

Jarosław Krajka, Magdalena Sowa

Teacher Autonomy in Languages for Specific Purposes—Reflections on LSP Teacher Development Process

Lingwistyka Stosowana / Applied Linguistics / Angewandte Linguistik nr 22,
65-84

2017

Artykuł został opracowany do udostępnienia w internecie przez Muzeum Historii Polski w ramach prac podejmowanych na rzecz zapewnienia otwartego, powszechnego i trwałego dostępu do polskiego dorobku naukowego i kulturalnego. Artykuł jest umieszczony w kolekcji cyfrowej bazhum.muzhp.pl, gromadzącej zawartość polskich czasopism humanistycznych i społecznych.

Tekst jest udostępniony do wykorzystania w ramach dozwolonego użytku.

Jarosław KRAJKA

Uniwersytet Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej w Lublinie

Magdalena SOWA

Katolicki Uniwersytet Lubelski Jana Pawła II

Teacher Autonomy in Languages for Specific Purposes – Reflections on LSP Teacher Development Process

Abstract:

Training teachers of languages for specific purposes is not an easy task, given the complexity of the process, distinctiveness of LSP vs. general language instruction, scarce time available in modern philology curricula and lack of provisions for practicum. However, with increasing popularity of LSP not only in the corporate sector with adults, but also at secondary level in vocational education, the demand for well-trained LSP teachers is going to soar. The present paper shows the specific nature of LSP teacher training and the important place that is occupied in the process by task-based methodology leading to teacher autonomy. The two cases of LSP teacher training implemented at Romance philology of Catholic University of Lublin and Applied Linguistics of Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin exemplify how to develop teacher autonomy through integration of in-class instruction and fieldwork.

Introduction

Successful communication in a foreign language with partners from the job market requires a sufficient level of development of communicative competence, which consists, among others, of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic components (CEFR 2003: 23–25). These components are essential for accomplishment of language tasks which take place in the workplace. Lack of knowledge of language subsystems and inability to apply them while creating discourse, together with lack of understanding and insufficient respect for sociocultural conditions of language communication, as well as inability to use functional means of expression to build professional discourse, have negative consequences for the very process of communication. Moreover, it can also have undesired impact on the particular companies, which conduct business together in a particular area of the job market. The abovementioned components of learner's communicative competence refer to different language-related areas of learner's abilities as a social agent and participant in the professional life, indicating only those aspects that demand special attention in

the process of foreign language learning and teaching.

Framing foreign language instruction (also within specialized languages) in the institutional context justifies a claim that the process of general and specialized language learning and teaching takes place within the didactic framework with the teacher, the learner and the communication channel as its major components (F. Grucza 1978; S. Grucza 2007, 2010). In the didactic framework defined in this way each component has its place and a clearly defined role: “the teacher (T) exerts impact on the learner (L) through certain teaching aids (...) and methods in such a way that learner’s abilities are shaped, or, to be more precise, stimulates the learner so that he/ she can develop (internalize) the abilities that are targeted at in the learning process” (S. Grucza 2010: 167, transl. by J.K.). As a result, it becomes evident that teacher’s and learner’s activities are mutually conditioned, however, their appropriate and successful accomplishment depends, to a large extent, on the level of autonomy that both parties represent during their actions undertaken at subsequent stages of the didactic process. While considering teacher’s and learner’s activities in the framework of LSP glottodidactics, which is the major aim of the present paper, it needs to be stressed that most LSP courses are targeted at adult learners, already mature in social and professional terms, well aware (at least to a certain extent) of their learning purposes and taking decisions on their own. Such a way of defining participants of the instructional process has a great significance for the very nature of language learning and teaching (see E. Gajewska/ M. Sowa 2014), whose ultimate outcome is shaping specialized language skills with the help of appropriate teacher actions.

The aim of the present paper is to reflect upon the concepts of learner and teacher autonomy within the framework of LSP glottodidactics, contributing to some extent to a wider discussion of LSP teacher development and training. To achieve this aim, theoretical considerations as well as practical implications will be given. First of all, the selected aspects of the concept of autonomy in LSP instruction will be highlighted, illustrating the peculiarity of teacher and learner actions within the process of studying specialized languages. In the second part of the paper two different models of LSP teacher training implemented in foreign language departments of Polish universities are going to be presented. Special focus will be made on practical activities making teacher trainees ready for the challenge of becoming an LSP teacher.

1. Teacher activities in the framework of LSP glottodidactics

“The purpose of LSP glottodidactics is to describe, explain and program the process of acquisition of language skills in the specialized domain” (S. Grucza 2007: 11, transl. by J.K.). In order to enable the learner to properly develop and internalize the required abilities, the teacher needs to select and organize those aspects of contents that are to become the subject of teaching, afterwards, he or she selects the techniques and resources to be applied with the learner’s needs in mind. Efficiency of the language learning process, thus, is conditioned to a large extent by the choices and decisions made by the teacher before commencement of the language course. This means that the stage of “programming the process of acquisition of language skills in the specialized domain” as indicated above has a highly significant effect on the shape,

course and ultimate result of the whole process of education. It is precisely at this stage of planning that the complete nature of programming actions undertaken by the teacher to guarantee success of the process is elaborated upon. The range and complexity of LSP teacher actions call for the perception of the programming process also through the perspective of teacher competence, as an entity ultimately responsible for putting into action decisions on what, how and with what effect learners are going to develop.

Programming LSP courses is a time-consuming process (because it takes place through a few separate stages), requires considerable effort (since it demands a significant amount of work to properly accomplish each of the stages), has both interactive (as external parties, apart from the learner and the teacher, also participate in it) and reflective nature (due to the fact that it always requires profound reflection on the learning/ teaching philosophy of the course and its practical realization). Owing to all of these factors, this process also needs to be viewed in a long-term perspective and through particular actions accomplished by the teacher in a particular time and space in relation to particular persons.

Programming of LSP instruction is not done for the sake of planning only, or even only to come up with the final course offering. On the contrary, its purpose is to determine the contents, scope and shape of the LSP course in such a way so that the resultant classes could enable learners to acquire knowledge and develop skills expected by them when commencing learning. In other words, the activities of the teacher preparing an LSP course curriculum should be geared towards aims and needs of potential participants of the learning process, who often find the foreign language study the only opportunity to compensate for competence gaps and raise specialist skills to become successful foreign language communicators in the workplace. Thus, what is needed is such a way of planning teacher's and learners' actions so that the required communicative abilities are developed to the expected level.

