Needs Reflected in Learning Goals:

An Exploratory Study of Language for Specific Purposes Courses

in a Higher Education Context

Igények a tanulási célok tükrében: egyetemi szaknyelvi kurzusok

feltáró elemzése

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1 Introduction

The title of the dissertation mentions four concepts that require some clarification: needs, learning goals, language for specific courses, and higher education context. The blanket term needs cover several, interrelated concepts within the field of English for specific purposes (ESP). Needs encompass the linguistic needs and skills a language learner must know in order to be able to communicate in a target situation (target needs or necessities). Needs also cover a language learner's learning needs in the process of mastering a language for specific purposes. The most classic categorization (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) includes what a language learner is expected to know in a target situation (necessities), and what a language learner wants to learn (wants) or has to learn according to the language instructor (lacks). Apart from this three-partite classification, there are other typologies, distinguishing between learners' objective and subjective needs (Brindley, 1989) or perceived and felt needs (Berwick, 1989).

However, for practical purposes, ESP courses must translate the various identified needs into learning goals (Anthony, 2018). The theoretical works mention five main learning goals within ESP instruction (Basturkmen, 2006): to teach subject-specific language use (the genres), to develop target performance competencies (skills and competencies), to teach underlying knowledge (relevant background knowledge), to develop strategic competence (means of using knowledge), to foster critical awareness (challenging conformity). Empirical studies, however, formulate more smaller scale goals, objectives adapted to the local needs, or specific target situations.

The design of language for specific purposes (LSP) courses must be based on the results of needs analysis (Brown, 2016; Long, 2005). The awareness of needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and the imperative of needs analysis make LSP courses different from general language courses. After needs being analyzed and learning goals being set, appropriate course materials and teaching methods must be selected (Anthony, 2018). The end of an LSP course is marked by evaluating the effectiveness of the course (Anthony, 2018; Basturkmen, 2010; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Woodrow, 2018). The evaluation will set the foundation of the next LSP course, or, if it is done in the interim, it can help fine-tune or adjust the course in the right direction (Basturkmen, 2010). All stakeholders, learners, language instructors, field experts should be involved in the process of needs analysis determining which needs must be or can be translated into learning goals for the LSP course, and in the process of evaluating the effectiveness of the course.

The higher education context is important because it is the arena where LSP is dominantly taught. LSP courses are either integrated into university programs, quite typical in case of English medium instruction programs, or taught as add-on courses (mandatory or elective). Although no one would question the usefulness of learning LSP, studies revealed that compared to other subjects, they have lower prestige than content subjects (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). The feature that distinguishes higher education LSP courses from in-company courses is students' pre-experience status (Brown, 2016), that is, most of them lack relevant professional experience. It makes students more dependent on their language instructors for identifying their target situation communication needs and competences.

Unless sufficient data about needs are not collected and analyzed, or the results of the needs analysis is not implemented in the LSP courses, there is a high probability that important needs remain unmet. The discrepancy between students' actual needs and their perceived needs (Berwick, 1989) can result in student demotivation (Liu et al., 2011). This is the reason why the primary aim of this study is to identify the needs language instructors and students articulate when setting goals. The secondary aim of this research is to explore students' motivational patterns as they can reveal both fulfilled and unfulfilled needs. The significance of the study is in exploring a situation where, against all theory-based recommendations, no systematic and regular needs analyses are carried out.

The structure of my dissertation is as follows: The literature review will provide a theoretical background to LSP course design, the types of needs, the significance and types of needs analysis. The review will also give an outline of learning goals to explain how they can give information about needs. It is followed by a chapter presenting relevant information of the European higher education scene influencing the actual research context. The next chapter will give an overview of the research design, and the phases of the research, and the methods applied. The qualitative phase will present the findings of the interview study conducted among the LSP instructors. The quantitative phase will summarize the results of a questionnaire study administered among the students. The concluding chapter will contain the main findings, the pedagogical implications, the limitations of the research, and further research directions.

2 Literature Review

This chapter will give an overview of the evolution of the concept of needs, the theoretical considerations and position of needs analysis within the field of ESP/LSP course design, and types of analyses. The review will also highlight the conflicts between stakeholders' views on needs by presenting results of relevant empirical research conducted in the context of higher education. Whenever relevant, special focus will be drawn on to papers dealing with issues in the Hungarian tertiary education. Then the dilemma institutions face when designing ESP/LSP courses will be discussed. The last two subchapters will give a brief overview of the role of motivation in ESP, and the learning goals, which are the manifestation of needs in the course design.

Research conducted in the field of ESP has dominantly been practice-oriented, exploratory, and the line between research and practice is often blurred (Johns, 2013). This is even more prevalent in case of research on assessing the needs of ESP learners, and the learning situation. The very nature of needs analysis is a partly pedagogical concern, an unavoidable first step in designing ESP courses. In most, if not all, cases it is the ESP teacher who has to carry out the needs analysis. Theoretical frameworks delegate this task to ESP teachers, stating that it is one of their roles (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

In the dissertation I am going to use only the most wide-spread abbreviations in the field of ESP:

EGP – English for General Purposes. This term will only be used when comparing it with ESP.

EOP – English for Occupational Purposes, a subtype of ESP (Basturkmen, 2010, Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

ESP or LSP As research into issues of ESP became more widespread, methods, findings were applied to other languages for specific purposes (LSP). There are many valuable research papers addressing issues of LSP, widening the scope of ESP, and adding valuable insights (e.g., Garzone et al., 2016; Gattoni, 2008; Gollini-Kies et al., 2015; Riordan, 2018; Solly, 2008). Although English being the lingua franca not only for general purposes, but for professional purposes, especially for business (Nickerson, 2005), other languages for specific purposes are taught and used, mainly in Europe.

To achieve consistency in my research, I intend to follow the following guidelines: If the original research paper used the term ESP, I will use it when referring to it, mostly in case of theoretical papers. If I discuss general issues, or refer to my findings conducted among teachers, students of various languages, I will use the term LSP. Although most ESP-related findings are generalizable and transferable to other languages, the unique position of English among other languages, being the lingua franca of our time, will definitely influence not only the research outcome but the very questions researchers aim to address. If there is a discrepancy in research findings that could be explained by the different status of languages, ESP and LSP will be used accordingly.

When there is an explicit reference to a level of **proficiency**, I will refer to the CEFR levels (Council of Europe, 2001). To follow the convention of ESP literature (Norton, 2018; Stewart, 2018) the terms **language instructor / practitioner** will be

used as a synonym for language teachers who teach LSP in a higher education

context.

2.1 Needs

2.1.1 Definitions and Types of Needs

The concept of needs has been evolving with the theories of ESP. It started off

as a one-dimensional concept (Munby, 1978), later it became a multi-dimensional one

incorporating new aspects of learner needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Before

presenting the most important and influential stages, I would like to rely on a

comprehensive definition of needs, which synthesizes all previous concepts:

> Needs is actually an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating
>
> learners' goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for
>
> taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations
>
> they will need to communicate. (Hyland, 2006, p. 73)

Needs were mentioned in the *Communicative Syllabus Design* (Munby, 1978)

that offered several ways of identifying ESP learners' target situation needs and the

relevant linguistic features of the target situations. Although these needs were

allocated to learners, they were solely focusing on the target situation, determining

what to learn, and leaving out learners completely. This one-focused interpretation of

needs was counterpointed by a model that involved the process of learning beside the

target situation. The idea of distinguishing between present and future needs was

promoted by Richterich (1972). He distinguished between learning needs and

language needs, both had the same pair of two elements: the situation (the place, the

time and the agent), and the operation (function, objects, means). Although it was a

good initiative, the model was not suitable for an educational context, as it aimed to cover all possible aspects, situations, which made it impractical.

However, Richterich's (1972) idea of distinguishing between learning needs and language needs was developed into the most influential typology of needs up to now, which has been used as a benchmark and reference by future researchers of ESP. This classification divided needs into two groups: target needs and learning needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Target needs focused on the goal of learning ESP, namely, learners being able to communicate in a given field, and being familiar with the typical genres of their profession. There were three sub types within target needs: necessities, denoting the demands of the target situation, lacks, meaning the gap between target needs and learners existing knowledge, and wants, that were actually learners' own agenda, what they want to learn. Ideally, lacks and wants were complementary, strengthening each other. But in practice, they were often in conflict. Teachers tended to emphasize the importance of eliminating lacks focusing on learners' deficiencies in their proficiency. On the other hand, learners found an ESP course effective when it aimed at meeting their own goals (wants). Therefore, in order to maintain learners' motivation, their perceived needs (wants) had to be taken into consideration when designing an ESP course (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Learning needs, involving strategies, methods to master the necessary skills, represent the route to achieve the goal, the mastery of target needs. Hutchinson & Walters (1987) emphasized how the whole "ESP process is concerned not with knowing or doing but with learning" (p. 61). This focus put back ESP to the track of language learning, not letting the professional goals dominate the language learning process. The authors emphasized that ESP course design had to be learning-centered

vs. language- or skills-centered because only a learning-centered course design could focus on how certain competences acquired and considered learners throughout all stages of the course design. Both language- and skills-centered approaches concentrated on the language, skills, respectively necessary after an ESP course. When the necessary linguistic competence or skills are determined, ESP learners were merely seen as users of the language and not learners of it.

This typology has had the greatest impact on ESP research mainly for its clear and flexible categories. Raising the issue of learner motivation in connection of ESP needs was a valuable contribution to the field, but it left the questions of demotivation open, and did not offer solutions for the conflicting needs. Other typologies contrasted needs based on who identified them: experts (teachers) or learners. One of these approaches distinguishes objective and subjective needs (Brindley, 1989). Objective needs are the sum of factual information about the learner, patterns of language use, language proficiency and difficulties. Whereas subjective needs refer to the learner's affective needs, wants and expectations, and learning style.

Another distinction between needs is the dichotomy of felt and perceived needs (Berwick, 1989). Felt needs, often referred to as expressed needs, are the needs learners have, and somewhat equivalent to wants or desires. Whereas perceived needs are needs formulated by experts, referring to the lacks learners have. Perceived needs are often normative needs, having more decisive power in course design than learners' felt needs. The distinction between objective and subjective needs (Brindley, 1989), and that of between felt and perceived needs (Berwick, 1989) marked an important move towards engaging learners more into the needs analysis process. They

considered the very terms of wants and desires derogatory, a proof that needs analysts had a negative attitude to learners' felt/subjective needs.

With the ever increasing number of concepts, the theoretical framework devised by Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) did not name new types of needs, rather gave a synthesis of the so far existing distinct terms. It integrated them into their framework, grasping different approaches: necessities, lacks and wants (Hutchinson & Walters, 1987), objective and subjective needs (Brindley, 1989), perceived and felt needs (Berwick, 1989). In their framework objective and perceived needs corresponded to outsiders' needs and facts whereas subjective and felt needs referred to insiders' cognitive or affective needs. Apart from the tendency to get hold of the complexity of needs, there are other, skeptical voices stating that all the terms above basically meant the same (Anthony, 2018).

A proposal from the European scene suggested viewing needs and competences as the CEFR (2001) presented them: general and communicative language competences reflecting learners' needs and societal needs (Bocanegra-Valle, 2015). The proposal gave an extensive list of skills (mostly transferable) but did not give any help or suggestion how these skills should be taught in language classes.

In the evolution of the concept of needs we can see that a one-dimensional concept was first enriched by the time-dimension putting equal emphasis on the learning process and the target situation. Later, the stakeholder-dimension added more complexity to needs making learner voice more audible. Although some authors regarded the different names of needs synonyms (e.g., Anthony, 2018), it is quite obvious that different terms highlight different facets of needs (Brown, 2016). ESP practitioners and researchers have always been aware of their own bias when they

carried out a needs analysis. Their own views, experience, professional background, opportunities would inform the types of needs they would collect information about (e.g., Berwick, 1989). The needs analyst or the institution that commissioned the needs analysis had a lasting influence on the outcome of a needs analysis, "whoever determines needs largely determines which needs are determined" (Chambers, 1980, p. 27).

2.1.2 Prioritizing Needs

Distinguishing between needs and allocating them to the appropriate stakeholder removed the ambiguity of the terms and helped to determine which or whose needs should be given priority. Depending on the course goal, four views of needs were proposed, the democratic view, the discrepancy view, the analytic view and the diagnostic view (Brown, 2016).

The democratic view had two definitions. The narrow definition included students only, and what the majority wanted was defined as needs 'whatever elements of the ESP the majority of students want' (Brown, 2016, p. 13). This view had at least two weak points. One was, that teachers had no say in what they could teach, not even methodologically. The other was, that there was a high risk of needs being defined based on 'same old' learning strategies, staying in the rut, not moving students out of their comfort zone. Additionally, students who lacked the necessary experience could not make informed decisions about their learning objectives. However, the broad definition gave an equal say for all stakeholders, students included: "needs are whatever elements of the ESP majorities of all stakeholder groups (teachers, administrators, and so forth) want, desire, expect, and so forth" (Brown, 2016, p. 13).

It aimed at finding a common ground for all stakeholders. If there was an agreement among the stakeholders, then democratic view was the most productive way of defining needs. The process could give valuable insights on how each stakeholder viewed the ESP, what expectations they had etc.

The discrepancy view focused on the lacks students have, aiming to bridge the gap between the current knowledge and future requirements. Stakeholders with the longest experience, and more direct insights had a stronger word here. It had the end in sight and comparing it to students' lacks, that is, finding discrepancies. There were some advantages of this view, it was very much goal-oriented, giving clear goals for the course, furthermore, it defined the student-learning outcomes, how far students should progress. However, the downside was that it did not consult with all the stakeholders, therefore its well-defined goals could not ensure commitment on the parts of students or teachers.

The analytic view meant defining the next step (x+1) in learning based on SLA theory (Krashen, 1985). It was regarded an unbiased view on teaching, providing a consistent approach, ensuring that all groups received the same set of knowledge. On the negative side, the analytic view existed in theory, but in practice it was not necessarily adaptable. It required a sound SLA theoretical knowledge of instructors to define what would be the next step for students in their learning process, and it was doubtful that the current theory of SLA had all the answers, which were uniformly true for all students.

The diagnostic view ranked the learning objectives, defining the top priorities on the basis of emergency, that is, which lack, if remained unaddressed, would cause the biggest problem. This approach was extremely useful when there were time

constraints, long-term attendance was not guaranteed, or simply, when course priorities needed to be set up. But what was useful for an immersion course, may not provide a solid ground for knowledge

According to Brown (2016) the best choice was to combine the different views when determining the content of an ESP course. But the very act of deciding which view (or views) to apply was a conscious decision, and definitive in outcomes. Although Brown's (2016) above mentioned classification of needs (Table 1) is a sound and practical approach, somehow it has not found its way to empirical research.

