-TEOC.Pro will provide information, skills, material resources, and support which will in turn increase participants' individual resources (e.g. in LSP, digital competences, intercultural skills) and ultimately the resources available to their institutions and networks. This combination of 'reasoning and resources' is what enables LSP-TEOC.Pro to 'work' and is defined as a project 'mechanism'. The way the mechanism works depends on the 'context' in which it operates. LSP-TEOC.Pro's course will work – or not – in different ways for different people depending on 'contextual factors'. These include the time and economic resources available to professionals and trainee teachers to participate. There is always an interaction between context and mechanism, and that interaction is what creates the intervention's impacts or outcomes: Context + Mechanism = Outcome.

3. IMPLEMENTING THE EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

The evaluation approach was implemented through a multi-methodological framework and toolkit. The framework combined four different evaluation purposes and modes. First, ex-ante evaluation – aimed at embedding evaluation into the project at the start and then using learning from the ongoing evaluation to

improve the project as it developed. Second, process evaluation – aimed at tracking the evolution of the project and how it was meeting its objectives and targets. Third, summative evaluation – aimed at assessing the project outcomes and impacts and the extent to which its goals had been met. Finally, learning evaluation – aimed at contributing to supporting the sustainability of LSP-TEOC.Pro.

The Toolkit incorporated a range of data collection methods and instruments as well as analytical tools. For ex-ante evaluation the Toolkit included action learning sets, co-design workshops and a theory of change framework. Process evaluation included a process dashboard which monitored progress against key output targets and key performance indicators as well as a partner survey which assessed project partner perceptions on progress. Summative evaluation combined statistical data analysis – for example training course participation rates – with a course participant survey, participant interviews and focus groups and participant diaries. Learning evaluation focused on theory of change analysis – assessing how far the project had progressed on its change journey.

4. RESULTS

The process evaluation entailed periodic review of how the project was progressing in relation to its intended outputs. This used a 'process dashboard' to assess the extent to which output targets were being achieved. Table 1 shows the main results of the process evaluation.

On the process evaluation, key outputs indicators were used to track project performance over its lifecycle. These were also linked to key performance indicators (KPIs) which enable tracking of progress made on the indicators against baselines and targets. These KPIs are not shown in the Table because it shows the situation at project end (KPIs are 'progress' rather than 'outcomes' measures). It should also be noted that the project did not set any targets to measure against. Nevertheless, the indicators in the process dashboard give a reasonable picture of project achievements.

Progress and achievement on the 'research' dimension was measured by the number of items and good practice cases reviewed in the analysis and synthesis of existing LSP teacher education and development programmes. This aimed to gather and review the state of the art in the LSP field – particularly on existing LSP resources, their content, teaching and learning methods and associated learning outcomes – to feed into the development of the LSP-TEOC.Pro course. As the Table shows a large number of institutions working in LSP – 532 Europe-wide – were consulted in the review and 12 LSP training programmes were analysed in depth.

Table 1. LSP-TEOC.Pro process evaluation

Dimension	Indicators	Status at: 31/8/23	Project target
Research	No. Literature review items and good practice cases reviewed	532 institutions; 12 programmes	NS
Development	No. of content modules developed in target languages	8	NS
	No. issues detected and solved (IO4)	Continuous review process	NS
	No. piloting diaries completed	41	NS
Implementation	No. LSP students and teachers participating in online course	183	NS
Dissemination	No. visits to project website	597 (public) 1257 (combined)	NS
	No. contacts on social media	1894 reads 61 recommendations 34 followers	NS
	No. participants Final Conference	56	NS

Source: own study.

On the 'development' dimension, LSP-TEOC.Pro achieved its intended objective of developing a comprehensive training programme, covering 8 modules, and translated into the nine languages represented in the partnership. The course was validated through a meticulous and protracted review process involving peer review teams for each module. This enabled issues to be detected and resolved. The validation process was supported through the participation of the project target group – LSP students and teachers – who provided over 40 detailed piloting diaries identifying issues and providing suggestions for improvements.

On the implementation dimension, a total of 183 LSP students and teachers were involved in trialling the course. This number is sufficient to enable a robust evaluation of the training course to be conducted. The 'dissemination' dimension was assessed using three main indicators: number of visits to the project website; number of contacts on social media and number of participants at the project final conference. The data on website visits and social media traffic suggest that LSP-TEOC.Pro's engagement with its stakeholder constituency has been limited, with just over 1,200 website visits (combining 'public' visits with visits to the platform by training course participants) and just over 1,800 'reads' in total on social media. The Final Conference attracted 56 national and international participants, which is in line with the typical attendance for projects of this size and nature.

In addition to project website and social media data, the dissemination monitoring system implemented in the project logged a total of 64 dissemination actions over the project lifetime. Of these, 45 involved the use of partner websites and social media to raise awareness about the project and support recruitment of participants to the training course. 15 involved conference presentations; 2 were workshops and 2 were articles submitted to academic journals and Conference Proceedings. The estimated reach of the conferences and workshops covers 1,830 stakeholders, primarily LSP scholars, teachers and researchers.

The summative evaluation was implemented via a multi-methodological design. This combined quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data analysis included key output indicators, statistical analysis of participation data, and analysis of the use of the training platform, including learner analytics data capturing user interaction with the training course. This was supported by a 'pre-test / post-test' survey of training programme participants, measuring their self-reported level of competences before and after participating in the LSP-TEOC.Pro training programme, analysis of training programme participants' quiz scores, a participant survey, participant diaries and follow up interviews and focus groups.

300 teachers and students enrolled on the LSP-TEOC.Pro course. Figure 1 shows participation rates for the course.

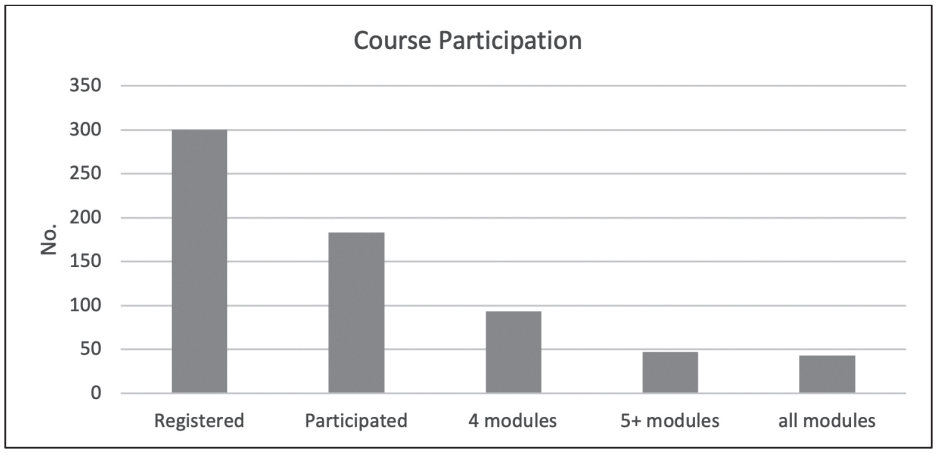

Figure 1. Participation in the LSP-TEOC.Pro training programme trial

Source: own study.

Figure 1 shows that 300 LSP teachers and students registered for the programme. Of these 183 – 61% participated in the training course; 93 – 31% – of those registered completed 4 modules of the course; 47 – 16% – of those registered

completed 5 or more modules of the course; 43 – 14% – of those registered completed the whole course (8 modules). These figures suggest a high level of interest from the LSP professional community in the training programme, together with a relatively high participation rate of over 60%, but a low retention rate overall, given that only 14% of those registered completed the course. However, the retention picture is more positive if only those who actively participated in the training are considered. This shows 51% of active participants completed at least half of the course (4 modules); 26% of active participants completed 5 or more modules of the course; 23% of active participants completed the whole course.

How did course participation affect the acquisition of competences in LSP? To assess this the evaluation included a pre-test / post-test' survey of training programme participants, measuring their self-reported level of competence in the areas covered by the eight modules in the course; an analysis of the scores posted by participants in the quizzes included in the modules and an analysis of responses to the participant survey.

The self-assessment survey asked course participants to rate their level of competence on a five-point scale from very low to very high. The survey was set up to try to capture both immediate and intermediate outcomes. To cover immediate outcomes – changes in awareness and increased knowledge – participants were asked to rate their level of knowledge and understanding of the competence covered by each module. To cover intermediate outcomes – changes in behaviour and structures – participants were asked to rate their ability to apply their understanding of a competence in their teaching practice.

Figure 2 compares the mean score on knowledge and understanding for the eight modules of the training programme as well as the mean score for the whole course (taking the 'mean of the means' for all participants who completed the self-assessment).

Figure 2 shows that measured by self-assessed rating, LSP teachers and students who took the training course significantly increased their knowledge and understanding of the topics covered. Overall, participants increased their aggregate score for the course as a whole by 40% on average – from 51 to 72 – after participating, with an average rating on the course as a whole increasing from 2.9 to 4.2 (on a scale of 1 to 5).

Figure 3 compares the mean score on ability to apply understanding of a competence in teaching practice for the eight modules of the training programme as well as the mean score for the whole course (taking the 'mean of the means' for all participants who completed the self-assessment).

Figure 3 shows that measured by self-assessed rating, LSP teachers and students who took the training course significantly increased their capacity to apply their knowledge and understanding of the topics covered in practice. Overall,

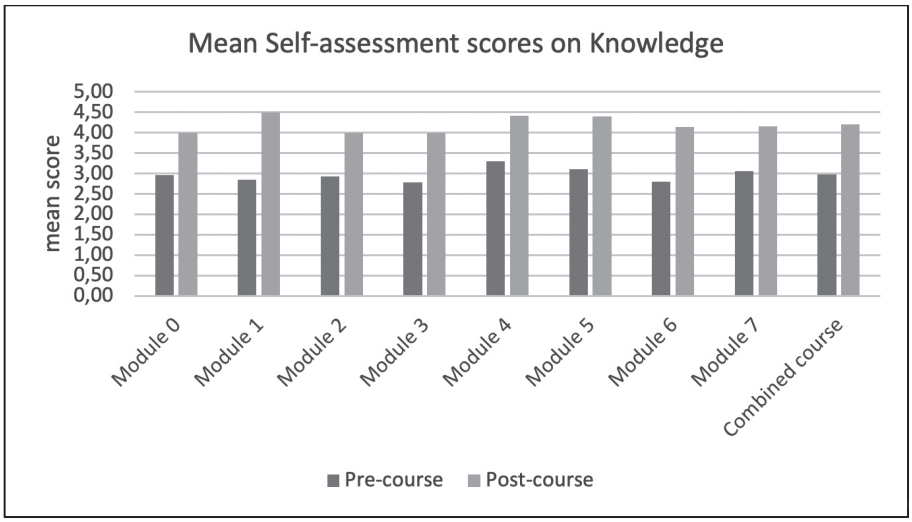

Figure 2. Comparison of mean self-assessment scores on knowledge and understanding before and after taking the training course

Source: own study.

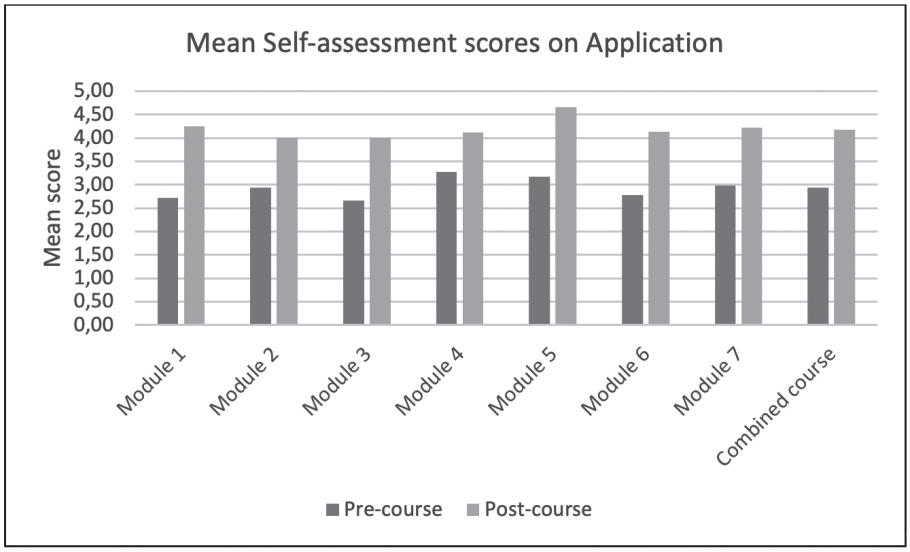

Figure 3. Comparison of mean self-assessment scores on application in practice before and after taking the training course

Source: own study.

participants increased their aggregate score on application for the course as a whole by 20% on average – from 58 to 69 – after participating, with an average rating on the course as a whole increasing from 2.9 to 4.2 (on a scale of 1 to 5).

Another indicator of changes in knowledge and the application of that knowledge associated with participation in the LSP-TEOC.Pro training programme is afforded by the results of the 'quizzes' that were incorporated in the programme. The quizzes had a dual purpose of supporting participant motivation and engagement through 'gamification' and enabling monitoring and assessment of progression. Taking all quiz scores combined, the mean quiz score for training programme participants is 87/100. Table 2 below shows the distribution of mean quiz scores for the 49 quizzes analysed.

Table 2. Distribution of mean quiz scores

	% quizzes
Over 90%	33
Between 80-90%	61
Less than 80%	6
Total	100

Source: own study.

As Table 2 shows, the mean score recorded in a third of the quizzes was 90% or above. For almost two-thirds of the quizzes, the mean score was between 80% and 90%, and for only 6% of quizzes, the mean score was below 80%. The results suggest that the LSP-TEOC.Pro participants achieved significant learning outcomes from participating in the training programme.

The user experience and satisfaction with the training course was evaluated through three instruments: a retrospective User Survey carried out with training programme participants after completion of the programme; diaries completed by participants over the duration of the programme; qualitative feedback from training programme participants collected through interviews and focus groups.

The User Survey, which was completed by just under 100 course participants, included three questions on behavioural intentionality: would you recommend this course to other LSP teachers (or students)? In the future, do you plan to return to selected modules and/or to those, which you have not chosen this time? Have you acquired knowledge that you intend to put into practice after the course?

Figure 4 shows responses to the first question.

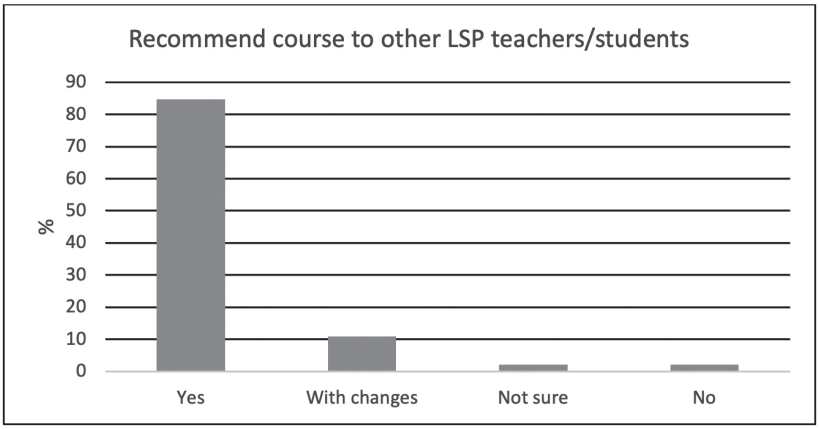

Figure 4. Participant recommendation of the training course

Source: own study.

As Figure 4 shows, 85% of survey respondents said they would recommend the course to other LSP teachers or students; 11% said they would recommend it with changes and only 2% said they would not recommend it. Figure 5 shows responses to the second question.

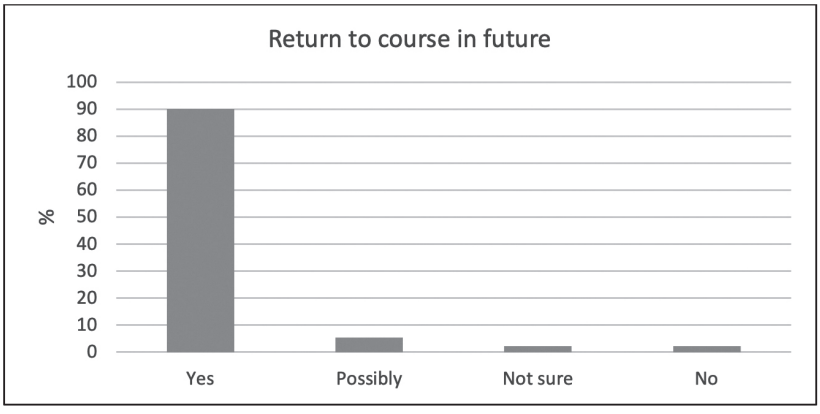

Figure 5. Participant intentions to return to the training course in the future

Source: own study.

As Figure 5 shows, 90% of survey respondents said they plan to return to selected modules of the course in the future or modules they had not previously selected and only 2% said they no intention to return to the course.

Figure 6 shows responses to the third question.

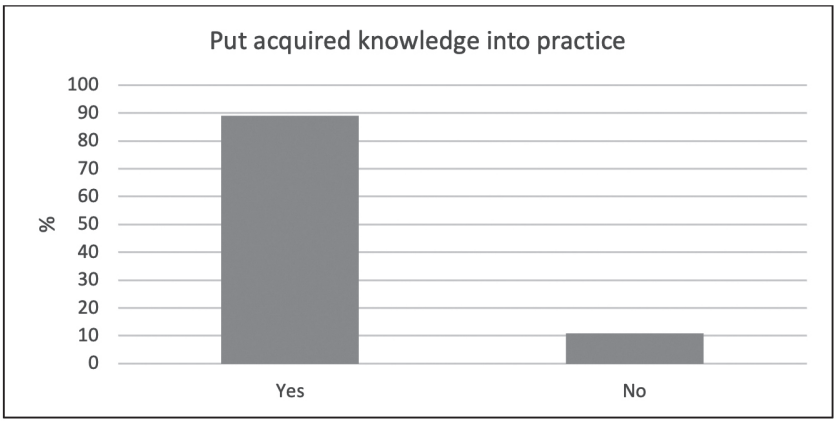

Figure 6. Participant intention to put acquired knowledge into practice after the course

Source: own study.

As Figure 6 shows, 89% of survey respondents said they intend to put the knowledge they had acquired from the course into practice in the future. 11% reported they did not intend to put this knowledge into practice. These results suggest that course participants have a very positive attitude to the training course, and they associate their participation with real practical benefits gained from that participation.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The evaluation shows that LSP-TEOC.Pro successfuly delivered on many of its key objectives, outputs and outcomes. It carried out an extensive review of state of the art in LSP training programmes, with 532 institutions consulted and 12 programmes extensively reviewed. This research and its results fed into the development of a comprehensive on-line training programme for LSP teachers and students. The programme is comprised of eight modules that reflect the competences needed to deliver high quality LSP training across a range of institutional settings. 300 teachers and students enrolled on the LSP-TEOC.Pro course and 183 – 61% – actively participated in it. These results reinforce the conclusion that there is a clear need for such an innovative programme. However, the retention and completion rates for the course are relatively low, at 23% for the whole course for active participants, with over half active participants

completing only 4 modules. This evidence suggests a requirement for additional work to increase retention and progression, including more detailed analysis of the reasons behind drop-out and incomplete progression.

Course participants increased their LSP knowledge and understanding by 40% on average for the course as a whole, with significant increases in LSP knowledge and understanding across all modules of the course. Course participants increased their capacity to apply LSP knowledge in their practice by 20% on average for the course as a whole, and across all modules of the course.

As outlined in the introduction above, the evaluation test for a project like LSP-TEOC.Pro is how far it travels on its 'change journey' and to what extent the expected 'mechanisms' of the project are validated by the evaluation evidence.

The expected project mechanism – the causal chains that underpin the project theory of change – are as follows. LSP professionals and trainee teachers find out about LSP-TEOC.Pro through the project website, multiplier events, partner awareness-raising actions and networks. They see that LSP-TEOC.Pro fills a gap in their needs and sign up for the online course. Participation in the course increases their understanding of how LSP can be applied more effectively in teaching practice. Hands-on exercises, supported through the use of digital technologies, increases their competence in LSP pedagogy and gives them the confidence to apply it in practice. On graduation from LSP-TEOC.Pro, they apply their new competences in their teaching practice. This has the aggregated and cumulative effect of improving the LSP competence base. Dissemination and networking actions amongst partners lead to knowledge transfer, development of partnerships aimed at providing and promoting knowledge and skills for high quality teaching and learning of LSP in VET and in higher education; new forms of collaborations highlighting the positive impact of pan-European activities and strengthening collaboration. This in the longer term supports a base for trans-European collaboration that ultimately will have a knock-on effect on the quality of training provided for LSP teachers and students and an improvement in learning outcomes for those they teach.

On balance there is very strong evidence that LSP-TEOC.Pro successfully developed the resources necessary to promote change and applied these resources to support change. There is rather strong evidence that utilisation of these resources contributed to positive immediate changes, i.e. in attitudes, awareness, knowledge and the capacity to apply this knowledge in practice. However, the evidence is weaker with regard to the contribution LSP-TEOC.Pro made to intermediate outcomes, i.e. changes in actual behaviours of participants and in the systems and structures of their organisations. Although there is evidence from the evaluation that LSP-TEOC.Pro created favourable conditions for behavioural and systems change, and the vast majority of course participants

aim to apply what they had learned in their practice going forward, there is little hard evidence that this was achieved in practice. This is not least because assessing such change would require longitudinal data to be collected on things like teacher and student classroom practices and their career progression over a period following the end of the project.

For similar reasons, the evidence to support longer-term impacts at the systemic level is also weak. On the one hand, the dissemination activities carried out by the project reached a reasonable number of stakeholders. However, there is no hard evidence that these activities have led to significant changes in the infrastructure needed for extensive knowledge transfer. Nor is there significant evidence that they led to the formation of networks and partnerships that could lead to changes in the quality of LSP teaching provided at the European level; in new research networks and in policy formulation and delivery. However, the training course will run until 2028 and a steady throughput of trainees will provide a foundation for potential longer-term impacts. It would appear therefore that, although LSP-TEOC.PRO has progressed significantly along its 'change journey', further effort is required going forward to improve the training offer to increase retention and progression, capitalise on new trainees joining the course and support scaling up and out, so that the project has an impact at the macro level.

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Ewaluacja projektu LSP-TEOC.Pro: osiągnięcia i wnioski

Abstrakt. Artykuł stanowi podsumowanie ewaluacji projektu LSP-TEOC.Pro – opisuje zastosowaną metodologię, proces wdrożenia oraz kluczowe wnioski wynikające z przeprowadzonych badań. Ze względu na eksploracyjny charakter projektu, różnorodność i złożoność analizowanych zmiennych oraz ograniczenia logistyczne zastosowanie podejścia eksperymentalnego było niemożliwe. W zamian wdrożono metodę opartą na założeniach „realistycznych" oraz „opartych na teorii", co pozwoliło sprawdzić, czy założone w teorii zmiany „mechanizmy" znajdują potwierdzenie w zebranych danych. Ewaluacja wykazała, że projekt LSP-TEOC.Pro osiągnął znaczący postęp w stosunku do swoich założeń. Wskazano jednak na potrzebę dalszych działań wspierających skalowanie i poszerzenie zasięgu, aby zapewnić efekt na poziomie makro.

Słowa kluczowe: LSP, realizm, ewaluacja, teoria zmiany, mechanizmy.

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Advancing ESP instruction through DDL: A structured training framework

Abstract. This study explores the urgent need for corpus-based English instruction within English for Specific Purposes (ESP), an area with untapped potential despite its growing importance. The limited use of corpora in classrooms, due to shortcomings in teacher training, underscores the need for strategies that enhance teacher proficiency in corpus use, addressing the unique linguistic needs of learners. It proposes an integrated training framework, extending Carter and McCarthy's (1995) '3 Is', further expanded to '4 Is' by Flowerdew (2009), to a more comprehensive training framework of '6 Is' to facilitate a balance between inductive and deductive learning. The paper highlights the necessity of specialised training to empower teachers with the skills for effective Data-Driven Learning implementation in ESP teaching, aiming to improve the overall educational experience by integrating corpus insights into language instruction. Adopting a theoretical approach, this study synthesises insights derived from a specialised corpus and DDL pedagogy to develop a structured training framework. It provides a roadmap for ESP educators, equipping them with the necessary competencies to effectively integrate corpora into instruction. By offering a structured methodology, the study contributes to ongoing discussions on ESP teacher development and the normalisation of corpus-based teaching practices.