The prototypical model of LSP course development encompasses a few stages, among others, analyzing learner needs, retrieving and analyzing source data, developing activities and teaching resources and incorporating them in the schedule of the planned course (J.-M. Mangiante/ Ch. Parpette 2004). Each of these demands undertaking a series of actions to successfully prepare and implement the desired curriculum.

Precise and accurate understanding of reasons and needs that drive learners to take up the learning process constitutes the basis for any didactic actions in the course development process. Teacher's investigation of learner needs in the area of professional communication related to a particular learner's profile is intertwined with gaining familiarity with the target professional domain, together with its characteristic communicative situations, genres and kinds of discourse. "The acquisition of any element of any language, or any language-related ability (knowledge and skill) is to be conducted on the basis of (...) specific language material, or particular texts created by other communicators" (S. Grucza 2007: 10, transl. by J.K.). In case of language learning these texts perform the didactic function, providing the learner with the knowledge and models of actual realizations of language communication in a specific professional domain, but they are also a starting point for the learner's own text

realizations in a foreign language. Such an assumption makes it a challenge for the LSP teacher to seek data sources, contacts and interlocutors that could provide assistance when trying to understand specialized domain aspects (linguistic, professional and/ or cultural). Moreover, retrieving authentic materials (audio, video or text-based documents) that could be subsequently used when conducting classes and designing activities is another major problem to be overcome, since it is rather unrealistic to expect that ready-made published teaching materials will be available for any professional domain and any learner level.

Interactions with the professional domain and its specialists allow the teacher to get access to source data, which, however, might not always be satisfactory. Apart from field-specific data, which exist on their own and as such can be observed or retrieved in audio, video or text format, some understanding of the professional domain can be built by the teacher through interviews, requests and queries directed at particular specialists, e.g., a shift manager, who could describe and explain the way work is organized in a factory. Because “appropriate instrumentalization of the teaching material can have a positive contribution to the acquisition of language abilities” (S. Grucza 2007: 10, transl. by J.K.), the language materials collected through fieldwork have to be subjected to objective analysis as regards their suitability to meet purposes and needs of planned instruction. Thus, the teacher faces the dilemma of which of the retrieved texts to use verbatim, which to modify and how, which to supplement and with what, finally, which to reject. This is so because not all gathered data can be used in course development due to their confidential nature, length, difficulty level, content complexity, language quality, etc. Those materials that prove to be most closely related to the diagnosed needs of learners and the adopted methodological assumptions of the curriculum are used to construct activities enabling development of communicative abilities and language subsystems in the target workplace. These very activities will constitute the backbone of the learning unit and will be executed by learners during LSP instruction. Their structure and contents are determined by diagnosed needs of learners and adopted instructional objectives, as well as they need to be consistent with the strategies of developing contents and skills adopted by the LSP teacher.

Accomplishing the actions characterized in Table 1 demands that the LSP teacher should conduct profound reflection on the objectives and contents of teaching as well as on didactic aids so as to satisfy learners’ needs to the greatest extent possible and enable them to develop expected language skills. In order to attain these goals, it is on numerous occasions that the teacher needs to expand and update his/ her knowledge and abilities in the areas of the target language, communication and methodology. He/ she also needs to learn how to “be in the learner’s shoes”, implement innovative techniques and cutting-edge technologies to properly deliver teaching materials, conduct constant reflection on the learning process, as well as observe, self-analyze and self-assess all the actions taken to design the curriculum. A clearly task-based nature of the planning stage, in which the teacher accomplishes particular actions step-by-step and on his/ her own, gives the possibility to reveal and assess his/ her level of autonomy. This is to be demonstrated through, for instance, awareness of actions taken,

independence while planning or setting goals, conducting self-reflection, exercising responsibility for the level of their own knowledge and accomplishing planned actions.

<i>Analyzing the rationale for an LSP course</i>	<i>Analyzing learner needs</i>	<i>Retrieving source data</i>	<i>Analyzing collected data</i>	<i>Designing activities</i>
- contacting a sponsor and/ or course participants; - coming up with questions concerning requirements towards the course; - designing a questionnaire/ drawing up questions to the sponsor; - analyzing answers; - identifying key parameters in relation to the planned LSP course	- selecting communicative situations; - identifying contents, competences, text genres and discourse types; - formulating hypotheses about the target professional domain; - identifying potential professional interactions; - exploring available data sources; - designing needs analysis instruments	- identifying the target professional domain; - contacting specialists/ field informants; - retrieving data on types of discourse characteristic for the target domain; - getting permission for data recording (audio, video); - conducting interviews, making recordings; - retrieving texts	- assessing retrieved data; - selecting pieces of data for potential use in the designed course; - adapting collected data with regards to target learner needs and profile; - adapting collected data with regards to LSP course purposes; - extracting and selecting teaching contents present in data retrieved through fieldwork	- selecting teaching contents with regards to intended activities and techniques; - linking activities to the target professional domain; - drawing up objectives of the designed activities; - deciding on the form and structure of activities; - specifying task instructions; - deciding upon the order and progression of activities; - coming up with assessment criteria of designed activities

Table 1. Stages of LSP course programming and corresponding teacher actions

2. From learner autonomy to teacher autonomy

Ever since the beginning of the 1980s autonomy has been given a considerable amount of attention and has been defined in a variety of different ways. In the late 1980s it referred to learning situations (P. Benson 2001: 13), while since that time most working definitions have been based on the idea that autonomy is one of the features of a learner. The best-known definition of autonomy was suggested by Holec (1981) as "... the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (H. Holec 1981: 3). The term may also refer to: "situations in which learners study entirely on their own; a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning; an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education; the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning; the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning" (P. Benson/ P. Voller 1997: 1–2). Another definition presents "an autonomous learner [as a person] who is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions. ... There is no involvement of a teacher or an institution. And the learner is also independent of specially

prepared materials” (L. Dickinson 1987: 11). According to Little (2004), “learner autonomy requires the learner’s full involvement in planning, monitoring and evaluating his or her learning” (D. Little 2004: 105). Finally, “an autonomous person [is] one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions. This capacity depends on two main components: ability and willingness. Ability depends on possessing both knowledge about the alternatives from which choices have to be made and the necessary skills for carrying out whatever choices seem most appropriate. Willingness depends on having both the motivation and the confidence to take responsibility for the choices required” (W. Littlewood 1996: 428).