Table 1

Comparing the Four Views on Needs

Needs viewpoints	Definition of needs	Related synonyms
Democratic view	Whatever elements of the ESP majorities of all stakeholder groups want	*wants, desires, expectations, requests, motivations*
Discrepancy view	The difference or discrepancy between what they should be able to do in the ESP and what they currently can do	*deficiencies, lacks, gaps, requirements*
Analytic view	Whatever elements of the ESP students should learn next based on SLA theory and experience	*next step, x + 1*
Diagnostic view	Whatever elements of the ESP will cause harm if they are missing	*necessities, essentials, prerequisites*

Adapted from Brown (2016, p. 14)

2.1.3 Conflicts Between Needs

Conflicts between needs arise from the fundamental differences between needs. *Necessities, lacks, target situation needs* are direct results of a diagnosis of a situation, whereas *wants* are more like goals: they have a direction, attached motivation, can make learners exert effort, "it is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment" (Richterich, 1984, p. 29).

In this part I am going to illustrate the opposition between needs by presenting the findings of empirical studies. There are different levels of conflicts – institutional, classroom, within academic self, and manifested in the choices students make when they opt for or out of a course, what language skills are perceived as important or negligible due to lost interest.

Probably the most salient conflict is the one between learners' needs (wants) and teachers' concept of their students' needs (necessities). A typical situation could be when a proposal writing course was advertised for final year science undergraduates in a Hong Kong university. The skill was an absolute necessity, but students were unwilling to enroll in the course because they could not see its importance (Flowerdew, 2010). Another typical source of conflict is when content courses are ranked higher than language courses. A large-scale quantitative study ($N = 972$) conducted among Chinese students found that students' choice of ESP courses depended on how relevant the skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) taught at the course seemed for their future jobs (Liu et al., 2011). Even when students could see quite clearly what their immediate linguistic needs were, they still opted for courses which seemed more relevant for their future job. Students decided to attend

courses that fulfilled their felt needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), short- and long-term goals, but did not choose courses that would fulfill their perceived needs (their necessities or lacks). Short- or long-term professional goals seemed to be stronger motivators than the need to improve their language skills. In some cases, the conflict did not arise from choosing between language related and job-related courses but from attributing importance and relevance to language skills. The research conducted among Japanese students found that while ESP teachers wanted to meet their students' immediate language needs focusing on reading skills, students wanted to concentrate on their own long-term professional needs, and practice speaking and listening skills (Kao, 2019).

However professional the dilemma of choosing between long-term, professional needs and short-term, academic needs sound, it could hide students' "diverse and unclear needs" (Deutch, 2003, p. 125). As Rubrecht noted (2020) when a conflict between needs occurred (increased workload), university students had to prioritize between their needs, and as soon as credits were earned, or when the interest was lost, they dropped language courses. Defining their ESP-related needs is even more difficult for students taking general courses (eg., English Studies) and enrolling for a seminar specialized in ESP. Students can formulate only general language needs and at the same time they expect courses to be practical and relevant (Adorján, 2019; Tar, 2010).

2.2 Needs Analysis

2.2.1 Definition and Significance of NA in Course Design

In order to start an effective ESP course, a needs analysis has to be carried out. Making decisions about the content of a course, the level of specificity, the teaching methods, course goals, the most appropriate material are all based on needs analysis. When the course ends, the assessment of the participants (learners, teachers) will feed back to needs analysis. Theoreticians equivocally regard needs analysis as the cornerstone of an ESP course (Anthony, 2018; Basturkmen, 2010, Brown, 2016; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), however they differ in what other building blocks they identify in course design, and what relationships they assume among them. In the following pages I am going to present five theoretical frameworks that have had the greatest impact on the LSP field.

Most theoretical works deal with importance and the methodological aspects of needs analysis (e.g., Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Long, 2005). A definition of needs analysis often referred to was offered by Brown (2016), "the systematic collection and analysis of all information necessary for defining and validating a defensible curriculum" (p. 4). His stated intention to formulate a brief and focused definition is honorable but leaves several aspects of needs analysis unaddressed. Therefore, hereby I would like to refer to Basturkmen's (2010) definition:

Needs analysis in ESP refers to course development process. In this process the language and skills that the learners will use in their target professional or vocational workplace or in their study areas are identified and considered in relation to the present state of knowledge of the learners, their preconceptions of their needs

and the practical possibilities and constraints of the teaching context. The information obtained from this process is used in determining and refining the content and method of the ESP course. (p. 19). Not all theoreticians who deal with needs analyses discuss its relevance to course design. It is important to understand what other stages are named in ESP course design apart from needs analysis, and what relationships between these stages are suggested, usually by using a metaphor. The content and aim of each needs analysis process will be discussed in 2.2.2.

A quite straightforward model of course design was proposed by Hutchinson & Waters (1987). After identifying the learners two analyses took place. Analyzing the learning situation resulted in identifying attitudes, wants, and potential of learners, and the needs, potential, and constraints of the learning and teaching situation. Analyzing the target situation generated the information about skills and knowledge needed to function in the target situation. The outcome of both analyses provided the bases of the syllabus and the material. The result of the evaluation of the course fed back to the analyses of the learning situation and the target situation.

This model was extended by three obvious steps, teaching, learning and student assessment in a later model (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). In their model needs analysis was followed by course design, then came the actual course: teaching and learning, at the end of the course student assessment was done, and finally, the whole course was evaluated. Including teaching, learning, and assessment as stages of the ESP course design is unique to all other models. Other models may have left out these stages deliberately because they found these self-evident. However, I think that whatever happens during these three stages informs directly the course design, the

evaluation, and indirectly the next needs analysis, because the relevance of the ESP

course is tested during the stages of teaching and learning.

Compared to the previous model (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), which

emphasized the process of learning – teaching – assessment, the model developed by

Woodrow (2018) focused on needs analysis. Of the seven stages of her model four

focused on specific steps of needs analysis. The seven stages of course design were

the following: 1) identifying stakeholders (learners, teachers, administrators,

employers), 2) consulting previous needs analyses, and current research in the area; 3)

determining the most appropriate methods meanwhile focusing on triangulation of

sources, situations and methods. As soon as data collection and analysis (4) were

carried out, the findings were translated into a list of communicative events (5), which

was followed by determining syllabus items based on the findings (6), and finally, the

effectiveness of the course was evaluated (7). Although the steps were leading to a

final stage (course evaluation), needs analysis was defined as an ongoing process,

emphasizing its reiterating quality. This model could be influenced by the research

published in the previous decades, highlighting the stakeholders' conflicting needs. It

was a new voice because published (mainly in-company) needs analyses had been

criticized for lacking critical perspective (Starfield, 2013).

Another needs analysis-focused course design named the following stages:

analyzing pre-course needs, investigating specialist discourse, developing the

curriculum (focus, content, materials), and evaluation of the course (Basturkmen,

2010). The first two stages are similar to the double focus of needs analysis defined

by Hutchinson & Waters (1987), learning needs analysis and target needs analysis.

The most practice-oriented aspect of Basturkmen's (2010) course design is the

concept of evaluation of ESP courses. The idea was that in order to measure whether actual learning took place, students' experience gained in the target field should be evaluated as well.

A practice-oriented course design was proposed by Anthony (2018), who included learning objectives into the stages. This stage involved three steps, defining language, genres and skills, helping learners to establish learning strategy objectives, and in view of all these finding a feasible sequence of attaining these objectives. The stage of setting learning objectives was preceded by needs analysis, and followed by determining materials and methods, and evaluating the course. Anthony's (2018) design had the teacher at its focus by focusing on learning objective that is, translating the findings of a needs analysis into classroom practice, and also by highlighting the importance of teaching methods beside learning materials.

These models are different in the sense of which stage they emphasize, but similar in highlighting the importance, and repeated nature of needs analysis. Table 2 gives a summary of each model, and the metaphors the theoreticians used to describe the relationship between the stages. *Cycle* denoted the recurring process of course design, how each evaluation conducted at the end of an ESP course provides information for the next needs analysis. *Pillars* conveyed the meaning how a course design gained its stability by being propped up each stage.

Table 2

The Position of Needs Analysis in Theoretical Frameworks

Theoretician(s)	Hutchinson & Waters (1987)	Dudley-Evans & St John (1998)	Basturkmen (2010)	Woodrow (2018)	Anthony (2018)
Stages of ESP course design	Needs analysis Syllabus / materials Evaluation	Needs analysis Course design Teaching – learning Assessment Evaluation	Pre-course needs analysis Investigating specialist discourse Developing the curriculum (focus, content, materials) Evaluation	Identifying stakeholders Consulting previous NA Needs analysis Naming communicative events Syllabus Evaluation	Needs analysis Learning objectives Materials and methods Evaluation
Metaphor	*cycle dynamic process*	*overlapping and interdependent phases, cycle*	Ongoing needs analysis	*cycle*	*pillars*

2.2.2 Types of Needs Analyses

The previous section showed the position of needs-analysis in five major theoretical frameworks, whereas this section aims to zoom in on the content of needs analysis. Ever since different needs were identified, different types of needs analysis strategies (Brown, 2016) were needed. The number of needs analyses varied from two to eight distinct analyses.

Using two types of analyses was the result of understanding that focusing singularly on the results of a target situation analysis was unsatisfactory (Munby, 1972). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) realized that the reality of the learning process

should be involved. Therefore, they proposed a course design that included a dual analysis. They required analyzing target needs in order to determine the necessary language and skills, and analyzing learning needs to understand learner needs, and the constraints of the teaching/learning situation. The same two types of analyses were later referred as a narrow, product-oriented needs analysis, and a broad, process-oriented analysis, respectively (Brindley, 1989).

Frameworks aiming at analyzing the three main types of needs, target needs, necessities, and lacks could be differentiated by adding a fourth element to their analysis. The choice reflected the theoretician's orientation of having a more practical focus by naming means analysis (Anthony, 2018), or a more research focus by adding the analysis of specialist discourse (Woodrow, 2018). Means analysis involved getting to know the environment where the course would take place, the classroom culture, management infrastructure and culture (Holliday & Cooke, 1982).

There are frameworks that prescribed multiple analyses within the stage of needs analysis. For instance, a five-step model involved a target situation analysis, a discourse analysis, a present situation analysis, the learner factor analysis involving mapping learners' motivation, their preferred learning styles, and their perception of their needs (wants), and teaching context analysis identifying the environmental factors and weighing the possible outcome of the ESP course (Basturkmen, 2010). In this model the importance of repeated nature of needs analysis was emphasized: a pre-course needs analysis could determine the initial course design, and an ongoing needs analysis could help revising course design.

An even more comprehensive model (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998) allocated different analyses to different needs, forming a sequence. Each analysis

relied on the findings of the previous analyses. First, target situation analysis had to be carried out to determine objective needs, namely, the situation where learners would use English had to be outlined. Second, some personal information had to be collected about the learners, their wants, means and subjective needs had to be defined. The next step was present situation analysis, which could define learners' current language proficiency. All these analyses had been done so far made it possible to identify lacks by subtracting the results of the present situation analysis from the target situation analysis. Only after lacks had been defined, could learning needs be identified, to determine the most effective way of learning the language and the necessary skills. The sixth step involved linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, and genre analysis to get information about the types of communication identified in the target situation analysis (the first step). The last but one step aimed at translating the outcomes of the analyses listed above into the realities of the actual course, and learning what students expected from the given course. Finally, means analysis was carried out.

All frameworks presented above were similar in naming needs analysis as an indispensable starting point of ESP course design, although they were different in the scope of needs analysis. Determining which model to follow depends on time, resources, and the number of stakeholders involved. Although there is a wide choice of analysis strategies, Brown (2016) listed eleven different types, selecting only the fundamental analyses, target needs, present situation, learning needs, and carrying out them regularly would ensure the effectiveness and quality of an ESP course.

2.2.3 Methodology of Investigating Needs Analysis

In this part I am going to introduce the most common methods that can be used as tools for collecting information for a needs analysis. As different tools can focus on collecting certain types of needs, triangulation is recommended for comprehensive needs analyses. After discussing the importance of triangulation, the process of carrying out a needs analysis will be presented.

2.2.3.1 Methods

There are several ways of collecting information about ESP needs. Each method has its own benefits and drawbacks that can make it the most suitable tool in a given context. The methods are different not only technically but in the type of data they can collect. The learning needs formulated in diaries are likely to be different from the needs a researcher can identify during an on-site observation. Selecting a method will determine the type of needs to be collected. Therefore, it is advisable to use several methods before determining the content of an ESP course, bearing in mind the constraints of a course (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Interviews are useful in case of small groups of learners to understand learners' personal learning needs, their wants, desires, learning style etc. The exploratory nature of unstructured interviews can be useful when ESP practitioners do not have any previous knowledge about the field where their learners have expertise (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Questionnaires can use the categories, topics, areas emerged from the findings of interviews. The popularity of questionnaires in the field of ESP needs analysis is due to the fact that it can be easily and quickly administered, and the data can be

processed within a short time, therefore results can find their way to course design without delay. This method along with the interviews were the most popular ones among theoreticians (e.g., (Basturkmen, 2010; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Woodrow, 2018).

Participant and non-participant observation has the incomparable advantage of "allowing direct, in-depth, contextualized study of what participants actually do" (Long, 2005, p. 42). Without doubt, this method is the most informative when it comes to target situation and language needs, and several useful theoretical insights were gained by using participant and non-participant observation (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Another qualitative method is *ethnography* aiming to reduce the distance between the observer (outsider) and the observed (insider) (Basturkmen, 2010). However, there is a considerable time-lapse (months or even years) between the actual research and the implementation of its findings into an ESP course. Therefore, the value or relevance of the findings become highly questionable for practical purposes.

Journals and logs function as written dialogues between students and teachers. Journals (diaries) are continuous and valuable sources of both teachers' and students' reflection on classroom practice (Long, 2005). Journals are an ideal tool for ongoing needs analysis not only in classroom context but in workplaces, where students spend their internship. Insights gained in the field can be used to influence the university ESP course design. Different types of *tests*, diagnostic, achievement and placement tests are the most typical tools to assess students' linguistic needs and evaluate their achievements. Although in most cases tests focus on measuring linguistic proficiency,

there has been an increasing need for administering task-based tests (Long, 2000, 2005) in the field of ESP.

2.2.3.2 Triangulation

The expectation to analyze ESP needs thoroughly and objectively grew out of the recognition that teachers' intuition is, albeit valuable, still a very subjective source of information. The approaches and methods of needs analysis would guarantee a more objective attitude. However, as needs analyses are carried out by the ESP practitioners, they still carry some subjectivity: "Needs analysis is like any other classroom practice in that it involves decisions based on teachers' interests, values, and beliefs about teaching, learning and language" (Hyland, 2008, p. 113).