Keywords: corpus linguistics, data-driven learning, ESP teacher training, inductive and deductive learning, 6 I's training framework.

1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing importance of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), as a tailored approach to language instruction, designed to respond to learners' unique linguistic needs and objectives (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998), sets it apart from conventional English Language Teaching (ELT) methods (Hyland 2002). Although these needs are activity-oriented, ESP[1] assumes that such activities inherently involve and rely on specific registers, genres, and their corresponding language, which students must be able to use effectively so as to perform these

[1] Although the specific-purposes approach is not confined to the English language, this paper focuses primarily on the teaching of English.

activities (Dudley Evans & St. John 1998: 4). Hence, *language* in ESP is seen as a defining feature that stems from ESP's primary focus on the learner's unique requirements, determining the course's content and aim (Richards & Schmidt 2002: 181), specified through needs analysis (Dudley Evans & St. John 1998: 4).

Long's suggestion to "view every course as involving specific purposes" (Long 2005: 19) plays a distinctive role in ESP, critical in an era where the role of English as a global academic lingua franca demands specialized language competencies that conventional ELT might not sufficiently cater to. Additionally, the heightened relevance of ESP is driven by the rise in international student numbers and the English language's increasing dominance in academia, underscoring, in turn, the tailored educational experience it offers, aligning with the practical language usage requirements of its audience (Hyland 2002). The British Council and its affiliated organisation, Studyportals, has published a global review, The *Changing Landscape of English-Taught Programmes*, on December 7, 2021, identifying 27,874 complete MA and BA degree programmes taught in English outside the big four English-speaking study destination nations. It is thus evident why English academic discourse has nowadays "become the language of literacy" (Halliday & Martin 1993: 11) and has been "established as the world's leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge" (Hyland 2004: ix).

Concurrently, though, this customized, "needs-driven" approach of ESP, as highlighted by De Chazal (2014: 5), leads to a broad spectrum of purposes within the ESP discipline, with varying objectives and goals each time. Consequently, this approach necessitates language educators to venture into unfamiliar academic and occupational domains, akin to ESP students, and to critically reflect on whether teaching the language practices of target discourse communities effectively meets learners' objectives (Belcher 2006: 2). This has generated an increasing amount of research to provide insights into the language used in academic discourse and the distinct registers it comprises, showing how specific vocabulary and related grammatical structures define different types of discourse (Coxhead & Byrd 2007: 130). These distinct characteristics of ESP's specificity and diversity have been able to be efficiently served through corpora.

The advent of corpus linguistics and the potential of corpus analysis through corpora have provided researchers and ESP teachers with a window into the *language-in-use* (see; Coxhead & Byrd 2007). This approach allows them to access and evidence data that can assist them to focus on the ways in which language is actually used for communication. By using corpora, ESP teachers can thus validate their linguistic intuitions that, in turn, often reveal unexpected research avenues (Partington 1998: 1), embodying Higgins's (1988) "serendipity" principle (Higgins, as cited in Partington 1998: 1) and highlighting corpora's dual role in both teaching and research.

Despite the widespread adoption of corpora by researchers globally, only a small number of language teachers have managed to overcome the barriers to directly use corpora in their teaching, even though a few have shown enthusiastic acceptance of this approach (Frankerberg-Garcia 2010: 475, see also Leńko-Szymańska 2017). Instead, a reluctance by teachers to use corpora in language instruction has been reported in research (Mukherjee 2004; Romer 2009; Tribble 2015, as cited by Leńko-Szymańska 2017).

This paper aims to inspire ESP teachers, and ESP teacher trainers by highlighting the advantages of Data-Driven Learning (hereforth DDL) and familiarizing them with contemporary tools and resources. It outlines practices to empower teachers for the proficient delivery of DDL activities to ESP students. By adopting the newly proposed "6 Is" framework and the accompanying strategies and practices, ESP teachers and trainers can improve their instructional efficacy, enhance their capacity to deliver engaging and effective DDL-based lessons, and ultimately enrich the language learning experience for their students. Considering the various factors influencing DDL activities' effectiveness, the study is meticulously designed around key inquiries, including the optimal approach to ESP teacher training and the selection of appropriate tools and DDL activities.

In light of the challenges faced by ESP teachers in adopting corpus-based instruction, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the key barriers preventing ESP teachers from effectively incorporating corpus-based resources into their instruction?
2. How can a structured "6 Is" framework enhance the efficacy of ESP teacher training in DDL?

By positioning these inquiries within the broader context of ESP instruction and corpus linguistics, this study aims to provide actionable insights for improving teacher training methodologies and advancing ESP education through data-driven approaches.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Corpora, DDL and the learner's role

The unique contribution of corpus analysis to language education extends beyond merely offering a new technological tool; it introduces a transformative philosophy for understanding language (Partington 1998: 1). It empowers students to proficiently sift through and interpret linguistic corpora, thus bolstering their autonomous learning skills. Over twenty-five years ago, Johns (1991a, 1991b), recognized as the "father" of Data-Driven Learning (DDL), underscored

the importance of DDL as a learner-centred approach, famously suggesting that "every student [become] a Sherlock Holmes." This metaphor emphasizes *learner agency* (a concept that has gained popularity in educational research during the past twenty years[2]), encouraging students to participate in their own learning, through active learning engagement, autonomy, and self-regulation[3], thus facilitating discovery of salient language patterns and promoting the noticing of these patterns, as highlighted by Boulton and Cobb (2017).

DDL activities may be divided into *direct* or *indirect* types of corpus usage. Direct use involves the direct access of a corpus by learners through corpus query software and demands training. The indirect one typically entails teacher-curated concordances, where the teachers pre-select corpus data ready for learner mediation, without necessitating direct corpus interaction by learners or any related training. Through both types of activities students *actively engage* with authentic use of language and analyse keyword lists, read concordances, read collocate information and visual graphs/charts. As Johns (1991b: 2) proposed, the language learner becomes "a research worker whose learning needs to be driven by access to linguistic data, hence the name data driven learning." Thus, Johns' (1991a: 29) aspiration was "to provide adequate opportunities for students to raise problems and queries," through "inductive strategies developed in the classroom," that should be equally applicable outside the classroom, however, so that students "survive and learn by themselves" (Johns 1991a: 29).

As far as the learner's role is concerned, beyond the earlier mentioned notions of *learner agency* and *active engagement*, according to Aston (2001), "the greatest attraction of corpora for language pedagogy is their potential for autonomous learning" (Aston 2001: 41). Such *autonomy* fosters a transformation in language students, evolving them into conscious learners who actively engage with and reflect upon their learning processes. This heightened consciousness though can be beneficial, as it enables learners to tailor their educational experiences to their personal needs and goals, leading to more efficient and impactful language acquisition. Aligning with the above principles and attributes of DDL, Vyatkina, and Boulton (2017) highlight its role in promoting noticing and raising awareness within L2 instruction, aiming ultimately to "foster greater independence and improved language competencies over time" (Han & Shin 2017: 173–174).

This innovative approach of DDL not only equips learners with the tools to independently explore language patterns, but also instils a profound understanding of language use in real-world contexts, delving into grammatical struc-

[2] For an overview of the role of agency in educational theory and practice Biesta and Tedder (2007).

[3] Self-regulation refers to learners' ability to actively manage their own learning by setting goals, monitoring progress, and adjusting strategies as needed to achieve desired outcomes.

tures, word meanings, and various language facets by engaging with extensive amounts of authentic linguistic data. The effectiveness of DDL across various teaching and learning contexts has been documented by Crosthwaite and Boulton (2024). However, Crosthwaite and Boulton (2024) caution against viewing DDL as a universal solution or panacea for all educational scenarios, underscoring the need for empirical validation through more longitudinal research to fully ascertain its impact.

2.2. Transforming ESP education: The impact of corpora and DDL

The emergence of corpora has fundamentally transformed the landscape of language learning, marking a significant shift in the methodologies employed in linguistic education. Innovations in corpus linguistics have enabled a more empirical and data-driven approach (Johns 1991a), granting learners and educators access to vast databases of authentic language use. In turn, this access facilitates a deeper understanding of linguistic patterns, usage, and variation, offering nuanced insights into the complexities of language in ESP and EAP contexts.

Corpora occupy a central role in ESP, serving as invaluable teaching aids, learning tools, and reference resources (Boulton 2012: 261). ESP is widely regarded as particularly suited to corpus-based teaching and learning (Gavioli 2005: 14) due to its contextual relevance. Bennett (2010: 11) further highlights this point, stressing that "ESP is probably one of the most obvious and pointed applications of corpus linguistics." As a result, this brings DDL into close alignment with the particular linguistic requirements of learners within their respective areas of study or professional practice, perfectly echoing ESP's commitment to relevance and specificity. Additionally, this alignment resonates with Benesch's (2001) call for a transition to ESP 'rights analysis' to enhance inclusivity, Casanave's (2002) urge on the necessity for adaptive change to effectively integrate new members into academic and professional communities, and Cadman's (2002: 85) proposal to redefine EAP as 'English for Academic Possibilities', thereby expanding its scope and purpose.

Corpus-based / -driven studies offer hands on access to authentic materials and examples, and may indeed shed light on "important aspects of a text or text collection that may go unnoticed otherwise" (Römer & Wulff 2010: 101), but also highlight aspects of academic language use that are underrepresented (Chen 2010; Pho 2008) as well as validate or challenge intuitive assumptions about learners' language difficulties (Rundell & Granger 2007). Hence, by focusing on learning directly from linguistic data, the DDL approach could potentially revolutionize language learning and teaching in specialized domains of ESP.

However, the potential of DDL to revolutionize language learning and teaching in specialized domains of ESP remains largely untapped. Empirical research in the realm of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has predominantly focused on university students in general-purpose language classes. This trend underscores Gillespie's (2020) broader critique of empirical studies in CALL, highlighting a gap in research specifically targeting the application and effectiveness of DDL within ESP contexts. Gillespie (2020) suggests that this approach can be highly rewarding for ESP teachers working with overly confident students reluctant to accept corrections to erroneous knowledge. By exposing students to concordance tools teachers can encourage them to independently recognize and correct their mistakes, potentially leading to more effective learning.

This observation aligns with Chambers and O'Sullivan's (2004: 168) assertion that corpus consultation is "good for unlearning errors." Moreover, O'Sullivan (2007) enumerates an extensive list of corpus-related skills that are essential for effectively engaging with and analysing language data, further emphasizing the potential of DDL to enhance ESP teaching practices. These skills include "predicting, observing, noticing, thinking, reasoning, analysing, interpreting, reflecting, exploring, making inferences (either inductively or deductively), focusing, guessing, comparing, differentiating, theorizing, hypothesising, and verifying" (O'Sullivan 2007: 277).

O'Sullivan's (2007) detailed enumeration highlights the multifaceted cognitive processes involved in working with corpus data, ranging from initial observation to in-depth analysis and validation of linguistic patterns and hypotheses which are indispensably relevant to ESP/EAP writing needs. While it is crucial to acknowledge that the DDL approach to learning "may seem rather time-consuming for a single word enquiry" (Boulton & Cobb 2017: 349) for both students and teachers, Boulton and Cobb (2017) emphasize that the significance lies in the process itself. They argue that this approach results in "increased language sensitivity, noticing, induction, and ability to work with authentic data" (Boulton & Cobb 2017: 349).

2.3. Teachers and DDL

Advancements in educational research and psychology over the past three decades have established a robust theoretical foundation for new teaching practices. These trends have "changed the teacher's role from that of knowledge-transmitter to consultant, guide, coach, and/or facilitator" (Chong 2016). However, the role of an ESP teacher encompasses even more facets. Thus, Swales (1985) aptly uses the term 'ESP practitioner' to better capture this breadth – extending

beyond traditional teaching to include needs analysis, syllabus design, materials development, and evaluation (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 157). This expanded perspective reflects the diverse responsibilities of ESP educators, emphasizing the complexity and wide-ranging functions of their role beyond the conventional classroom setting.

This transformation is crucial, as it redefines the ESP teacher's role to include scaffolding and facilitating corpus analysis experiences, especially significant for learners. Yoon and Jo (2014: 113) highlight that teacher guidance is instrumental in creating DDL-friendly environments, enabling students to engage effectively with linguistic data. Although Tim Johns (1991a: 1) emphasizes that "at the heart of the approach is the use of the machine not as a surrogate teacher or tutor, but as a rather special type of informant" (1991a: 1), the teacher's assistance as a facilitator guiding students through targeted advice or "focused tips" is crucial in leading "students through the data discovery and interpretation" of DDL instructional approach (Corino & Onesti 2019: 2). Rather than overtly dispensing knowledge explicitly and directly, educators in DDL take on the roles of "research directors and collaborators," creating opportunities for students to independently seek solutions and derive meanings (Corino & Onesti 2019: 2).

Additionally, Gavioli (2005: 15) argues that the particularity of concordance-type data means it must be treated as "*samples* rather than *examples* of language," requiring careful interpretation and analysis. However, learners should be *guided* to be able to discover the foreign language (Johns 1991), to be able to "[identify] recurrences and [infer] patterns which appear in some way typical of certain contexts" (Gavioli 2000: 129). Moreover, Bernardini (2004) highlights that discovery learning fosters a "supportive, non-authoritarian environment." This is especially true in ESP settings, where the dynamic interplay between a student's emerging disciplinary literacy, an educator's ability to scaffold domain-specific language skills, and the integration of data-driven teaching approaches may enhance the overall learning process, and thus prove particularly valuable in specialized contexts.

In this context, another crucial role ESP teachers assume in the context of DDL is that of the learning expert – Bernardini (2004) underscores this shift, noting that "the teacher acts as a learning expert rather than a language expert" (Bernardini 2004: 28). As such, this exchange of knowledge between student and teacher enriches the learning experience, shifting the teacher's role from an authority figure, dictating the learning process to a collaborator, guiding the process – a perspective that suggests a move towards a more collaborative and interactive educational environment and aligning seamlessly with the goals of DDL education.

2.3.1. Corpora integration challenges in language teaching

Although language instructors are increasingly aware of the benefits of self-regulation and autonomy that Data-Driven Learning (DDL) offers to students, many remain reluctant to employ corpora in their teaching due to a variety of either perceived, or actual barriers (Leńko-Szymańska 2014a). This reluctance was highlighted in a survey conducted by Mukherjee (2004) among language teachers in Germany, which revealed a stark contrast between the optimism of corpus linguists' regarding the pedagogical value of corpus tools and their real-world application in English language teaching. One key reason for this disconnect appears to be a lack of awareness among instructors about how linguistic databases can be effectively utilized in the classroom (Tribble 2015; Römer 2009, 2010; Mukherjee 2004).

To address this discrepancy, knowledge of corpus linguistics and corpora applications in teaching have begun to be integrated into the curriculum of language departments at both undergraduate (BA) and postgraduate (MA) levels, as well as within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs. However, Leńko-Szymańska succinctly argues that this experience "does not automatically imply that they know how to apply corpora in their teaching" practices (Leńko-Szymańska 2014a). ESP teachers, in particular, face unprecedented challenges in integrating "new forms of digital literacies" into classroom activities, as noted by Bloch (2012: 390). The mere inclusion of digital tools in the classroom is insufficient; hence, effective adaptation of new digital literacies necessitates ESP teachers to evaluate "the nature of the literacy […] and the type of authorship that is best supported by each technology" (Bloch 2012: 390). Thus, adopting an informed and reflective approach is crucial for successful implementation.

Mukherjee (2004) advocated for a collaborative effort to popularize corpus linguistics and unlock its language pedagogy potential. The intricacy of corpus literacy skills, however, encompassed in corpus linguistics, complicates things (in enhanced DDL language learning for both students and teachers). Heather and Helt (2012: 417) describe corpus literacy as "the ability to use the technology of corpus linguistics to investigate language and enhance the language development of students" (2012: 417). Drawing from Mukherjee (2006) and Dalton-Puffer[4] (2014), Callies (2016: 395) summarizes the subcomponents of corpus literacy into (1) understanding corpus linguistics fundamentals, (2) searching corpora and analysing corpus data with software tools, (3) interpreting corpus data, and

[4] Dalton-Puffer, C. (2014). *Corpus Linguistics in language teacher education*. (Plenary lecture given at the 14th Klagenfurt Conference on Corpus Based Applied Linguistics [CALK 14], 25–27 September 2014). University of Klagenfurt, Austria.

(4) using corpus findings to generate educational materials and activities. This set of skills is crucial for foreign language educators to effectively integrate corpus resources into teaching strategies.

Moreover, Mukharjee (2004) highlighted that teachers must first understand and appreciate the value of corpus data in addressing their teaching challenges before adopting more sophisticated, learner-centred activities. Challenges such as syllabus integration and the limited involvement and contributions of non-researcher language teachers in corpus-based practices remain significant barriers to normalizing corpus use. As Pérez-Paredes (2022: 36) notes, further theorization is required for DDL and corpora to have a meaningful impact on mainstream second language education. Additionally, researchers are identified as the primary stakeholders in DDL utilization, a conclusion backed by evidence that 94% of surveyed studies occurred in university settings, where researchers likely benefit from more straightforward access to data samples (Pérez-Paredes 2022).

The role of ESP teachers is crucial, particularly in university environments where collaboration with fellow researchers is readily facilitated (unless of course they are involved in research themselves). The need for effective application of corpus data in teaching and advancing DDL practices towards *normalisation* requires both ESP teachers and researchers to make concerted efforts in training and introducing other ESP or language teachers to corpora and corpus literacy. This paper outlines strategies for incorporating corpus data into language teaching to enhance corpus literacy training and promote DDL *normalization*, enhancing corpus literacy training. By addressing the gap identified by Pérez-Paredes (2019) between theoretical corpus linguistics and practical classroom application, it proposes tools, resources, and strategies to empower teachers in effectively integrating corpora into their instructional practices.

2.3.2. Normalization

Easing the *integration* of corpus linguistics into teachers' lessons is closely related to the concept of normalization, initially defined by Bax (2003: 23) as "the stage when the technology becomes invisible, embedded in everyday practice and hence normalised." Later, Bax (2011) revisited this definition, refining the concept. Bax's implicit hypothesis on the concept of normalization posits that "technology has reached its fullest possible effectiveness in language education […], as a valuable element in the language learning process," when it becomes an unobtrusive, integrated part of the learning process.

Pérez-Paredes et al. (2022) emphasize in their study that although approximately 70% of language teachers (in Spain and the UK) incorporate online plat-

forms or web-based services into their teaching, only a small number are familiar with using L1 corpora or learner corpora in language instruction. Moreover, Leńko-Szymańska (2017) observed a one-semester course within an MA program, conducted over five consecutive years from 2011 to 2016, and concluded that it was insufficient for trainees to adequately develop technical Corpus linguistics and pedagogical skills. The course spanned thirteen to fifteen 90-minute class sessions and covered three modules throughout the course[5], however trainees still did not manage to become autonomous corpus users, and educators proficient in corpus application (Leńko-Szymańska 2017: 234).

In Bax's terms (2003, 2011), this suggests that the trainees did not achieve normalization. The technology had neither been seamlessly integrated into language education nor reached its fullest potential effectiveness, failing to become an essential component of the learning process. According to Bax (2003: 22–23), the integrated CALL approach epitomizes normalization, where technology is omnipresent and unobtrusively woven into daily educational activities, transcending its status as a topic of debate. However, Bax (2003: 22) asserts that achieving this integration requires treating computers as an essential, though not central, component of the learning environment, meaning they should complement rather than dominate language lessons.

2.4. Corpus tools usage in DDL language education

As previously highlighted, teachers play a crucial role in facilitating students' learning through the use of corpora and DDL. However, recent studies show no or low use of corpora. Vyatkina and Boulton (2017: 67) explain that there are two DDL formats that teachers can employ for pedagogical interventions. DDL exploration can be either *hands-off* – involving indirect applications through teacher-prepared corpus-based materials – or *hands-on* – engaging students in direct exploration of corpora. In regards to autonomy, teacher-constructed concordance tasks (e.g. Vincent 2013, as cited in Charles 2022) offer less autonomy, whereas discovery learning (e.g. Bernardini 2002, as cited in Charles 2022) promotes greater student autonomy. It could also present any combination of the two styles (Vyatkina & Boulton 2017: 67).

Flowerdew (2009) and Kennedy (2008) highlight the underexplored question of which resource – corpus, grammar guide, or dictionary – is most effective for addressing specific linguistic inquiries. For instance, Kennedy (2008) notes that

[5] Corpora in Foreign Language Teaching, offered by the Institute of Applied Linguistics at the University of Warsaw.

dictionaries might better clarify differences between terms like 'tall' and 'high' than corpora. However, Bernardini (2004: 43) highlights that teachers often either fail to recognize semantic differences altogether or, when they do, are unable to articulate these nuances and their usage effectively. This issue becomes even more pronounced for learners whose native language does not distinguish between such terms, as seen with Chinese students struggling with 'tall' and 'high'.

Consequently, this highlights a significant research gap in understanding how resources, learning processes, and teaching activities interact and influence learning goals and outcomes (Bernardini 2004: 31). Consequently, this reveals a significant research gap in understanding how resources, learning processes, and teaching activities interact and influence learning goals and outcomes (Bernandini 2004: 31). Addressing this gap requires further exploration to delineate the optimal applications of linguistic resources for effective language learning.

3. TOOLS AND RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS

This section is devoted to informing about some state-of-the-art tools and resources that are user-friendly and easily accessible, enabling the choice of the most appropriate ones for teaching objectives and maximizing the educational advantages of corpora and DDL in the classroom. In DDL, concordancing serves as a pivotal tool for exposing learners to authentic language use, enabling them to explore and analyse linguistic patterns directly from real-world texts. The most common format for concordance lines is KWIC[6] (Key Word In Context). It is a computer-generated index which displays a selected word or phrase in the middle of the display, *the node* [italics – M.A.] with the text forming its context on either side. Beyond concordancing, DDL utilizes various tools including corpus query software (e.g. AntConc, Sketch Engine, LacsBox), collocation dictionaries (e.g. Ozdic), frequency list generators (Just the word, SkeLL, WebCorp), keyword analysis and n-gram tools (SketchEngine), corpus platforms (CorpusMate, WebCorp), online corpora (e.g. British National Corpus, COCA) accessible in english-corpora.org, all aimed at facilitating the exploration of authentic language use and patterns.

Collocation dictionaries, such as Ozdic, simplify the process of finding common word combinations. Concordancers, such as Just the word and SkeLL help learners understand word usage in context, with WebCorp offering real-time

[6] The term KWIC traces back to Hans Peter Luhn's (1896–1964) work in the late 1950s at IBM, where he developed indexing methods for information retrieval, leading to the alignment of keywords (Stubbs 2007: 318). The adoption of KWIC concordances by linguists quickly followed, with concordance packages available by the mid-1960s (Stubbs 2007: 318).

corpus data from the web. CorpusMate, Fraze.it and Flax stand out for their unique exploration features. A prominent feature of CorpusMate is generating a concordance for a specific discipline (e.g. science, culture, arts, music, chemistry, education, law, etc.). It offers a "compare results" between disciplines functionality and a "pattern finder" displaying left or right context of the word in search. Fraze.it offers learners a wealth of options, among them, results of authentic sentences from British newspapers, as well as a function of video outcomes of TED lectures. The Flax online tool highlights essential components of academic texts, including academic vocabulary, key concepts, common collocations, and lexical bundles (Wu, Fitzgerald & Franken 2019), leveraging large corpora like the British National Corpus and COCA for deep linguistic insights. Unique in its offering, Compleat Lexical Tutor (v.8) provides a suite of tools for ESL educators, focusing on effective vocabulary instruction through various online resources tailored for both teaching and research purposes.

For advanced users engaged in corpus analysis, software like AntConc provides robust text analysis capabilities, while Sketch Engine offers comprehensive keyword analysis tools. LancsBox appeals for its user-friendly interface for corpus exploration, and WordSmith Tools specializes in detailed linguistic investigations.