Various sets of characteristic features of autonomous learners have been proposed as follows:

[Autonomous learners:]

- 1) are able to identify what has been taught and the importance of learning it as well as they are concerned about what they are trying to do – so, they are aware of the teacher’s objectives;
- 2) are able to formulate their own learning objectives, not necessarily in competition with the teacher;
- 3) can and do select and implement appropriate learning strategies – often consciously, and can monitor their own use of learning strategies;
- 4) are able to identify strategies that are not working for them, that are not appropriate, and use others;
- 5) conduct self-assessment, [that is] they monitor their own learning (L. Dickinson 1993: 330–331).

[Autonomous learners:]

- 1) see their relationship to what is to be learned, to how they will learn and to the resources available as one in which they are in charge or in control of;
- 2) are in an authentic relationship to the language they are learning and have a genuine desire to learn that particular language;
- 3) have a robust sense of self that is unlikely to be undermined by any actual or assumed negative assessments of themselves or their work;
- 4) are able to step back from what they are doing and reflect upon it in order to make decisions about what they next need to do and experience;
- 5) are alert to change and able to change in an adaptable, resourceful and opportunistic way;
- 6) have a capacity to learn that is independent of the educational processes in which they are engaged;
- 7) are able to make use of the environment they find themselves in strategically;
- 8) are able to negotiate between the strategic meeting of their own needs and responding to the needs and desires of other group members (M.P. Breen/ S.J. Mann 1997: 134–136).

[Autonomous learners:]

- 1) are methodical and disciplined;
- 2) are logical and analytical;
- 3) are reflective and self-aware;
- 4) demonstrate curiosity, openness and motivation;
- 5) are flexible;
- 6) are interdependent and interpersonally competent;
- 7) are persistent and responsible;
- 8) are venturesome and creative;
- 9) show confidence and have a positive self-concept;
- 10) are independent and self-sufficient;
- 11) have developed information seeking and retrieval skills;
- 12) have knowledge about and skill at learning processes;

13) develop and use criteria for evaluating (P.C. Candy 1991: 459–466).

It is not enough to try to define the concept of autonomy, since doubts need to be resolved as to which elements of autonomy are those of the greatest significance. The discussion on the topic has led researchers to agree that autonomy may not only have different degrees (D. Nunan 1997: 192), but also forms which may vary in terms of learners' age, learning progress or perceptions towards learning (D. Little 1991). As regards levels of autonomy, there have been different models established. One of them suggests that autonomy comprises five levels of implementation, "some of [which] are more readily incorporated into teaching materials than others" (D. Nunan 1997: 194). The levels are as follows: awareness, involvement, intervention, creation and transcendence; see Table 2 below.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Learner action</i>	<i>Content</i>	<i>Process</i>
1	Awareness	Learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using.	Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles/ strategies.
2	Involvement	Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer.	Learners make choices among a range of options.
3	Intervention	Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning programme.	Learners modify/ adapt tasks.
4	Creation	Learners create their own goals and objectives.	Learners create their own tasks.
5	Transcendence	Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.	Learners become teachers and researchers.

Table 2. Levels of implementation of autonomy (D. Nunan 1997: 195)

Obviously, if we try to view LSP teachers as learners first, acquiring their second language to the extent enabling them to teach it to others, and teachers next, grasping pedagogical and didactic skills, the concept of levels of autonomy proves to be highly relevant. In fact, more sophisticated levels of autonomy (Intervention, Creation and Transcendence) are the ones in which teacher learners become transformed into student teachers, exercising teacher autonomy transferred from their own learning experiences.

3. Task-based approach in the process of developing learner autonomy

In the didactic framework the teacher makes his/ her impact on the learner with the use of resources and methods that pertain to particular language material (texts) and that are supposed to develop learners' language skills within the specialized domain. Such an assumption leads to a claim that the didactic framework is characterized by close interactivity of teacher and learner actions: learner actions are a result of previously programmed actions of the teacher, while the actions accomplished by the

learner give the teacher necessary data on the extent to which knowledge and skills have been acquired. Moreover, there is also interaction between the LSP learner and the language material introduced in the process. The kinds or modes of this interaction are obviously conditioned by the teaching techniques and resources programmed for teacher use, however, they are also based on the learner's level of autonomy. As it is pointed out by numerous researchers, learner autonomy is, in fact, the consequence of teacher autonomy: "an autonomous learner can fully succeed (...) only when taught by an autonomous teacher" (M. Wysocka 2003: 38, transl. by J.K.); "there will be no autonomous learner without an autonomous teacher (A. Michońska-Stadnik 2004: 18, transl. by J.K.); "a superlearner can only have a superteacher as a partner" (W. Wilczyńska 2004: 48). Reflective teaching, thus, can be viewed as a foundation for reflective learning, and an autonomous instructor becomes a role model for autonomous students (see M. Piotrowska-Skrzypek 2008: 248).

Learner actions in LSP glottodidactics have a strongly task-based orientation. This is caused, among others, by previously executed teacher actions as well as by the way he/ she analyses numerous communicative situations to isolate tasks and speech acts while specifying methodological assumptions, contents and course of LSP instruction. At the same time, these communicative situations, together with relevant tasks and speech acts, have become the basis for particular learner actions undertaken during the process of learning, which need to be compatible with previously diagnosed learner needs. A task becomes an important unit of analysis while identifying needs, moreover, it bears numerous benefits for course organization and learner autonomy development. First of all, it enables reflection on which aspects are (or should be) the target of instruction, while enabling the learner to assess his/ her own competence (or its lack) in terms of what the learner already knows as well as what needs to be learnt. Secondly, since each task exists in a rich situational context, the LSP learner has to seek possible and optimal ways of acting individually and/ or in groups, which encourages him/ her to creatively and consciously look for individual learning strategies and solutions while assessing the benefits and drawbacks of their application at the same time. Finally, through executing tasks, learners become aware of the necessity to be active participants in the workplace interactions through the target language. This builds understanding of the role and significance of a foreign language in professional interactions, since it is always a means to accomplish a particular purpose rather than an end in itself.