Subjectivity cannot be ruled out because it is the ESP instructor who has to make decisions about the needs to assess, the approach and method of analysis to employ, and the implementation of the results of a needs analysis into the course design. There are several choices to make, compromises to reach all along the process of needs analysis (Frendo, 2005). In order to minimize the effect of subjectivity, using multiple sources and methods are recommended.

The triangulation of sources involves consulting published and unpublished materials for content, genre, and necessary skills. Other sources of information are LSP learners, who are the most readily available, but not always reliable sources of information, especially if they are pre-experience undergraduates. In-service language learners can give an articulate account of their needs regarding the content of their work, but they are less competent when they communicate their language needs. Furthermore, teachers, applied linguists, and content-area specialists are also

invaluable sources of information. Triangulated sources will produce conflicting findings, but it should be seen more as a positive sign than a drawback. If relevance, and effectiveness are important then triangulation of both sources and data collection methods should be used (Long, 2005). The triangulation of methods and approaches can best result in a defensible curriculum (Brown, 2016) which is acceptable for all stakeholders.

2.2.3.3 The process of needs analysis

The different approaches to needs analysis are to be combined in order to give a solid basis of course design. There are two main models incorporating needs analyses to form a course development process. The five-step model (Basturkmen, 2010) consists of two approaches focusing on the future (target situation analysis and discourse analysis), two more approaches focusing on the present (present situation analysis, and learner factor analysis), and one more focusing on the context of teaching (teaching context analysis). This model ensures that the goals are clearly set, the starting point identified, and the opportunities and constraints of the teaching context – where the actual course will be run – are weighed carefully.

The seven-step model may seem more detailed but in fact it is less focused (ide kell egy referencia). It involves identifying stakeholders, consulting previous needs analysis and current research in the area, devising the best methods of collecting data (triangulate from multiple sources, situations and methods), collecting and analyzing data (needs, wants, necessities, analysis of specialist discourse), translating findings into list of communicative events, determining syllabus items based on the above, and evaluating courses (Woodrow, 2018). Although it devotes

three steps to the right needs analysis (consulting previous research, finding the best method, and collecting and analyzing data), this model does not clarify which approach would be the most effective to determine the course design. Incorporating course evaluation to the needs analysis process is also questionable, as most theoreticians see it as part of course design instead.

2.2.4 Dilemmas of Needs Analysis

2.2.4.1 Specificity

The last issue a needs analysis is expected to address is the scope of specificity, that is, on the spectrum of EGP and ESP where a certain course needs to be positioned. Wide focused ESP courses concentrate on a range of target events: professional skills, several genres, not excluding the use of materials of specific content. Whereas narrow focused ESP courses aim to deal with only few target events, skills, one or two genres, using general or specific carrier contents (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The narrower the focus the more appealing it is for learners who agree on the importance of learning a limited number of highly relevant skills.

In the 1990s there was a move towards teaching more general skills at university ESP courses, which were later challenged and refuted by Hyland (2002). One argument for a general-focused ESP was that language teachers lacked the necessary expertise and confidence to teach specialized language, but as Hyland (2002) rightly noted subject teachers rarely had the expertise and motivation to focus on improving their students' language skills. Another argument against specificity was that it was not suitable for learners with lower proficiency, which was rejected stating that ESP learners acquired features of the language in the order as they needed

them. The third, and so far, the most prevalent, reason behind not carrying out needs analysis at universities was that it was too resource intensive. Which was an acceptable reason, however a general ESP can be taught with the specific variety of the target discipline, and in the long-run research-based ESP education was economical. The final reason questioned the need for specificity on the basis that many language skills were generic and transferable. But as Hyland (2002) pointed out the different forms had different meanings in different fields.

Specificity is more than using technical terms, it involves the discourse of a specific group (Widdowson, 1998). Being able to use the discourse of a community in order to convey meaningful and informative messages to the audience is a sure sign of expertise (Hyland, 2002). Another argument for specificity was formulated by social constructivism, stating that when someone communicates using the specific discourse of a community not only shapes but creates the professional community.

To resolve the conflict of choice between narrow and wide focused ESP courses, a model with three options were offered (Basturkmen, 2003) with one narrow and two wide foci. The narrow focus would fit exact needs; therefore, be highly motivating for ESP learners, and it would contribute to constructing the profession through the right discourse. However, not all learners of ESP were that motivated to learn only a restricted version of English a narrow focus would entail. From the ESP practitioners' part, it would expect a substantial amount of research and preparation.

The first wide focus would aim at meeting common needs of students of different fields. It was based on the assumptions that a set of generic skills existed, and having acquired these, learners could transfer them to their own disciplines. It combined practicality and economy. However, if only common and general needs

were met during an ESP course, no actual needs would be fulfilled. This focus could be useful for undergraduate ESP courses. An example of this focus was a case when 225 Chinese students attending different courses were first taught common core EST (English for Science and Technology) and were later encouraged to dig deep in their specialization (Brown, 2016). The second wide focus would aim at language variety, teaching a special language with general interest, for instance, Business English. It did not require high proficiency from learners. The downside of this approach was that it did not take into consideration learners' needs. This approach would serve the best the needs of pre-experience undergraduates and would be an acceptable solution for universities as "the roles in workplaces are simply to diverse for any one ESP course to deal with in depth" (Basturkmen, 2003, p. 61).

Finding the right balance between wide and narrow focused ESP course design is a difficult decision. Not only do students differ in their interest, motivation level which would determine the level of specificity they expect from a course, but they gain professional experience during their university years, which also shapes their needs. Workplace requirements vary, and ESP teachers can respond to a certain number of needs and skills. Truly, a comprehensive needs analysis is a labor-intensive and time-consuming endeavor, two factors that make universities opt for general courses instead. On the other hand, the aim should be to make ESP courses as specific as possible, "effective language teaching in the universities involves taking specificity seriously. It means that we must go as far as we can" (Hyland, 2002, p. 394).

2.2.4.2 Timing

Needs analysis should be part of the initial course design, however a needs analysis done in the interim functions as a revision of the course (Basturkmen, 2010). The legitimacy of an ongoing needs analysis is based on the natural process of the ESP education. As instructors become more familiar with students' needs, they can adapt the classroom activities, learning goals to their learners. The needs analysis carried out during an ESP course plays an important role, "it is a continuous process, since we modify our teaching as we come to learn more about our students" (Hyland, 2006, p. 73). "Behind every successful EAP course there is a continuous process of questioning and revision to check the original results, evaluate the effectiveness of the course and revise objectives. Needs analysis, then, is always dynamic and ongoing" (Hyland, 2006, p. 74).

2.2.4.3 Arguments against needs analysis

The benefits of effectiveness, and motivation enhancing power of needs analysis do not guarantee that an institution will devote time, money, human resources to it. In fact, several higher education institutes seem to ignore carrying out regular needs analyses. It may be explained by lack of resources and time, or it might be too difficult concerning the number of students, or the large variety of career paths student can take after graduation, or the inflexibility of the curriculum that could not integrate the results of a needs analysis fast enough. The categorical statement of one theoretician, "if there is no needs analysis, there is no ESP" (Brown, 2016, p. 5) questions the legitimacy of ESP instruction in higher education. However, there are cases when the negligence of needs analysis is acceptable.

In order to economize on cost and human resources, language instructors, or even universities, can co-operate in carrying out in-depth ESP needs analyses, and use each other's reports to design their own, similar courses. Some authors highly recommend relying on reports having published by other experts to avoid doing the same long and painstaking process of a needs analysis (e.g., Basturkmen, 2010).

Another argument against doing a needs analysis is that it is unnecessary if the results are not going to be incorporated into the course, that is, if instructors or the institutions prefer using pre-made materials, regardless of needs identified in the analysis. Discerning instructors are encouraged to use carefully chosen commercial materials (Belcher, 2009). A high-quality ESP coursebook written by native ESP experts is of great help with genres and discourse for non-native instructors. At the same time criticism is voiced over textbook writers, claiming that they tend to rely on their non-expert intuitions that are "notoriously unreliable" (Long, 2005, p. 35). Most coursebooks published in the field of Business English by established publishers, put emphasis on endorsing their products by field-experts, reviewers, referring to the co-operation between business schools and textbook writers. For instance, the second edition of *Business Result* (Duckworth et al, 2018) explicitly refers to Oxford Saïd Business School as their partner.

Discourse analysis can give valuable insights and examples on how and what language is used in a field. However, there is a practical consideration whether it is necessary to carry out a time-consuming, resource-demanding process of course analysis, or there are any other resources, information in the literature available (Basturkmen, 2010). However, when the field is under-researched from ESP point of view, it is advisable to choose one (or a combination) of these methods: ethnography,

genre analysis, and corpus analysis. A partly done needs analysis has a detrimental effect, when the target situation is analyzed but the discourse is not. For instance, business students are expected to read a lot in their field, however when instructors fail to analyze the discourse students end up reading business related articles in LSP classes, meant for the public not for business professionals (Basturkmen, 2010).

A pragmatic approach to needs analysis also resulted in questioning if not the legitimacy, but possibility of organizing an ESP course without conducting needs analysis (Anthony, 2018). Based on this approach, two types of analyses were distinguished: a large-scale, detailed needs analysis that was a rather time-consuming process but with a reliable and valid outcome. On the other hand, a small-scale just-in-time needs analysis had none of the merits of its large-scale counterpart apart from being practical. For the latter, a good example could be a typical workplace scenario, when the language teacher had been informed about a new language course two days before the actual course commenced.

His anti-dogmatic approach raised the issue of a valid ESP course design without carrying out a needs analysis. He justified his position by offering two distinct scenarios. One was *established assumptions* of an institution that assumed they were quite aware of their learners' needs; the other was *implicit understanding* referring to a situation when experienced language instructors could somehow detect what needs were to be met.

2.3 Stakeholders

2.3.1 Students

When using the term stakeholders, I refer to "people who have a stake or interest in the curriculum" (Brown, 2016, p. 4). In a higher education context, it involves students, teachers, and the institution. In a wider context it may include parents, administrators, employers as well. In this part I am going to present some characteristics of the three main stakeholder groups from ESP/LSP instruction point of view.

University students are mostly pre-experience (Long, 2005), which makes defining their professional needs problematic. Even learners with professional experience have difficulty in defining their language-related needs (Long, 2005). Students are not necessarily able to assess their proficiency realistically. In some cases, multi-level checking is needed (for instance, in reading comprehension), because students can overestimate their own language skills (Doró, 2010). In other cases, even objectively successful language learners tend to underestimate their achievements. In a survey conducted among university students ($N = 141$), where 82% had written proof (state accepted language certificates) of a B2 level of proficiency in either one or two or even more languages, and only 18% had no certificates (which did not mean lack of proficiency), only less than one-third (30%) labeled themselves "successful" language learners, 50.9% "average", and 19.1% "failure" (Válóczi, 2021).

Their ESP related goals will be determined by the importance they attribute to learning ESP (Anthony, 2018). These traits influence their motivation, which can be improved by clearly set goals (Woodrow, 2018), and relevant materials. As for the

latter, a mismatch between student and teacher goals are most typically caused by perceiving the course material irrelevant: "learners can easily become de-motivated by language course content that does not appear directly relevant to their real-world objectives. The ESP teacher/course developer needs to find out what the language-based objectives of the students are in the target occupation or academic discipline and ensure that the content of the ESP course works towards them" (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 8). The explicit need for relevance is reflected in learners' instrumental motivation, which underpins the importance of needs analysis (Long, 2005). From a motivational point of view, however, it is worth inviting students to take part in needs analysis, because they will feel responsibility for their own learning (Woodrow, 2018), and it can facilitate autonomous learning in the long run.

As for their proficiency, university students are assumed to have prior knowledge of the language; however, their level of proficiency in English is rather uneven (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). As one Hungarian researcher commented "the level of first-year students' proficiency can be anything between zero and one-hundred percent" (Sturcz, 2009, p. 121). Such a wide gap between students would call for differentiated teaching, but the reality is that teachers cannot cope with large groups of students of mixed abilities and proficiencies. To amend the situation and prevent students dropping out, some institutions introduced language support programs (Bocanegra-Valle, 2015).

4.6.1.1 Hungarian Students of Business

To understand the stakeholders' group of this research, I would like to present some recent data about students learning in Hungarian business higher education

institutes. The data did not only refer to business students, but to those studying subjects like Human Resources, Finance, Tourism etc. at a business university. The theoreticians' assumption that university students learning ESP lacked professional experience was refuted by the statistics conducted among Hungarian undergraduates. It showed that 61.3% of undergraduates work beside doing full-time courses. Out of this number 42.3% could say that their job was somewhat related to their future professions (the university course they were taking), which was the highest proportion among all the Hungarian undergraduates of all fields. 34.2% of the working students said that their job was fully related to their professions, which was at about the level of the mean value of 32.4% (Sági, 2022). These figures are quite promising because they suggest that students gained professional experience during their studies, and the number showed a slight decrease of 7.1% by the end of their studies (Seli, 2022).

2.3.2 Teachers

The goals teachers set for their courses are determined by institutional expectations, their students' needs, and their own agendas. But their goal-setting process is considerably influenced by the presence or absence of field-related experience. As most ESP teachers are characterized by the lack of it, they have problems with imparting underlying knowledge, which otherwise would be an expectation. Naturally, if learners want to exclusively improve their language skills, and focus on communicating in a target situation (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), which is most typical in in-company courses, and not in a university setting, the lack of field-related expertise does not pose a problem. However, the lack of field-related

knowledge can have a devastating effect on teacher identity if language teachers feel inferior to their colleagues of content subjects (Tao & Gao, 2018).

ESP instructors are sometimes held responsible for the insufficient level of ESP teaching: "there is a significant gap between implementation and assuring quality of ESP offerings, stemming from teachers' own incompetence and the lack of materials for specific contexts, as well as a lack of opportunities for ESP teachers to develop professionally and personally" (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018, p. 1). They are also criticized for their unwillingness to change, to renew their methods in a fast-changing world expecting students to be adaptable and flexible (Einhorn, 2021). In a somewhat similar vein, they are also blamed for resisting changes implemented by the faculty in order to improve the quality of ESP teaching (Hoós, 2011). Teachers are criticized not only for their lack of field knowledge but also for the lack of certain skills they are supposed to teach. One example is emotional intelligence, and the related skills (self-awareness, social skills, empathy etc.). Teaching skills they do not own and have not mastered is a tall order (Jármai, 2008).