4. TOWARDS A TRAINING MODEL FOR TEACHERS

Developing a DDL course on corpus usage for educators is inherently complex; DDL is at the intersection of corpora, teachers, and learners, representing a collaborative and interactive space where learners actively engage with corpora. In this environment, learners may receive varying levels of guidance, from minimal to substantial, depending on their proficiency, with the most advanced reaching a stage of autonomy. The DDL setting facilitates a dynamic, symbiotic as well as reciprocal relationship that optimizes language learning by harnessing "corpus-linguistics skills and get to know various corpus resources in their foreign language" (Leńko-Szymańska 2017: 234). Essentially, the goal is to equip teachers with the skills to efficiently teach corpus-based methods to their students, fostering both "computer and cognitive skills" essential for corpus exploitations, but also recognizing its value in learning, thus improving the educational process. As Breyer (2011) highlights, if teacher trainees can grasp "corpora's potential for their own learning" (Breyer 2011: 230), then this may intrinsically motivate them to incorporate corpus analysis in their teaching careers, equipping them to navigate and tackle the challenges inherent in this method.

The proposed model is based on previous theoretical underpinnings and research by Kennedy and Miceli (2017), Quinn (2015), Carter and McCarthy (1995), Flowerdew (2009), Crosthwaite et al. (2021) and McEnery and Xiao (2011). Kennedy and Miceli (2017) introduce two notions to help the learner cultivate effective corpus use – "to enrich the content and language of a text through what we call *pattern-hunting*, and to edit a text for lexico-grammatical accuracy through *pattern-refining*" (Kennedy & Miceli 2017: 93, italics in original). By introducing students to pattern-hunting, Kennedy and Miceli (2017) teach students to explore a "corpus for ideas and language patterns – i.e. groups of words – to borrow, adapting them as necessary" (Kennedy & Miceli 2017: 94), which is exploratory in nature. Later in their apprenticeship students are introduced to *pattern-refining* work, meant to teach "ways of editing [...] text for lexico-grammatical accuracy" (Kennedy & Miceli 2017: 94). The pattern-refining stage involves open-ended questions, and is problem-solving in nature. The technique almost always involves searching for a word or combination of words (Kennedy & Miceli 2017: 94), with the goal of enhancing their students' awareness and recognition of language often being composed of "prefabricated chunks" sourced "from a kind of mental database of formulaic language" (Lewis 1996, as cited in Kennedy & Miceli 2017: 94).

Quinn (2015), in her scholarly work, proposes an 'introduction' to initiate an L2 training course as beneficial for someone's training, underscoring the value that a structured introductory phase could offer to demystify corpus usage and facilitate its integration into educational practices. Quinn (2015) and Boulton (2009) suggest that not all teachers and students are knowledgeable regarding corpora and corpus consultation, and thus lack of sufficient training poses a major barrier (Breyer 2006; Boulton 2009). However, Sinclair (2004) suggests that "with only a modest few hours of orientation", "both teacher and student can make use of a corpus right away" (Sinclair 2004: 288). In Quinn's (2015: 165) research, teachers are guided "in preparing intermediate L2 writers for learner concordancing, so they can offer students an alternative reference" to the traditional dictionary usage. In her L2 DDL training course, Quinn suggests initiating the course by introducing the students to basic corpora knowledge. Quinn (2015) thus divides the training course into two distinct parts: Stage 1 and Stage 2. The initial five lessons focus on General Learner Training, covering the essence of what a corpus is and the rationale behind its use and also preparing students with paper-based activities, and starting online corpus searches. This stage provides the basics of corpus referencing (Quinn 2015: 166), and may potentially assist any learner comprehend the rationale behind corpus consultation, thus making the whole process more conscious, while motivating attendance and anticipation for what follows. The next ten classes focus on writing, practising essay revisions,

through corpus practices and teaching students how to use concordancing for essay improvement.

English language teachers at large may face challenges and apprehension in integrating concordancing tools into language learning (Boulton 2009). While corpora are a staple in research settings, their application in the classroom is less common, and teachers might lack basic knowledge of corpus linguistics (Boulton 2009). Lack of such specialised knowledge, though, is critical for ESP teachers, who could greatly enhance their disciplinary instruction and lexico-grammatical nuances through corpora. Corpora can aid the L2 writing process by providing support at the discourse level offering a broader context, "in contrast to the isolated dictionary entries that many intermediate writers rely on" (Quinn 2015: 165). However, teachers unfamiliar with concordancing may hesitate to use it, due to concerns about their lack of expertise or perceived misalignment with their instructional methods. This highlights a gap between the potential benefits of corpus tools and their practical application in language education. The present theoretical model, thus suggests the incorporation of a structured 'introduction', where any trainee is familiarized with corpora through inquiries such as 'What does a corpus consist of?', 'What do corpus data look like?', 'What information can be learnt?', and 'How does a corpus compare to bilingual dictionaries?' exploring basic but crucial corpus notions (Quinn 2015). Subsequently, they can engage in analysis, contrasting the insights obtainable from both a bilingual dictionary and a corpus, as discussed in Quinn's study (2015).

Further, Carter and McCarthy (1995) devised the "three Is" strategy (Illustration-Interaction-Induction) as a more effective alternative to the traditional "three Ps" (Presentation-Practice-Production), intended for teaching spoken grammar, emphasizing the use of real data to navigate the subtleties of conversational English, such as ellipsis and topicalization. Their analysis of pedagogical grammars revealed inconsistencies in the treatment of grammatical features, from adequate to entirely omitted. Advocating for real spoken data to enhance classroom language awareness and inductive learning, they highlighted that the only prerequisite for such practices is the need for curiosity, access to authentic data, and a drive for discovery in language education (Carter & McCarthy 1995).

Moreover, McEnery and Xiao (2011) suggest that the "three Is" strategy, initially devised by Carter and McCarthy (1995) for teaching spoken grammar, could be effectively extended to encompass broader language education contexts. Additionally, McEnery and Xiao (2011: 36) report on the corresponding features between Carter and McCarthy's (1995) "three Is" teaching approach and Johns' (1991b) triptych framework of Data-Driven Learning (DDL) – observation (of concordanced evidence), classification (of salient features) and generaliza-

tion (of rules) – with a shared emphasis on inductive reasoning, illustrating approaches that promote active, evidence-based learning processes. Hence, the congruence of these models lies not just in their sequential stages – observing concordanced data, classifying salient features, and generalizing rules in DDL, paralleling illustration, interaction, and induction in the "three Is" – but also in their foundational principles, rooted in the methodologies' mutual advocacy for an empirical approach to language learning. As such, both Carter and McCarthy's (1995) and Johns' (1991) approaches encourage learners to derive linguistic rules from authentic data, fostering deeper cognitive engagement and a more nuanced understanding of language patterns. Consequently, this dynamic, learner-focused methodology, which emphasizes knowledge construction through direct engagement with authentic linguistic evidence, proves exceptionally suited to the intricacies of ESP and EAP lexicogrammar. This alignment not only facilitates a deeper exploration of language patterns but also critically enhances learners' ability to navigate and apply complex linguistic structures within their specific academic or professional contexts.

Furthermore, Carter and McCarthy's (1995) model was enriched by Flowerdew's (2009) proposition. Flowerdew (2009: 407) suggested an optional fourth "I" is needed between interaction and induction, that of "intervention," allowing "for finer-tuning of corpus queries." The stage of intervention can be crucial in the process of inducing phraseological tendencies, addressing students' difficulties with the complex semantic relationships revealed through concordancing, as it provides students with hints or clues. This added stage then facilitates a smoother transition across the inductive-deductive continuum (Flowerdew 2009: 407). While we acknowledge that corpora are valuable for phraseological inquiries, the language bridging lexis and grammar is not always straightforwardly accessible from traditional resources like grammars or dictionaries, and this is exactly where intervention can serve in assisting students in making connections between meanings, which is especially crucial for those who may not have the advanced language skills required to independently decipher the nuanced semantic relationships within corpus data (Flowerdew 2009: 407–408). Consequently, according to Flowerdew (2009: 408), this revised approach recognizes challenges, especially for novice speakers or those with limited linguistic proficiency, in navigating the intricate interplay of lexis and grammar; aspects that may not always be clearly or explicitly conveyed in dictionaries.

Expanding on Quinn (2015), Carter and McCarthy's (1995) and Flowerdew's (2009) frameworks in DDL, the introduction of a sixth "I," "integration," could significantly enhance teacher training courses. This concept is suggested for the systematic blending of corpus insights into the broader teaching context,

ensuring these insights support the objectives of language education. Hence "integration" aims to contextualize corpus findings within the curriculum – not as an isolated component, but as a coherent part of language teaching – thereby reinforcing the connection between empirical language analysis and seamless practical language use, as well as enhancing the relevance and application of corpus studies to real-world language usage. The integration stage was conceptualized and incorporated in response to findings from an initial corpus-based analysis, which identified a significant gap in existing DDL frameworks (see Figure 1). The corpus was compiled using WebBootCaT in Sketch Engine with the following seed words: "corpus-linguistics," "corpus," "Data-Driven Learning," "instruction," "teacher training," and "ESP." It was then manually cleaned to retain only relevant articles. This preliminary corpus, compiled to examine patterns of DDL implementation, revealed the lack of a structured and systematic integration phase in teacher training models. While researchers increasingly emphasize embedding DDL into curricula and English language instruction, integration as an explicit, scaffolded phase remains largely absent from existing frameworks. These findings underscore the need for a systematic approach to integration, which will be further examined in a forthcoming article (Ammari, forthcoming). By addressing this oversight, the integration phase enhances the progression of training by bridging theoretical constructs with practical implementation, thereby ensuring a cohesive and sustainable application of DDL within educational settings. As mentioned earlier, integration into normalization, as outlined by Bax (2003, 2011), occurs when technology becomes an invisible, seamlessly integrated part of educational practice, fully enhancing language learning. This transition requires that corpus linguistics and other digital tools are embedded within daily teaching activities, making them indispensable, without, however, overwhelming the pedagogical context. Achieving such integration, as demonstrated by the limited uptake of corpus tools among language teachers (Pérez-Paredes et al. 2018) and the challenges faced by trainees in becoming proficient users (Leńko-Szymańska 2017), is crucial for technology to reach its full potential in language education.

Thus, by positioning *integration* as a core component of teacher training focused on DDL, this approach emphasizes the shift from simple corpus data exploration data to its practical and integrated seamless application in teaching, aiming for a pedagogical model that merges corpus linguistics with diverse teaching methods to both deepen students' language understanding and enhance instructional approaches. It is hereby suggested that such a strategy would advocate a comprehensive pedagogical framework that integrates corpus linguistics with diverse instructional techniques, and bridges a gap between theory and practice, thereby enriching students' language comprehension and

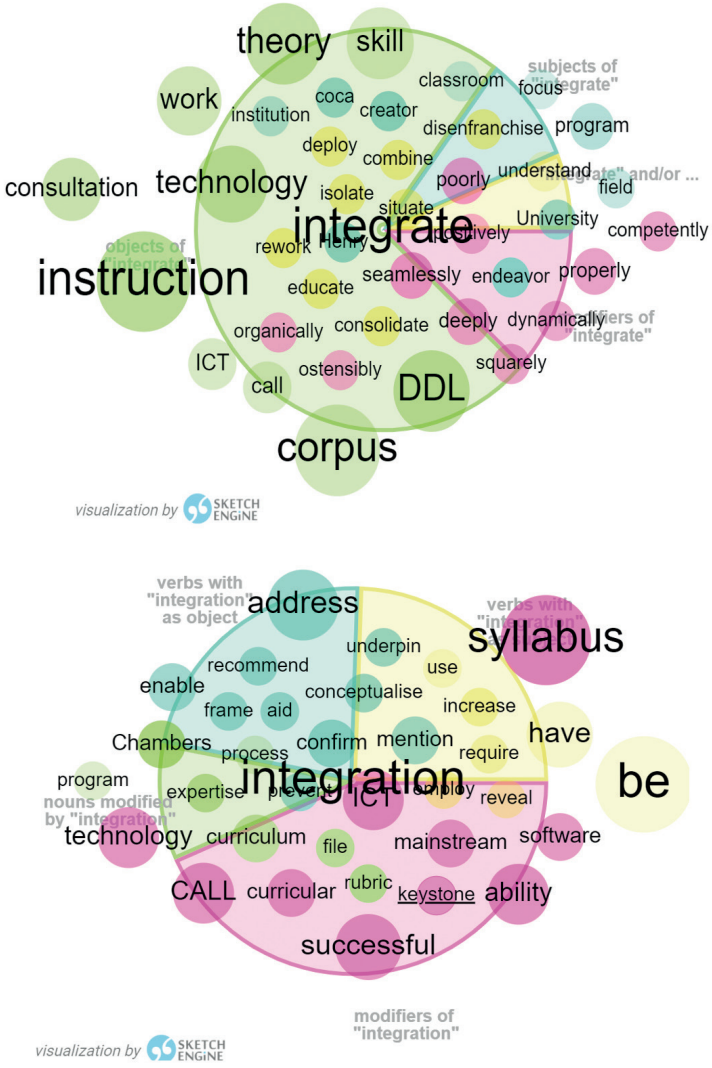

Figure 1. Visualisation of "integrate" and "integration"

Source: corpus (1,277,668 words) of DDL research articles.

refining teachers' pedagogical strategies. The underexplored terrain of matching specific linguistic resources to particular linguistic queries is echoed by Flowerdew (2009: 410) who notes that the question of which resource – be it a corpus, grammar, dictionary, or other – is most suited for specific linguistic inquiries has not been extensively examined in existing research.

5. A PROPOSAL FOR AN ESP TEACHER TRAINING MODEL

Expanding upon Flowerdew's (2009) insights on the optimal linguistic tools for specific inquiries, this paper explores how integrating DDL activities and aligning them with specific tools across the learning phases of the "six Is" framework can enhance the efficacy of these stages. This alignment may well delineate a clear progression of learning activities, ultimately boosting greater learner engagement and comprehension. As a result, the theoretical structured framework proposed by this study employs tools and corpus applications across the learning phases – *introduction, illustration, interaction, induction, intervention and integration* – making the argument for a more targeted and thoughtful application of resources and enhancing the pedagogical strategy.

Considering the above insights, initially, the *introduction* (Quinn 2015) part of a DDL training course could include an overview of corpus linguistics, its significance, and basic operations, alongside hands-off activities like paper-based sample activities (e.g. as in Figure 2, which can be provided as a printout) and demonstrations of online corpus searches, laying the groundwork for corpus referencing. At this stage, corpus searches could be performed with a user-friendly tool especially suitable for novice users. Further, in the *illustration* phase, tools such as concordancers can help demonstrate language patterns and usage, providing clear examples for learners, and can, therefore, serve to construct basic knowledge and functional understanding of corpus tools.

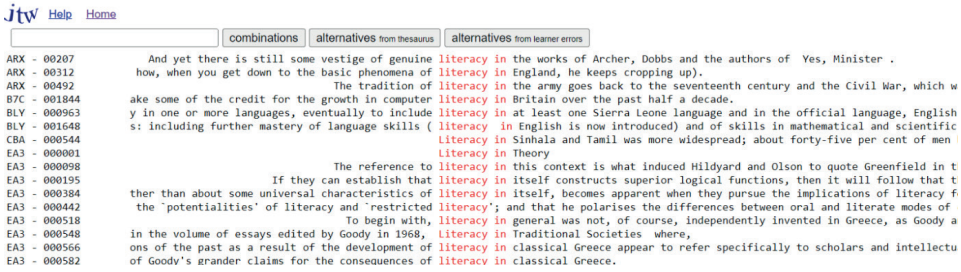

Figure 2. Concordance of the word "Literacy" through Just-the-word tool for Illustration Phase

Source: corpus (1,277,668 words) of DDL research articles.

Regarding the phase of *interaction*, corpus analysis tools may enable students to interactively engage directly with real language data, fostering active exploration and discovery, and engagement with authentic language scenarios, laying the groundwork for the later stages of corpus referencing and application in tasks such as essay revisions and enhancing basic knowledge through

interactive corpus analysis. At this stage, learners could also start exploring their own searches beyond the ones suggested (curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, interactive, inclusive, collaborative) in the sample activities in Table 1.

Table 1. DDL material initiating corpus analysis through Interaction Phase

WORKSHEET: Exploring Educational Terminology 1
Interaction Phase: Engaging with Corpus Data *Sample Activity 1:* Objective: Learn to formulate and refine corpus queries to investigate language use. Explore terms: curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, interactive, inclusive, collaborative 1. In pairs, select three of these educational terms and explore their concordances using a corpus tool. Each pair chooses one corpus tool for exploration (SkeLL, WebCorp, CorpusMate) – Which contexts or phrases are these terms most frequently associated with? – Are they part of specific educational theories or models? 2. Share and discuss your findings with other pairs, then present your findings in class. *Sample Activity 2*: Objective: Learn to formulate and refine corpus queries to investigate language use. In groups, perform queries in different tools to compare the usage of "formative assessment" vs. "summative assessment." Discuss the findings and their implications for teaching and learning.

Source: own study.

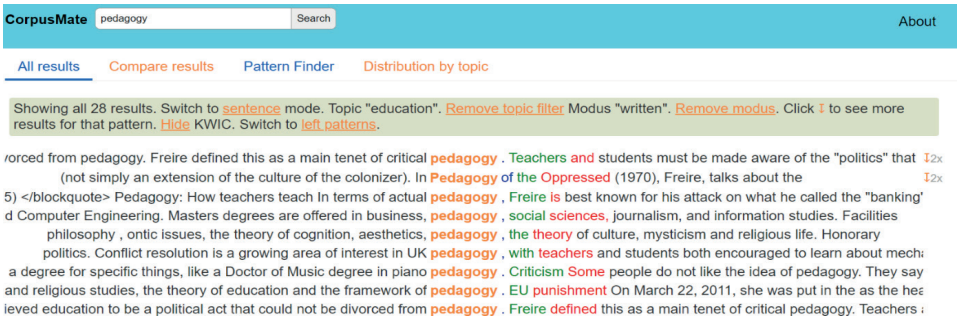

Figure 3. Concordance of the word "pedagogy"

Source: CorpusMate tool for Interaction Phase.

Moving on to the *induction* Phase, learners can utilize software that allows for detailed corpus querying, enabling them to independently make inferences about language rules and patterns. The induction phase "stands for making one's own, or the learning group's rule for a particular feature, a rule which will be refined and honed as more and more

data is encountered" (Carter & McCarthy 1995: 28), thus seamlessly moving to more refined vocabulary acquisition (Table 2), before culminating in the intervention and integration phase.

Table 2. DDL material-Deepening Linguistic Insight through Induction Phase

WORKSHEET: Exploring Educational Terminology 2
Induction Phase: Deepening Linguistic Insight – Objective: Investigate the collocational relationships of *student engagement* in educational discourse. – Approach: Examine the broader lexical context of *student engagement* by identifying words and phrases frequently associated with this term. – Sample Activity: Use Just-the-word to analyse and retrieve a detailed collocation report of *student engagement*. Identify verbs, adjectives, and related nouns that frequently co-occur with this term, and discuss the implications of these associations for strategies aimed at enhancing student participation.

Source: own study.

Next, the *intervention* phase, as suggested by Flowerdew (2009) is crucial in pedagogy, enabling educators to tailor their learning by addressing specific challenges or misunderstandings. Intervention thus, is able to facilitate personalized feedback and guidance, aiding learners in understanding complex language nuances. Through targeted interventions, educators can enhance the transition from theoretical learning to practical application, reinforcing students' mastery of language patterns and usage as in Table 3. As Flowerdew proposes (2009: 407), difficulties encountered by students while inducing phraseological tendencies can be remedied through "clues and prompts […] to mediate the inductive ↔ deductive continuum." As a result, the implementation of "a more delicate approach to corpus queries would help to reduce some of the difficulties associated with interpretation for students" (Flowerdew 2009: 407). As an example, in the suggested worksheet, I used the lexical verb *synthesize*. In the proposed worksheet, the lexical verb "synthesize" may be used as an example, illustrating its diverse application across lexical bundles with distinct register and genre variations across academic disciplines, as in the examples: "synthesize findings" (Data Analysis), "synthesize findings" (Research), "synthesize the main arguments" (Literature Review / Discussion), "synthesize a new compound" (Chemistry), "synthesize data" (Environmental Science), "synthesize accounts" (History), "teachers synthesize instructional strategies" (Pedagogy in Education), "synthesize observations" (Psychology), and finally, "synthesize market trends, consumer feedback, and competitive analysis" (Business).

Finally, in the *integration* phase, digital platforms facilitate the creation and sharing of corpus-based projects, enabling learners to apply their accumulated insights from earlier phases in new authentic communicative practices (see Table 4). Concluding, the proposed framework (Table 5) demonstrates the strategic incorporation of educational tools, directly supporting trainers and teachers, while indirectly benefiting learners by effectively bridging the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical application, thereby positioning the framework for future impact and further development.

Table 3. DDL material initiating corpus analysis through intervention phase

WORKSHEET: Exploring Educational Terminology 3
Intervention: Tailoring Pedagogical Practice – Objective: Customize teaching strategies by using specific corpus findings, facilitating personalized learning experiences that address the unique challenges of learners. – Approach: Use corpus-based activities for targeted feedback and guidance to resolve linguistic challenges and enhance language application skills. Tools: Corpus Mate, Compleat Lexical tutor, AntConc – Example Activity: Learners are presented with corpus examples of the lexical verb *synthesize* in various contexts. Analyse the examples to understand its use, then practice creating sentences or short paragraphs that correctly use *synthesize*, catering to their specific field of study. Review examples of 'differentiated instruction' from Flax and design an activity that incorporates these insights, aiming to meet diverse learner needs.

Source: own study.

Table 4. DDL material-applying insights in ESP teaching through integration phase

WORKSHEET: Exploring Educational Terminology 4
Integration: Applying Insights in ESP Teaching – Objective: Incorporate corpus insights into practical teaching materials. – Approach: Develop or refine educational materials using corpus analysis tools. – Sample Activity 1: Based on corpus findings from SketchEngine, AntConc or CorpusMate on the collocational behaviour of 'development', create a lesson plan that includes authentic examples and activities to clarify the concept, as used in the *Pedagogy in Education* discipline. – Sample activity 2: Disambiguating Collocational Behaviour of three synonymous verbs. Explore and clarify the distinct collocational patterns associated of the verbs "attain," "accomplish," and "achieve" as used in *Pedagogy in Education* discipline, through corpus analysis.

Source: own study.

Table 5. Suggested Training Framework – "six Is"

Learning Phase	Contributing scholar	Corpus Tools/ Practices	Instructional activities	Goals
Introduction	Quinn (2015)	No tools required	Readings/Power Point Presentation	Developing a basic understanding of corpora
Illustration	Carter and McCarthy (1995)	SkeLL, Just the word, Flax, CorpusMate, WebCorp	Illustration of paper-based, *hands-off*, activities Pattern hunting	Gaining insight into corpus Functionality and language patterns
Interaction	Carter and McCarthy (1995) Kennedy and Miceli (2017)	Just the word, Flax, CorpusMate, WebCorp	Collocation / colligation Interactive activities, concordance analysis	Engagement with real language Discovering usage patterns, Pattern hunting
Induction	Carter and McCarthy (1995) Kennedy and Miceli (2017)	Just-the-Word, Corpus Mate, Flax, WebCorp, Compleat Lexical Tutor, No Sketch Engine, Sketch Engine, LancsBox, AntConc	Engaging with corpora for direct language pattern analysis	Enhanced engagement and identification of word associations / Patterns, pattern hunting
Intervention	Flowerdew (2009) Kennedy and Miceli (2017)	Flax, WebCorp, Compleat Lexical Tutor, No Sketch Engine, Sketch Engine, LancsBox, AntConc	Facilitated discussion and critical analysis of corpus findings	Strengthened corpus analytical skills, Corpus literacy, Pattern refining
Integration	Ammari (2025)	Integration of learned tools	Application of corpus insights to language-related, real-world tasks	Application of corpus insights into language tasks

Source: own study.

6. CONCLUSION

Corpus usage has revolutionized ESP and EAP by providing authentic language data, assisting in vocabulary selection, facilitating discourse analysis, revealing collocational patterns, aiding register and genre awareness, and supporting a learner-centred approach. These advancements have had a great impact

on language teaching and learning in specialized professional and academic contexts, enabling instructors to align with real-world demands.