The popularity of tasks in LSP instruction is also caused by a widespread assumption that the best way of learning is through performing tasks. Additionally, the task-based learning philosophy reflects previously adopted learning objectives and contents, which enable the acquisition of language skills in the specialized domain that are essential to undertake particular professional actions. Thus, it is typical for LSP methodology to adopt semi-authentic tasks as the starting point for language teaching, which take the form of projects, case studies or simulations in the classroom. Apart from these, activities oriented at the development of lexis, grammar, phonology or communication, well-established in general language instruction, also find their application in a Languages for Specific Purposes classroom. However, what gives the

latter a different dimension is their task-oriented nature when applied in LSP. Even when the activities are focused on language subsystems, the ones related to LSP are always framed in the context of analyzed language functions, text genres, discourse types, to enable accomplishment of particular profession-oriented objectives. Apart from acquiring language means, LSP learners should be given a chance to get real language practice in communicative actions simulating the ones performed in the actual workplace.

The task-based nature of the LSP learning process and the application of activating forms of work allow the teacher to maximize learner engagement in and contribution to the course of learning. While the LSP teacher is most active during the stage of programming instruction, he/ she moves more to the background in favor of greater inter/activity of learners during the very course implementation. Limiting his/ her presence to the required minimum means shifting the focus of action from the teacher onto learners, opening as great a range of occasions for unconstrained and authentic information exchange as possible and differentiating modes of work (group and individual) to increase learner autonomy.

While foreign language methodology so far adopted fairly traditional formats of on-site intensive and extensive courses with the presence of the teacher, the development of new Information and Communication Technologies has changed the way LSP instruction can be organized and administered. New ways of teaching allow much greater flexibility in terms of selecting contents, time and place of learning, which results in the traditional shape of face-to-face instruction occupying only a part of the course, with its substantial part implemented at a distance.

While the increased role of multimedia has changed the material organization of the course, no significant changes have been noticed in the way that the roles of the participants of the didactic framework are viewed, in the sense that it is still the teacher who exercises impact on the learner. Even though LSP instruction can be mediated by innovative means and techniques, in different dimensions of time and place, it still leads towards the same goal of developing learner's language skills within the specialized domain. The focus is shifted from contents transmission onto creating an environment conducive to gathering knowledge and skills in a collaborative manner. In this way, learner's autonomous learning gets a new dimension, which calls for its inclusion in the programmed education. While still retaining its task-based nature, learning techniques become more and more conducive to self-study, either in dedicated learning centres or housed on e-learning platforms.

4. Technology in LSP education

Much of the research into the use of technology in LSP instruction has been devoted to Data-Driven Learning and corpus-based learning (e.g., Ch.-F. Chang/ Ch.-H. Kuo 2011; C. Tribble/ U. Wingate 2013). For instance, specialized corpora were used as a source of information on genres and as a tool for LSP materials development (J. Hüttner et al. 2009); discourse analysis was a basis for materials development by student teachers (P. Sullivan/ H. Girginer 2002). In the area of learner authoring, corpus self-compilation was reported as highly beneficial in increasing learner

Language Awareness (M. Charles 2014; D. Lee/ J. Swales 2006). Positive learner evaluations called for the use of multimedia due to its perceived learning effects, as a means of self-study, in general instruction (e.g., P. Brett 2000) as well as in online ESP learning (M. Fan/ X. Xunfeng 2002).

However, given current focus on learner autonomy and unlimited access to free online authoring tools, involving student teachers in creating digital materials seems to be a viable solution for a contemporary LSP classroom. Kramsch et al. (2000) underline that engaging students in the process of creating learning materials is beneficial for motivation and attitude towards the learning process and the subject matter. Nikolova (2002) emphasizes the fact that being involved in the selection of content teaches student teachers the skills of reflecting and prioritizing, which leads to improvement of the learning process on the metacognitive level. According to Amiri (2000), language teachers should be trained not merely as consumers but as both consumers and producers of computer-based materials.

However, the process of innovation adoption, be it in the technological, organizational or content-related spheres, is not easy and simple, in fact, quite extensive research on innovation adoption (E.M. Rogers 1983, 1995, 2003; N. Markee 1997; L. Sherry/ F. Tavalin/ D. Gibson 2000; M.C. Pennington 1995, 2004) indicates that only a small number of trainees actually grasp the introduced aspects and incorporates them straight away into their teaching repertoire. On the contrary, as indicated by Hampel and Stickler (2005), before teachers introduce authoring into their inventory of techniques, and before they develop their own teaching style based on technological or some other kind of innovation, quite a few stages of development need to be overcome, a considerable amount of time might pass, and not all teachers might get to the top levels of the teacher skills pyramid (Figure 1).

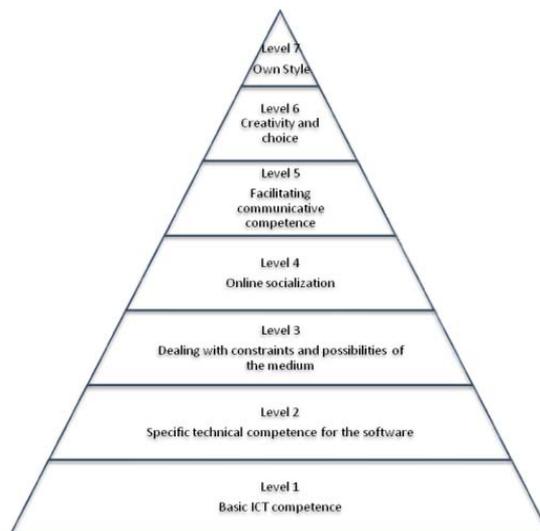


Figure 1. Teacher skills pyramid (R. Hampel/ U. Stickler 2005).