On the positive note, teachers can turn their lack of field-related knowledge to their advantage by relying on their students for specialized knowledge, which can create a more egalitarian relationship with their students (Belcher, 2009). Unfortunately, it is a rather limited perspective with pre-experience university students. Gaining field-related experience is not a feasible solution for many university language instructors. Because it would require teaching in-company courses (Kóris, 2016), or working in the field, any of which would mean giving up partly or fully their university teaching career. Furthermore, not having close, daily contact with a certain field means not having access to relevant information, ideas,

and difficulty in finding truly relevant materials. This problem can be mitigated by a good ESP coursebook written by native ESP experts (Belcher, 2009).

Teachers can compensate for the lack of their and their students' lack of field knowledge in a constructive way, which shows that the added value of a language teacher can be high. One example was when presenting their students professional texts, ESP teachers conducted genre analysis and introduced the blueprint of thinking, and a way of reasoning in the fields of engineering and law, respectively (Tar, 2010; Zabóné, 2019). Another good example is when ESP is focusing on content and tasks, for instance, launching an international project that includes creating a business plan, a website ensuring accessibility. The project members were three universities (two Hungary, one USA based). As a result, students' intercultural and interdisciplinary skills improved along with their problem-solving skills, including managing to work across different time-zones (Kóris, 2019). Another, though less ambitious, but equally useful method is creating a realistic scenario. As a medical university did by employing actors and actresses to act as patients for improving the communication and language skills of medical students while conducting the medical interview (Koppán et al., 2019).

2.3.3 Institutions

If they want to meet the educational, workplace, national or even international expectations, universities face an important decision. Institutions need to decide to what extent ESP courses should be specific or generic, that is, whether applying a narrow-angled course design focusing on a very specific, narrow field of a profession, and teaching the necessary skills, genres etc., or offering a wide-angled, generic ESP

course. Both approaches hold risks, a too narrow-angled course design may result in less transferable knowledge, whereas a too wide-angled course design would entail the risk of losing relevance (Belcher, 2009). Some researchers are rather skeptic about teaching anything else but general BESP (Business English for Specific Purposes) seeing how dispersing careers students choose after graduation (Sándor, 2022). A feasible solution could be a curriculum starting with wide-angled ESP courses for first-year students, and more specific ones for second- and third-year students (Jackson, 2005).

Designing ESP courses is difficult in a fast-changing and evolving world of professions, with new, emerging needs and genres (Belcher, 2009). Instructors (and textbook writers) seem to be always one or several steps behind. Asking graduates to give records of their language needs, the macro skills they use could be a feasible solution (Chan, 2019; Wanger, 2016). Another way to resolve the conflict between institutional and individual needs is a curriculum with general and specific language courses (Er & Kırkgöz, 2018; Hossain, 2013). In spite of all the constraints, it is still the needs analysis that can guarantee relevant and up-to-date ESP education in higher education institutions. There are examples of universities where regular revision of needs analysis is carried out to ensure the quality of a program (Staub, 2018).

Higher education institutes face several challenges in the field of teaching ESP. Although needs analysis should be the cornerstone of course design, no needs analysis can be done among future employers or students. Students' needs are only assessed by carrying out placement tests to assess proficiency. ESP courses target students with intermediate level of proficiency (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), but there are many students who do not meet the expected level. Course materials cannot

keep pace with the fast-changing professions and workplace needs, and the

infrequently carried out needs analyses cannot inform ESP instruction effectively.

2.4 Motivation in ESP

Motivation in language learning is defined by the triangulation of three

discreet points: the effort a learner is willing to make, the desire of a learner to

achieve a goal, and the affect, that is, the satisfaction an individual finds in learning a

language (Gardner, 2001). There are different types of motivation depending on

individuals' goals and reference points. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation classifies motives based on the source of reference: whether an individual

wants to meet their own standards, and fulfill their own goals, or intends to meet

someone else's expectations in order to avoid negative outcomes (Deci & Ryan,

1985) Motivation can be distinguished as international posture (Yashima, 2002),

integrative and instrumental (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003) depending on the learner's

primary aim of learning an L2. The goal can be to belong to the large community of

speakers of an L2, or to achieve a career goal by being able to speak an L2.

Motivation is a multidimensional concept involving one's mental, emotional

capacities, and volition, therefore there are concepts and theories evolved around

motivation to explain its complex nature: goal-setting theory (Locke, 2000), self-

efficacy (Bandura, 1987) the attribution theory (Weiner, 1985, 2010). There are

motivational theories that aim to incorporate several aspects, for instance, the Process

Model (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). It divides the motivational process into three stages:

pre-actional, actional, and post-actional, allocating goal setting to the first stage,

causal attributions to the last stage when language learners assess their performance.

There are studies of L2 motivation aiming to investigate the relationship between different measures of motivation (e.g., Bandura & Locke; 2003, Kormos et al., 2011; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), like goals, attitude, self-beliefs, causal attributions, attention, and persistence.

In the following pages I intend to narrow down the large pool of motivation research to the ones relevant in the field of ESP. Establishing course design on the results of needs analysis has a direct impact on learners' motivation (Basturkmen, 2010). The use of relevant materials, and the methods adapted to a specific group of learners enhance motivation and make ESP courses more efficient and effective (Strevens, 1988). A quantitative study conducted among Korean university students ($N = 125$), using a reflective questionnaire found that students experienced the lowest motivation of language learning in secondary school and the highest motivation in the first years of university when they were learning ESP (Jung, 2011). Apart from internal factors the awareness of the usefulness of ESP accounted for the high level of language learning motivation. Similar findings were published by Katsara (2008), who found that apart from instrumental motivation the goal to perform well was salient.

The premise that ESP learners are more motivated than those learning EGP (Basturkmen, 2010; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) are supported by empirical studies as well. The theoretical background to many ESP studies into learners' motivation is the L2 Motivational Self System Theory (Dörnyei, 2005). It distinguishes three sources of motivation: the *ideal L2 self* denoting the characteristics a language learner wants to have, the *ought-to L2 self* comprising all attributes that help a language learner to meet all the expectations significant others

(parents, teachers, employers, society etc.) had, and avoid all negative outcomes, and last, the *learning experience* "situated, executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). This theory is able to describe ESP learners' motivation, because the ideal L2 self incorporates internalized instrumental motives as well. Professional success and the instrumental motivation are linked to the ideal L2 self that has a promotion focus. Whereas instrumental motivation with prevention focus, that is, to avoid negative consequences, are connected to the ought to self (Dörnyei, 2009).

The motivating effect of ESP and the focus on meeting learners' immediate needs were proven in a questionnaire study conducted in a corporate setting among 232 employees (Kálmán, 2020). Incorporating ESP in the syllabus had a strong motivating power because learners found it relevant to their profession, and focusing on the current needs was connected to their day-to-day tasks that had a link to their ought-to selves that wanted to avoid uncomfortable situations, shame. The study also proved that strong correlation existed between learning ESP and learners' need of personalized teaching, which highlights the very nature of ESP courses, their dependence on needs analysis. The quantitative research conducted among Saudi university students ($N = 4,043$) supported the premise that students learning ESP had significantly higher ideal L2 selves than those learning EGP. Regarding the ought-to selves there was no difference between the two groups, still ESP learners had a more positive attitude to learning experience (Altalib, 2019).

Goals and goal-setting theory are closely related to motivation. Goals can direct attention and action towards goal-relevant activities, affect the intensity of effort, maintain persistence (Locke, 2000). But goals cannot exert their effect unless

they are difficult and specific enough. Goal difficulty is proportional to the level of performance, and specificity helps to regulate performance. On the other hand, goals require two things from people: one is commitment. It could be enhanced if people are45um45inceed that the goal is valuable and reachable. The other is self-efficacy (Bandura, 1987), that is, a task-based confidence. If all the above conditions are met, and people receive informative feedback on their progress and direction, the goals can improve performance (Morisano, 2013; Morisano et al., 2010).

The role of attitude in language learning achievements was Investigated widely (e.g., Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Gardner, 2001; Oxford, 1996). A tool devised by Gardner and his colleagues (1985), aimed at measuring the power of attitudes and motivation (Attitude and Motivation Test Battery). AMTB measured attitudes to three aspects of language learning: learners' attitude toward the learning situation (evaluating the course and the teacher), the target language group (interest in foreign languages and integrative orientation), and the target language (within the construct of motivation). AMTB was validated (Masgoret & Gardner, 2004), and the hypothesis that L2 learners' attitude had an impact on their achievement was confirmed.

Another theory connected to motivation is the attribution theory (Weiner, 1989) categorizing the reasons people attribute their success and failure. The causal attributions within the educational context are: effort, luck, aptitude, ability, task characteristics (ease or difficulty), intrinsic motivation, teacher characteristics, mood and luck (Weiner, 2010). These attributions are positioned in discreet points of a three-dimensional system depending on the location, that is a certain cause is within or outside of the actor, controllability, and endurance or stability. The causal

attributions learners make will determine their motivation to undertake a task in the future. In language learning attributing failure to lack of ability (an internal, uncontrollable, stable cause) will hinder future success, whereas attributing failure to lack of effort (an internal, controllable, unstable cause) can lead to increased motivation (Dörnyei, 2007). An interview study conducted among learners of English demonstrated the connection between attitude to learning English and learners' self-efficacy beliefs, the learning situation, the L2 goals and expectations, and the perceived value of English. The causal attributions of failure made by the participants fell into two categories: external, uncontrollable, unstable causes, like teachers, learning situation, and internal, uncontrollable, and stable causes, like low ability and low self-efficacy (Gabillon, 2013).

2.5 Learning Goals and Objectives

Learning goals are "directly linked with the results of needs analysis" (Anthony, 2018, p. 79), they are target needs translated into the classroom situation. Discussing this concept is relevant to my research because learning goals and objectives are more tangible and accessible. Course descriptions, LSP instructors and learners are more likely to communicate the goals they want to achieve than the needs they want to fulfill.

Although the terms *goals* and *objectives* are often used as synonyms, there is a marked difference between the two in the field of ESP course design: *Goals* refer to general statements about what the course hopes to accomplish, the global target outcomes around which the course is organized. "*Objectives* are more specific, describing smaller, achievable behaviors that learners will be expected to perform at

the end of the course – and perhaps during it too. They facilitate planning, provide measurable outcomes and stipulate how learning will proceed" (Hyland, 2006, pp. 81–82).

There are five main learning goals defined in ESP instruction (Basturkmen, 2006): to teach subject-specific language use (the genres), to develop target performance competencies (skills and competencies), to teach underlying knowledge (relevant background knowledge), to develop strategic competence (means of using knowledge), to foster critical awareness (challenging conformity).

However, empirical research reveals several more learning objectives that are worth mastering. For instance, in a case when graduates had to face the fact that their level of proficiency was insufficient, and they did not opt for efficient strategies (asking for help from their senior colleagues) because they were protecting their 'vulnerable sense of professional identity', the need for mastering learning strategies that could be useful in a workplace as well, was formulated (Chan, 2021b). Another indispensable learning objective was set when students expressed their dissatisfaction with the ESP courses, and as a result, transferable skills were introduced into the curriculum (Macianskiene & Bijeikiene, 2018). An example of good practice is the introduction of a work-integrated-learning module at a university inviting students to discover their own workplace needs while doing their internship. The on-site information was fed back to the program, forming the course content, and giving valuable, relevant insights of linguistic needs in specific workplaces (Chan, 2021a). LSP instructors set other learning goals, for instance, to teach language learning strategies that could be used long-term (Mészáros, 2019), and introduced web-tools, and showed reliable online dictionaries (Csongor et al., 2019). Teaching effective

strategy use, or data base use in the curriculum enabled students to learn autonomously, (Szénich, 2019), and raised awareness of the need of improving their language skills beyond university, at the workplace as well. Inviting alumni, employers as motivators to ESP classes (Hoós, 2011) was another initiative to narrow the gap between academic and workplace requirements.

Behind learning goals and objectives, we can find LSP learners' perceived and felt needs (Berwick, 1989). Looking back to the first mention of learner needs, we find that they were labeled as *wants* and *desires* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Although these terms reflected the patronizing attitude of experts to non-experts' ideas about learning ESP, they were valuable in a sense that they carried a meaning of an intention to reach a goal. But it is not only learners who find it easier to formulate goals than needs, ESP documents, like course descriptions, syllabi often communicate needs in a form of learning goals. Considering how goals in general can reveal the underlying needs (Locke & Latham, 2013a), I can infer that a systematic analysis of learning goals and goal-directed behavior can give an insight of LSP needs.

These examples highlight the role of language instructors play in setting learning goals, because it was their job to sequence learning objectives to create the most appropriate syllabus for the ESP course (Anthony, 2018). Learning goals served as tangible aspects for the learners of the ESP course. Even so, learning objectives had to be set in less-than-ideal cases when teachers could rely on their own experience to determine the needs because no needs analysis had been carried out.

2.6 The Research Gap and Research Questions

The roles learning goals play in LSP course design make them a diagnostic tool to investigate both met and unmet needs. If identified needs can be transformed into learning goals and objectives (Anthony, 2018; Basturkmen, 2006; Hyland, 2006), then needs can be revealed by investigating learning goals and objectives. Although goals were investigated in ESP context (Kormos et. al, 2011), but so far, no studies investigated LSP related learning goals to explore the underlying felt and perceived needs (Berwick, 1989).

If needs are not analyzed within an institution, language instructors have limited access to information of target needs, and most students lack the relevant field knowledge, then explicitly formulated goals can reveal which needs are fulfilled or remain unfulfilled. The investigation of goals can help to map other, goal-related constructs: students' motivation, attitude, self-efficacy, and causal attributions. These constructs, examined from both language instructors' and students' angles, can provide further information about students' needs.

The purpose of my study is to map needs and their interrelationship as they are revealed in LSP instructors' and students' goals. The two stakeholder groups perspectives can reflect on each other and shed light on needs that are painfully neglected. In order to explore the LSP needs as they are reflected in learning goals formulated by the institution, teachers, and students I formulated the following research questions:

1   What needs are reflected in the goals language instructors formulate?

    a) What sources do language instructors rely on when defining needs?

    b) What conflicts do language instructors perceive between needs?

2   What motivational patterns can language instructors identify?

3   How do language instructors evaluate the effectiveness of courses?

4   What characterizes students' language learning experience?

5   What relationships exist between the scales measuring aspects of learning a language for specific purposes?

6   What are the roles of background variables?

7   What influences students' intended effort, self-assessment, self-set and course goals?

8   What student profiles can be identified concerning motivation?

9   Which unmet needs cause dissatisfaction?

3 Research Context

The first part of this chapter gives a short overview of the position of LSP teaching in European higher education institutes. Several regulations, changes in the system of LSP teaching is not institution-specific but a result of the Europe-wide Bologna process, which reached Hungary in the 2000's. The second part intends to present the institutional perspective, the background to both the qualitative and quantitative research. First, the courses and their LSP related requirements will be presented, then the aims of learning LSP articulated by the university, course content, forms of assessment, and finally, alternatives to LSP courses will be discussed.