This paper has suggested a theoretically grounded, phase-oriented DDL framework designed to address the practical and pedagogical barriers preventing ESP teachers from effectively incorporating corpus-based resources into their teaching. By detailing a progressive model aligned with the "6 Is" outlined framework, the study presents a structured developmental pathway for teachers to build the necessary corpus-related competencies in a systematic and scaffolded manner to ensure effective DDL integration into teaching practice. Through carefully sequenced instructional activities, this framework facilitates sustainable and accessible corpus-based ESP pedagogy, equipping teachers with the tools needed to navigate technical and methodological challenges.

Positioned at the intersection of ESP and DDL, the framework underscores the role of targeted, customized teacher training that mirrors the needs-based approach of ESP itself. By aligning the learning phases – from introduction to integration – with corpus tools and strategies, the framework fosters progressive mastery of corpus methodologies, ultimately empowering teachers to transition towards autonomy in corpus-based instruction. The addition of the final *integration* phase, in particular, aims to bridge the gap between corpus theory and classroom application, supporting the normalization of corpus-based methodologies in ESP instruction. The sample activities serve as illustrative examples, demonstrating potential strategies for incorporating DDL skills into teaching. They guide the progressive adoption of DDL techniques, enabling ESP educators to achieve autonomy, integration, and normalization and effectively transfer these skills to their students.

Finally, this paper contributes to the growing body of literature on corpus linguistics by proposing a framework that, while promising, requires empirical validation to confirm its efficacy. Fully realizing the potential of corpus-based instruction, however, requires collaborative efforts among instructors, researchers, and learners, ensuring institutional support and quality assurance mechanisms (Belcher 2006). Such collaboration embeds quality assurance within institutional frameworks and bridges the gaps identified in the literature. Future research directions could, therefore, focus on assessing the effectiveness of this DDL framework within ESP contexts, and explore its impact on DDL teacher development and student learning outcomes in applied contexts.

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Nauczanie języka angielskiego do celów zawodowych poprzez DDL: ustrukturyzowane ramy szkoleniowe

Abstrakt. Badanie ukazuje potrzebę włączenia językoznawstwa korpusowego do nauczania języka angielskiego do celów zawodowych, wskazując na duży, choć niedostatecznie wykorzystywany potencjał tego podejścia. Ograniczone zastosowanie korpusów często wynika z braku przygotowania nauczycieli, co podkreśla konieczność rozwoju odpowiednich kompetencji i dostosowania dydaktyki do zróżnicowanych potrzeb językowych uczących się. W artykule zaproponowano zintegrowany model kształcenia, oparty na koncepcji „3I" Cartera i McCarthy'ego (1995) i rozszerzonej wersji „4I" Flowerdewa (2009), rozbudowany do „6I", który równoważy podejście indukcyjne i dedukcyjne. Badanie pokazuje, jak specjalistyczne szkolenia umożliwiają skuteczne wdrażanie Data-Driven Learning (DDL) oraz integrację analiz korpusowych w procesie dydaktycznym. Przedstawione rozwiązania wspierają rozwój zawodowy nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych,

wzmacniając ich kompetencje w zakresie pracy z materiałami korpusowymi. Zaproponowany model kształcenia stanowi narzędzie ułatwiające efektywne wykorzystanie korpusów w nauczaniu oraz wpisuje się w bieżącą debatę dotyczącą normalizacji dydaktyki korpusowej i modernizacji szkoleń dla nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: językoznawstwo korpusowe, data-driven learning, szkolenie nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych, nauczanie indukcyjne i dedukcyjne, model szkoleniowy „6I".

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Academic writing skills in the eyes of university students of English and their teachers

Abstract. Developing academic writing skills can often be seen as daunting, both for students and teachers, despite the fact that writing academic texts is an indispensable part of academic achievement. This problem, however, has not been sufficiently addressed in the literature. Thus, the main aim of the study was to explore the English philology university students' and their teachers' beliefs regarding academic writing skills in general and their experiences with writing academic texts in particular, as well as their attitudes toward the subject itself. The secondary aim was to see to what extent the students' opinions correspond with their teachers' perspective. There were three research questions: (1) What is the English students' attitude towards academic writing in general? (2) What do the students expect from an academic writing course? (3) What is the English teachers' perspective on and experience with teaching academic writing? In an effort to answer these questions a diagnostic survey was administered to both English university students (N = 67) and their teachers (N = 15), inquiring about their beliefs, experiences and attitudes. The results confirmed the hypothesis that academic writing is a challenging subject for both students and teachers alike – while the teachers struggle with formulating clear and viable objectives, the students struggle with a number of issues, from text analysis to motivation. In general, the attitudes toward academic writing can be classified as predominantly negative. The results of this mini-project are hoped to give a better insight into the needs and attitudes of both English students and their teachers towards academic writing and might help in identifying possible room for improvement in teaching academic writing skills.

Keywords: academic writing, academic discourse, higher education.

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing, as a skill, is a complex and multilayered process that mobilizes resources and requires specific competences of a language learner. The end product of a writing process, which typically involves preparation, drafting and revision, should lead to a coherent text written within the conventions of a specific genre. Still, the primary objective of writing is not only to produce a text, but also to communicate a real message, by encoding it through the written communication channel.

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It is undeniable that the ability to write academic texts is a crucial competence that is needed to effectively communicate ideas to the academic community. More importantly, an academic writing course is a subject that serves as a foundation for achieving the ultimate academic experience, as it introduces students to the new level of proficiency and requires skills that help them understand the essence of what it means to truly study a subject. Therefore, it seems interesting to explore whether this observation is shared by the new generation of English philology students and their teachers. The aim of the study presented in this article is, thus, to explore the beliefs and attitudes towards academic writing among the students and teachers of English philology in Poland.

2. CONCEPTUALISING ACADEMIC WRITING

Before delving into the intricacies of what makes academic writing a challenging skill to develop, it is important to state what academic writing constitutes as well as how it is defined and conceptualised by different scholars. Academic writing can be viewed from three distinct angles.

The first perspective on conceptualising academic writing takes a more formal approach, where the emphasis is placed on the rules, norms and conventions that govern the process of producing an academic text. Academic writing is thus reduced to a mere list of lexical and grammatical structures that are used to convey messages in an academic context. As an example, Hundarenko (2019) compiled a list of common mistakes made by 50 Ukrainian and Slovak academic writing students as a way to help teachers address such problematic cases, oftentimes related to grammar and sentence structure, in their courses. Indeed, focus on form and structure is in the centre of this category of definitions of academic writing, which represents what Hardwood and Hadley (2003) call a pragmatic approach to teaching English, as it focuses on the formal requirements of an academic text. Thonney (2011) attempted to provide characteristic features of the academic discourse by analysing 24 research articles to identify common, universal features of academic writing that constitute the academic genre. Six key academic writing conventions emerged from the analysis: 1) referencing other authors, 2) establishing the aim of the text, 3) using tentative language, 4) adopting the position of authority, 5) using phrases characteristic for the academic genre, and 6) grounding their writing in evidence. These conventions could serve as guidelines for academic teachers and their students in helping them develop academic writing skills. From this perspective, academic writing is taught according to the controlled writing methodology, which stresses accuracy and drills (Bacha 2002). In other words, academic writing is characterised

by the use of a different mode of communication, and the students are expected to cross the "lexical bar", defined as a "barrier that students need to transcend in order to move successfully from everyday ways of expressing meaning to the specialized, 'high-status' academic language" (Coxhead & Byrd 2007: 132).

The second category of definitions views academic writing through the prism of the reading-writing connection. From this perspective, writing is seen as a two-stage process, with deconstructing a text as the first stage, i.e. reading, and then reconstructing the text, i.e. writing (Badley 2009). Here, the emphasis is put on how academic texts are structured and why (Hyland 2008: 547), which corresponds with the rhetorical approach to writing, focusing on different types of pieces of writing and the sociocultural factors affecting those differences (Bacha 2002). Thus, teaching academic writing skills requires activating students' schemas (Hyland 2008) in an effort to accurately capture the meaning of the texts read by students, by means of synthesizing, paraphrasing and summarizing.

Finally, the third perspective accentuates the socio-cultural dimension of academic writing, as embedded in social constructivism. The process of producing academic texts is much more than using formal register and knowing the types of composition – it is seen as a social practice that connects the writer with the academic community; in other words, an academic text is seen as a way of communicating symbolic meaning (see Hyland 2008; Romova & Andrew 2011). Romova and Andrew (2011) compare the development of academic writing skills to learning about a new "culture", with distinct norms and conventions that need to be followed in order to be "accepted" by the community. In the Polish academic context, Niżegorodcew (2010) emphasizes the role of a supervisor in writing a diploma paper, claiming that this process allows students to form new identities and become members of the academic community. Indeed, academic writing can be seen as the act of identity formation, a process investigated also in the Polish academic context (see, e.g. Lehman 2014; Hryniuk 2018; Furman & Aleksandrzak 2023).

From the students' perspective, it all happens in negotiation and interaction with the supervisor, which points to the social dimension of academic writing. Indeed, according to Badley (2009), developing academic writing skills should involve discovery, dialogue and increased agency in taking control over the discourse. This socio-cultural dimension of academic writing aligns with the critical approach to teaching English for Academic Purposes in the sense that it recognises and addresses the dominance of the Anglo-Saxon academic discourse (Romova & Andrew 2011) in an attempt to promote more transformative and socially-constructed discourse (Harwood & Hadley 2003), where knowledge is not merely transmitted, but it is also exercised in, what Elton (2010: 152) calls, *tacit knowledge* (i.e. knowing in action).

3. WHAT MAKES ACADEMIC WRITING A CHALLENGING SKILL TO DEVELOP

The list of reasons why writing is such an unpopular and neglected skill is long (more in Łompieś 2018: 141). This problem should be considered from two perspectives: that of students and that of educators teaching academic writing.

Academic writing students are said to be struggling with the subject (Watson 2010), especially with understanding what is expected of them in an academic writing course (Elton 2010). Similarly, Grabowska and Zapłotna (2021: 127) observed that the students struggle with understanding the aims and purpose of writing activities. Different factors have been identified that might contribute to the issue, one of them being a negative experience with writing in high school (Chokwe 2013) and this negative experience impacting their attitudes towards writing (Fernsten & Reda 2011). Moreover, the high, often unrealistic, expectations based on the "native speaker criteria" (Gonerko-Frej 2014: 75) set by the teachers also contribute to the students' rather unfavourable attitudes. The negative connotations students have about the subject often translate into their fear of writing in general, as observed by Cheng (2004). Parker and Erarslan (2015) also report that even though the students see an academic writing course as important, they often consider it a boring subject. This might also be explained by the increasing attention deficits observed among the students (Łompieś 2018). All this might be compounded by the students' *underpreparedness* in academic writing (Chokwe 2013: 377), often caused by having poor access to literature and operating on limited resources, which might be the problem for those students with a less fortunate socioeconomic background.

But students are not the only group that struggles with the challenge of academic writing. The above-mentioned underpreparedness is also attributed to teachers, who often lack proper training and seem reluctant to teach the subject itself (Chokwe 2013). The lack of training includes little knowledge of language-in-use (Coxhead & Byrd 2007), as well as insufficient expertise in giving constructive feedback on students' products of academic writing (Elton 2010: 157), which might contribute to the vicious circle of negative experiences resulting in lower self-efficacy. In fact, it was concluded in *A report on the teaching of academic writing in UK Higher Education* (Ganobcsik-Williams 2004: 15) that the interviewed teachers focused predominantly on their students' weaknesses in their feedback sessions, ignoring what actually had been accomplished, which is an important component of constructive feedback. The problem with constructive feedback is doubled by the disappointment both teachers and students encounter when their high expectations are confronted with the harsh reality – students show low proficiency in academic writing (Chittum & Bryant 2014) and teachers

struggle to address and properly manage students' resistance to writing (Petric 2002: 21). Moreover, the teachers in Poland and abroad seem to be facing an increasing workload due to working with larger groups of students (see Ene & Hryniuk 2018: 21). The survey study presented below aims at verifying some of those issues.

4. UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE ON ACADEMIC WRITING – RESEARCH PROJECT

4.1. Research design

There is one major assumption behind this small-scale research study. It is best illustrated by Badley (2009: 215–216), who stated that

> [u]niversities should be critical spaces where we might shape and re-shape ourselves. We might hope, too, that they should also provide 'writing spaces' for us, staff and students alike, to exercise our own criticality, freely and openly, as we engage with the texts of others.

Undoubtedly, academic writing courses should be considered essential subjects that not only equip students with the tools used in their academic endeavours, but more importantly, that introduce them to the values of true academia. The question, however, is whether the assumption above is reflected in the classroom reality of an academic writing course. The main aim of this study was to address this issue, by formulating three research questions:

RQ1: What is the English philology students' attitude towards academic writing in general?

RQ2: What do the students expect from an academic writing course?

RQ3: What is the English philology teachers' perspective on and experience with teaching academic writing?

Two surveys[1] were designed to answer the above-questions: one targeting students and the other addressed to teachers with an experience in teaching academic writing. The student survey consisted of 12 items, 8 closed-ended and 4 open-ended questions inquiring about their attitudes, experiences, beliefs, expectations and self-assessed competences in academic writing. The teacher

[1] The surveys can be accessed via the following links: https://docs.google.com/forms/d/17F8YoV4Of6Kr1m93rfphM5jA5vkFCBArWazw_gCh1gc/edit (students) https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSdA3qlz7j3wE3gFHpq0MITr-ImtwqtKipdgyZiL1MFBEZ7s6A/viewform?usp=sf_link (teachers)

survey consisted of 11 items: 9 closed-ended and 2 open-ended questions, asking about their attitudes, experiences and beliefs on teaching academic writing skills at the tertiary level. The data collected via the closed-ended questions was analysed with basic statistical instruments; the data obtained through the open-ended questions was coded and subjected to thematic analysis following the premises of descriptive content analysis (see Krippendorff 2003; Saldana 2009).

The participants were reached at two major Institutes of English Studies in Poland. The student survey was administered to 67 English major students who had participated in an Academic English Writing course (56 MA students, 11 BA students). The course typically aims at developing skills considered useful in producing academic texts, such as paraphrasing, summarizing or note-taking. Secondly, and most importantly, such a course provides the foundation for writing diploma papers.

The teacher survey was administered to 15 academic teachers who had taught an Academic English Writing course at either BA/MA programmes or both. One person had had experience teaching academic writing to PhD students. The teachers varied in their professional experience working in academia: one person having worked less than 5 years, 6 teachers with moderate experience (6-10 years) and eight teachers with more than 10-year experience.

4.2. Results: The students' perspective

Regarding the students' attitude towards writing in general, as can be seen in Figure 1 below, the majority of the students (66%) claimed they liked engaging in writing activities in general. What is striking, however, is the fact that their attitude to writing academic texts is in stark contrast with the previous answer – 76% of the students admitted they did not like writing academic texts at all (see Figure 2).

The students' negative attitude to academic writing is also reflected in the next two questions: one inquiring about their satisfaction with writing academic texts, and the other concerning their perceived difficulty in writing academic texts (see Figures 3 and 4). It can be generally assumed that academic writing is a skill that does not come easy and brings little satisfaction.

The first open-ended question asked about the biggest challenges in developing academic writing skills. Figure 5 below summarizes the students' most common answers. The students struggle the most with text analysis and proper understanding of what is being communicated. The second challenge mentioned by the students concerned the difficulty of expressing their ideas in a formal register, which they viewed as stiff, unnecessarily complicated, with

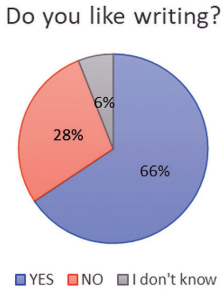

Figure 1. Students' attitudes to writing in general

Source: own study.

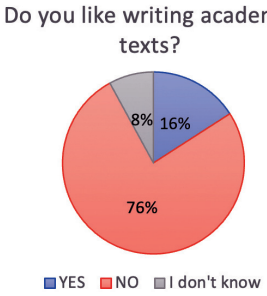

Figure 2. Students' attitudes to writing academic texts

Source: own study.

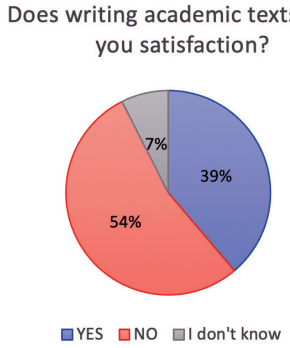

Figure 3. Students' level of satisfaction with writing

Source: own study.

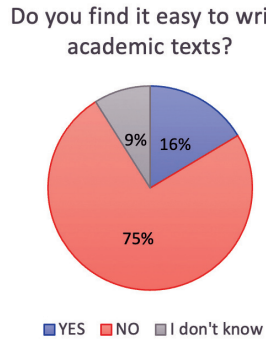

Figure 4. Students' perceived level of difficulty in writing academic texts

Source: own study.

Figure 5. Students' challenges in developing academic writing skills

Source: own study.

wordy expressions and fixed phrases that are disconnected from the everyday use of the language. This observation is best illustrated by selected quotes from the students:

> S3: Using a language which I do not use in my everyday life; it is a bit time consuming to create a text using words and structures that seem unnatural[2]
> S19: I struggle the most with language – I need to write down my thoughts using plain English and then I need to translate it into Academic English

Apart from the formal challenges in developing academic writing skills strictly connected with the writing process and formal register, the students also pointed to some affective obstacles, such as lack of proper motivation, engagement or connection to the course. Here are some quotes that encapsulate those problems:

> S62: I struggle with my engagement – I often see little connection with the topic and I'm not motivated enough.
> S29: To begin writing. It is caused by the fact that I have a feeling that everything I write makes little sense and meaning.

The students were also asked about their practices regarding the process of improving their academic writing skills. The students listed activities they undertake to master their competence; their responses are summarized in Figure 6. The majority of the students engage with the texts and analyse examples of academic texts. The second most frequently mentioned practice was simply writing their own texts and working on improving their drafts. Although they consider it to be an effective way to develop their skills, they admit that it is a demanding activity. To better illustrate this, here are selected quotes from the students' responses:

> S9: Much as it pains me, I try to write.
> S55: I believe that each writing assignment in class or at home helps me develop this competence, but I must admit it is not enough, and it is often a very stressful experience for me.

The final two questions inquired about the students' associations with and expectations towards an academic writing course. The students were asked to write three words which they would use to describe their experience with an academic writing course. The results can be seen in Table 1.

[2] All of the students' responses were translated from Polish by the researcher.

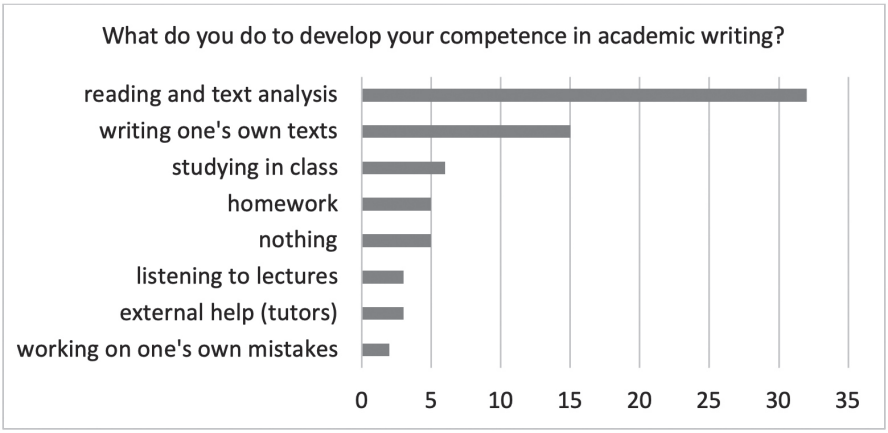

Figure 6. Students' practices in developing their academic writing skills

Source: own study.

Table 1. Students' free associations with an Academic Writing course

FORMAL (103)	NEGATIVE (49)	POSITIVE (13)	NEUTRAL (13)
academic Englis / lexis & grammar / register: 28 sources / referencing / APA / footnotes: 18 paraphrasing: 16 essay / paragraph/ thesis: 13 coherence / structure: 11 diploma paper: 6 reading & writing: 5 examples / exercises: 4 book / word: 2	demanding / hard work: 12 pain / fear / tears: 9 stressful: 5 boring: 5 tired / deconcentrated: 5 time-consuming: 3 useless: 2 unknown: 2 *unsatisfying, repetitive, unpleasant, unfair, long, bad experiences*	research & progress: 4 preparation, skills: 2 important: 2 *easy to understand, helpful, nice, well-organized, satisfactory*	schematic / pragmatic: 4 academia: 3 deadline: 2 form: 2 thinking: 2

Source: own study.

Since the instruction was constructed in such a way so as not to suggest possible answers, the most frequently mentioned associations revolved around the formal character of the course, referring to technical terms. Yet what seems to be the most interesting finding is the affective dimension that reflects the students' attitude towards the course. As can be seen in the Table 1 above, in the affective domain negative attitudes prevail – the students had very strong negative connotations with an academic writing course, calling it boring, painful and stressful, to name only a few.

Finally, the students were asked about their expectations of an academic writing course. There are five common threads that emerged in the process of data analysis. First, the students expect to achieve the linguistic objective of an academic writing course, by focusing on structures and useful phrases used in the academic discourse. Second, the students emphasized the importance of an academic text analysis and the skills in referring to other people's works, such as summarizing or paraphrasing. Third, many students pointed to the possibility of working more on their own practical problems they encounter in writing their academic papers and learning how to approach writing an academic text in practice. In fact, such a course might offer the opportunity to provide support in writing diploma papers and teach the students how to effectively and ethically work with the use of ICT/AI tools. Some students, however, have little expectations as they fail to see any point in attending an academic writing course in general; as one student declared, "I have no expectations, since academic writing is a process that brings no joy, and I think that no course could change this."

4.3. Results: The teachers' perspective

The teachers seemed more positive about the writing of academic texts than the students and there was no major discrepancy between writing in general and academic writing, as can be seen in Figures 7 and 8 below.

The attitude, however, shifts from positive to negative when asked about teaching an academic writing course. As illustrated in Figures 9 and 10 below, the teachers exhibit a rather negative attitude towards the subject (47% do not like teaching this course), and the process brings little satisfaction (with only 20% of the teachers being satisfied).

The teachers were also inquired about their perspective on what the aims of such a course should be. Based on their answers, the academic writing course should aim at four areas: developing language competence, analysing and working with academic texts, preparing for writing diploma papers, and helping with text organization and editing.

When asked about the biggest challenges of teaching an academic writing course, the teachers point to four distinct types of issues they have to confront. The first challenge is the demanding collaboration with their students. The teachers admitted that they struggle with students' lack of motivation and engagement in the course, as well as their low levels of proficiency and reading-writing skills in general. The second most frequently raised issue was related to their problems with providing meaningful and helpful feedback – they declare having to work with a bigger number of students in a group, which results in having more work

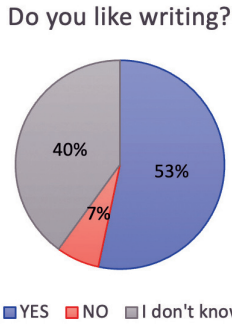

Figure 7. Teachers' attitudes to writing

Source: own study.

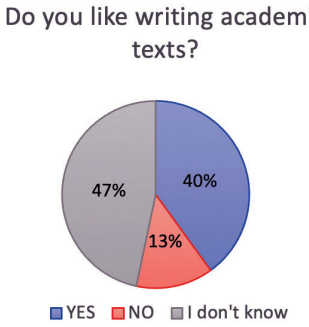

Figure 8. Teachers' attitudes to writing academic texts

Source: own study.

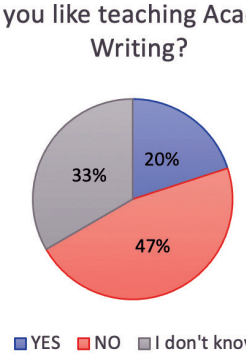

Figure 9. Teachers' attitude to the subject

Source: own study.

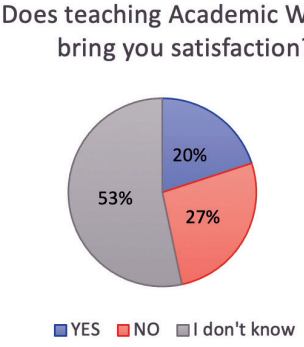

Figure 10. Teachers' satisfaction with teaching Academic Writing

Source: own study.

to assess and even less time to do so. This, in part, is also reflected in the third issue – the didactic challenges they face, from proper selection of the materials, to struggling to explain the importance and essence of the course, working with large numbers of students in big groups. In other words, the teachers are not fully supported in their efforts to introduce the students into the academic community.