In order to create a technology-mediated ESP course which would bring desired effects in terms of development of students' language proficiency, the teacher needs to grasp and display particular skills. Hampel and Stickler (2005) identify seven key competencies of online tutors which are presented in the pyramid in Figure 1. The three levels at the bottom of the pyramid encompass skills referring to basic competencies in dealing with hardware and software, without which the design of an e-learning tool is barely possible. 'Online socialization' means the ability to build social communities necessary to overcome the feeling of isolation which often accompanies e-learning (R. Hampel/ U. Stickler 2005). The fifth level is closely related to the previous one, as creating a successful virtual environment is dependent on the sense of community which would then facilitate distance communication and eliminate communication barriers (R. Hampel/ U. Stickler 2005). Creativity and choice mean that the online tutor is supposed to choose out of a variety of available sources high-quality materials which would suit the needs of his/ her students (R. Hampel/ U. Stickler 2005). The last level concerns the development of the tutor's own teaching style in the online environment (R. Hampel/ U. Stickler 2005). As taking novice LSP instructors through those levels to the top of the pyramid is a challenge of teacher development programs worldwide, it is the problem that is going to be addressed in the study below.

5. Developing autonomous LSP teachers – two case studies

5.1. English for Specific Purposes – digital materials authoring

The implementation of LSP teacher training courses into the modern philology curriculum is not easy due to strict limitations of the teacher qualifications scheme as specified in regulations of the Ministry of National Education. One opportunity, however, is to devote a part of teacher training for the 3rd and 4th educational cycle ("*Metodyka nauczania j. angielskiego na III i IV etapie edukacyjnym*") to teaching LSP, with a 30-hour conversation class integrating the components of teaching adults, LSP and digital authoring in a single course. Graduate students of Applied Linguistics of Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin, well-skilled in computers and acquainted with the elements of Computer-Assisted Language Learning thanks to previous classes, take the teacher training as the elective (additional) specialization. The students are aware of the chance to gain teaching qualifications in two languages upon the completion of the M.A. study cycle, which is an opportunity difficult to arrange out of university, and they welcome the idea of gaining ESP teacher expertise.

Throughout the period of one semester, the students are guided through the process of ESP digital materials development as follows:

1. choosing a specialism, finding informants;
2. conducting a needs analysis, generalizing results, presenting findings to the class;
3. drawing up a needs-based syllabus;
4. finding coursebooks, evaluating materials in reference to diagnosed needs;
5. receiving basic training in Moodle authoring;

- adding resources;
 - creating collaborative activities and quizzes;
 - managing the course, adding students, giving feedback;
6. receiving basic training in external CALL applications:
 - quizzing tools: Kahoot, Memrise, LearningApps, Socrative, ESLvideo, Quizlet, BrainPOP, Voki;
 - audio authoring, video authoring, captioning tools;
 7. authoring the course, conducting peer evaluation, giving in-class presentations.

In order to accomplish the abovementioned procedure, the class is divided into 2–3 person groups free to choose their own specialism to research. Essential stages of the LSP training course are conducting a needs analysis with selected informants, investigating wants, needs and necessities, gaining access to relevant subject-domain documents to be able to design the e-learning course, then developing e-learning materials and putting them to test with the domain specialists. Thus, the innovative nature of the program has three important characteristic features:

1. integration of diverse areas and competences: methodology of languages for specific purposes, materials evaluation and development, digital authoring, e-learning;
2. conducting action research and fieldwork: needs analysis, target language situation analysis, conducting interviews, questionnaires and product analyses; data collation and presentation;
3. making provisions for learner autonomy in a teacher development course: instructor's focus on learning processes and efficiency of learning; syllabus negotiated with Student Teachers (STs); setting individual timelines, selecting own specialisms and finding informants, allowing STs to make choices of digital tools, involving STs in establishing criteria for peer evaluation; conducting peer-feedback on courses developed by STs.

As indicated by the post-experience interviews, students generally perceive they have improved their digital competence, mainly in terms of finding and evaluating materials and digitizing them as Moodle activities. They are less apprehensive about Moodle as the teaching environment than at the beginning and greatly appreciate being acquainted with different online tools (Kahoot, LearningApps, Memrise or Socrative). Even though these cutting-edge technologies do inspire students to create ESP materials, eventually well-established HotPotatoes and LearningApps are chosen as “safe” technologies fully harnessed by student teachers.

As regards ESP teacher skills, participants evaluate their needs analysis abilities relatively highly, claiming that preparing tools, finding informants and conducting needs assessment have not caused them major problems. This might be caused by choosing personal connections for ESP informants, as well as a small scope of needs analysis limited to 2–3 informants. As such, Student Teachers have to be made aware of subjectivity and bias involved in such participant selection procedures. Much greater challenge proves to be materials selection and authoring – it becomes clear

how pre-experienced student teachers, new to a given specialism, find it hard to estimate the significance of materials for the discipline.

Checking in

A guest has just arrived to the hotel and s/he has to check in.

 Working at the front desk

 Checking in

Watch the video as an introduction to the topic.

 Checking in - listening

 Checking in - listening

 Compare the situations

Making a hotel reservation

Susan Greenberg calls City Center Hotel to make a reservation. Watch the video making a hotel reservation in English and do the quiz.

 Making a hotel reservation

 Hotel reservation

 Language point - introducing yourself over the phone

 Introducing yourself over the phone

 Asking someone to wait on the phone

 Asking someone to wait on the phone

 Key vocabulary

Dealing with requests and complaints

Read an article about the weirdest requests and complaints. Think how would you react and deal with such problems.

 World's weirdest hotel requests and complaints

 Brainstorm

Watch the video 'Problems at a hotel' and do the quiz.

 Problems at a hotel

 Problems at a hotel

 Complaints & requests

Figure 2. Selected topics from the “English for hotel receptionists” e-learning course developed by MCSU students.

The participants generally indicate that the “Digital materials authoring in ESP teacher development” course has a significant effect on their teaching competence, both in the area of Moodle authoring and teaching LSP to adults. They become more aware of the necessity of individualizing instruction to fit diagnosed learners’ needs, realize how multi-faceted English language teaching could be, notice significant differences between teaching children/ adolescents and adults as well as between teaching General English and English for Specific Purposes.