3.1 ESP in Higher Education: Institutional Choices and Dilemmas

Although ESP is taught in workplaces, some specialized secondary schools, its main scene is still the higher education, as both discipline specific and language teaching expertise are present here. Not only the number of documented needs analyses and conducted research is higher, but the latest approach in ESP needs analysis was tested and tried out in higher education institutes. However, these very institutions face some challenges typical in most universities, regardless of their geographical position, and the solutions they find are in some cases quite innovative.

In this review, I will heavily rely on two sources that I found the most relevant. For the European scene, I will refer to the results of surveys conducted among European universities after the Bologna process (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008), for the Hungarian scene, I will refer to the findings of some mixed method research conducted among LSP teachers working in tertiary education (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

ESP courses are either integrated into a university program, quite typical in case of English medium instruction programs, or taught as add-on courses. Although no one would question the usefulness of learning ESP/LSP, compared to other subjects, they have lower prestige than content subjects. They are worth two or three credits, and in several universities, they are listed among the elective courses (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). The number of students enrolling for LSP courses is decreasing during their studies if the language course is not a requirement on the part of the university (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012). In this case, little planning is possible, needs analysis is meaningless, and allocating the necessary sources (language instructors) happens ad hoc.

There were several reasons for not all university students participating in LSP courses in Hungary at the time of the research (2020–2022). At undergraduate level the degree requirement was typically one certificate of a general language. Many students who already had a B2 (general) language certificate at admission, rightly felt that they had already fulfilled the university set requirement. Naturally, there were institutions where only profession-specific language certificates were accepted.

In institutes where language courses were electives, many students opted out from language courses, cutting themselves from the opportunity to improve their specialized language knowledge along with their content knowledge (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012). When the requirement for the degree is not a successful LSP exam, the sole aim of attending LSP classes is to obtain certain amount of credits. In this case motivating students to learn LSP is difficult (Havril, 2011; Sturcz, 2009).

After implementing the Bologna process, most European universities decided to schedule ESP courses at the beginning of studies instead of the last two years. As a

result, ESP is taught at the bachelor' level (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008), and at

the same time it also meant reducing the number of classes in favor of content classes.

The most frequent approaches applied in undergraduate ESP courses are the CLIL,

the communicative, and the task-based approaches. (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012; Räisänen

& Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). In most universities ESP courses are scarce at Master

level, however there are specific genres, more specialized skills, project-based tasks

that would be needed, and would be more easily learned when students have already

spent some time in internship. Furthermore, students typically attend conferences, or

create summaries of their thesis in other languages, and read the literature extensively

at master's level, but unfortunately the skills needed for completing these tasks are

rarely taught (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

      When ESP or LSP courses are the only courses where the foreign language

can be used within the walls of the university, students' motivation will change

accordingly. Their professional goals will be more salient than their ESP-related

academic goals (Dévény & Szőke, 2009; Loch & Dévény, 2011), for instance, fewer

students set the goal of studying abroad at another university or want to enroll content

courses taught in foreign languages (Bánhegyi & Fajt, 2021; Hámori, 2022).

Nationwide statistics conducted in Hungary showed similar trends among business

graduates: 46.4% of the respondents said that the university course prepared them

well or very well for the practical aspects of their profession, but only 29.6% said that

the university prepared them for conducting scientific research in their fields (Hámori,

2022).

      Probably the most daunting task for universities is striking the right balance of

specificity. While pre-service students can benefit from a wide-scope LSP course

because they can get a general idea about the field they are studying, students who have already gained some professional experience will rightfully demand very specific focus in their LSP classes. Universities offering courses with versatile job opportunities (e.g., business), tend to move towards a wide angled approach. Determining which skill set, sub-field would be the most useful in such a course is not perceived to be important.

Although an ideal solution would be to teach the necessary communication skills at Bachelor level, and more specific skills at master's level, there were no clear distinctions between the two levels regarding the content and methods of LSP education. The graduate LSP courses still favored the communication approach and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), and neglected higher ranking skills (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012). Also, the degree requirement at master's level was the same as at Bachelor level in Hungary, which did not motivate students to improve their knowledge.

However, there is an increased need among employers and students both for specialized knowledge and specialized language. To meet this need ESP teachers and content teachers have to collaborate. In some higher education institutes the CLIL approach is applied, which requires high level of collaboration between language teachers: team teaching, assessing student papers for content and language, using materials of similar content, just to name a few. Its realization depends on the actual teachers, on showing respect and confidence, and the overall culture of the institute (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). Both in the international and Hungarian scenes regular and systematic collaboration is rather the exception than the rule (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

Another solution to increased specificity would be the language teachers' education. Some institutions expect a high level of specialized knowledge from their language instructors, but the methods of acquiring the knowledge are not devised, which leaves language teachers with self-education. There are high-quality conferences, organizations where LSP teachers can share their experience, but there is no organized training for LSP teachers working in higher education institutes (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

Another hurdle in teaching specialized languages is the gap between the presumed and the actual level of proficiency. Higher education institutes expect first-year students to have an intermediate level proficiency (B2) of foreign languages (mainly English) to provide a solid foundation to ESP courses (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008). The fact that some LSP courses at universities are beginner courses (A1, A2) is rather surprising, if we take into consideration that it is the first foreign language students have been learning for years when they start university, and in Hungary the vast majority of students learn two L2s at secondary school. Students are expected to prove their proficiency by passing a B2 ESP exam when or before graduating (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

This situation is not unique to Hungary. In her study Taillefer (2007) criticized language teaching in an academic setting. She conducted interviews with Economics undergraduates, teachers, graduates, and her findings highlight that ESP teaching can get a totally wrong focus: "having spent nine years in secondary school and university studying a foreign language and being unable to communicate" (Taillefer, 2007, p. 150). Some of these difficulties may explain why universities do not carry out needs analysis.

However, European higher education could benefit from new forms of needs analyses that may provide grounds for standardizing the NA process. A *second generation analysis* as the authors called their innovative project, the *CEF* [Common European Framework] *Professional Profiles*, was developed by an international team (Huhta et al., 2013) using the Common European Framework of Reference) (CEFR) in an ESP context. Its primary purpose was to give a description of professionals' workplace language and communication needs to promote workplace language training, and EOP course design both at secondary and tertiary level. Altogether four professional fields were mapped: technology (three profiles), business (two profiles), health and social care, and law. The secondary purpose was to give practical guidelines on how to use the information provided by the Professional Profiles in course design.

The *holistic needs analysis* (Huhta, et. al., 2013) collected information about each stakeholder's goals, values and priorities. The output of their needs analysis could have functioned as a standardized description of needs in the professions mentioned. Somehow the *CEF Professional Profiles* have not been as widely used as one would expect, and only three published materials are available online (Pharmacy Assistants, Merchant Navy Officers, and Hotel Accountants).

The CEFR descriptors (Council of Europe, 2001) were not only the useful tenets for developing the CEF Professional Profiles, but are widely used in the European Higher Education Area for course design, and language syllabuses (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016). Employing the CEFR for needs analysis is not uncommon in higher education, mainly in EAP (English for Academic Purposes) courses. It has been proved a useful self-assessment tools, with its *I can…* statements to help students

to specify their needs, and give quite a reliable diagnosis of their current state of proficiency, and mastery of skills (Kormos et al., 2002; Taillefer, 2007).

Needs analyses, CEF Professional Profiles and CEFR included, highlighted glocal needs (linguistic and communication needs) ESP or EGP learners have had. It can serve as a useful springboard for higher education institutes when they want to open their doors to foreign students. However, needs change over time, local workplace needs can vary, and the culture of education may articulate other learning needs. A needs analysis that aims to identify stakeholders' needs in a different context can complement a locally processed needs analysis, but cannot replace it.

All theoretical models of ESP course design prioritize needs analysis and evaluation, and when visually presented these two can often be seen as two adjacent parts of a circle. There has always been great emphasis on the continuous, recurring nature of needs analysis: it can help to fine tune the ESP course. This cyclical nature of needs analysis promoted it to be part of the quality assurance protocols (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016), and made it an invaluable tool for quality assurance at higher education institutes.

A process model for quality management was proposed by Bardi and Muresan (2012). It is a cyclical model, beginning with an individual needs analysis, followed by feedback channels opened, and students' self-evaluation, which can lead to adjusting the course, at the end of an academic year self-assessment of their progress, then the information gained from student feedback is acted upon. Inviting students to evaluate language programs has become essential in the quality assurance process: "student evaluation of programs is a key indicator of quality" (Bocanegra-Valle,

2016, p. 573). This all happens in accordance with the rights analysis (Benesch, 2001) to make sure that student voices are also heard.

Higher education institutes are the hubs of ESP teaching and learning, also the centers of official ESP assessment (language exam centers). There is considerably higher number of research into needs analysis conducted in higher education institutes than in workplaces. Carrying out a needs analysis is quite feasible in tertiary education setting as both ESP and discipline-based practitioners work in the same institution (Flowerdew, 2013). Regardless of the resources available, and the obvious benefits of needs analysis, there is no doubt that doing a triangulated needs analysis is a complex and time-consuming task.

When needs are defined, a decision has to be made as to which needs to meet: product-oriented needs, focusing on communication strategies (Nickerson, 2005), or process-oriented needs (Brindley, 1989), or personal competences (Bogdán et al., 2021), or transferable skills, opting for the new vocationalism (Dovey, 2006). Although there are a substantial number of research papers on needs analysis carried out in tertiary education institutes, papers on using, implementing the results of a needs analysis are more scarce. Because, admittedly, applying a needs analysis-based course approach is rather demanding (Chostelidou, 2010).

3.2 Courses and Requirements

The institution in the focus of this research is based in Hungary, and one of the prestigious universities of applied sciences offering business related courses. They organized ten undergraduate courses in three faculties in the academic years when the research was conducted. All courses required a proof of language proficiency for

issuing BSc or BA degrees. It meant that undergraduates, who otherwise fulfilled all their university-imposed study requirements, did not obtain their degrees until they presented the language certificates. Of the ten courses seven named LSP language certificate(s) as requirements for the degree at the level B2 based on the CEFR framework (Table 3). The first (or the only) LSP language certificate could be replaced by a C1 level general language certificate. All but one course accepted certificates of the specialized language of the field. International Studies was more flexible, accepting LSP language certificates of any field.

Table 3

Requirements for the degree

Course	Requirement 1	Requirement 2
Business and Management	LSP B2 or General C1	
Commerce and Marketing	LSP B2 or General C1	
Finance	LSP B2 or General C1	
Human Resources Management	LSP B2 or General C1	
International Management	LSP B2 or General C1	LSP B2
International Studies	LSP B2 (any)	General B2
Tourism and Catering	LSP B2 or General C1	LSP B2

As for the type of language exams, the university accepted all language exams accredited in Hungary (Oktatási Hivatal, n.d.). No language exam could be done as part of the language course. Students were expected to take exams organized by independent institutions and had to be paid for by individual applicants. Although the institution in question also had a language exam center, it operated independently, and did not give waiver of payment for students at the university. There were some

regulations in effect at the time of research, which are worth mentioning here. A secondary school final exam in a foreign language completed at advanced level qualified as a general B2 level language certificate and was recognized by all institutions (educational or other) as such in Hungary. Studies done in a secondary school where the language of teaching was not Hungarian, regardless of the geographical position of the school (in or outside Hungary), were recognized as general C1 language certificates (137/2008. (V. 16.) Kormányrendelet).

3.2.1 LSP Course Goals

The aims of taking LSP courses were presented on the university website providing information for first-year students. The courses served three aims: to teach high-level, practical language skills to help students become competent and confident language users, to teach transferable skills that could be used both in academic and professional fields, and to provide LSP exam preparation. The course materials were described as innovative, relevant and up-to-date. Interactive and motivating teaching methods were guaranteed. Additionally, the website mentioned the opportunity of taking content courses in English, and other skill-focused courses in L2, for instance, negotiating, intercultural studies, presentation, and study skills.

3.2.2 Course Content

The Bologna Process made a radical change both in the content and the prestige of LSP courses organized by the university. In 2006, when the credit system was introduced, the number of contact lessons decreased, and simplified and unified LSP course descriptions were created. The curriculum reform required all language

courses taught in the first two terms to have the same syllabus and allowed more specialized language teaching only in the third term. However, in order to give LSP instructors flexibility with teaching profession specific language, the syllabus contained general topics. In practice, every student regardless of their course would learn the topic of "Products and Services" in their first term, but with completely different contents.

Although he intended level of the first term generic business focused LSP course was B1, that of the second term was low B2, the syllabus was flexible enough to suit the needs of students of different levels of proficiency. The syllabus stated that topics have to be adapted to students' levels of proficiency. To form homogeneous groups, online placement tests were administered as part of the admission procedure.

The syllabus (in use at the time of research) articulated several areas (*Core Professional Skills*) it intended to improve. *Consolidation, synthesis and creative application of knowledge* were mentioned first, which included sociocultural and intercultural expertise. The next item was *Professional skills,* the ability to apply, synthesize, and evaluate materials. This category also included soft skills, like problem-solving, team-working, intercultural competences. *Competences of interpreting and drafting texts* involved linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competences. By focusing on *Learning styles,* the syllabus aimed to make students find and adopt the most effective way to learn LSP. The right *Attitude* to the course was also described, as a kind of code of conduct, highlighting flexibility, tolerance, accuracy, motivation (both professional and learning), showing initiative, risk-taking, ethics. *Autonomy* was also to be improved, and several sub-skills were listed, for instance, having professional ambition, ability for independent learning, and finding

one's role in a team. The last item on the list of *Core Professional Skills* was

Responsibility, emphasizing students' individual responsibility towards their own

health, learning, life and to the environment and society.

The syllabus gave recommendations for the coursebooks for each field in all

languages. Although these were set books, it allowed LSP instructors to choose which

topic they want to cover, and how detailed they want to discuss it. There were neither

written, nor verbal restrictions against using additional materials as long as the

recommended book is used as a set coursebook. Using the same coursebooks, at least

within faculties, had the advantage of making courses portable.

The former head of the Language Institute said that there was a specific course

material for tourism students compiled by English language instructors (Á. L.,

personal communication, December 19, 2022) . When I asked about the sources they

used, I was told that old language coursebooks, students' actual content subjects, and

instructors' "common sense" provided the primary sources. When the material was

completed, teachers from the Tourism department checked its professional content.

Later this book served as a blueprint for other language teachers to create their own

books. There was one drawback of the material that it was not so much a language

course book as a tourism textbook in English.