5. DISCUSSION

Answering the first research question, it seems that there is a stark contrast between the students' attitude towards writing in general, which is positive,

and writing academic texts, which is negative (also observed by Petric 2002 and Badley 2009). This clearly negative reaction to academic writing fuels the vicious circle observed by other authors as well (e.g. Boscolo, Arfé & Quarisa 2007; Parker & Erarslan 2015), where: first, students have negative experiences with writing; next, their previous experience affects their attitude; and third, their negative attitude leads to unsatisfactory academic results – and the vicious circle completes. This can be best summarized by Fernsten and Reda's (2011: 171) conclusion: "[m]any students struggling to become more skillful users of the discourses required in college-level classes have become convinced that they are simply 'bad writers'."

As regards the second research question, the students seem to find it difficult to fully comprehend the meaning and aims of an academic writing course – they often referred to the feeling of confusion and a sense of being lost, when describing their challenges in academic writing. The majority of the students view the subject as demanding and too formulaic, which stands in contrast with the findings from Parker and Erarslan (2015), whose participants acknowledged the importance of attending an academic writing course, though they found it boring. In their expectations about the course, the participants of this study underscored the formal and textual dimensions of academic writing. The sociocultural dimension seems to be absent; thus, they find it difficult to relate to this subject and understand its aims. Yet more importantly, the students exhibit low levels of metacognitive awareness and agency, which hinders their learner autonomy (see also Grabowska & Zapłotna 2021). The students seem to struggle with taking initiative to become more effective writers.

There are several points in which the opinions of the students correspond with the observations made by the teachers, and addressing the purpose of an academic writing course is one of them. As mentioned above, the students find it difficult to see the true meaning of attending an academic writing course, while the teachers openly admit to struggling with explaining the essence of academic writing effectively. Another common problem concerns the students' negative attitude towards writing, which affects the teachers' negative attitude towards teaching an academic writing course, despite their positive attitude to writing academic texts in general. The teachers' reluctance to teaching this subject might be somehow connected with having less time and more work to assess – often at the cost of meaningful feedback (see the UK report by Ganobcsik-Williams 2004; Ene & Hryniuk 2018), focusing on easy-to-spot mistakes and weaknesses; this, in turn, negatively affects the students' self-esteem and agency. Their lower self-efficacy and motivational issues also pose a great challenge for teachers who seem unable to adequately respond to such crises – and yet another vicious circle completes.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

To conclude, the results of the diagnostic surveys point to issues that should be attended to in designing and conducting an academic writing course. There are several teaching implications that could be drawn from the results of the study. First of all, it is crucial that the teachers carefully explain and openly discuss the importance of academia and its role in modern society, especially in the context of the advancement in the field of Artificial Intelligence. Each academic writing course should be centered around values and virtues that are followed in academia, such as trust, scrutiny, fairness, reliability and integrity. This would also help in embedding the course in the reality of an academic community, allowing the students to see the purpose that academia serves and focus more on meaning, and less on form. It could be achieved by transforming the academic writing course into a workshop, where the students can not only learn about the technicalities of the writing process, but more importantly develop critical thinking skills and practice the art of logical reasoning. A project-based approach to teaching an academic writing course could allow the students work on projects that they can relate to and become engaged in. Such a course should be carefully scaffolded by the teachers, who should guide, assist and help their students navigate the complexity of the subject and show the ethos of true scholars. Apart from offering a platform for personal expression, an academic writing course should allow the students to engage in communications within the academic community and seek opportunities to create a discourse community. Secondly, it seems as though both the students and their teachers struggle with grasping the main objective of the subject. There is a need for a clearly stated aim: in designing an academic writing course, it is necessary to pay attention to not only the knowledge of „what" and „how", but also to the knowledge of "why." The students also expressed the need for a model to follow in their academic writing endeavours. This can be achieved by analysing sample texts, adopting a genre-based approach, as well as incorporating elements of the corpus-based approach and on-line tools.

As regards future research, the issue that needs to be better addressed is the negative emotional load towards academic writing expressed by the students. This might stem from the students' difficult experiences in writing classes in general, their disappointment with how the subject was designed and conducted in particular, or simply the tedious nature of the process of producing academic texts. It would be necessary to identify the root cause of such a strong negative attitude in future research in order to propose viable solutions.

Another urgent aspect of academic writing, which did not emerge in the results of the study yet has become an increasingly burning issue in recent years,

is the place and role of AI tools in academia. The rampant advancements in the field of Artificial Intelligence have questioned the traditional methods of teaching writing in general, and academic writing in particular. Yet what should also be considered are the possible challenges and downsides of an irresponsible and uncareful use of AI tools, in academia and beyond. The future of the subject and its importance should be reconsidered and further investigated. There is also undoubtedly a need for further qualitative research in exploring the specific needs of students and teachers, which the present small-scale study hopefully laid the groundwork for.

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Umiejętność pisania tekstów akademickich z perspektywy studentów i wykładowców filologii angielskiej

Abstrakt. Pisanie tekstów akademickich jest nieodłącznym elementem osiągnięć akademickich. Mimo to rozwijanie umiejętności pisania akademickiego może stanowić wyzwanie zarówno dla studentów jak i wykładowców. Głównym celem badania było zbadanie przekonań studentów filologii angielskiej oraz ich nauczycieli dotyczących umiejętności pisania akademickiego, ich doświadczeń z pisaniem tekstów akademickich, a także postaw wobec tego przedmiotu. Pośrednim celem było sprawdzenie, na ile opinie studentów korespondują z perspektywą ich nauczycieli. Postawiono trzy pytania badawcze: 1) Jaki jest ogólny stosunek studentów filologii angielskiej do pisania tekstów akademickich? 2) Czego studenci oczekują od kursu *Academic Writing*? 3) Jaka jest perspektywa i doświadczenie nauczycieli filologii angielskiej w nauczaniu kursu *Academic Writing*? W poszukiwaniu odpowiedzi na powyższe pytania badawcze zaprojektowana została ankieta diagnostyczna, skierowana do studentów filologii angielskiej (N = 67) i ich nauczycieli (N = 15), której celem było zbadanie ich przekonań, doświadczeń oraz postaw. Wyniki potwierdziły hipotezę, iż pisanie akademickie stanowi wyzwanie zarówno dla obu grup – wykładowcy borykają się z określeniem przejrzystych i osiągalnych efektów uczenia się, podczas gdy studenci mierzą się z wieloma problemami, od analizy tekstu po brak motywacji. Wśród badanych uczestników przeważał negatywny stosunek do kursu. Omówione wyniki przeprowadzonej ankiety mogą przyczynić się do lepszego zrozumienia potrzeb i postaw wobec pisania akademickiego zarówno studentów filologii angielskiej, jak i ich wykładowców, oraz mogą okazać się pomocne w procesie tworzenia kursów pisania tekstów akademickich.

Słowa kluczowe: pisanie tekstów akademickich, dyskurs akademicki, szkolnictwo wyższe.

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II. ARTICLES

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Towards a framework for developing and assessing pre-service EFL teachers' classroom English proficiency

Abstract. Although EFL teachers' classroom language proficiency constitutes a core component of teacher expertise and a crucial dimension of effective teaching, it still remains an elusive concept, as it is too complex to be fully conceptualised. The article elaborates on the procedure for designing a learning-oriented English-for-teaching purposes assessment (ETPA) implemented at a North Macedonian university to enhance and assess pre-service English teachers' classroom English proficiency through teacher, peer and self-assessment. First, it provides a brief review of the relevant studies on EFL teachers' language proficiency as English for specific purposes (ESP) and the literature on learning-oriented assessment (LOA). Next, it describes the process of operationalising the instructional, regulative and dialogic function of teacher talk in the criteria of accuracy, fluency, interaction, stimulating the development of ideas and addressing audiences customised from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The results of a survey of students' perceptions of the assessment tool revealed that they were mostly positive, with few suggestions for improvement. Finally, conclusions are drawn regarding the potential of the proposed framework to inform future research despite its limitations.

Keywords: pre-service EFL teachers, classroom language proficiency, learning-oriented assessment, English-for-teaching purposes assessment instrument.

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching English as a foreign language differs from teaching other subjects in a number of ways, the most significant being the fact that in the EFL classroom the language serves as both the medium and the goal of instruction (Long 1983). In other words, teachers of English perform a dual role of providing a language model for their learners and employing their language ability to facilitate student language learning.

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This specificity is marked by the distinctiveness of the classroom as "a social situation in its own right" (Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson 2002: 12) in which, teachers and learners co-construct classroom discourse through classroom interactions (Thornbury 2002, after Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson 2022: 12). This, in turn, generates a need for requisite discourse skills to be developed by EFL teachers in addition to content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge and ability (Richards 2017).

To understand these discourse-related language skills, it should be underscored that teacher verbal behavior is goal-oriented and defined by the demands of the classroom discourse setting (Walsh 2002). Consequently, apart from general language ability, teachers need to utilize specific language competences in order to respond to the requirements of different classroom situations. Issues such as the construct of this specialized teacher language proficiency, its interrelatedness with other teacher competences, as well as assessment design questions have been dealt with by a small number of studies (Sešek 2005, 2007; Bondi & Poppi 2007; Sokolova 2012; Freeman et al. 2015; Richards 2017; Wang 2021; Rütti-Joy 2022; Nikolovska et al. 2023). These studies explore teacher language proficiency through the lens of English-for-specific purposes (ESP) as they center on language use in the professional domain of language teaching.

Taking an ESP stance toward developing teacher language proficiency calls for a Language-for-specific purposes (LSP) approach to assessing it. Furthermore, unlike general proficiency tests which are poor predictors of teachers' future performance as they overlook context-specific issues (Elder 2001; Bondi & Poppi 2007), assessment of teachers' classroom English aligned with course objectives and embedded in coursework has been found to increase teacher professional confidence (Freeman & LeDrèan 2017).

In this context, the aim of this paper is to describe the process of designing a CEFR-based learning-oriented assessment framework for developing preservice EFL teachers' classroom language competences at a North Macedonian university. A brief review of the relevant literature precedes the elaboration of the process of developing the assessment.

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. An ESP perspective on developing teacher language competences

It has been widely acknowledged that the multidimensionality of the construct of teacher language competence renders it challenging to define and operationalize (Rütti-Joy 2022). In addition to the CEFR-related self-reflection tools

such as the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (Council of Europe 2007) and the European Profiling Grid (EAQUALS 2013), which foster language teachers' awareness of various competences to be attained including language competences, a limited number of studies have attempted to elucidate the complex nature of this construct from the perspective of teaching as a profession (Elder 1994, 2001; Bondi & Poppi 2007; Sešek 2005, 2007; Richards 2017; Freeman et al. 2015).

In her seminal work, Elder (1994: 9) points out the following abilities necessary for effective teaching:

> the ability to use the target language as both the medium and target of instruction; the ability to modify target language input to render it comprehensible to learners; the ability to produce well-formed input for learners and the ability to draw learners' attention to features of the formal language.

Further, effective classroom delivery necessitates flexibility and fluency of expression, mastery of specific linguistic features including directives and questioning techniques (Elder 1994) as well as strategies such as repetitions, slower rate of speech and using pauses (Chaudron 1988).

Among the first comprehensive attempts to describe EFL teachers' language competences was the creation of a Certificate of English for Primary Teachers (CEPT), adapted from the CEFR B1 and B2 level descriptors and aimed at self-evaluation of primary EFL teachers' language competences in the areas of: classroom management, professional self-development and language awareness (Bondi & Poppi 2007).

The CEFR was also used as a framework for defining the language needs of EFL teachers in Slovenia (Sešek 2007). The needs analysis demonstrated deficiencies in teachers' sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, particularly in their ability to adapt metalanguage to learners' needs, elicit a specific language item, respond to errors, etc.

In a systematic literature review, Sokolova (2012) concludes that the construct of teacher language competence consists of: general language competence, language awareness and classroom language competence, which entails using teacher talk both in classroom and out-of-classroom settings. She also accentuates the need for introducing specific classroom language assessment formats in addition to assessment of general language competences.

Freeman et al. (2015) proposed an English-for-Teaching construct which makes it possible to teach and assess classroom language. These authors argue that particular language exemplars can be used to execute EFL classroom tasks which belong to one of these functional areas: managing the classroom, under-

standing and communicating lesson content, assessing students and giving feedback.

The English-for-Teaching (EfT) construct was the basis for the ELTeach project in Vietnam (Freeman & Le Drean 2017) directed towards designing a self-access online course in classroom English in alignment with the TEFT (Test of English-for-Teaching). According to the study findings, pursuing classroom language proficiency as a goal by coordinating instruction and assessment resulted in improved teacher professional confidence.

Richards (2017) suggests a long list of language acts and activities that require specialized discourse skills to be employed before, during, and after lesson delivery. Some of these skills are related to: giving instructions, asking questions, giving explanations, providing corrective feedback, building on and developing students' responses, etc.

A recent study in this area is Rütti-Joy's (2022) research into the relevance of the profession-related competence profiles (PRLCP) and the associated assessment rubric (PRLC-R) devised to describe the language needs of foreign language teachers in Switzerland. More precisely, she investigates the usability of these instruments in fostering the language-specific aspects of teachers' oral feedback to lower secondary school students. Despite the highly elaborate nature of both tools, Rütti-Joy concludes that defining teacher language competence comprehensively is still a distant goal.

The abovementioned studies cast light on different aspects of EFL teacher language competence as a profession-related construct, i.e. as English for specific purposes. They are almost unanimous in claiming that, in addition to general language proficiency, foreign language teachers require specialized classroom language competences to deal with a variety of classroom contexts. In other words, effective teaching necessitates use of specific functional language to carry out a range of classroom tasks. Among these tasks are: providing and modifying input for language acquisition, giving explanations and instructions, managing classroom interaction and routines, giving feedback and assessing students, etc.

As Freeman et al. (2015) note, this ESP approach can be applied in designing learning materials, teacher training programs, and assessments to cater for teachers' classroom-related language needs.

Considering the fact that teacher language proficiency has generally been found to be unsatisfactory, it has been highlighted that more attention should be focused on teacher language improvement in teacher training programs (Sešek 2007; Gu & Papageorgiou 2016).

Taking into account that the assessment tool discussed here is posited in a learning-oriented assessment (LOA) framework, what follows next is a short overview of the essential tenets of LOA.

2.2. Learning-oriented assessment

LOA has been defined as: "[…] assessment where a primary focus is on the potential to develop productive student learning processes" (Carless 2014: 964). Demystifying the traditional distinction between formative and summative assessment, Carless contends that all assessment can be learning-oriented provided it enhances the quality of student learning processes through teacher, peer feedback and self-evaluation. LOA can be implemented to measure student achievement and increase students' motivation, involvement, metacognitive and social skills (Zeng et al. 2018).

Next, it is important to emphasize that LOA is characterized by three main components. First of all, assessment tasks are authentic real world learning tasks contextualized within real-life disciplinary situations (Carless 2014). Moreover, they are aligned with curriculum objectives in a way which maximizes learning outcomes (Biggs & Tang 2007).

The second characteristic, known as "evaluative expertise", is related to student active involvement in the assessment process through peer and self-assessment (Carless 2014). It implies student familiarization with the assessment criteria prior to their engagement with the assessment process in order to build their awareness of the required performance standards (Hamp-Lyons 2017). Applying the assessment criteria for self- and peer assessment enables learners to take control of their learning by reflecting on it and taking specific steps towards their progress.

The third component refers to dialogic feedback processes (Carless 2014) which encompass peer review, internal feedback to the self and feedback from the teacher. Effective feedback as a "mechanism for promoting learning" (Hamp-Lyons 2017: 90) entails timeliness, comprehensibility, and the capacity to feed-forward into future work (Duncan 2007).

The recent surge of interest in integrating LOA into language education is attributed to its supportive role in language learning (Zeng et al. 2018; Estaji & Safari 2023). Research has reported positive effects on students' overall language proficiency (Keppell et al. 2006), their oral proficiency (Hamp-Lyons 2017), pronunciation (Navaie 2018), writing skills (Estaji & Safari 2023) and both on the quantity and quality of learner-teacher interactions (Carless 2014).

In spite of the abovementioned benefits of LOA, its implementation has been hindered by challenges such as insufficient alignment among the components of the curriculum, teachers' lack of assessment literacy and resistance to innovation (Jalilzadeh & Coombe 2023), and the heavy workload for the students (Estaji & Safari 2023).

In light of the potential of LOA to optimize student learning outcomes through teacher, peer feedback and self-assessment, it seemed as an appropriate platform for the assessment framework elaborated here as it suited the project aims outlined below.

3. THE CONTEXT: STUDY BACKGROUND AND DESIGN

The basic professional competences of English language teachers in North Macedonia (Law for Primary and Secondary School Teachers 2015) encompass professional values, knowledge, beliefs and skills in the following areas: subject matter knowledge and knowledge of the educational system; learning and teaching; creating a favourable learning environment; social and educational inclusion; communication and cooperation with the family and the community as well as professional development and cooperation. That being so, target language proficiency, as a component of subject matter knowledge, constitutes a crucial dimension of EFL teachers' professional competence and, therefore, calls for due attention in pre-service teacher education.

It should be noted that at Blaže Koneski Faculty of Philology, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, North Macedonia pre-service teachers' general language proficiency is continuously being developed through the four-year teacher training curriculum, which consists of language, literature and specialized teacher-training courses including the Teaching Practicum, while assessment generally comprises a combination of traditional achievement tests and alternative assessments (Filološki fakultet 2018). Although classroom English is assessed through performance assessments such as microteaching and classroom teaching, a prominent need was felt for additional opportunities for honing students' classroom language competences and teaching skills (Nikolovska 2017).

To this end, a number of project initiatives have been undertaken by Blaže Koneski Faculty of Philology. A project titled *Developing Pre-service English Teachers' Language Competences with the CEFR* was implemented in 2019 in order to improve pre-service teachers' ETP competences and ensure a C1 exit proficiency level, taking into consideration that the minimum requirement for entry into initial EFL teacher education in North Macedonia is B2 level. Likewise, C1 is the exit proficiency level for English majors in many European countries (Cardenas & Chaves 2013). An earlier paper (Nikolovska et al. 2023) details the project design and outcomes with a focus on the impact of formative assessment on student-teachers' classroom proficiency and teaching skills.

The assessment framework presented here builds on a needs analysis survey carried out by the author in 2017 for the purpose of exploring, among other issues,

novice EFL teachers' (n = 30) perceptions of the extent to which their English-for-teaching purposes (henceforth – ETP) is developed during initial teacher education (Nikolovska 2017). It transpired from the study that the participants were generally satisfied with their ETP training as they felt they could function successfully in the EFL classroom. Still, a demand was expressed for more teaching opportunities to increase novice teachers' confidence, particularly in regard to their discourse skills with an emphasis on fluency. At the same time, self- and peer assessment, whose potential has been proved in different courses in the teacher-training curriculum, were suggested as a possible avenue for improving trainees' language competences.

Therefore, an assessment instrument was created by a research team including the author in order to develop and assess pre-service teachers' ETP proficiency (henceforth English-for-teaching purposes assessment – ETPA). In short, the ETP competences of each of the fourth-year teacher-trainees (n = 15) who taught three English lesson segments to lower-year students were assessed by their mentor and five peers on the criteria of *accuracy, fluency, interaction, stimulating the development of ideas* and *addressing audiences* customized from the CEFR (Council of Europe 2018). The assessment tool was also utilized for self-assessment and as a basis for the feedback sessions following each of the three observed classes.

In the next section the process of developing the assessment instrument is briefly described.

4. DEVELOPING THE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

4.1. The LOA principles as a foundation

In accordance with the socio-constructivist perspectives of teacher education (Johnson 2006, Burns & Richards 2009), the main aim of the assessment was to support developmental teacher learning (*learning as a process*) "negotiated through learners' experiential and lived practices" (Freeman & LeDrean 2017: 90) rather than *learning as a product* measured for accountability purposes. Promoting learner autonomy, an important LOA element (Hamp-Lyons 2017) and students' critical thinking skills were among the subsidiary aims of the assessment. Involving students in reflecting on their learning through peer and self-assessment, and acting upon the feedback received was expected to contribute both to developing students' evaluative expertise and their capacity to self-regulate learning.

Pertaining to the LOA principle of designing assessment tasks as learning tasks, microteaching seemed as the most appropriate assessment format the

pre-service teachers had already been exposed to as a learning task. Despite its artificiality, related to reducing the teaching situation in scope, as compared to the teaching situation of fully-trained professionals, microteaching is a useful technique which provides opportunities for safe experimentation and professional reflection (Wallace 1991).

As Hamp-Lyons (2017) points out, assessment tasks should encourage students to participate in learning activities, and assist them in developing the skills they will need to function in the real world. In this respect, microteaching is, undoubtedly, a technique which facilitates the development of an array of professional competences and skills. Among these competences, classroom language takes a key position.

For this reason, microteaching three lesson segments of Contemporary English language and ELT Methodology classes lasting between 15 and 20 minutes to lower year peers, seemed as real-world tasks with high authenticity reflecting the curriculum objectives (Filološki fakultet 2018).

4.2. The CEFR as a reference point

Another pillar on which the proposed assessment framework was constructed was the CEFR as the most influential general language proficiency framework (Council of Europe 2001, 2018). With its action-oriented approach, the CEFR is a crucial factor in determining the language competences of English teachers necessary for effective teaching (Bondi & Poppi 2007; Sešek 2005, 2007; Freeman et al. 2015; Freeman & Le Drèan 2017; Rütti-Joy 2022). The action-oriented approach in this study context implied that teacher-learners should be encouraged to act in real-life situations through collaborative tasks characterized by negotiation of meaning by teachers and learners.

In addition, the potential of the CEFR to promote self-regulated learning by employing can-do-statements for self-reflection (Council of Europe 2018) resonated with the project aim to develop teacher language competences, critical thinking and learner autonomy by formative assessment. As research has revealed, can-do statements play an important role in goal-setting, maximizing learning outcomes and facilitating independent learning (Ziegler 2014; Moeller et al. 2012).

Similarly, the can-do statements of the ETPA form an inventory of learning objectives to be attained. They provide a framework for monitoring learning progress, establishing individual goals, and improving performance regarding trainees' classroom language proficiency. Simultaneously, they heighten student-teachers' awareness of the intrinsic liaison between teaching, learning and assessment.

4.3. Development of the scales

Fundamental in defining the assessment construct was the conceptualization of classroom English as performing three language functions: *instructional* (Bernstein 1990 after Richards 2017), *regulative* and *dialogic* (Alexander 2008 after Richards 2017; Thornbury 2002, after Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson 2002). As explained below, these functions of teacher talk were implemented using the following criteria: *accuracy, fluency, interaction, stimulating the development of ideas* and *addressing audiences* (see Appendix). The selection of these criteria was informed by the findings of the aforementioned needs analysis study (Nikolovska 2017), which highlighted the necessity for enhancing teacher-trainees' fluency, critical thinking skills and interactional competence.

To begin with, the *instructional function* is related to teacher's role in providing input and developing learners' subject matter knowledge and skills in line with the syllabus objectives (Walsh 2002). This function is also realized when teachers mediate input from other learners and instructional materials, and adapt it to match learner needs (Andrews 2007).

The *regulative function* is associated with the language employed to organize and regulate classroom activities and language behaviors (Hall & Walsh 2002). More precisely, it is primarily related to teacher's role in setting up and facilitating classroom interaction.

As Alexander highlights (after Arend & Sunnen 2016), the *dialogic function* reflects the sociocultural nature of language learning. It indicates the capacity of teacher talk to stimulate, probe and extend learner talk, which is paramount in promoting thinking and learning (Thornbury 2002, after Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson 2002).

In the present study, the instructional function of teacher talk was primarily implemented through the *accuracy* and *fluency* scales, customized from the scales for qualitative features of spoken language (Council of Europe 2018). As Richards (2017) emphasizes, the capacity to communicate in English fluently and accurately is an important aspect of teachers' discourse skills. Furthermore, according to Richards et al. (2013), accurate modelling of the target language, which is characteristic of high language proficiency, facilitates the process of providing input and giving feedback.