Since one of the major assumptions of the course is to implement autonomy in teacher training, peer evaluation of student-made products is an important part of the

process. In particular, developing assessment criteria, applying them objectively, encouraging STs to justify their answers, are all essential procedures building greater awareness of students as course designers and digital materials developers. For many students, course authoring proves to be more time-consuming than expected, especially that they find it difficult to manage time on their own without strict supervision of the instructor. The areas for improvement noticed by them in their peers' products are usually located within the area of imperfect structure of online courses – navigation, internal structure of topics and consistency across and within topics; sometimes chaotic progression, weak openings and closings or inadequate guidance within task instructions. Also learner support mechanisms, such as missing objectives for particular topics, a better developed help forum/ FAQ section or evaluation rubrics were found missing or insufficient in many student-made products, together with varying quality of materials, differing difficulty level within the same topic or certain methodological faults. Since peer evaluation proves to be difficult and time-consuming, in the future reiterations of the course evaluation of technical and methodological aspects of online language instruction needs to be practiced more extensively.

The screenshot displays a web-based course interface. On the left, there are two main navigation panels: 'ADMINISTRATION' and 'MY COURSES'. The 'ADMINISTRATION' panel includes 'Course administration', 'Grades', 'Switch role to...', 'Return to my normal role', and 'Site administration'. The 'MY COURSES' panel lists various course topics such as 'Aktualności dla studentów', 'IT - Technologia informacyjna w pracy nauczyciela i tłumacza', 'English for everyday use', 'Tłumaczenia audio-wizualne', 'English for Badminton Players', 'English for Soldiers', 'English for Psychology Students', 'Visiting Open Air Museum in Lublin', 'NowMetKsz', 'Культура России', 'Language testing and materials evaluation', 'Introduction to Second Language Acquisition theory', 'Everyday English: Vocab', 'Seminarium dyplomowe z glottodydaktyki', 'Foreign Language Teaching Methodology', 'Narzędzia', 'Metodyka II rok', 'Practical receptive-productive skills year III', 'Practical phonetics', 'Seminarium magisterskie', 'Seminarium licencjackie', and 'Vampires – From Folk Tales to Popular Culture'. On the right, four topic cards are visible: 'How to apply for a visa?' (with sub-items: 'Your rights in the U.S.', 'Types of visas', 'Your rights'), 'The winner takes it all - job interview' (with sub-items: 'Navy Interview Questions & Tips', 'Job interview - useful phrases', 'Matching - an exercise', 'Listening exercise', 'Listening & vocabulary exercise', 'Be prepared for a job interview - a quiz', 'A little bit of humour :)'), 'I believe I can fly... by plane' (with sub-items: 'Read before you buy a ticket', 'Be safe but never bored!', 'Travelling abroad - listening', 'At the airport - useful vocab', 'Crossword', 'Hangman', 'Your tricks and tips'), and 'A ship is more complicated than a sheep' (with sub-items: 'Listen and repeat', 'Ships - the vocabulary', 'Listen and choose the correct answer').

Figure 3. Four topics from the “English for sailors” e-learning course developed by Applied Linguistics MCSU students.

5.2. French for Specific Purposes in teacher training – course planning and curriculum development

French as a foreign language teacher module, offered to post-graduate students of Romance philology of John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin, has been supplemented since the academic year 2012/2013 with the “Teaching French for Specific Purposes” course as an integral part of the teacher development process. At present, a 30-hour conversation course takes place in the third semester of the post-graduate study program. The time available enables the lecturer to make a brief overview of selected theoretical aspects of LSP instruction as well as allows student teachers to put the theory into practice within such topics as analyzing needs, defining objectives, selecting teaching contents, analyzing professional discourse, creating activities. In the course of studies trainees face the sample tasks typically undertaken by a teacher before actual commencement of LSP instruction as described in Section 1.

During the process of designing a curriculum for teaching French for Occupational Purposes, Student Teachers start with selecting a particular profession which they are going to design a course for. As indicated by the experiences of the recent years, in most cases, they tend to select those specialisms which they know from their own professional practice or the ones they are familiar with as clients or patients. Thus, personal experiences of life and work are a useful starting point for gathering didactic experiences necessary to plan instruction for a potential job. Student Teachers expand their knowledge within particular professions with authentic materials available as descriptions of professions and job positions published by French state institutions such as *Agence Nationale pour l'Emploi* (ANPE) or *Organisme National d'Information sur les Enseignements et les Professions* (ONISEP).

The description of a profession, a job position or a work-related domain enables the curriculum developer to specify the communicative situations and corresponding tasks executed with the use of a foreign language typical for a selected specialism. If we adopt the view that curricula developed by students are to be targeted at job-experienced learners, the major focus needs to be placed on developing learners' language skills related to the specialized domain. This means emphasizing language actions (aiming at reception, production, interaction and mediation) which are indispensable to function appropriately in a given job position with foreign language use. Gathering data in this respect takes place mainly through analyzing texts and professional discourses as well as observing linguistic interactions in the workplace. Thanks to these methods, students collect authentic utterances which are framed in the appropriate context and which contain language expressions necessary for their actual accomplishment.

The target language material collected in this way is a foundation for students to set learning objectives situated in the sphere of professional communication and to familiarize themselves with language subsystems (e.g., vocabulary, grammar). Specifying teaching contents demands, on the one hand, estimating actual and intended proficiency level of potential learners, and, on the other, suiting these aspects of contents to the needs of course participants and the requirements of the target

professional domain. The specified teaching contents demand selection of didactic techniques and creating such activities that would ensure possibly greatest involvement of learners.

The actions accomplished by students within the scheme outlined above give them the possibility to determine the outline of a potential curriculum of a course of French for Occupational Purposes. The results of the course development process of Romance philology students at Catholic University of Lublin can be viewed below in reference to particular professional domains within a single communicative situation.