3.2.3 Assessment

The university offered LSP courses for three or six terms if the final

requirement was one or two language certificates, respectively. The classes were

organized on a weekly basis with two 90-minute-long periods. Attendance was

mandatory, only a limited amount of absence was permitted. Students received a

grade at the end of the first two terms based on their class participation, oral and written in-class tests, and home assignments. Students' performance was assessed by a complex (oral and written) exam at the end of the third (last) term. This obligation only applied to the first LSP course. If a student was learning two different LSPs (i.e., two languages), they needed to take a complex exam only after completing the first LSP course. Although in many ways the complex exam was similar to the B2 LSP language exam, students were not exempted from taking both.

3.2.4 Alternatives to LSP Courses

Students who at the time of admission already meet the requirements for the degree are still obliged to obtain the required credits for language learning. They can take content courses offered by departments in L2, or attend skill-focused courses offered by the language departments, like research methods, study skills, presentation, negotiation etc. As a third alternative, they can join a regular LSP course in a different language they possibly learned at secondary school. But several students with high proficiency in English or German, equipped with C1 level language certificates, take an unexpected path by joining English or German LSP classes. By their choice, they form an ambitious, critical, and demanding circle of students.

4 Methods

4.1 Research Design and Justification

In order to have a comprehensive view on the complex phenomenon of students' LSP-related needs, I opted for the mixed methods research design. The complexity of the research questions aiming to address two perspectives justifies the choice of this method (Ivankova & Geer, 2018). The two perspectives, those of LSP instructors' and students' can be presented by using two methodologies, qualitative and quantitative, respectively. Within mixed methods research the two paradigms have complementary roles (Creswell, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Riazi, 2016).

The instructors' perspective examined by applying qualitative research method, semi-structured interviews. This method was chosen first, because of its exploratory nature, second, the size of the population would not make it possible to carry out a questionnaire study. In order to collect data about LSP students' perspective, quantitative research method was used. The questionnaire collected information from students of all faculties, and courses where LSP was taught. The large number of potential participants, and their tight schedule made the use of a questionnaire a feasible research tool. The quantitative phase served as a further exploratory tool for the qualitative phase, checking how salient were those topics in students' perceptions their instructors highlighted. There was a deliberate attempt to see the extent the emerging themes of the interviews are endorsed by students by applying statistical methods. To provide further details, a content analysis of the answers given to one of the sentence completion questions in the questionnaire was

carried out, which was the qualitative part of the quantitative phase. For a summary of research questions and methods see Table 4.

Table 4

Research Questions and Methods

1	What needs are reflected in the goals language instructors formulate?	
	a. What sources do language instructors rely on when defining needs?	Semi-structured interviews
	b. What conflicts do language instructors perceive between needs?	
2	What motivational patterns can language instructors identify?	
3	How do language instructors evaluate the effectiveness of courses?	
4	What characterizes students' language learning experience?	Descriptive statistics
5	What relationships exist between the scales measuring aspects of learning a language for specific purposes?	Correlation analysis
6	What are the roles of background variables?	T-tests ANOVA
7	What influences students' intended effort, self-assessment, self-set and course goals?	Regression analysis
8	What student profiles can be identified concerning motivation?	Cluster analysis
9	Which unmet needs cause dissatisfaction?	Content analysis

4.2 Interview Study

In order to have a comprehensive view on teachers' perspective in the institution, LSP instructors were interviewed. There were several theoretical and practical considerations behind choosing the qualitative research design. Qualitative

research methods are by definition exploratory in nature, and this characteristic can enhance finding issues that otherwise would have been ignored. The emerging issues may shed light on interconnected topics, and the findings of a qualitative study can provide a solid basis for quantitative research.

The expectations as to what kind of data I had hoped the research would yield also had a decisive role in choosing a qualitative method. I expected the interviewees to give rich data, to raise context specific issues, and to provide valuable insight of their students, and classroom practice. Being experienced teachers who already spent years, or more typically decades in the same institution, the interviewees were able to reflect on their own roles in selecting and meeting LSP related needs. Although these topics (and many more) could have been addressed through questionnaires, I opted for qualitative methods, because I suspected that the interviews could touch upon undercurrent topics that later could be tested in the quantitative phase.

Another reason for choosing the interview protocol as a research tool was that during personal conversations with LSP instructors I sensed a certain amount of frustration and dissatisfaction. I hypothesized that a possible cause could be a mismatch between students' and teachers' goals, that is, between wants and necessities. I wanted to explore and know the details of the situation, I needed initial information and confirmation before doing any quantitative research.

4.2.1 Participants, Sample and Sampling

The targeted population of the qualitative phase were language instructors who worked at the language department of the university. The aim was to interview at least one instructor of each LSP taught to achieve maximum variation sampling (Dörnyei,

2007). I did not aim to conduct interviews with instructors from other faculties for two reasons. First, to keep the number of participants manageable, that is, between six and thirty (Dörnyei, 2007), second, interviews done in the same department can complement and explain each other and shed light on hidden dynamics among members of the department. Data saturation was reached by conducting 22 interviews (Dörnyei, 2007).

The participating teachers formed the majority of a language department of a faculty of the university. The criterion for selection was that the interviewee was a full-time LSP instructor employed by the university. Table 5 shows the distribution of languages, and the proportion of interviewees compared to the total number of teaching staff at the department.

Table 5

Distribution of Full-time Employees and Interviewees

Language	Full-time employees	Interviewed
English	19	16
German	11	3
French	2	1
Italian	2	1
Spanish	4	1
Total	38	22

As the interviewees were members of a language department, they all had BA/MA degrees in languages, however, one English teacher was a native speaker, who had a business degree, and only completed a short teacher-training course. Out of the 22 participants 14 obtained a PhD in various fields of humanities (history,

literature, language pedagogy). In case of LSP it is relevant to ask about field

knowledge and experience. The data shows that 22% of the respondents owned a BSc

in the field they were teaching LSP (Business or Tourism), and one respondent

participated in vocational training. As for the field-relevant experience, only 18.2%

mentioned to have some sort (see Table 6). The years the respondents had spent

teaching at the institution spanned from three to 29 years, and the weighted average of

the time a respondent had been teaching there was 16.1 years. Interviewees' profiles

are summarized in Table 7.

Table 6

Qualifications and Field-related Experience

	Language teaching qualification			Field-related qualification		Field-related experience
	BA/MA	CELTA	PhD	Vocational	BSc	
Male	5	1[*]	4		1	1
Female	16	1	10	1	4	3
Total	22	2	14	1	5	4

[*] N/A of the specific teacher-training course the native teacher took.

Table 7

Interviewees

Pseudonyms	Gender	LSP taught	Employment (years)
Ábel	male	English	3–11
Beáta	female	English	3–11
Csilla	female	English	3–11
Danuta	female	English	21–29
Elek	male	English, native	12–20
Fanni	female	Spanish	12–20
Gabriella	female	French	12–20
Hedvig	female	English	12–20
Ilona	female	Italian	21–29
Jázmin	female	English, Russian (EGP)	21–29
Kornél	male	English	3–11
Luca	female	English	21–29
Margit	female	English	21–29
Nándor	male	English	3–11
Olga	female	English	12–20
Piroska	female	English	21–29
Rita	female	English	21–29
Sándor	male	English	21–29
Tímea	female	German	21–29
Ursula	female	German	3–11
Veronika	female	German	3–11
Zalán	male	English	3–11

There were two types of biographical data that were not collected. One was age, the other was language teaching experience. As all respondents had been working at the university for at least three years, and in the profession for at least five years, I made the decision to ask only about the years they spent at this university to focus on the experience gained in this context. This information was more relevant to the research.

4.2.2 Instrument and Piloting

The interview protocol covered three areas, and the questions were arranged in this order.

- Teachers' work experience, qualifications, field knowledge (other than teaching languages)
- Teachers' views on students' goals, attitude, strategies, motivating and demotivating factors, success and failure (evaluation), teachers' perceived effect on their students
- Teaching LSP: goals, course focus, self-branding, teaching context.

The research instrument was devised by using the theoretical framework of the learning-centered approach to course design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987): identifying learners' attitudes, motivation (wants), the potential and constraints of learning and teaching situation, the skills and knowledge needed to function in the target situation.

The topics of students' motivation, goals, self-beliefs (Dörnyei, 2005) and perceived causal attributions (Weiner, 2010) were based on the relevant literature. Language instructors' field-relevant knowledge or the lack of it was also addressed, as

a topic prevalent in several theoretical studies (e.g., Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018; Long, 2005). The idea of asking LSP language instructors about their most salient characteristic was based on the concept of personal branding (Waller, 2018).

The use of ESP-related technical terms, *needs, wants, necessities, lacks* were deliberately avoided in the questions. It was done both to elicit natural answers, and to reduce pressure on the interviewees as well, to avoid the hint that they were expected to know the differences between the terms. There were 23 questions, some were included to help to avoid ambiguity or simply to encourage open dialogue.

Questions in the third part gave opportunity for the interviewees to bring up elements of their LSP courses that may (or may not) show beyond the level of linguistic proficiency One example was the question enquiring about teachers' self-brand ("If there is one thing, I teach in a course it is …").

The last question "What would you change about LSP education in your institution?" invited the interviewees to share their complaints or visions about teaching LSP, and at the same time it served as a useful replacement to the overtly general and somewhat cliched question, "Is there anything you would like to add?". The question elicited criticism, bitter replies, and gave way to a lot of venting on the part of the interviewees. Therefore, I decided to ask the traditional last question as well ("Is there anything you would like to add?") just to give the interviewees the opportunity to decide how they would finish the interview.

The instrument was piloted with a language teacher experienced in teaching both EGP and ESP. She worked outside the institute where the actual research took place. After answering the interview questions, she gave valuable feedback on the order of questions, and reflected on the overall procedure of the interview. Her

comments impelled me to find a better logic to sequence the questions and reword some of them. Some of the original questions were demoted to subsidiary questions to be asked if the primary ones were not clear for the interviewees. The final interview protocol is in Appendix A.

4.2.3 Data Collection

The qualitative data were collected by recording the interviews, all interviews but one were conducted in Hungarian, and recorded by the author in December 2018. All interviews were recorded in AMR-format with the help of a mobile phone. Each interview started by checking the quality of the recording, whether the interviewee's voice was loud enough, and ensuring no or minimal background noises were disturbing the recording. The recorded files were immediately transferred to a home laptop and uploaded into a private drive to avoid loss of data. The quality of the recorded interviews was good, only three recordings turned out to be of inferior quality.

As soon as all the interviews were recorded the transcription began. The audio files were transcribed verbatim, only minimal corrections were made (for instance, when someone was hesitating and repeated a word several times), laughter, pauses were marked. The overall length of the interviews was 8 hours and 40 minutes, the total net word count (without the questions) was 31,748 words.

4.2.4 Data Analysis

The qualitative data of the interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed with the constant comparison method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994) using the RQDA

software (Huang, 2016). The quantitative data of the questionnaires were entered into

PSPP, a free statistical software under the GNU project (2017). The coding process

was done with the same software, but all statistical analyses were done with SPSS

(version 28). The content analysis of one of the sentence-completion items of the

questionnaire was done by hand.

The pre-coding process began while I was transcribing the interviews.

Themes, patterns emerged, which was an obvious benefit of typing the interviews

(Dörnyei, 2007). I kept a record of my impressions, possible code names, the

relationship between them, and my questions. I was "telling my project" (Richards,

2014) to make use of my reflections that could have been lost when I turned my full

attention to coding the transcripts.

The actual coding was done by applying the constant comparison method

(Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). First, descriptive labels were used in the hard copy of

the interviews. But comparing coded passages in order to check whether they could be

labeled with the same code became increasingly difficult with the 70-page long

transcript. Therefore, the RQDA software was used (Huang, 2016) all along the data

analysis. The descriptive labels were useful for keeping categories open and

preserving the complexity of data.

In the second stage of the coding, a code book was created in an Excel

spreadsheet containing all the labels and explanations. This made the coding process

more consistent and helped to compare and contrast all coded parts. Finally, when no

more new codes were created, I aimed to find connections and hierarchy among them

(see Appendix B). At this stage I heavily relied on the literature to create abstract code

names as categories, whereas I did not change descriptive code names when I found something different to be able to present divergences (Dörnyei, 2007).

By quantifying some findings, I was able to define which themes were mentioned the most frequently and/or most extensively, which often was not the same (Appendix C). Although the interviews produced valuable and rich data, in *the present study* I want to focus on those relevant when addressing the original research questions.

4.2.5 Ethical Considerations

In their handbook of educational research, Johnson and Christensen (2019) mention three areas of ethical concerns: the relationship between society and science, professional issues, and the treatment of research participants. Based on their recommendations, I had the following ethical considerations in mind while conducting the interviews, and when presenting the findings:

Consent: All participants gave their consent verbally to take part in the interviews. They were participating voluntarily; no pressure was exerted either on their employer's or on the researcher's part.

Privacy: The extent participants were willing to share information about themselves, their students, or colleagues was highly respected. Neither loaded questions, nor verbal and non-verbal hints were used on the interviewer's part to manipulate the participants.

Anonymity: All participants were given a code (a number), their true identities were and are known only by the researcher. The codes were used from the onset of the research, when the audio files were transcribed.

Confidentiality: All information was treated as confidential. No information regardless their absolute value was disclosed to third parties: neither to another interviewee nor the head of the department.

Detachment: Although it was not mentioned as an ethical concern by Johnson and Christensen (2019), I abode by this rule. It meant a deliberate and conscious distancing from the interviewees and having an unbiased demeanor. The interviewees often wanted me to involve into a real dialogue, provoking me and asking for affirmation. Although it was rather tempting to be engaged in a dialogue about issues I could relate, I made a conscious effort to stay detached, and not to contaminate the interviewees' original ideas with my reactions. This conduct has helped to keep the diversity of voices, often contradicting and conflicting with my views.

Having been around the interviewees for three years gave me an edge when I invited them to take part in the research, but it had its drawback when they shared confidential information with me. I was staying there as a colleague after the interviews and had to concentrate on not sharing information I collected through the interviews either about interviewees or about their colleagues.

It was not only my interviewees who vented their feelings, criticism. Some interviews generated intense feelings in me: disappointment, enthusiasm, surprise, to name a few. Staying unbiased was a demanding task after a couple of interviews when topics, problems began to recur. I had to make a conscious effort to stick to the questions I formulated, and to keep the interviews structured, and allow only slight deviations. It became crucial in cases when the interviewees wanted to involve me into their narratives expecting active affirmation, which if I had done so, would have led to a lively discussion and an interview contaminated by my voice and beliefs.

However, these situations showed that I managed to create psychological safety, an environment where people could be vulnerable, and spoke with candor.