The main concepts operationalized in the *accuracy* scale are grammatical, lexical and phonological control with a focus on intelligibility. One reason for incorporating intelligibility as a crucial aspect of phonological competence was the widely accepted belief that it should be pursued as a goal in teaching pronunciation rather than native-like proficiency (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010). Another reason was the finding that, apart from listening and fluency, phonological

competence is the most underdeveloped area of Non-native English-speaking teachers' (NNESTs') language proficiency and the most overlooked aspect of language training in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programs (Pasternak & Bailey 2004).

Following the CEFR-CV *accuracy* scale (Council of Europe 2018), progression up the corresponding ETPA scale proceeds from a comparatively high level of language control with occasional errors which may interfere with understanding at B2, through consistently keeping a high level of accuracy with rare errors difficult to notice and normally self-corrected at C1. By C2 the user can "maintain a consistent control of complex language [...] even while attention is otherwise engaged" (Appendix).

The *intelligibility* part of the phonology component of the qualitative descriptors of spoken language (Council of Europe 2018) was integrated in the ETPA *accuracy* scale almost in its original form (Appendix). At C1 and C2 level, intelligibility is not affected by features of foreign accent, whereas at B2 level it may occasionally be affected by some features of foreign accent.

Fluency, "a thorny issue in assessing speaking" (Luoma 2004: 88), is the second criterion in the ETPA. Identically to the CEFR-CV *fluency* scale (Council of Europe 2018), the key concepts incorporated are: spontaneity and naturalness of expression.

The ETPA C2 and C1 level descriptors for *fluency* were adopted in their original form from the CEFR-CV (Council of Europe 2018) *fluency* descriptors which constitute a component of the qualitative features of spoken language, while the descriptor for B2 level was slightly shortened to reduce reading (see Appendix 1).

With regard to the *addressing audiences* scale, it was mostly adapted from the spoken production scale of *addressing audiences* (Council of Europe 2018). It embodies the instructional function of teacher talk, more specifically, the language competences necessary to provide comprehensible input suitable to learners' age and level of proficiency. Hence, this ETPA scale covers aspects such as presenting complex topics and concepts and modifying metalanguage in accordance with learners' needs, as well as introducing lesson topics, task instructions and transitions (Appendix).

Although using appropriate metalanguage entails a range of modifications such as reduced speech rate, pauses, linguistic simplifications, repetition, and additional information to ensure comprehensibility (Wulf 2001, after Rütti-Joy 2022), these aspects were not explicitly listed in the ETPA descriptors to avoid overtaxing.

The ETPA scale for *addressing audiences* also represents the regulative function as the descriptors were expanded with the following concepts related to lesson delivery: *introducing lesson topics, task instructions and transitions*. Thus, this

scale highlights the complex nature of teacher language pertinent to delivery of classroom content, which is intertwined with establishing classroom procedures and routines.

The ETPA descriptor for C2 level was customized from the following CEFR-CV C2 descriptor for *addressing audiences*: "can present a complex topic confidently and articulately to an audience unfamiliar with it, structuring and adapting the talk flexibly to meet the audience's needs" (Council of Europe 2018: 74) by shortening it and adding the *metalanguage* aspect. It was, then, adapted for the lower levels by grading the language to express variation in the outlined abilities. Accordingly, at C1 the user can mostly successfully introduce complex topics and concepts modifying metalanguage to suit learners' needs, whereas at B2 they "can present complex topics and concepts with relative ease", while metalanguage can be adapted "to meet learners' needs most of the time" (Appendix).

Correspondingly, the descriptors focusing on *introducing lesson topics, task instructions and transitions* show gradation of ability by employing specific adverbs such as: *effortlessly* (at C2), *almost effortlessly* (at C1) and *not always clearly* (at B2).

The regulative function of teacher talk is also implemented in the ETPA *interaction* scale, which was adapted from the scales for *managing interaction* and the *interaction* scale as part of the qualitative features of spoken language (Council of Europe 2018).

Managing interaction is one of the two descriptor scales under *establishing conditions*, which according to the CEFR-CV, "focus on building and maintaining positive interactions and do not deal directly with access to new knowledge and concepts." (Council of Europe 2018: 118). Nevertheless, it acts as a necessary catalyst in developing knowledge.

Central concepts incorporated in the ETPA *interaction* scale include the following: setting up, facilitating interaction and performing different roles to scaffold student-student and student-teacher communication. Another aspect is related to intervening tactfully to redirect talk if necessary (see Appendix). This scale also represents the dialogic function of teacher talk because it requires skills for initiating and moderating instructional conversation.

The *interaction* scale proceeds from managing interaction with certain effort at B2, then almost effortlessly at C1 to initiating and facilitating interaction with ease and skill at C2. Next, while at B2 the trainee can help the discussion on familiar ground and occasionally interfere without tact to draw attention to the task, at C1 they can assume various roles as necessary and notice digression in communication. Then, by C2 the trainee can take on different roles, give individualized support and redirect talk if necessary (see Appendix).

The creation of the ETPA scale for *stimulating the development of ideas*, which reflects the dialogic function of teacher talk, was influenced by the *encouraging*

conceptual talk scale which operationalizes these concepts: "asking questions to stimulate logical reasoning (dialogic talk)" and "building contributions into logical, coherent discourse" (Council of Europe 2018: 120).

The concepts applied in this ETPA scale comprise: asking questions which stimulate critical and creative thinking, giving feedback that encourages speakers to support their reasoning with arguments and stimulating learners to ask challenging questions (for C2 level) (Appendix). The rationale for the inclusion of this criterion was the belief that fostering critical and creative thinking skills is a top priority in language education for the twenty-first century, and a cornerstone of lifelong learning (Gales et al. 2020). It also ensued from the previously mentioned needs analysis study (Nikolovska 2017) that developing trainees' critical thinking in initial teacher training is of prime importance.

Moreover, effective questioning and scaffolding techniques are crucial features of LOA as they facilitate the development of students' interaction skills (Hamp-Lyons 2017). Lastly, the ability to ask targeting questions, more precisely, question formation, has been emphasized as a vital aspect of language teachers' grammatical competence and one of the problem areas for novice teachers of English (Sešek 2007).

The scale begins with questioning techniques and feedback which don't consistently promote critical and creative thinking at B2 (Appendix 1). Then, at C1 the improvement of these abilities is expressed by removing "not always" from the descriptor. By C2 the trainee can ask targeting questions and give feedback that successfully generates higher-order thinking. They can also stimulate students to ask challenging questions.

Taking into consideration that students' perceptions about assessment largely determine their attitudes toward learning (Struyven et al. 2005), in order to gain an insight into student-teachers' perceptions of the ETPA, a short survey was carried out, whose results will briefly be summarized in the next section.

4.4. Pre-service teachers' perceptions of the assessment instrument

Both the student-teachers' and student-assessors were asked to reflect on the ETP scales, more precisely on whether: a. there were any other aspects of ETP proficiency that needed to be developed / assessed apart from *accuracy, fluency, interaction, stimulating the development of ideas* and *addressing audiences*, and b. how clear and easy to use were the descriptors.

Overall, the data analysis indicated positive results. Virtually all of the student-teachers (14 of the 15 respondents) and all of the student-assessors

(n = 19) considered the ETP scales sufficiently representative of the ETP aspects that should be developed in initial teacher training. The question on students' perceptions of the clarity and usability of the descriptors yielded generally positive answers. That is to say, 11 out of 15 student-teachers and 11 out of 19 student-assessors perceived the descriptors as *significantly clear and easy*, while 4 student-teachers and 8 student-assessors thought the descriptors were *partly clear and easy*. There were no answers in the last category (*unclear and difficult*).

The student-assessors were additionally asked to describe their experience in using the ETP scales for assessing their peers' speaking proficiency and specify whether they had had any difficulties in applying the assessment criteria. Most of them admitted that they had been quite confident in implementing the scales because "they were easy to work with", "the instructions were clear" and they were trained in using them. Nonetheless, a couple of students found it difficult to place their peers in the right level as "they had varying characteristics of two levels" and acknowledged having "difficulties distinguishing some minor details" in the scales, which to their mind, were caused by lack of assessment experience. On the whole, the survey confirmed the need to further improve some of the descriptors and make them more user-friendly by defining the levels of attainment more precisely.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The article has made an original contribution to the relatively scant literature on developing and assessing EFL teachers' language proficiency as a case of ESP by describing an assessment instrument created and implemented at a North Macedonian university. The ETPA framework illustrates how the CEFR can be contextualized to suit a particular educational context and more specifically, students' learning needs. The assessment was designed to promote learning by involving students in self- and peer assessment and by feed-forwarding feedback into their future performance on LOA tasks.

The ETP construct proposed here operationalizes the instructional, regulative and dialogic function of teacher talk in the scales for *accuracy, fluency, interaction, stimulating the development of ideas* and *addressing audiences* adapted from the CEFR-CV (Council of Europe 2018) using a three-level rating method. The ETPA can-do descriptor scales were intended not only to hone trainees' classroom language skills but also to foster reflection, learner autonomy and professional awareness as essential life-long professional development goals.

As student-teachers' perceptions of the ETPA reveal, there is room for refining the descriptors to reach both a higher level of clarity and comprehensibility.

Clearly, the ETPA is far from an exhaustive inventory of classroom language competences. In fact, despite its limitations, the proposed framework can be envisaged as an initial step toward building a more comprehensive construct of teacher language competence which seeks empirical validation. By showcasing innovation in assessment, the study can initiate future research in the field of developing EFL teacher language proficiency at pre-service and in-service level with the potential of informing curricula, syllabus and materials design.

Further, if the profiling and assessment of teacher language competences is viewed from the perspective of LSP, then the problems inherent in designing LSP tests need to be addressed. These problems include the specificity of the domain of teacher language proficiency, the issue of task authenticity and the inseparability of linguistic from non-linguistic factors such as teaching skills (Elder 2001).

Finally, experimentation with conceptualizing and assessing teacher language competences is bound to be based on needs analyses aimed at exploring pre-service teachers' professional needs in order to respond to them appropriately in line with the context specifics.

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APPENDIX

English-for teaching purposes assessment scales

ACCURACY

C2
Maintains consistent control of complex language (grammatical, lexical and phonological), even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in monitoring others' reactions to the content presented). Intelligibility is not affected in any way by features of accent that may be retained from other language(s).

C1
Consistently maintains a high degree of accuracy (grammatical, lexical and phonological); errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur. Some features of accent retained from other language(s) may be noticeable, but they do not affect intelligibility most of the time.

B2
Shows a relatively high degree of language control (grammatical, lexical and phonological). Occasionally makes errors which may cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of their mistakes. Some features of accent retained from other language(s) may be noticeable, which occasionally affect intelligibility.

FLUENCY

C2
Can express themselves spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.

C1
Can express themselves fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult (unfamiliar) subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.

B2
Can produce stretches of language fairly smoothly; although they can be hesitant as they search for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.

INTERACTION

C2
Can initiate and facilitate interaction with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues effortlessly.
Can take on different roles to support student-student and student-teacher interaction (resource person, mediator, supervisor, etc.) and provide appropriate individualized support.
Can recognize undercurrents (digression) in interaction and can intervene diplomatically in order to redirect talk, prevent one person dominating or to confront disruptive behavior.

C1
Can initiate and facilitate interaction almost effortlessly.
Can take on different roles to support student-student and student-teacher interaction (resource person, mediator, supervisor, etc.) most of the time.
Can recognize undercurrents (digression) in interaction and can intervene tactfully most of the time in order to redirect talk if necessary.

B2
Can manage interaction with certain effort.
Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in etc.
Can intervene with occasional lack of tact in order to focus people's attention on the task.

STIMULATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF IDEAS

C2
Can effectively stimulate critical and creative thinking by asking targeting questions.
Can stimulate students to ask challenging questions.
Can give appropriate feedback that encourages speakers to expand on their thinking and elaborate on their reasoning (e.g. hypothesizing, inferring, analyzing, justifying, and predicting).

C1
Can stimulate critical and creative thinking by asking targeting questions.
Can give feedback that encourages speakers to expand on their thinking and support their ideas with facts.

B2
Can formulate questions which not always stimulate critical and creative thinking.
Can give feedback that *not* always encourages speakers to expand on their thinking and justify their opinions.

ADDRESSING AUDIENCES

C2
Can present complex topics and concepts confidently and articulately, fully adapting metalanguage to meet learners' needs.
Can introduce lesson topics, task instructions and transitions effortlessly.

C1
Can mainly successfully present complex topics and concepts adapting metalanguage to meet learners' needs.
Can introduce lesson topics, task instructions and transitions almost effortlessly.

B2
Can present complex topics and concepts with relative ease.
Can adapt metalanguage to meet learners' needs most of the time.
Can introduce lesson topics, task instructions and transitions not always clearly.

Source: current study.

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Ramy rozwoju i oceny kompetencji językowych przyszłych nauczycieli języka angielskiego w kontekście zawodu nauczyciela

Abstrakt. Biegłość nauczycieli języka angielskiego jako języka obcego (EFL) w klasie jest kluczowym elementem ich kompetencji, jednak pozostaje trudna do jednoznacznego zdefiniowania ze względu na swoją złożoność. Artykuł przedstawia proces projektowania i wdrażania narzędzia oceny języka angielskiego dla celów nauczania (ETPA) na uniwersytecie w Macedonii Północnej. Celem narzędzia jest rozwój i ocena biegłości językowej przyszłych nauczycieli poprzez ocenę nauczycielską, rówieśniczą i samoocenę. Na wstępie omówiono badania dotyczące biegłości językowej nauczycieli języka angielskiego w kontekście specjalistycznym (ESP) oraz koncepcję oceny zorientowanej na naukę (LOA). Następnie opisano proces operacjonalizacji funkcji instruktażowej, regulacyjnej i dialogicznej wypowiedzi nauczyciela, opierając się na kryteriach dokładności, płynności, interakcji, rozwijania idei i dostosowania przekazu do odbiorców, zgodnie z Europejskim Systemem Opisu Kształcenia Językowego (CEFR) (Rada Europy 2001, 2018). Analiza ankiety dotyczącej percepcji narzędzia przez studentów wykazała w większości pozytywne opinie, z kilkoma sugestiami dotyczącymi ulepszeń. W podsumowaniu omówiono potencjalne zastosowania opracowanych ram w przyszłych badaniach, uwzględniając ich ograniczenia.

Słowa kluczowe: przyszli nauczyciele języka angielskiego jako języka obcego, znajomość języka w klasie, ocenianie ukierunkowane na uczenie się, instrument oceny języka angielskiego do celów dydaktycznych.

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Exploring the effects of strategic intervention in fostering autonomy in learning grammar

Abstract. The present paper reports the findings of a quasi-experimental study which investigated the effects of strategy-based instruction targeting grammar learning strategies (GLS) on the development of autonomy in learning English grammar. Participants were 55 Polish university students, English majors in the first year of a three-year BA program, divided into an intervention group (43 students) and a control group (12 students). The intervention focused on different types of GLS and was implemented in eight 30-minute segments during regularly scheduled classes over one academic semester. The data were collected on the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest by means of the *Grammar Learning Autonomy Scale* (GLAS), a research instrument specifically created for the purpose of the study. Analysis of variance failed to show statistically significant differences within and between the two groups, indicating that the intervention failed to impact autonomy in learning grammar among the participants. Item-level analysis provided evidence for a positive effect of the treatment with respect to the belief that progress in learning L2 grammar depends on the teacher. Limitations of the study are presented and directions for future research are outlined.

Keywords: strategy-based instruction, grammar learning strategies, autonomy in learning grammar, quasi-experimental study.

1. INTRODUCTION

Achieving mastery of the grammar of an additional language is an arduous and demanding process which many learners find exceedingly difficult. One reason why learning grammar poses such a formidable challenge is the fact that the knowledge of this target language (TL) subsystem is multidimensional, comprising three interrelated facets of *form* (i.e. the structural dimension), *meaning* (i.e. the semantic dimension) and use (i.e. the pragmatic dimension). When

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viewed in this way, grammar can no longer be regarded as a static product but as a dynamic process or a skill, whereby learners engage in *grammaring*, using grammar structures accurately, meaningfully and appropriately to express their messages in the way they intend to do so (Larsen-Freeman 2001, 2003). Moreover, there is a huge difference between understanding how a grammar feature is formed, what it means and how it is used, and actually employing it successfully in various contexts. This brings us to the key distinction between explicit and implicit (automatized) grammar knowledge. At the risk of oversimplification, the former is conscious and declarative, and can only be accessed when there is sufficient time to fall back on relevant rules, as when working on traditional exercises as part of homework assignments. The latter is tacit and procedural or at least automatized to such a degree that it can be employed under time pressure, as required in spontaneous interactions (DeKeyser 2017; Ellis 2009; Pawlak 2019b, 2021). Even if fully grasping explicit knowledge of the structures taught is admittedly challenging for many learners, automatizing such knowledge so that it can be drawn upon in unplanned, real-time communication might be an unachievable goal for the majority of students.

While the place of grammar in different language programs obviously varies, it is evident from the above considerations that even high-quality grammar instruction is unlikely to ensure mastery of TL grammar in many cases unless learners are able to best capitalize on it but also to effectively work on this subsystem in their own time. For this to happen, however, students need to be able to manifest a considerable degree of autonomy in learning grammar. While the present authors are aware of the complexity of the concept of autonomy in L2 learning and the different shapes it can take (Benson 2011; Little 2022), following the classic definition put forward by Holec (1981), it is understood here as the ability to take charge of learning TL grammar and assume responsibility for different aspects of this process. As Pawlak (2016) illustrates, there are different ways in which autonomy in learning grammar can be fostered including, among others, promoting a discovery approach, familiarizing students with additional resources, raising students' awareness of issues involved in learning and teaching grammar, encouraging the use of new technologies (which right now would surely also include artificial intelligence), and undertaking pedagogical interventions intended to encourage learners to more adeptly use grammar learning strategies (GLS). However, research that would gauge the effectiveness of different ways of fostering autonomy in learning L2 grammar is scarce and the existing studies represent a mixed bag in terms of their foci and methodology (e.g. Asgari & Mal Amiri 2024; Cooke 2012). To the best knowledge of the present authors, no empirical investigation conducted thus far has examined the contribution of strategy based instruction (SBI) targeting GLS to the development of an

autonomous approach to learning TL grammar. Such a situation is unfortunate since showing that appropriately tailored SBI translates into greater autonomy in learning this TL subsystem could provide a crucial impulse for reconsidering instructional practices and ultimately contribute to greater mastery of grammar features. This is the gap that the study reported in this paper sought to address.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The existing scholarship on GLS is scarce and it is thus not surprising that few attempts have been made to properly define the construct or to put forward comprehensive, dedicated classifications of these strategic devices. An early definition of the concept was put forward by Oxford et al. (2007: 120), who, extrapolating from Oxford's (1990) general definition of language learning strategies (LLS), described GLS as "actions and thoughts that learners consciously employ to make language learning and / or language use easier, more effective, more efficient, and more enjoyable." In a recent publication which portrays LLS within the context of self-regulation (Zimmermann & Schunk 2011) and complex dynamic systems (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron 2008), Oxford (2017: 244) defines strategies for learning grammar as "[…] teachable, dynamic thoughts and behaviors that learners consciously select and employ in specific contexts to improve their self-regulated autonomous L2 grammar development for effective task performance and long-term proficiency." While this definition is enlightening in that it seeks to capture all the important features of GLS, it does not do justice to the complexity of learning L2 grammar. For this reason, in the present paper, GLS are viewed as deliberate actions and thoughts that students fall back upon to learn and gain better control over the use of grammar structures (Cohen & Pinilla-Herrera 2010). The strength of this definition is that it more or less directly recognizes the fact that GLS can contribute not only to the development of explicit knowledge but can also facilitate the process of automatizing this knowledge so that grammar features can be employed in the right way as well in spontaneous interactions.

A necessary condition for research into GLS to provide useful insights concerning the role of these strategies in the process of learning grammar and offer implications for more effective L2 grammar instruction is reliance on a valid and reliable framework that can be applied in tapping into their use. However, comprehensive, dedicated frameworks of this kind are hard to come by. A number of studies in this area, including more recent ones, have approached GLS as just another type of general LLS, adopting as a point of reference the leading classifications proposed by Oxford (1990) or O'Malley and Chamot

(1990), introducing slight modifications to the wording of specific items to make them relevant to learning grammar (e.g. Sarıçoban 2005; Zhou 2017). The main problem with this approach, though, is that it largely ignores the complexity and distinctiveness of learning and using grammar structures. The first coherent descriptive scheme for GLS was introduced by Oxford et al. (2007), who, drawing on research on form-focused instruction (Doughty & Williams 1998), divided these strategies into three groups: (1) *strategies for implicit learning with a focus on form* (e.g. attending to how more proficient TL users produce utterances and then imitating), (2) *strategies for explicit inductive learning* (e.g. participating in rule-discovery discussions in class), and (3) *strategies for explicit deductive learning* (e.g. previewing a lesson to identify key structures to be covered). While this scheme represented an important step forward and provided a so-much-needed impulse for further research on GLS, it does not reflect all important processes involved in learning L2 grammar, placing insufficient emphasis on different types of practice (Pawlak 2013).

In order to improve on this preliminary attempt to categorize GLS, Pawlak (2013, 2018) proposed a dedicated classification that strives to take into account a much broader repertoire of strategies that can be utilized when learning and using TL grammar. Drawing on the taxonomy of LLS put forward by Cohen and Dörnyei (2002), the division of instructional options in teaching grammar developed by Ellis (1997) and later modified by Pawlak (2006), as well as the findings of existing studies, Pawlak (2013, 2018) proposed a four-pronged classification of GLS encompassing four main categories: (1) *metacognitive*, applied to manage grammar learning (e.g. looking for more effective ways of learning and using grammar structures), (2) *social*, which involve learning grammar in collaboration with the teacher or other students (e.g. trying to help others to understand and use grammar), (3) *affective,* which serve the purpose of dealing with emotions and motivations involved in learning grammar (e.g. encouraging oneself to practice more when encountering problems with a given grammar feature), and (4) *cognitive*, which support the mental operations directly involved in learning L2 grammar. Since the strategies included in the last group represent the backbone of the classification, they are further divided into four subcategories: (1) *GLS involved in using grammar in communication or focus on form* (e.g. comparing one's speech and writing with that of more proficient people to see how to improve), (2) *GLS facilitating the development of explicit knowledge* through deduction and induction (e.g. remembering grammar information by location on a page in a coursebook), (3) *GLS facilitating the development of implicit (automatized) knowledge* (e.g. using newly learnt grammar features to create sentences), and (4) *GLS used to process corrective feedback* (CF) on grammar errors (e.g. trying to notice and self-correct mistakes when practicing grammar). This classification was used as a basis for

creating the *Grammar Learning Strategy Inventory* (GLSI), a research tool that includes 70 5-point Likert-scale items representing different types of GLS (Pawlak 2013, 2018). The instrument has been validated in several studies and its overall underlying structure has been confirmed (e.g. Wang et al. 2024).

Moving on to research into GLS, it should be underscored that it is still in its nascent stages. The vast majority of empirical investigations conducted to date have aimed to identify patterns of use of such strategies in different contexts and the participants have typically been English majors. Most studies that have drawn upon general LLS classification and/or related data collection tools, such as those conducted by Gürata (2008), Sarıçoban (2005), Pawlak (2008) or Alsied et al. (2018), have found most frequent reported use of cognitive strategies. On reflection, such findings should not come as a huge surprise in view of the fact that strategies in this group are directly involved in learning grammar and different types of these strategic devices could not be differentiated based on general LLS taxonomies. A more complex picture emerges from empirical investigations that have relied on dedicated frameworks for GLS. For example, Pawlak (2012) used a questionnaire comprising Likert-scale items developed on the basis of Oxford et al.'s (2007) descriptive scheme and open-ended questions analyzed with reference to this scheme. While quantitative data showed the most frequent reliance on GLS related to implicit grammar learning with a focus on form, qualitative analysis painted a different picture, with the participants reporting the predominance of cognitive GLS reflecting controlled practice (e.g. paraphrasing, translating). The results of studies drawing upon Pawlak's (2013, 2018) classification and the GLSI have been inconclusive. For instance, Pawlak (2019a) in the Polish context and Nakachi (2021) in the Japanese setting found most frequent use of cognitive GLS involved in using grammar structures in communication and processing CF on grammar errors. However, Zarrinabadi et al. (2021) reported that their Iranian participants used more metacognitive, affective and cognitive GLS facilitating the development of explicit and implicit knowledge when learning English as a second rather than third language.