<i>Situation de communication</i>	<i>Tâches professionnelles</i>	<i>Objectifs communicatifs et professionnels</i>	<i>Objectifs linguistiques</i>	<i>Document s</i>	<i>Actes de parole</i>
Accueillir un client	Prendre contact Prendre en charge Prendre congé	Savoir (se) présenter Savoir saluer Savoir accueillir Savoir proposer les services Savoir vérifier la réservation Savoir indiquer le chemin vers la chambre Savoir souhaiter un bon séjour et remercier Savoir informer, questionner, expliquer	Lexique: -formules de politesse -vocabulaire relatif au confort de la chambre réservée -formules de salutation Grammaire: -numéraux ordinaux et cardinaux -interrogation (<i>est-ce que...</i> , inversion q rappel) -affirmation et négation q rappel -prépositions et adverbes de lieu -pronoms relatifs: <i>qui, que, où</i> -verbes: <i>remercier qqn de qch, souhaiter qch à qqn</i>	Fiche client Fiche d'hôtel	Bonjour Madame/ Monsieur. Bienvenu(e) à l'hôtel... Que puis-je faire pour vous ? Vous avez réservé une chambre supérieure pour une personne, oui ? Souhaitez-vous une place de parking ? Souhaitez-vous être réveillé(e) demain matin ? Voulez-vous un petit déjeuner demain matin ? Est-ce que vous connaissez l'hôtel ? Voici votre carte et la clé de votre chambre, le numéro 104 qui se situe au premier étage. Je vous remercie de votre confiance et vous souhaite un agréable séjour au sein de notre établissement. Je reste bien sûr à votre disposition.

Table 3. An outline of a French language course for hotel receptionists (B1 level).

<i>Situation de communication</i>	<i>Tâches professionnelles</i>	<i>Objectifs communicatifs et professionnels</i>	<i>Objectifs linguistiques</i>	<i>Documents</i>	<i>Actes de parole</i>
Accueillir le client dans le salon	Accueillir le client et l'installer	Savoir accueillir	<u>Lexique:</u> - formules de salutations	Magazines féminins	Asseyez-vous. / Vous pouvez vous asseoir ici.
	Identifier la coiffure attendue et conseiller le client	Savoir identifier la coiffure attendue	- type de cheveux (gras, secs, longs, blonds, épais...)	Magazines des professionnels de la coiffure	Madame, nous commençons par le shampoing. Pouvez-vous maintenant vous asseoir sur ce fauteuil devant le bac.
	Réaliser des prestations de coiffure	Savoir conseiller le client	- type de coiffure (boucles, tresse, chignon...)	Etiquettes des produits de beauté	L'eau est-elle trop chaude ou trop froide ?
	Présenter au client sa coiffure	Savoir réaliser des prestations de coiffure	- prestation (natter, couper, tondre, rafraichir, crêper...)		Je vois que vous avez des pellicules, voulez-vous un shampoing spécial pour les faire disparaître ?
	Prendre congé	Savoir présenter des prestations	- aménagement (fauteuil, séchoir, miroir)		Vous devriez utiliser un soin spécial une fois par semaine.
		Savoir présenter la coiffure			Quel genre de coupe désirez-vous ?
		Savoir prendre congé	<u>Grammaire:</u> - conditionnel - futur proche - verbes : pouvoir, vouloir, devoir - impératif - questions - inversion - adjectifs possessifs		Je propose de... / Je peux vous proposer une décoloration, pour changer la couleur de vos cheveux. Voulez-vous devenir blonde ?
					C'est presque fini. Maintenant, je vais prendre mon séchoir pour sécher vos cheveux ... C'est fini. Vous pouvez vous regarder dans le miroir.

Table 4. An outline of a French language course for hairdressers (B1 level).

The examples of practical implementation of task-based training of teachers of French for Specific Purposes used at John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin are, obviously, not devoid of shortcomings and faults. Since their comprehensive discussion can be found elsewhere (Sowa 2016), they are not going to be elaborated on in greater detail here. The tangible outcomes created by Student Teachers as given

above are important for our investigations of the concept of LSP teacher autonomy. Preparing at least an outline of an LSP curriculum requires that Student Teachers go beyond the patterns of lesson planning and materials development typical of general language instruction. The LSP teacher is usually not able to find ready-made teaching materials that would be relevant for the learners' profession, language level, instructional context, available time, etc. Programming instruction to refer to learners' professional needs is unavoidable, however, not always straightforward and welcomed by novice teachers. This is the reason why greater focus on LSP course development needs to be devoted during the teacher training process, to make sure that would-be teachers are better prepared for independent, creative and professional didactic effort.

In order to cover each of the aspects indicated in Table 3 and 4 Student Teachers need to gather a plethora of information, referring to other people (specialists, peers), mass media (the Internet, TV, the press) or printed publications (domain-specific literature). They face the necessity of seeking and identifying possibly useful sources of data, as well as evaluating their relevance in the process. These searches will be even more intensive if LSP Student Teachers make a proper self-evaluation of their own teaching competence to isolate lacks to be improved for successful accomplishment of the course development task. This demands readiness and eagerness to study and self-improve their competence, openness to new information and skills (of linguistic, professional or technical nature), as well as the ability to learn in every possible situation (e.g., through gaining experiences and cooperating with others). Each of the undertaken planning tasks demands thought, reflection, self-analysis, self-assessment, creativity, balancing pros and cons, weak and strong sides of potential solutions. This means that the LSP teacher autonomy is a feature which needs time and proper conditions to be developed. Teacher training at the university level seems to be the most appropriate time to sensitize students to their professional independence, also through tackling important challenges connected with LSP course development.

Conclusion

Authenticity, task-based nature and fieldwork are the three features that largely contribute to the development of teacher autonomy when applied in the teacher development process. In the LSP context, this means structuring teacher training courses in such a way that there are considerable degrees of autonomy to increase prospective teachers' language awareness and promote reflective teaching. As indicated by the discussion of two LSP teacher training programs (one for English for Specific Purposes and the other for French for Occupational Purposes), using in course development process such authentic tasks as case studies, interviews, simulations and digital authoring gives teacher trainees an opportunity to gain a real-life experience of selected professional domains, the nature of communicative interactions, typical language patterns, etc. Since the two teacher training case studies from KUL and UMCS show successful acquisition of teaching skills, task-based

orientation towards teacher autonomy could be maintained and introduced also in other components of the teacher training module.