4.3 Questionnaire Study

4.3.1 Participants, Sample and Sampling

The sample of the quantitative phase was 490 students, which accounted for about 70–80% of the targeted population, that is, the total number of students learning LSP at the university Purposive sampling was used therefore all students were included who met the following criteria at the time of completing the questionnaire:

- they had been studying LSP at the university for at least two terms

- they were studying in a Hungarian-medium program

- at least one LSP language certificate is a requirement for the degree.

The proportion of male students were 37.8% (184), and that of the female students was 62.2% (303), only three respondents left the question unanswered. As it can be seen in Table 8 participants took five courses at the three faculties of the university. The questionnaire aimed to reach students of two more courses, Human Resources (in Faculty 3), and Business Administration and Management (in Faculty 2) but no response was collected from these courses. The number of participants distributed unequally: Faculty 1 ($n = 297$), Faculty 2 ($n = 127$), and Faculty 2 ($n = 66$). It was probably because Faculty 3 was finishing the term one week earlier, so the questionnaires could not reach that many students (Table 8).

Table 8

Participants

Course / Faculty	Commerce and Marketing		Tourism		Finance		Internat. Managem.		Internat. Studies		Total	
	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.
Faculty 1	69	67	37	122							106	189
Faculty 2	16	23					23	49	10	5	49	77
Faculty 3					29	37					29	37
	85	90	37	122	29	37	23	49	10	5	184	303

Missing data: 3

4.3.2 Instrument

4.3.2.1 Pre-pilot Instrument

When selecting constructs for the questionnaire, three sources were relied upon: the literature reviewed; the emerging themes of the interview study; and the syllabus of LSP courses, discussed in Chapter 3. The questionnaire consisted of 89 items to be rated on a five-point Likert scale (from *"Absolutely typical"* to *"Not at all typical"*). The nine constructs of the questionnaire were the following:

Student goals: These items aimed to map the various LSP-related wants (desires) students had. The items covered the four skills (reading, speaking, writing and listening) manifested in target situations (*"I want to communicate effectively with foreign clients"*), passing the language exam, an academic goal (*"I want to study my profession abroad"*) the items were formulated based on the results on previous studies conducted among business and tourism students (Dévény & Szőke, 2009; Loch & Dévény, 2011).

Attributional beliefs: The items were based on studies built on Weiner's (1986) attributional theory (Cochran et al., 2010; Graham, 2004) aiming to see what students attributed their success to, for instance "*You need persistence to achieve success when learning LSP.*"

Attitude: The two items referring to the cognitive and affective dispositions of the respondents aimed to detect whether students have a positive or a negative attitude to learning LSP (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Dörnyei, 2003). Sample item: *"I find learning LSP useful".*

Effort: The items tapped into the activities within the university students could opt for to improve their language skills (*"I take an active part in language classes"*), and the opportunities outside the university (*"I enroll professionally relevant online courses"*). These items relied on Gardner's (2001) distinction between formal (in-school) and informal (out-of-school) language acquisition contexts.

Course goals: These items aimed to assess how students perceived the learning goals of an LSP course, that is, what necessities their instructors wanted to address. The construct covered areas specific to the institution: preparing students for the language exam and the final exam, apart from target situation competencies, skills, and learning strategies that could be used not only in the academic setting but in workplaces as well (Brown, 2016), specified vocabulary, preparation for the language exam, and an item referring to the extent the participants perceived their courses to be LSP and not LGP. There was an item inspired by the interview study ("*The aim of the LSP course is to maintain my proficiency*").

Classroom practice: This construct was meant to determine the perceived focus of LSP classes by naming classroom activities, (*"We write professionally*

relevant texts e.g., an email to a customer") to be later compared to course goals. The items were included to reflect the importance of naming communication needs (Woodrow, 2018), and that of activities taking place in a classroom in LSP course design (Dudley & St John, 1998).

Teacher roles: The items within this construct were based on the description of roles of LSP teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), learner beliefs about language teachers' roles (Cotterall, 1999), and the emerging themes of the qualitative study, that is the roles the interviewees regarded to be important for their students (*"An LSP instructor should encourage me"*).

Self-assessment: This construct aimed to tap into the strategic competences (Douglas, 2000), using similar items to those of other constructs, and somewhat inspired by the "I can..." statements of the European Language Portfolio [*To what extent do you feel prepared to ...?*] *"take an active part in negotiations."* The scale intended to measure self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The construct and some items are adapted version of the LSP questionnaire administered in Hungary (Nikolov et al., 2009).

Evaluation: The constructs aimed to get respondents to reflect on the effectiveness of learning LSP (Anthony, 2018; Basturkmen, 2010). The items fall into two categories, evaluating the course by strategic competences (*"I can handle difficult situations with foreign colleagues"*), and achievements (*"I complete the LSP course"*).

The second part of the questionnaire contained three sentence completion items, inviting students to give their opinion about LSP education, evaluation, and course materials.

- *The problems about LSP teaching is that …*

- *I think the best way to assess students' proficiency would be …*

- *Course materials could be best characterized by these three words …*

The third part consisted of factual questions about the course, the language, the type of language certificates obtained, work experience. This part contained some phenomena typical of the Hungarian context, and pooled ideas for items from a survey conducted among students learning LSP's in Hungarian vocational schools (Nikolov et al., 2009). Basic demographic data were collected as well (year of birth, gender).

4.3.2.2 The Pilot Study

The questionnaire was reviewed by a researcher with broad experience in doing quantitative research in second language acquisition and motivation. Her comments and observations made the questions unequivocal and improved the overall quality of the questionnaire. Then a novice researcher reviewed the questionnaire and gave feedback on emphasizing the ethical standards of the research, her suggestions were implemented in the final version as well. Finally, in order to get reflections from peers of the potential participants, two young people were invited to complete the questionnaire with a think-aloud protocol. One was a graduate (24), a highly successful and experienced language learner, the other an undergraduate (20), studying ESP. Their feedback helped to make the wording more natural and suitable for the targeted age group.

The format of the questionnaire had to be selected with care. The electronic format would have been more convenient than the paper-and-pencil format because

all steps from administering to gathering, entering and analyzing data would have been done electronically. Meanwhile the paper and pencil format with its old-fashioned touch, was costlier. Distributing the group-administered questionnaires (in the main study) required asking help from LSP teachers. Involving others increased the risk of misunderstanding, losing questionnaires, and even maltreating respondents, for example by hurrying them. After careful considerations, though, the paper and pencil format was chosen to increase return rate by allocating a specific time and place to complete the questionnaire (Appendix D).

For piloting purposes, a group of students were required who were learning LSP as a mandatory subject in a higher education institute. After shortlisting possible universities, an institution was selected that met all the criteria below:

- a higher education institution is needed where ESP (or LSP) is taught

- a successful ESP (or LSP) language exam is a requirement for the BSc or BA degree

- the institution is possibly based in the same city where the final questionnaire was to be administered.

The questionnaire was completed by 55 university students studying ESP, with 100% return rate. The sample size was satisfactory for piloting purposes as it exceeded the required minimum of fifty (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The respondents' demographic characteristics also corresponded to the targeted participants in the main questionnaire study. Their mean age was 20.6, but the distribution of male and female respondents was different from the expected, since 91% of the participants were male, and only 9 % of them was female. This proportion is not typical in higher education

but the university, where the piloting was done, has a profile that attracts more men than women.

4.3.2.3. Data Collection and Analysis

I contacted the head of the language department, and after I provided detailed information about the purpose of the research, I was given permission and offered assistance with administering the questionnaire. The paper and pencil questionnaires were distributed among the participants with the help of a research assistant and was returned within two days. All data was entered into PSPP, a free statistical software under the GNU project (2017), compatible with SPSS (Version 28). Case 50 was excluded due to straightlining, a problem of giving the same answer to all questions, even to opposing ones, common in grid-type of questionnaires (Bais et al., 2020).

4.3.2.4 The Final Instrument

The questionnaire was checked for internal consistency, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated (Table 9). From the initial analysis it was clear that some constructs worked reliably, but some needed modification, by removing weak items, to increase consistency.

Table 9

Scales of the piloted questionnaire

Scale (number of items)	Cronbach's α
Student goals (14)	.68
Attributions (8)	.69
Attitude (3)	.62
Effort (6)	.42
Course goals (15)	.85
Classroom practice (13)	.74
Teacher roles (10)	.76
Self-assessment (8)	.86
Evaluation (10)	.60
Effort (6)	.48

Four constructs, *Attributional beliefs, Course goals, Teacher roles,* and *Self-assessment* were not modified. But the other constructs had to undergo some changes in order to improve the quality of data to be collected in the main questionnaire study:

Student goals: Two items, referring to the intention to stop learning LSP, were removed to improve the internal consistency of the scale. The data analysis revealed that one item was not worded unequivocally: *"I will be happy to complete the LSP course."* The intended meaning was that someone felt relieved for not having the obligation of attending LSP classes any longer, but most participants interpreted this statement as a kind of achievement.

Attitude: The scale was extended by adding four more statements, to increase the reliability of the scale, and to balance cognitive and affective attitude items. One item was removed that was not measuring attitude to learning LSP.

Intended effort: The items in the piloted version were reworded in order to measure intended effort instead of the actual effort exerted in specific tasks. For instance, the statement *"I learn subjects in English"* was replaced by *"If there is an opportunity, I learn subjects in English"*. This way differentiating between, for instance, a lack of opportunity and lack of motivation was made easier.

Target skills: This construct was new compared to the piloted version. It intended to measure the perceived importance of the four skills in workplace situations (*Cambridge Report*).

Classroom practice: Items that were answered the same way were removed, and the items were reworded to sound more natural and simpler (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Evaluation: The overtly general question, "How can success be measured when one is learning LSP?" was rewritten in a more personal tone to help participants to relate to this issue: "How do the following things reflect that you are a successful LSP learner?"

. The final questionnaire contained 93 items, and the participants were expected to mark their preferences on a 5-point Likert-scale, where the first option stood for "not at all typical" and the last "absolutely typical". There were three sentence-completion items tapping into the potential weak points of ESP instruction, proposed forms of evaluation, and classroom materials. The final section contained closed and open-ended items which apart from collecting factual and demographic data, elicited information about language certificates, work experience, and language learning experience (Appendix D).

4.3.3 Data Collection

The paper-and-pencil questionnaires were group-administered with the help of LSP language instructors. Their involvement was necessary because they could reach the participants directly. The data collection lasted for a week. 450 copies were printed on high-quality, 160g Premium Semigloss photo paper to increase survey response rate following the suggestion of Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010). With the Dean's permission another 150 copies were printed on regular, 80g white photocopy papers, using the university facilities. The questionnaires with the cover letters explaining the purpose of the research (one for each group of participants) were handed over to the heads of the LSP Departments, who distributed them further to their colleagues who assisted in administering the questionnaire in their groups. Completing the questionnaires took about 15 minutes.

All questionnaires, completed and uncompleted, were collected after two weeks, but about 20 went missing

4.3.4 Data Analysis

The questionnaires received an identification code, then all data were coded, entered, and analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 28). All factual data, including faculty, course, work experience, type and number of language certificates, languages learned as LSP, and demographic data were coded. The answers given to the sentence-completion items were entered verbatim. When all data were entered data cleaning was done to detect any mistakes done during the data entering process, and a Codebook was created, to help to correct impossible or inaccurately entered values.

The fourth research question (RQ 4) that aimed to explore the participants' language learning experience was answered by doing descriptive statistics. RQ 5 that wanted to define relationships between the different aspects of LSP learning was answered by calculating correlation coefficients. The roles of background variables (RQ 6) was investigated by conducting t-tests and analyses of variance. In order to determine which scales influenced intended effort, student goals, and course goals (RQ 7), regression analyses were done. The last two questions about students' profiles (RQ 8), and unmet needs (RQ 9) were answered by conducting a cluster analysis, and content analysis of one of the sentence completion items, respectively.

Reliability of scales. The items were ranked on a 5-point Likert scale, the mean values of the scales are in Table 10. To check the internal consistency of the scales, Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed. Nine scales proved to have good internal consistency, with Cronbach alpha coefficients between .71 and .92, one scale (*Attributions*) had an acceptable value of .64. To apply a more realistic measurement for checking the reliability of the scales, and to provide "a more accurate degree of confidence in the consistency of the administration of a scale" (Dunn et al., 2013, p. 8) coefficient omegas were calculated as well. The table contains the number of items involved in the statistical analyses for each scale.

Table 10

Scales

Scale (number of items)	*M*	*SD*	Cronbach's α	Omega
Target skills (4)	4.41	.61	.74	.744
Attributions (6)	4.31	.48	.64	.518
Teacher roles (9)	4.24	.45	.74	.737
Attitude (6)	4.22	.64	.82	.824
Evaluation (4)	4.16	.89	.91	.905
Student goals (10)	3.77	.67	.84	.836
Course goals (13)	3.70	.56	.85	.846
Classroom practice (13)	3.54	.58	.80	.799
Self-assessment (8)	3.19	.86	.92	.92
Intended effort (6)	2.91	.70	.71	.718

Comparing the mean values of constructs, we can see that the importance of the target skills received the highest score ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .61$), and four more scale, attributions, teacher roles, attitude, and preferred forms of evaluation, were rated very positively by students ($M > 4.1$). Three areas, student goals, course goals, and classroom practice, did not receive such favorable ratings, the mean values were between 3.54 ($SD = .58$) and 3.77 ($SD = .67$), which are still good values on a five-point scale. The somewhat lower mean values on the two goal constructs can be interpreted that students could identify with the goals listed to a lesser extent. However, it is remarkable that in the preferred forms of evaluation they consistently marked higher those items that denoted competences over those forms of evaluation that would assess achievements, like getting a good grade at the end of the course. The paired-samples t-test (Table 11) also proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the two scales ($t = 9.167$, $p < 0.001$).

One of the two lowest rated scales was self-assessment ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .86$) indicating that students did not consider themselves fully prepared for completing tasks in L2. Considering the high mean value of attitude ($M = 4.22$), it is surprising that intended effort ($M = 2.91$, $SD = .64$) is at the bottom of the scales. It is also noticeable that there is statistically significant difference between self-assessment and intended effort as the paired samples t-test proved ($t = 7.068$, $p < 0.001$). However, the values of standard deviation are quite high ($SD_{self\text{-}assessment} = .86$, $SD_{intended\ effort} = .70$), suggesting large variation among students. It could be explained by the fact that most respondents were doing their third term only, and their lacks may not only be explained by lack of language skills but by lack of professional knowledge as well.