Studies of GLS with other foci are few and far between. When it comes to the link between GLS use and TL attainment, Tilfarlioğlu (2005) did not report significant differences between more and less proficient university students in Turkey, a result that was corroborated by Pawlak (2009) for English majors in Poland. The latter study also looked at the relationship between the mastery of grammar and the specific categories of GLS but only revealed a very weak correlation between strategies involved in explicit deductive learning and final grades in a grammar course. Pawlak and Csizér (2023), in turn, found that GLS use by Polish and Hungarian students in degree programs in English accounted for 13% and 15% of the variability in self-reported attainment, with strategies

facilitating the use of grammar structures in spontaneous interactions being the most important predictor. There is almost no research examining the link between the use of GLS and other individual difference factors, a notable exception being the study by Zarrinabadi et al. (2021), who revealed that Iranian students' employment of all categories of strategies in the GLSI was positively predicted by growth mindsets. What is the most disconcerting, though, there are almost no studies investigating the effects of SBI targeting GLS, an issue that is the most relevant to the research project reported in this paper. One rare contribution to this area was made by Trendak (2015), who examined the effectiveness of a pedagogical intervention focusing on cognitive and memory strategies in terms of overall LLS use as well as the mastery of English among Polish learners. The six-week-long intervention, which assumed the form of awareness-raising activities, resulted in more frequent use of the targeted strategies as well as more accurate use of the targeted feature, with the training focusing on memory strategies producing better results.

As can be seen from the overview provided above, research on GLS remains in its infancy, both in terms of quantity and scope. In particular, almost no attention has been given to the effects of SBI aimed at enhancing the use of GLS, also with respect to the effects of such an intervention on grammar attainment. More specifically, to the best knowledge of the present authors, no study conducted to date has looked into the contribution of SBI targeting GLS to autonomy in learning grammar, which is unfortunate given the fact that some degree of independence is indispensable if learners are expected to develop both explicit and implicit (automatized) knowledge of grammar structures. The study reported below sought to address this important gap by seeking an answer to the following research question:

What is the effect of SBI targeting GLS on English majors' autonomy in learning TL grammar?

3. METHOD

The present study represents one part of a larger-scale research project examining the impact of SBI targeting GLS on English majors' use of these strategies and their mastery of grammar. The research followed a pretest-posttest design, with participants being assigned to either the treatment or control condition. In order to adhere to ethical guidelines, the students in both groups were informed about the purpose of the study, assured of the confidentiality of their responses, and asked to provide informed consent. Additionally, they

were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point if they chose to do so.

3.1. Participants

The study included 55 participants, 8 males and 47 females, all of whom were first-year English majors of Polish nationality. The prevalence of female students in the sample represents typical sex distribution in degree programs in foreign languages across Polish institutions of higher education. Participants ranged in age from 17 to 24 years (M = 19.25, SD = 1.21) and had been learning English for an average of 11.60 years (SD = 3.58). They also assessed their TL skills using a 6-point scale (1 = lowest, 6 = highest), reporting an overall mean self-evaluation score of 3.98 (SD = 1.03). Participants were recruited from intact classes, randomly assigned to two conditions, and they were divided into two groups based on their pre-existing class assignment, with 43 in the intervention group (IG) and 12 in the control group (CG). The IG included 6 males and 37 females, aged 18 to 24 years (M = 19.35, SD = 1.25), with an average of 11.58 years (SD = 3.72) of English learning experience. Their mean self-evaluation of TL skills was 3.93 (SD = 1.10). The CG consisted of 2 males and 10 females, aged 17 to 21 years (M = 18.92, SD = 0.99), with an average of 11.67 years (SD = 3.20) of English learning experience and a mean TL self-evaluation score of 4.14 (SD = 0.74). No significant differences were revealed between the students in both groups.

3.2. Strategic intervention

The SBI spanned one semester and consisted of eight 30-minute sessions, integrated into normally scheduled TL classes included in an intensive English course. The teachers of the intact student groups involved in the study were tasked with delivering the intervention and were given detailed instructions on how to do it. Each session focused on different GLS categories, as outlined in Pawlak's (2018) classification, with a special emphasis on strategic devices facilitating the use of grammar structures in spontaneous interactions. Detailed description of all the sessions falls beyond the scope of this article but two illustrative examples are in order. In Session 3, the students first discussed in pairs the things they can do to use grammar structures taught in spontaneous communication, then they completed a focused communication task which necessitated reliance on the passive voice and, finally, they talked about the structure they had used

when performing the task and the errors they had committed. The first task in Session 6 involved a small-group discussion about different ways in which errors in the use of grammar structures can be corrected and introduction of concrete examples of how this can be done. This was followed by an information-based task in which two students were requested to react to their grammar errors when reconstructing a story based on pictures while a third was tasked with jotting down instances of errors and related corrections. As a homework assignment, the students were instructed to make a recording of a short speech and then listen to it, writing down grammar errors and contemplating the ways in which they could be corrected. The participants in the control group received no treatment and simply continued with their regular curriculum. Apart from the treatment sessions, the content covered in both groups was similar as was the overall instructional approach adopted by the teachers.

3.3. Data collection

The data were collected through an online questionnaire administered through Google Forms. The instrument consisted of demographic questions (e.g. age, sex, experience in learning English, self-assessment of TL skills and subsystems) the *Grammar Learning Autonomy Scale* (GLAS), which was developed for the purpose of the present study based on previous tools (e.g. Pawlak 2004). The GLAS was piloted before the study and some minor modifications were made to the wording of several items. The final tool comprised 24 statements intended to assess various behaviors, preferences, and attitudes reflecting an autonomous approach to L2 grammar learning (Appendix 1). To minimize response bias and encourage thoughtful engagement, some items were key-reversed. Participants rated each statement using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree", 5 = "strongly agree"). The GLAS was administered at three time points: at the beginning of the semester (pretest), at the end of the semester (posttest 1 – posttest), and 12 weeks later (posttest 2 – delayed posttest) to track changes in autonomy over time. The internal reliability of the GLAS was assessed on the pretest using Cronbach's alpha, yielding a coefficient of .71, indicating an acceptable level of reliability (Dörnyei 2007).

3.4. Data analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted at both the group level and item level to assess differences between the IG and CG and to examine within-group changes

over time. At the group level, a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a between-subjects factor was conducted to examine the effects of time (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) and group (IG vs. CG) on autonomy scores. Time was treated as a within-subjects factor, while group served as the between-subjects factor. Assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were verified using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test, respectively. As both assumptions were met ($p > .05$), parametric tests were applied. Post hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD test, with Bonferroni correction applied to control for multiple comparisons. Descriptive statistics (i.e. means and standard deviations), based on aggregated autonomy scores, were calculated for each group at each time point.

At the item level, analyses focused on identifying between-group differences for individual items and assessing within-group changes over time. Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare the specific items in the IG and CG at the three time points point. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess normality; for items violating this assumption, the Mann-Whitney *U* test, a non-parametric alternative to the independent samples *t*-test, was applied. Within-group changes were analyzed separately for the IG and CG using paired-samples tests. Paired-samples *t*-tests were conducted for normally distributed items, while the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, a non-parametric alternative, was used for non-normally distributed items.

4. RESULTS

A repeated measures ANOVA with a between-subjects factor was conducted to determine whether autonomy scores differed significantly across time points (pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) and whether this pattern of change varied between the IC and CG. The results revealed no significant main effect of time, $F(2, 108) = 0.36$, $p = .698$, $\eta^2 = .006$, indicating that autonomy scores did not change significantly over time. The main effect of group was also not significant, $F(1, 54) = 1.00$, $p = .319$, $\eta^2 = .017$, suggesting no overall difference in autonomy scores between the IG and CG. Additionally, the interaction effect between time and group was not significant, $F(2, 108) = 0.67$, $p = .512$, $\eta^2 = .012$, confirming that changes in autonomy scores over time were similar for both groups. Post hoc pairwise comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed no significant differences between time points ($p > .05$), reinforcing the finding that autonomy scores remained stable over time. Descriptive statistics for autonomy scores at each time point are presented in Table 1, with standard deviations calculated based on aggregated autonomy scores per participant.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for autonomy scores by group and time point

Group	Pretest *M*(*SD*)	Posttest 1 *M*(*SD*)	Posttest 2 *M*(*SD*)
Intervention	3.04 (0.40)	3.05 (0.39)	3.03 (0.37)
Control	2.90 (0.40)	3.03 (0.42)	3.01 (0.27)

Source: own study.

Further item-level analyses yielded two statistically significant findings. A Mann-Whitney *U* test revealed a significant between-group difference in Item 11 ("I make little progress in learning English grammar thanks to the teacher") on delayed posttest, $U = 378.5$, $p = .011$, with the IG scoring higher than the CG ($r = .33$, small to moderate effect). Additionally, a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test indicated a significant within-group change from the pretest to the posttest in the case of Item 22 ("I use new technology/software (e.g. grammar checkers, Grammarly) when learning English") in the CI, $W = 7.0$, $p = .032$, showing a moderate to large effect ($r = .58$). No other significant differences were found at the item level, and results remained stable across other test points (see Appendix 2 for means and standard deviations for all items the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest).

5. DISCUSSION

The present study probed into the effect of SBI targeting GLS over one academic semester on English majors' autonomy in learning grammar. Descriptive statistics revealed minute within- and between group differences in the means on the GLAS on the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest. Given such results, it is not surprising that repeated-measures ANOVA failed to uncover statistically significant differences between the IG and the CG at any of the three measurement points as well as between these points. In addition, finer-grained item-level analysis revealed only two statistically significant differences: (1) the participants in the IG scored significantly higher than their CG counterparts on item 11 on posttest 2 (i.e. "I make little progress in learning English grammar thanks to the teacher"), and (2) in the CG, the increase in the mean for item 22 ("I use new technology/software [e.g. grammar checkers, Grammarly]") from the pretest to the posttest proved to be statistically significant.

Looking at the findings, it can be concluded that the SBI did not have any effect on participants' autonomy in learning L2 grammar on a general level and its contribution with respect to specific attitudes, behaviors and perceptions in this respect was extremely limited. These findings are evidently disappointing

considering the time and effort that was invested in the implementation of the SBI and the need to overcome the numerous logistical problems that arose along the way. One plausible explanation for these results is the fact that the participants were English majors with quite high TL proficiency, many of whom might have already decided on their tried-and-tested or most suitable ways of learning grammar, even if these GLS were suboptimal. As a result, some of the treatment sessions may have been viewed as marginally useful by at least some of the students, which could have influenced their responses on the GLAS. Another reason for the failure of the intervention to affect autonomy levels in learning L2 grammar may have been the contribution of individual difference factors that were not taken into account in this study. Specifically, differences in beliefs about how TL grammar should most beneficially be taught and learnt, learning styles or positive and negative emotions could have impacted learners' reception of the intervention, which in turn may have affected their engagement and ultimately their autonomous approach to learning grammar. There is also the question as to the extent to which participants perceived the need for manifesting autonomy in the BA program in which they were enrolled. Being first-year students, many of whom had much to catch up on when it comes to the intricacies of English grammar, they might have believed that it was mainly the responsibility of their university teachers to ensure that all the important grammar points were covered in dedicated grammar classes. This belief may have been strengthened by the prospect of having to take a demanding end-of the-year exam in English which laid much emphasis on accurate use of grammar structures.

The beneficial effect of the SBI could only be observed in the fact that the IG students were more likely than their CG counterparts to attribute progress in learning English grammar to themselves rather than the teacher on the delayed posttest. Although many factors could have contributed to this stance over the course of the semester, it could reasonably be argued that the SBI made the participants aware that at the end of the day the extent to which they would master grammar hinged upon their own actions and thoughts rather that the activities orchestrated by teachers. Much more difficult to explain is the fact that the participants in the CG became considerably more willing to fall back on new technologies in learning grammar from the pretest to the posttest even though they had not benefited from any kind of treatment. Perhaps the small number of participants in this group (12) is key to understanding this unexpected change because, even if just a couple of students became ardent believers in the value of computer-assisted language learning, or perhaps in particular the utility of artificial intelligence, this could have easily inflated the means for this item on the GLAS.

Like any other empirical investigation, the present study is not free from limitations. First, the influence of SBI on autonomy in learning grammar was only examined based on quantitative data and it is evident that this construct is far too complex to be reduced to a list of statements without gaining deeper insights into how the attitudes, behaviors and perceptions represented by these statements actually manifest themselves in the process of learning L2 grammar. For example, when a student shows a high degree of agreement with the item "I practice English grammar even when it is not required for my university classes", it is not clear how often he or she engages in this type of practice or what form it takes. It should be stressed, however, that this study constitutes one part of a larger-scale research project exploring the effectiveness of GLS-oriented SBI which involved collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Second, the disparity in the number of participants between the IG and the CG was considerable and there should have admittedly been more balance in this respect. Even though, to ensure that as many students as possible would benefit from the intervention, fewer participants were included in the CG from the get-go, but these students were hit the hardest by attrition that simply could not be avoided during an intervention-based study that spanned several months. Third, due to its length, the intervention inevitably took a toll on the implementation of regular curricular goals in the IG, which could have had a detrimental impact on participants' engagement in the treatment sessions and negatively influenced the overall effectiveness of the intervention. Fourth, while the GLAS had been piloted before the study, its underlying structure had not been properly investigated through exploratory factor analysis, which prevented analysis of the data in terms of broader variables underlying the concept of autonomy in learning grammar. While this is unlikely to have changed much with respect to the impact of the SBI, it would have allowed taking the analyses to the next level.

6. CONCLUSION

The quasi-experimental study reported in this paper examined the effects of a strategic intervention targeting the use of strategies for learning grammar on English majors' autonomy in learning this TL subsystem. Quantitative analysis failed to show statistically significant differences both within and between groups on the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest. The beneficial contribution was only revealed in the case of an item that focused on the role of the teacher in determining progress in learning L2 grammar. While these findings surely fall far short of the expectations of the present researchers, it

should be kept in mind that this is the first study exploring the role of a pedagogical intervention focusing on the use of GLS in fostering an autonomous approach to learning grammar structures. More empirical investigations are therefore needed in this important area. In particular, such research should target L2 learners who are not language majors as well as students at lower educational levels (e.g. secondary school), it should rely on a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies (e.g. questionnaire data should be complemented with interviews or diaries) and, perhaps, it should encompass shorter but more intensive interventions, which would reduce the danger of participant attrition or the influence of extraneous variables. More broadly, it would also make sense to conduct well-designed intervention-based studies that would incorporate other steps that can enhance autonomy in learning grammar, such as raising students' awareness of the issues involved in learning and teaching this subsystem or promoting more directly the use of new technologies (see Pawlak 2016). The results of such research would be invaluable for teachers who could then promote a more autonomous approach to learning and using grammar features in various settings, in particular in spontaneous interactions. Given the complexity of grammar and the limited time that can be devoted to this TL subsystem in the classroom, only in this way can we increase the likelihood that not only will learners better understand the intricacies of different grammar features but will also be able to use these features successfully to precisely get their meanings across in real-life communication outside the classroom.

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APPENDIX 1

Grammar Learning Autonomy Scale (GLAS)

1. I look for additional materials (e.g. books, Internet resources) when learning English grammar.
2. The teacher should present a grammar syllabus and choose grammar exercises to be taught.
3. I plan my learning of English grammar in advance.
4. I feel more secure when the teacher tells me what resources I should use to learn grammar.
5. I try out different ways of learning grammar to find the most useful ones.
6. When I do not understand a grammar structure or I do not know how to use it, I ask the teacher for help.
7. I know what I need to focus on in learning English grammar.
8. I know how to best organize learning English grammar (when, where and how).
9. I can objectively self-evaluate the progress I make in learning English grammar.
10. I know what goals I want to achieve in learning English grammar this semester.
11. I make little progress in learning English grammar thanks to the teacher.
12. I like learning grammar with others (e.g. in groups, using social media).
13. I prefer when the teacher tells me what I should improve when learning English grammar.
14. When I make a mistake when using English grammar, I try to correct it by myself.
15. Getting poor grades on tests discourages me form learning English grammar.
16. I feel anxious when I have to use grammar structures in communication.
17. I practice English grammar even when it is not required for my university classes.
18. I practice my English grammar mostly when a test or examination is coming.
19. I look for opportunities to use English grammar structures in speaking and writing.
20. I analyze how grammar is used when watching movies or shows in English.
21. I like to receive frequent feedback on learning grammar from the teacher (tests, quizzes).
22. I use new technology/software (e.g. grammar checkers, Grammarly) when learning English.
23. When I fail a grammar test, I try to better organize my work in the future.
24. I like to compare my grammar learning achievements with those of my colleagues.

Items 2, 4, 6, 13, 15, 16, 18, and 21 were reverse-coded to reduce bias and encourage thoughtful responses.

APPENDIX 2

Means and standard deviations for each item by group and administration

Item	Pretest	Pretest	Posttest	Posttest	Delayed posttest	Delayed posttest
	Intervention group	Control group	Intervention group	Control group	Intervention group	Control group
1	4.14 (0.83)	3.83 (1.19)	3.91 (1.04)	3.75 (1.36)	3.67 (1.08)	3.67 (1.23)
2	2.05 (0.72)	2.25 (0.62)	1.81 (0.70)	2.25 (0.97)	2.07 (1.08)	2.08 (0.90)
3	2.67 (1.29)	2.50 (1.31)	2.84 (1.11)	2.75 (1.22)	2.58 (1.14)	2.67 (1.15)
4	1.81 (0.98)	2.00 (0.95)	1.77 (0.95)	1.92 (1.08)	2.05 (1.09)	1.92 (1.00)
5	3.35 (1.13)	3.42 (1.00)	3.37 (1.16)	3.25 (1.14)	3.44 (1.01)	3.50 (1.00)
6	2.72 (1.18)	2.75 (1.29)	2.44 (1.16)	2.67 (1.30)	2.51 (1.26)	2.33 (0.89)
7	3.74 (0.88)	3.67 (0.89)	3.74 (1.00)	3.58 (1.31)	3.67 (0.89)	3.50 (0.90)
8	2.93 (0.94)	2.67 (1.30)	3.07 (1.10)	2.92 (1.24)	3.07 (1.06)	3.17 (0.83)
9	3.53 (0.85)	3.50 (0.90)	3.47 (1.05)	3.83 (1.11)	3.53 (1.05)	3.58 (1.08)
10	3.28 (1.26)	3.25 (0.97)	3.60 (1.090)	3.67 (1.15)	3.33 (1.19)	3.75 (0.87)
11	3.07 (1.30)	2.33 (1.37)	2.79 (1.49)	2.25 (1.14)	2.95 (1.43)	1.75 (1.06)
12	3.05 (1.25)	3.33 (0.98)	3.37 (1.33)	3.58 (1.24)	3.12 (1.18)	3.58 (1.24)
13	1.88 (0.82)	2.17 (0.94)	1.98 (0.99)	2.08 (0.90)	2.07 (1.14)	1.92 (1.00)
14	4.33 (0.75)	3.83 (1.11)	4.23 (0.81)	4.0 (0.95)	4.07 (0.96)	4.00 (0.85)
15	2.77 (1.25)	3.08 (1.44)	2.81 (1.35)	2.58 (0.90)	2.72 (1.33)	2.75 (1.42)
16	2.88 (1.16)	2.83 (1.40)	2.91 (1.29)	3.17 (0.83)	2.95 (1.00)	3.33 (0.89)
17	2.84 (1.25)	2.75 (1.22)	2.74 (1.29)	2.83 (1.19)	2.93 (1.30)	2.75 (1.48)
18	1.98 (0.94)	1.67 (0.89)	2.09 (1.06)	2.08 (1.00)	2.07 (1.14)	1.83 (0.83)
19	3.44 (1.01)	3.50 (0.80)	3.58 (1.07)	3.50 (0.80)	3.44 (1.10)	3.67 (0.89)
20	3.84 (1.11)	3.33 (1.61)	3.93 (1.12)	3.58 (1.16)	3.77 (1.19)	3.67 (0.98)
21	2.35 (0.92)	2.25 (1.22)	2.42 (1.12)	1.83 (0.94)	2.47 (1.14)	1.92 (0.90)
22	3.30 (1.35)	2.67 (1.37)	3.56 (1.31)	3.67 (1.23)	3.42 (1.33)	4.00 (0.95)
23	3.63 (1.00)	3.25 (1.29)	3.47 (1.30)	3.50 (1.45)	3.28 (1.30)	3.58 (1.38)
24	3.33 (1.17)	2.75 (1.42)	3.35 (1.36)	3.42 (1.31)	3.47 (1.24)	3.17 (1.11)

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Badanie wpływu interwencji strategicznej na rozwijanie autonomii w nauce gramatyki

Abstrakt. Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia wyniki quasi-eksperymentalnego badania dotyczącego wpływu nauczania opartego na strategiach, ukierunkowanego na strategie uczenia się gramatyki (Grammar Learning Strategies, GLS), na rozwój autonomii w nauce gramatyki języka angielskiego. W badaniu wzięło udział 55 polskich studentów pierwszego roku trzyletnich studiów licencjackich na kierunku filologia angielska, podzielonych na grupę interwencyjną (43 osoby) oraz grupę kontrolną (12 osób). Interwencja obejmowała różne rodzaje GLS i była realizowana w ośmiu 30-minutowych segmentach podczas regularnych zajęć w trakcie jednego semestru akademickiego. Dane zostały zebrane za pomocą Skali Autonomii w Nauczaniu Gramatyki (Grammar Learning Autonomy Scale, GLAS), specjalnie opracowanego narzędzia badawczego, w trzech pomiarach: przed interwencją, po jej zakończeniu oraz z opóźnieniem. Analiza wariancji nie wykazała istotnych statystycznie różnic wewnątrz grup ani między grupami, co sugeruje, że interwencja nie wpłynęła na autonomię uczestników w nauce gramatyki. Analiza poszczególnych pozycji skali wykazała jednak pozytywny efekt interwencji w odniesieniu do przekonania, że postępy w nauce gramatyki języka obcego zależą od nauczyciela. W artykule przedstawiono również ograniczenia badania oraz kierunki dalszych badań.

Słowa kluczowe: nauczanie oparte na strategiach, strategie uczenia się gramatyki, autonomia w nauce gramatyki, quasi-eksperymentalne badanie.

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III. REVIEWS

Henryk Mazepa. *Eine holprige Reise durch die Landschaft der deutschen Präfixverben*. Kraków: Uniwersytet Jagielloński. 2024. S. 157

Die Schwierigkeit bei dem Erlernen von Präfixverben besteht darin, dass sie nicht nur trennbar oder untrennbar zusammengesetzt sein können, sondern auch sowohl trennbar als auch untrennbar je nach der lexikalisch-stilistischen Sprachebene. Es gehört zum kompetenten Sprachgebrauch, Präfixverben korrekt zu verwenden. Das vorliegende Arbeitsbuch ist eine enorme Hilfe dabei.

Das vorliegende Arbeitsbuch ist als erster Band einer Reihe gedacht, betrachtet werden Präfixverben mit: um-, über-, unter-, durch-. Die Struktur des Buches ist einheitlich: Zuerst werden die einzelnen Präfixe an Beispielen erklärt (Bedeutungen des Präfixes). Dem folgen die einzelnen Aufgaben: Anwendung / Auswahl des richtigen Präfixes zum genannten situativen Beispiel (1. Das Richtige und das Falsche!), Bildung der korrekten grammatischen Form (2. Nur die Verbform!), Nennung der korrekten Verbform anhand von Synonymen (3. Nenne das Verb!), Ergänzung der Verbform in angegebenen Situationen (4. Dreimal dasselbe!), Anpassung der Verbform an den Satzkontext (5. Der Kontext macht's!), Bildung eines logisch und grammatisch korrekten Satzes (6. Ein Satz muss her!), korrekte Auswahl der Verbform in Textlücken (7. Lücken, viele Lücken!), Bildung einer Geschichte mit den angegebenen Verben (8. Erzähle mir eine Geschichte!).