References

- Amiri, F. (2000), *IT-literacy for language teachers: Should it include computer programming?* In: *System* 28(1), 77–84.
- Benson, P. (2001), *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. London.
- Benson, P./ P. Voller (1997), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. Harlow.
- Breen, M.P./ S.J. Mann (1997), *Shooting arrows at the sun: Perspectives on a pedagogy for autonomy*. In: P. Benson/ P. Voller (eds), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. Harlow, 132–149.
- Brett, P. (2000), *Integrating multimedia into the Business English curriculum: A case study*. In: *English for Specific Purposes* 19, 269–290.
- Candy, P.C. (1991), *Self-direction for Lifelong Learning*. San Francisco.
- Chang, Ch.-F./ Ch.-H. Kuo (2011), *A corpus-based approach to online materials development for writing research articles*. In: *English for Specific Purposes* 30, 222–234.
- Charles, M. (2014), *Getting the corpus habit: EAP students' long-term use of personal corpora*. In: *English for Specific Purposes* 35, 30–40.
- Dickinson, L. (1987), *Self-instruction in Language Learning*. Cambridge.
- Dickinson, L. (1993), *Aspects of autonomous learning*. In: *ELT Journal* 47(4), 330–36.
- Fan, M./ X. Xunfeng (2002), *An evaluation of an online bilingual corpus for the self-learning of legal English*. In: *System* 30, 47–63.
- Gajewska, E./ Sowa, M. (2014), *LSP, FOS, Fachsprache... Dydaktyka języków specjalistycznych*. Lublin.
- Grucza, F. (1978), *Glottodydaktyka, jej zakres i problemy*. In: *Przegląd Glottodydaktyczny* 1, 29–44.
- Grucza, S. (2007), *Glottodydaktyka specjalistyczna. Część I. Założenia lingwistyczne dydaktyki języków specjalistycznych*. In: *Przegląd Glottodydaktyczny* 23, 7–20.
- Grucza, S. (2010), *Nowe platformy dydaktyczne: Lingwistycznie Inteligentne Systemy Translo- i Glottodydaktyczne (LISTiG)*. In: *Lingwistyka Stosowana/ Applied Linguistics/ Angewandte Linguistik* 3, 167–176.
- Hampel, R./ U. Stickler (2005), *New skills for new classrooms. Training tutors to teach languages online*. In: *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Journal* 18(4), 311–326.
- Holec, H. (1981), *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford.
- Hüttner, J./ U. Smit/ B. Mehlmauer-Larcher (2009), *ESP teacher education at the interface of theory and practice: Introducing a model of mediated corpus-based genre analysis*. In: *System* 37, 99–109.
- Kramsch, C./ F. A'ness/ W.Sh.E. Lam (2000), *Authenticity and authorship in the computer-mediated acquisition of L2 literacy*. In: *Language Learning and Technology* 4(2), 78–104.

- Lee, D./ J. Swales (2006), *A corpus-based EAP course for NNS doctoral students: Moving from available specialized corpora to self-compiled corpora*. In: *English for Specific Purposes* 25, 56–75.
- Little, D. (1991), *Learner Autonomy I: Definitions, Issues and Problems*. Dublin.
- Little, D. (2004), *Democracy, discourse and learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom*. In: *Utbildning & Demokrati* 13(3), 105–126.
- Littlewood, W. (1996), *Autonomy: An anatomy and a framework*. In: *System* 24(4), 427–435.
- Mangiante, J.-M./ Ch. Parpette (2004), *Le Français sur Objectif Spécifique : de l'analyse des besoins à l'élaboration d'un cours*. Paris.
- Markee, N. (1997), *Managing Curricular Innovation*. Cambridge.
- Michońska-Stadnik, A. (2004), *Autonomia ucznia 400 lat po Galileuszu, czyli szansa dla odpowiedzialnych*. In: M. Pawlak (ed.), *Autonomia w nauce języka obcego*. Poznań & Kalisz, 11–18.
- Nikolova, O.R. (2002), *Effects of students' participation in authoring of multimedia materials on student acquisition of vocabulary*. In: *Language Learning & Technology* 6(1), 100–122.
- Nunan, D. (1997), *Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy*. In: P. Benson/ P. Voller (eds.), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London, 192–203.
- Pennington, M.C. (1995), *The teacher change cycle*. In: *TESOL Quarterly* 29(4), 705–731.
- Pennington, M.C. (2004), *Cycles of innovation in the adoption of Information Technology: A view for language teaching*. In: *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 17(1), 7–33.
- Piotrowska-Skrzypek, M. (2008), *Uczę (się) refleksyjnie, więc jestem... autonomiczny? q podejście refleksyjne na lekcjach języka obcego w gimnazjum*. In: M. Pawlak (ed.), *Autonomia w nauce języka obcego*. Poznań & Kalisz, 245–255.
- Rogers, E.M. (1983), *Diffusion of Innovations*. New York.
- Rogers, E.M. (1995), *Diffusion of Innovation* (4th ed). New York.
- Rogers, E.M. (2003), *Diffusion of Innovation* (5th ed). New York.
- Sherry, L./ F. Tavalin/ D. Gibson (2000), *New insights on technology adoption in schools*. In: *T.H.E. Journal (Technological Horizons in Education)* 27(7), 42–48.
- Sowa, M. (2016), *Planowanie kursu języka specjalistycznego: problemy i wyzwania metodyczne przyszłych nauczycieli języka francuskiego*. In: *Lingwistyka Stosowana/ Applied Linguistics/ Angewandte Linguistik* 19, 4/2016, 119–135.
- Sullivan, P./ H. Girginer (2002), *The use of discourse analysis to enhance ESP teacher knowledge: An example using aviation English*. In: *English for Specific Purposes* 21, 397–404.
- Tribble, C./ U. Wingate (2013), *From text to corpus—A genre-based approach to academic literacy instruction*. In: *System* 41, 307–321.
- Wilczyńska, W. (2004), *Dydaktyka krocząca, czyli jak organizować dydaktykę w półautonomii (PA)*. In: M. Pawlak (ed.), *Autonomia w nauce języka obcego*. Poznań/ Kalisz, 44–56.
- Wysocka, M. (2008), *Granice autonomii nauczyciela języków obcych i jego uczniów*. In: M. Pawlak (ed.), *Autonomia w nauce języka obcego*. Poznań/ Kalisz, 13–19.