Mit den Aufgaben sollen die Lernenden: ihr Vorwissen und Sprachgefühl aktivieren, aus syntaktischen Mustern die Bedeutung des Verbs erschließen, Wortschatzkenntnisse aktivieren bzw. bereichern, aus dem Satzkontext auf die Bedeutung des Verbs schließen, lexikalische und grammatische Hinweise in den Sätzen erkennen und nutzen, Sätze mit Artikel, Präposition, Hilfsverben ergänzen, einen logischen Textzusammenhang bilden, selbständig einen Text zu einem bestimmten Thema kreieren. Eine Hilfe bei der Erschließung der einzelnen Aufgaben sind Visualisierungen, die mithilfe eines KI-Bildgenerators erstellt und mit roten Grafikelementen versehen wurden.

Den Aufgaben folgen Listen ausgewählter Verben mit den Präfixen um-, über-, unter- und durch- (Anhang A). Tabellarisch werden Verben mit dem jeweiligen Präfix gekennzeichnet, die nur untrennbar (u) oder nur trennbar (t) zusammengesetzt sind sowie Verben, die je nach Bedeutung sowohl trennbar als auch untrennbar (t + u) gebraucht werden können. Die Auswahl der Verben erfolgte nach dem Häufigkeitskriterium.

Im Anhang B werden feste Phrasen/typische Verbverbindungen mit den Präfixverben und einigen Anwendungsbeispielen zusammengestellt. Der Anhang C beinhaltet Lösungen zum Übungsteil.

Das Buch ist für fortgeschrittene Deutschlernende auf einem Sprachniveau von B2 bis C2 gedacht, um ihren Wortschatz in Hinblick auf Präfixverben zu erweitern und zu festigen.

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Somit nennt der Autor als Ziel des vorliegenden Arbeitsbuches, den passiven und aktiven Wortschatz um die Präfixverben mit um-, über-, unter-, durch- für den kompetenten Sprachgebrauch zu optimieren (S. 10). Dank der sorgfältigen Strukturierung ist es also sowohl für Deutschlernende als auch für Deutschlehrende eine enorme Unterstützung für den DaF/DaZ-Unterrichtsalltag.

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Sadia Belkhir. *Proverbs within cognitive linguistics. State of the art.* Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. 2024. Pp. 351.

Proverbs, defined as concise expressions that convey recurring rules and fragments of knowledge, and often enriched with stylistic elements, have long been a subject of interest for rhetoricians, ethnologists or linguists. Semantically, they encapsulate social values, collective wisdom, moral norms, and community identities within highly condensed and memorable forms. The development of phraseology, as a related field, has significantly advanced the study of proverbs, known as paremiology, by refining its methodological tools and frameworks. Contributions from scholars such as Röhrich and Mieder (cf. Röhrich & Mieder 1977; Mieder 1992, 2008) have been instrumental in advancing the systematization of paremiological terminology. Unlike idioms – multiword, stable, and figurative non-sentential expressions – proverbs are strongly rooted in the folk culture of societies, as evidenced by numerous comparative publications. Cross-linguistic studies of proverbs (cf. Wierzbicka 1985; Ulland & Dixon 2023) highlight universal cognitive patterns and conceptual metaphors, as well as culture-specific values and problem-solving strategies embedded in vernacular speech traditions. Numerous research studies examining the use of proverbs in press and discourse – especially with regard to their modifications – have demonstrated their significant argumentative and pragmatic functions, while contemporary constructivist publications highlight the structural versatility of proverbs, underscoring their adaptability across a range of contexts. Despite the extensive body of work on proverbs, the constantly changing research perspective and the interpretative richness of proverbs necessitate the ongoing exploration of proverbs' potential. Certainly a noteworthy book in this regard is the co-authored volume edited by Sadia Belkhir *Proverbs within cognitive linguistics. State of the art* published in 2024 by the John Benjamin Publishing Company.

The book features a comprehensive introduction by the editor and is organized into 12 chapters, divided across four distinct thematic sections: Section 1 *Theoretical discussion of proverbs in cognition and culture*, Section 2 *A cognitive-cross-cultural linguistic approach on proverbs*, Section 3 *Cognitive categories in the proverbs of individual languages and culture*, and Section 4 *Proverbs and related phenomena in a cultural-cognitive linguistic framework.*

The first section delves into the study of proverbs "from a cognitive linguistic stance, recognising the importance of considering the cultural contextual dimension featuring proverb use" (p. 14). It begins with a contribution by Zoltan Kövecses, who explores the application of his Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory and a multilevel view of metaphor to the context-specific analysis of proverbs. The author draws attention to the difference between the interpretation of a non-proverbial and a proverbial metaphor, and emphasises the important role of context in the use and interpretation of a metaphorical proverb. These differences, he argues, stem from the much deeper cultural embeddedness of proverbial expressions.

The second paper in Section 1, *Metonymic layers in proverbs: A cross-linguistic and cross-cultural view*, authored by Mario Brdar, Rita Brdar-Szabó, and Daler Zayniev examines the role of conceptual metonymy in proverbs, presenting a valuable classification system. The authors conclude that many proverbs are rooted in metonymy, which manifests at multiple levels. These metonymic layers contribute significantly to a proverb's meaning, encompass-

ing its illocutionary force and the participants involved. The study identifies and categorizes five distinct levels of metonymic layers (p. 58), which are observed both at the holistic level of the proverb and within its individual components.

In the following piece, *Contradiction in proverbs: The role of stereotypical metaphors*, El Mustapha Lemghari explores the limitations of standard conceptual metaphors in accounting for proverbs with contradictory meanings. The author argues that stereotypical metaphors are "more crucial […] in the process of proverb understanding" (p. 66), as their inherent flexibility allows them to address opposing concepts more effectively. This adaptability makes stereotypical metaphors better suited to explain the contradictions often found within proverbial expressions.

Paper four, entitled *Metaphors of love before and after marriage in proverbs and anti-proverbs* by Anna T. Litovkina opens the second section of the book. The paper compares love metaphors in proverbs before and after marriage, drawing on examples from Anglo-American and other cultural proverbs. It explores the evolution of conceptualizations of love. The analysis reveals a notable shift toward negative metaphors following marriage, reflecting changing cultural attitudes and perceptions of love over time.

In the subsequent piece *Proverbs of Latin and French origin in the history of English: A socio-cognitive analysis*, the author – Julia Landmann – delves into the use of proverbs borrowed from Latin and French into English, focusing on their cultural significance and emotional impact in contemporary discourse. The study shows that the majority of loan proverbs reflect the universal nature of human behaviour and society. The research also confirmed that the use of French or Latin proverbs in their unchanged original language is still a symbol of prestige and higher culture, which is why they are not used in less formal sources.

The following, sixth article – *Cognitive linguistics and expressing / interpreting proverbs in a second language* – written by Gladys Nyarko Ansah, focuses on cross-linguistic Akan-English proverb interpretation. The author addresses the question "how do native speakers of Akan who have become second language speakers of English, interpret and express proverbs across their two languages?" (p. 133). This inquiry is particularly intriguing given the typological differences between the Akan and English languages. The study places significant emphasis on the role of cultural competence in interpreting metaphoric proverbs. The findings confirm that proverbs, whether non-metaphorical or metaphorical but grounded in universal concepts, are relatively easier to interpret. In contrast, proverbs rooted in culturally specific worldviews pose greater interpretative challenges. However, the methodology employed in categorising proverbs into metaphorical and non-metaphorical groups raises questions. The author relies on Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) and uses criteria of literal and combined literal-metaphorical meanings as the basis for classification. Yet, some proverbs categorised as non-metaphorical, such as "Don't bite off more than you can chew" (p. 139), arguably exhibit both literal and metaphorical meanings. While the proposed classification appears to have a theoretical basis, the methodological description provides only partial support, suggesting that further refinement and clarification could be beneficial.

The beginning of the third section of the volume revisits the theme of love and romantic relationships, this time focusing on Greek proverbs. In Chapter seven, titled *Emotion in Greek proverbs: The case of (romantic) love*, Maria Theodoropoulou examines Greek figurative prov-

erbs on romantic love, and love in comparison to non-figurative expressions. Her analysis highlights that romantic love is depicted in a highly figurative manner and is more prevalent in proverbs than other emotions. This prevalence underscores the cultural significance of romantic love in Greek society, reflecting its central role in emotional and cultural expression.

In chapter eight that follows, Yaw Sekyi-Baidoo turns their attention to the metaphor LIVING IS MOVEMENT in Akan proverbs, exploring how proverbs reflect ideas of sustenance, progress, and security in Akan culture.

> This study proceeds with the understanding that beyond target and source concepts, the Akan proverb exploits an overriding conceptualisation that connects living to movement, and that within the broad image schema of living is movement, conceptual and orientational metaphors are intricately exploited to reflect the Akan philosophy of life and its living (p. 205).

The research demonstrates that Akan proverbs about life and living are grounded in the cognitive schema of movement. Operating under the principle that living is movement, these proverbs employ conceptual metaphors to represent sustenance, progress, and security, thereby highlighting the philosophical significance of movement in achieving these core life domains. Moreover, the analysis reveals that the overall cognitive framework is structured by notions of 'outside' and 'inside,' articulated through orientational metaphors such as success is up, security is in, and failure is in.

Section 3 concludes with the contribution of Mohsen Bakhtiar *The role of Persian proverbs in framing Iran's nuclear program: A cognitive linguistic approach*. It explores the use of Persian proverbs in the discourse around Iran's nuclear program, focusing on how proverbs can influence political debates and public opinion. The study reveals that Persian proverbs are used to manipulate political discourse and shape public perceptions of the nuclear program. The author concludes his text as follows

> Proverbs are shown to be appropriate tools for the conceptualisation of aspects of Iran's nuclear program as a complex issue with various dimensions. Proverbs encapsulate a bundle of integrated figurative conceptualisations that provide users with ready-to-use conceptual slots to apply to complex scenarios with multiple roles and relations. […] The proverbial metaphors examined are shown to perform a range of functions: they are employed to obscure facts and political reality, establish and stress ideological viewpoints on the nuclear deal, raise emotions and demonise the West (p. 254).

The fourth and final section of the volume opens with Kim Ebensgaard Jensen's article, *The only good snowclone is a dead snowclone: A cognitive-linguistic exploration of the frayed ends of proverbiality*. This is a well-considered and designed study anchored in the construction grammar of *snowclones* – playful proverb-like expressions. The author argues that while snowclones share certain features with proverbs, they do not qualify as true proverbs. Instead, they are proverb-like constructions that lack the conventional characteristics traditionally associated with proverbs. This distinction underscores their unique role in language and highlights their departure from established proverbial norms.

In the following piece in the section 4 entitled *A cultural linguistic study of embodied Hungarian proverbs representing facial hair* by Judit Baranyiné Kóczy the reader's attention is drawn to Hungarian proverbs with "beard" and "moustache" as components. The author examines Hungarian proverbs involving facial hair, analysing their metaphorical and cultural meanings in relation to manliness, age, and wisdom. In light of the data examined, the researcher contends that moustache metaphors are mostly positive, while beard metaphors have both positive and negative connotations, reflecting cultural attitudes.

The volume's closing paper '*We are in the same storm, not in the same boat': Proverbial wisdom in environmental debates* by Anaïs Augé concentrates on a popular modified proverb, frequently used in crisis discourses, based on the Latin sentence *in eadem navi* (see also Peil 1986; Schuppener 2020; Woźniak 2023). The author uses the climate change debates as a corpus and explores the rhetorical and cultural implications from the study. As a result of the findings, Anaïs Augé reaches the conclusion that the proverb is used in environmental discourse mainly to highlight shared struggles while acknowledging differences in individual experiences.

Proverbs within cognitive linguistics: State of the art, edited by Sadia Belkhir, is a commendable contribution to the fields of cognitive linguistics, cultural studies, and paremiology (the study of proverbs). The volume brings together a diverse array of perspectives, theories, and methodologies, making it a significant and timely exploration of proverbs through the lens of cognitive linguistics. What sets this volume apart is its interdisciplinary approach. It integrates cognitive and cultural dimensions, providing a holistic understanding of proverbs not only as linguistic artefacts but also as cognitive and cultural phenomena.

The theoretical discussions throughout the volume are a combination of established and recognised theories with fresh and forward-thinking. A major strength of the volume is its cross-cultural analysis of proverbs which allows for insights into the universality and specificity of proverbial expressions. Another positive aspect of the book is an empirical rigor of most of the chapters. They rely on empirical data, either from corpora, bilingual speaker studies, or real-world political and cultural discourse. However, it should be emphasized that the studies presented in the volume are mainly small-scale empirical studies. The volume lacks both large-scale and data-driven research, which would help complete the view of proverbs, and it would have enhanced the empirical grounding of many of the discussions. This would have also provided stronger evidence for the theoretical claims, making the research more compelling and reflective of current trends in cognitive linguistics.

However, the volume addresses a crucial gap in paremiological research by placing proverbs within the cognitive and cultural frameworks of linguistics. It may be a valuable resource for linguists, cognitive scientists, and cultural scholars alike. It serves as a reminder that proverbs, despite their brevity and simplicity, hold a wealth of cognitive, cultural, and linguistic insights. Despite some minor areas for improvement it is an essential contribution to linguistic scholarship, and it promises to inspire further research in cognitive and cultural linguistics for years to come.

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Justyna Duch-Adamczyk / Monika Kowalonek-Janczarek / Agnieszka Poźlewicz (Hrsg.). *Vermittlung des Ausdrucks von Emotionen im FSU des Deutschen und des Englischen*. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz Verlag. 2024. S. 229

In der heutigen Sprachwissenschaft werden den Emotionen immer mehr Arbeiten gewidmet. Es wird sogar von einer „emotionalen Wende" (‚emotional turn') gesprochen, die vor allem durch zahlreiche Untersuchungen zu Emotionen der Lernenden zu beobachten ist. Von wissenschaftlichem Interesse sind nicht nur die negativen Emotionen wie Stress, sondern auch die positiven wie z. B. Vergnügen oder Spaß (Boudreau 2018). Obwohl die hohe Bedeutung der Emotionen im Lernprozess bereits anerkannt wurde, wird das Problem der Signalisierung der Emotionen im Fremdsprachenunterricht immer noch nicht ausführlich behandelt. Mit dem Thema befasst sich das Sammelbuch „Vermittlung des Ausdrucks von Emotionen im FSU des Deutschen und des Englischen". Der Band wurde von Justyna Duch-Adamczyk, Monika Kowalonek-Janczarek und Agnieszka Poźlewicz im Rahmen der Serie *E-Figurationen. Schriften zur interdisziplinären Emotionsforschung* im Harrassowitz Verlag veröffentlicht.

Wie die Herausgeberinnen in der Einführung betonen, ist das Ziel des Sammelbuchs, „die existierende Forschungslücke in der Fremdsprachendidaktik [zu] schließen, und […] einen Brückenschlag zwischen Theorie und Praxis [zu] schaffen" (S. 2). Hierbei wird versucht, eine Antwort auf die Frage zu finden, wie unterrichtet wird, in den zwei in Polen beliebtesten Fremdsprachen (d. h. Englisch und Deutsch) über Gefühle und Emotionen zu sprechen. Dabei konzentriert sich der Band nicht auf ein bestimmtes Sprachniveau, sondern die Vermittlung von Emotionsausdrücken wird auf verschiedenen Etappen des Sprachlernens angesprochen.

Das Buch öffnet mit der Einleitung der Herausgeberinnen, die die Problematik bündig näherbringen und die Einteilung im Sammelband darstellen. Weitere Beiträge werden nach fünf Schwerpunkten eingeteilt:

(I) Emotionen und Lehrwerkanalyse
(II) Emotionen und Einsatz multimodaler Testsorten im FSU des Deutschen
(III) Emotionen und Einsatz von Bildern im FSU des Englischen
(IV) Emotionen in der Didaktik des Dolmetschens
(V) Emotionen im FSU aus der Perspektive Lernenden

Im ersten Teil sind zwei Beiträge zu finden, die den Schwerpunkt auf die Lehrwerkanalyse legen. Luiza Ciepielewska-Kaczmarek befasst sich mit sprachlichen Emotionsrepräsentationen in DAF-Lehrwerken für die Primarstufe in Polen. Es wird analysiert, mit welchen Mitteln Emotionen in Lehrwerken auf dem Niveau A1 vermittelt werden. Für die Zwecke der Analyse wurden zwei Lehrbücher ausgewählt: *Hallo Anna neu* und *ABCDeutsch neu*. Die Autorin stellt die Mittel nach ihrer morpho-syntaktischen Repräsentation vor und kommt zum Schluss, dass in erster Linie die Einführung der Routineformeln als empfehlenswerte Strategie zur Emotionsvermittlung dient. Im weiteren Beitrag befassen sich Justyna Duch-Adamczyk, Monika Kowalonek-Janczarek und Agnieszka Poźlewicz mit der Vermittlung der Abtönungspartikel im DaF-Unterricht für Anfänger. Wie angedeutet ist diese Wortart in der deutschen Sprache ein bedeutendes Ausdrucksmittel für Emotionen. Trotz ihrer Relevanz werden sie leider im Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht entsprechend betrachtet, weil sie häufig keine wörtliche Entsprechung in anderen Sprachen finden. Die Autorinnen untersuchen, welche Abtönungs-

partikel und mit welchen Techniken in den Lehrwerken *Menschen A1.1* und *Menschen A1.2* vermittelt werden. Dabei wird der Gebrauch der Abtönungspartikel nicht nur quantitativ vorgestellt, sondern es wird auch qualitativ dargelegt, welche Emotionen Deutschlernende mit welchem Mittel am Anfang des Deutschlernens ausdrücken lernen. Nach den Autorinnen eignet sich „eine Mischung aus Chunks und kognitiver Bekanntmachung" (Bolacio Filho et al. 2017: 62) am besten als Lerntechnik für Abtönungspartikel.

Den Teil zu multimodalen Texten im Fremdsprachenunterricht öffnet der Beitrag von Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz und Krystyna Mihułka, die auf die Anwendung von Ethnomemes im DaF-Unterricht eingehen. Zunächst schlagen die Autorinnen ihre Definition des Begriffs vor. Da das Phänomen bisher wenig untersucht wurde und nur wenige Untersuchungen es thematisieren, ist dies als gute und gelungene Maßnahme zu bewerten. Schließlich wird untersucht, welche polnischen und deutschen Stereotype in analysierten Ethnomemes vorhanden sind und welche Emotionen sie evozieren. Die Autorinnen kommen zum Schluss, dass Ethnomemes sich aus mehreren Gründen gut als Lernmaterial eignen. In erster Linie sind sie ein treffendes Beispiel für authentisches Material, das bei Lernenden starke, vor allem positive Emotionen erweckt, was für die Motivation von der Bedeutung von Lernenden ist. Des Weiteren könnten sie einen bedeutsamen Bestandteil des kulturreflexiven Lernens darstellen. Dies hat ebenfalls einen positiven Einfluss auf das Interesse von Lernenden. Den nächsten Beitrag widmet Joanna Woźniak multimodalen Texten mit affektiver Wirkung im DaF-Unterricht am Beispiel der Karikaturen. Die Autorin präsentiert übersichtlich die Funktionen von Karikaturen und ihr Potenzial im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Sie schränkt sich nicht auf die theoretischen Grundlagen für die Anwendung von Karikaturen ein, sondern gibt auch Beispiele für Übungen, die im Unterricht vollzogen werden können. Gabriela Gorąca-Sawczyk analysiert dagegen in ihrem Beitrag den Einfluss der Emotionen anhand authentischer Lernmaterialien aus der Werbung. Die Autorin fokussiert sich auf die Analyse eines Werbefilms aus der Zeit der Covid-19-Pandemie, die im Rahmen des DaF-Unterrichts durchgeführt werden kann. Dabei verweist sie auf das Analysemodell von Janich (2001: 202–203). Dank der Analyse des Materials, das eine deutliche emotionale Wirkung auf die Studierenden ausübte, konnten die Lernenden besser ihre Emotionen ausdrücken. Die Autorin bemerkt ebenfalls, dass ein authentischer Werbetext helfen kann, die Werbekommunikation besser zu verstehen.

Die Beiträge im darauf folgenden Teil thematisieren Emotionen im Englischunterricht. Zuerst setzt sich Agnieszka Nowicka mit dem Thema Emotionserkennung und -benennung im Englischen auseinander. Das Problem wird am Beispiel der Online-Kunstpräsentationen besprochen. Hierbei wird die Analyse der Mittel von Emotionen nicht nur auf lexikalische Mittel beschränkt, sondern umfasst auch verschiedene phonetische Elemente. Es wird geschlussfolgert, dass die Verwendung der von Lernenden gewählten Materialien den Ausdruck von Emotionen unterstützt. Deshalb sollten die Studierenden auf die Auswahl von Lernmaterialien einen wichtigen Einfluss haben. Danuta Wiśniewska weist in ihrem Beitrag auf die Anwendung von Fotografien und Bildern im Fremdsprachenunterricht hin. Die Autorin führt ihr riesiges Potenzial bei der Vermittlung von emotionsgeladener Lexik sowie bei der Entwicklung ästhetischer und emotionaler Werte an. Zudem werden Sprachübungen vorgeschlagen, in denen Fotografien gebraucht werden.

Zwei weitere Beiträge setzen sich mit Emotionen in der Didaktik des Dolmetschens auseinander. In dem ersten befassen sich Magdalena Jurewicz und Paweł Kubiak mit dem Ausdruck der Emotionen im Konsekutivdolmetschen als wichtigem Bestandteil der Dolmetscherdidaktik. Die Autoren analysieren zuerst zwei konsekutiv gedolmetschte Gespräche und Emotionen, die währenddessen signalisiert werden. Auf Basis der Analyse werden exemplarische Impulse im Dolmetschunterricht angegeben. Nicht zuletzt betonen sie die Bedeutung der emotionalen Kompetenz von Dolmetschern. Aus diesen Gründen kann der Artikel einen wichtigen Beitrag zur Dolmetscherausbildung leisten. Lucyna Krenz-Brzozowska widmet ihren Beitrag der Übermittlung von Emotionen im Dolmetschprozess. Hierbei schlägt sie konkrete Übungen vor, die dem Umgang mit Emotionen beim Dolmetschen dienen, was einen wichtigen praxisorientierten Wert bei der Dolmetscherdidaktik aufweist.

Im letzten Teil werden die Emotionen der Lernenden nähergebracht. In drei Beiträgen werden nicht nur die theoretischen Grundlagen dargestellt, sondern auch ihre Rolle und die Bedeutung der Emotionsregulation beschrieben. Magdalena Aleksandrzak thematisiert die Emotionserkennung aus unterschiedlichen Perspektiven und geht auf die Rolle verschiedener Emotionen im Fremdsprachenunterricht ein. Dorota Owczarek konzentriert sich dagegen auf das Lachen als Bewältigungsstrategie für Emotionen im Unterricht. Anhand der Gespräche der Lernenden wird untersucht, wann sie Humor und Lachen anwenden sowie die Gründe und Auswirkungen dieser Strategien. Die Analyse zeigt, dass das Lachen unterschiedliche Funktionen im Unterricht erfüllen kann und aus mehreren Gründen ein positives, lernunterstützendes Phänomen darstellt. Im letzten Beitrag weisen Jakub Przybył und Sebastian Chudak auf Herausforderungen für emotionale Selbstregulation in Online-Unterricht hin. Die Autoren führten eine Umfrage zu diesem Thema unter einer repräsentativen Gruppe polnischer Studierenden durch und kamen zum Schluss, dass die Befragten während des Online-Unterrichts nicht nur Sorgen, Einsamkeit, Stress, sondern auch Bequemlichkeit, Motivation und Sicherheit empfanden. Außerdem geben die Autoren Lehrkräften nützliche Hinweise zum Online-Unterricht.

Zusammenfassend stellt der Sammelband einen wichtigen und impulsgebenden Teil in der Forschung zu Emotionen in der Fremdsprachendidaktik dar. Einer der größten Vorteile ist seine Vielfältigkeit. Nicht nur werden die Beiträge den theoretischen Betrachtungen gewidmet, sondern sie geben auch einen bedeutsamen praxisnahen Einblick in die Rolle der Emotionen im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Dabei ist zu bemerken, dass sich der Band nicht auf eine Fremdsprache konzentriert. Der Titel erweist sich besonders für Lehrkräfte als nützlich, die interessante und motivierende Anwendungen für ihren Unterricht suchen, sowie für diejenigen, die noch nicht von der Rolle der Emotionen im Fremdsprachenunterricht überzeugt sind. Jedenfalls lässt sich der Band „Vermittlung des Ausdrucks von Emotionen im FSU des Deutschen und des Englischen" als inhaltsreiche und anregende Lektüre empfehlen.

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