Table 11

Paired Samples T-test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	M	*SD*		Lower	Upper			
Target skills – Attributions	.107	.670	.030	.048	.167	3.541	488	<.001
Attributions – Teacher roles	.061	.498	.022	.017	.105	2.708	489	.007
Teacher roles – Attitude	.026	.702	.032	-.036	.089	.835	489	.404
Attitude – Evaluation	.058	.977	.044	-.029	.145	1.308	486	.192
Evaluation – Student goals	.395	.952	.043	.311	.480	9.167	486	<.001
Student goals – Course goals	.062	.710	.032	-.001	.126	1.946	489	.052
Course goals – Classroom practice	.163	.451	.020	.123	.203	8.001	489	<.001
Classroom practice – Self-assessment	.346	.888	.040	.268	.425	8.636	489	<.001
Self-assessment – Intended effort	.287	.899	.041	.207	.367	7.068	489	<.001

4.3.5 Content Analysis of the Sentence Completion Item

The participants' answers to the sentence completion items were analyzed using the constant comparison method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The coding

process involved printing out the answers, and coding them by hand, moving from specific labels to higher order labels for the issues mentioned.

4.3.6 Ethical Considerations

The nature of research required applying ethical principles unique to questionnaires (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010):

No harm should come to respondents as a result of their participation in the research. The questionnaires were administered by LSP instructors to their groups, which held some risk of biased answers. To avert this risk, the questionnaires were immediately collected and put into an envelope, and the LSP instructors had to turn them back. They had no time to look into the answers. Although answers to the sentence completion items (e.g., *"I miss from university LSP courses..."*) contained relevant information about the actual LSP teacher, no information was disclosed to anyone.

Right to privacy. There was no pressure on students, questionnaires were completed on a voluntary basis, and eventually several uncompleted questionnaires were returned.

Respondents should be provided sufficient initial information. Both the cover letter given to LSP teachers who handed out the questionnaires, and the questionnaires themselves contained an overview and the purpose of the research. The questionnaire contained both the researcher's (my) and my supervisor's contact data and affiliation.

Confidentiality. The questionnaires contained an introductory part which explained the rationale behind the research and guaranteed total anonymity for the

participants by promising to code the questionnaires. There was a reference to the final question (*"If you are interested in the results, please give an email address"*) that it would be handled separately from the data base and would not be shared with a third party.

   Permission. Although it is not listed as a separate principle, but its importance is highlighted (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The whole data collection was done with the consent of the following people: the Dean of Faculty 1, the Head of the Language Institute supervising all language departments within the university, and Heads of the three Language Departments.

4.4 Quality Control

   Throughout the pilot and the main studies, several measures were taken to guarantee the quality of the research. Interviewer bias was avoided by not asking leading questions, accepting comments contrary to my beliefs. Credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was ensured by coding the full transcription of the interviews to avoid 'transcriber selectivity' (Kvale, 1996). Quality was ensured by audit trail: all steps in the process of coding is reported, the code book is accessible (see Appendix B), potential researcher biases were identified, and negative cases were presented (Dörnyei, 2007). Respondent feedback was received on two occasions when I presented my preliminary results to the interviewees and received valuable comments on the interpretation of data. My prolonged engagement with the interviewees ensured research-based validity.

   The content validity of the questionnaire was ensured by using themes that were theory-driven. The reliability of the questionnaire was ensured by data cleaning,

and the scales were checked internal consistency (see Table 10). The statistical

analyses of the quantitative phase were performed under the supervision of an

excellent statistician well-versed in conducting quantitative research in language

pedagogy.

5 Findings of the Interview Study

This chapter will present the findings of the qualitative phase. The first part gives a list of all the emerging themes and subthemes. The second part contains the discussion and answers to the research questions.

5.1 Emerging themes

The 854 number of coded segments have been grouped into seven emerging themes: student goals, student motivation, modifiers of student goals, teacher goals, teacher motivation, modifiers of teacher goals, and teacher – student relationship.

Student goals: the types of goals LSP instructors perceive their students set. The subthemes include achievement goals (to a language exam, completing the LSP course), learning goals (to achieve proficiency), performance goals (not to be ashamed in front of others), long-term goals (to achieve professional success), personalized teaching (to be seen by teachers), and lack of goals (not having any ambition).

Student motivation. The theme covers the various forms, the presence, and lack of motivation identified by the interviewees. The subthemes include instrumental motivation (learning LSP to attain professional success), initial motivation (freshmen's enthusiasm), motivation found (being remotivated while learning LSP), extrinsic motivation (to meet parents' expectations), motivated students (who retain their motivation during their studies), and high achievers (successful students). Subthemes of low motivation are perceived reasons of not being motivated enough: degree paid (once tuition fee is paid, the degree is guaranteed), mission accomplished (being complacent), motivation lost (losing motivation while learning LSP), lack of

motivation (with no obvious reason), low achievers (unsuccessful students), and quitters (giving up learning LSP). The subtheme of KM vs. TV refers to perceived difference between two groups of students, those studying business, and tourism.

Modifiers of student goals. The theme covers subthemes that influence students' goals, motivation, and achievement: effort, lack of effort, autonomy, lack of autonomy, self-efficacy, lack of self-efficacy, strategy (to learn L2), attitude, task-preference (only doing tasks that are perceived to be highly relevant), overlearning (learning for a long time without tangible results), anxiety (being afraid to talk), aptitude (natural ability to learn L2), entry level (freshmen's level of proficiency), need for foundation (lacking the basic knowledge of an L2, culture, profession), feedback (from university, teachers, employers), and workload (working beside attending university).

Teacher goals. This theme covers three subgroups of instructors' goals. The first is to teach LSP: achievement goals (preparing students for the language exam), language skills (speaking, reading, writing, listening), accuracy, appropriacy, language awareness, and culture (civilization studies). The second group of goals include subthemes regarding characteristics and soft skills teachers want to instill in their students: confidence, cooperation, critical thinking, life skills in general. The third group of goals covers pedagogical goals: helping students in setting their own goals, teaching language learning strategies, motivating students, creating an ideal learning environment, and choosing relevant, authentic materials.

Modifiers of teacher goals. The theme covers two subthemes, the preference of teaching content subjects in the target language (moving toward English-medium

instruction) instead of LSP, and the hurdles teachers experience while teaching (schedule, size of classes, course material).

Teacher motivation. This theme covered aspects of teachers' motivation, and professional identity. The subthemes were enthusiasm (teachers' motivation), experience (teachers using their own language learning experience to motivate students), self-goals (professional goals), adapting (being flexible and adapting to students' goals), behavior (being authentic), and demotivation (losing motivation to teach).

Teacher – student relationship and evaluation. This theme refers to the interrelationship between students' achievement and teachers' well-being. The subthemes are bonding (positive relationship between students and teachers), vicarious failure (students' failure influencing teachers negatively), vicarious success (students' success influencing teachers positively), and improvement (students' performance improving).

5.2 Needs Identified

To answer my first research question (What needs are reflected in the goals language instructors formulate?), I have analyzed the emerging theme pertaining to the needs that were identified by my participants.

The most salient needs reflected in goals were linguistic needs. The instructors wanted to improve language awareness, accuracy to make students more competent language users in general, and some students were perceived to have similar needs. All four skills (reading, speaking, writing, listening) were mentioned, but emphasis was on speaking. Improving appropriacy to meet target situation needs was also

mentioned, as Csilla said she wanted students "to be able to function in any workplace situation". To teach subject-specific language use was listed as the first out of the five learning goals in ESP by Basturkmen (2006). The goal to prepare students for the successful language exam corresponded to the perceived need to fulfill the university-set requirements. This target need is the most explicit, and its fulfillment is the most pressing for students. Language instructors' attitudes to this situation were different. Some regarded it a guideline, "My primary aim is the language certificate" (Zalán), whereas some saw it as a burden: "The time is not enough to show them the beauty of the language because these tangible assessments are important" (Tímea).

An important goal was to teach field-related knowledge. Apart from sharing up-to-date information about their field, LSP instructors undertook the task of teaching the very basics of the profession to compensate for their students' lack of experience. As one of the interviewees concluded, "my main goal is to give them linguistic knowledge, but first-year students need some professional knowledge as well" (Kornél). The relevance of the lack of professional knowledge is underpinned by the literature, labelling students pre-experience (Brown, 2016; Long, 2005). Teaching relevant background knowledge is seen as a goal of ESP courses (Basturkmen, 2006). However, the situation is generated by the institution by scheduling language classes in the first terms of the bachelor degree, which has become typical in Europe after introducing the Bologna process (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gomez, 2008).

The third group of goals revealed perceived learning needs, like the need for knowing language learning strategies, and being able to set goals (e.g., when to take a language exam). As Veronika said, "They do learn, but I don't think they have a

strategy, which is surprising, because most of them already speak one or two languages […] so it's rather surprising that they cannot see such obvious things. If I highlight the similarities between two languages, they can see it. But they cannot do it on their own, so they are using the strategies that I have taught them". Identifying and catering for learning needs are part of the needs analysis process according to Dudley-Evans & St John (1998).

Students' perceived need for a motivating learning environment (Dörnyei, 2007) was formulated by the interviewees. This environment was characterized by providing personalized instruction for weaker students, and somewhat related, being a safe place where anxiety was low and students were not humiliated. Motivation was enhanced by selecting authentic course material (Kálmán, 2020; Woodrow, 2018). But motivation did not only happen indirectly by creating a safe atmosphere, providing relevant material, but directly as well by teachers intentionally motivating students by their own examples as language learners, and by telling students inspirational stories of successful language learners. To the question "What motivates students to learn LSP?" one interviewee gave the answer with a twinkle in her eyes, "The teacher" (Piroska).

Instructors aimed to improve target situation competencies and critical awareness, both of which are explicitly recommended learning goals of an ESP course (Basturkmen, 2006). The actual competencies mentioned by the interviewees (responsibility, fairness, work ethic, consistency, preparedness, punctuality, conscientiousness) have universal importance in any workplace situation. Their uniqueness lies in the fact that the interviewees admittedly already possessed these skills and believed that demonstrating them in the classroom would set a good

example for their students. "A teacher can set an example: I am never late, I don't finish the classes earlier, I try to be fair when I am giving grades, I listen to their problems. I do believe that I can show a good example. I don't think there is any other way [to influence students]" (Hedvig).

5.2.1 Sources

In order to answer the first sub-question (What sources do language instructors rely on when defining needs?), I have analyzed the emerging theme pertaining to the sources that were identified by my participants. The most relevant source was relevant work experience (e.g., a tour guide, a business executive) because this combined with language teaching expertise is the ideal combination for LSP instructors (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Specialized trainings, courses, textbooks, and language coursebooks were also valuable sources for identifying learners' target situation linguistic needs (Long, 2005). A third type of source was the written and digital media, an always available though not necessarily reliable form. It must be mentioned here that collaboration with colleagues who were teaching content subjects was not mentioned at all. It is not surprising as it is a rare case in higher education institutes (Kurtán & Sillye, 2012).

5.2.2 Conflicts

To answer the second sub-question (What conflicts do language instructors perceive between needs?) I have analyzed the emerging themes pertaining to the conflicts identified by the interviewees. The first area of conflict was within the language instructors, or between the institution (as a stakeholder) and teachers (as

stakeholders). Language instructors wanted to focus on the target linguistic needs, but they were expected to focus on preparing students for the language exam. As one of the interviewees lamented, "I haven't been teaching the language for about 15 years, which I miss greatly. Yes, I do mean language. I improve exam skills, dump them with words for the exam, assess exam vocabulary" (Margit).

A similar conflict was identified between the institution and the students who had already fulfilled the requirements for the degree but had to attend language courses, which students did not find stimulating. These two conflicts highlight the statement that a defensible curriculum can only be the outcome of a comprehensive needs analysis (Basturkmen, 2010; Brown, 2016).

Another source of conflict was the academic and workplace workload students struggle with while learning LSP. Although teachers admitted that gaining work experience is vital for students of business or tourism, they saw the toll it took on students' academic achievement. Increased workload was blamed for decreased motivation. The effect of workload was mentioned by Gardner in his theoretical model of language learning motivation (2001).

The most easily identified conflict of needs existed between teachers and learners. The interviewees identified situations when students were not willing to do a certain task because they could not see its immediate relevance to their profession or the language exam, or simply regarded it boring. "It's getting more and more difficult for them to deal with topics they are not interested in, adult [professional] topics" (Ilona). Students' needs for relevance is justifiable (Woodrow, 2018), but their needs can be based on a misconception of language learning (Deutch, 2003).

5.3 Motivation

To answer my second research question (What motivational patterns can language instructors identify?), I have analyzed the emerging theme pertaining to the motivation that were identified by my participants.

The interviewees made a very clear distinction between high-achieving and low-achieving students regarding their attitudes. The motivational patterns fell into four main categories: consistently high (instrumental) motivation, consistently low or no motivation, high initial motivation that wanes, low initial motivation getting stronger as students are exposed to professional experience.

The interviews provided several motivational patterns reflecting the fluctuating nature of student motivation (Ushioda, 2008). The different paths students took fell into four main categories: consistently high motivation, consistently low motivation, increasing motivation, and decreasing motivation. Not all types were present in all interviews: LSP instructors differed in which they highlighted or even mentioned. There were three features identified that had an influence on the extent certain student motivational profiles were more visible for LSP instructors: the level of the students' proficiency, attitude to the course, and to the language exam.

5.3.1 Consistently High Motivation

Students whose motivation was consistently high during their LSP studies were either the ones who were already working and probably running their own enterprise, "the more enthusiastic, more motivated students always have a background that makes it [LSP] necessary. They are either working or have worked somewhere and receive some very solid professional help, which makes it clear for them that they

have a future [in the profession]" (Olga). Their cases are good examples of internalized instrumental motivation that is part of the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009).

The other group of students who were labeled to have consistently high motivation consisted of students who had a high level of proficiency, already having a C1 level language certificate, and were still highly motivated to acquire LSP. As Margit described them, "there are some outstanding students, who are either very motivated, or have lived abroad, or very clever, or have an aptitude for languages". For these high-achieving students language learning experience proved to have a strong motivating force (Dörnyei, 2009). As business acumen was a sought-after skill nearly in all areas of life, these students opted for studying business as a safe choice. . They knew that having good LSP skills and vocabulary could give them a competitive edge when applying for a job but they only had vague professional goals.

5.3.2 Decreasing Motivation

The initial excitement felt over starting a university can die down partly as a natural process. Students learned how to prioritize their tasks, and LSP was not ranked among the difficult subjects, therefore students tended to allocate their time and energy to other more difficult content subjects, which is a common demotivating factor (Cheng & Lee, 2018; Gardner, 2001). Other factors, like administrative issues, unrealistic expectations could decrease motivation as well. Unfortunately, there were students who could not cope and gave up learning LSP. The saddest part is that they failed to ask for help, the sentence that they were hopeless was pronounced by them not by their teachers. As Salamon concluded, "…there were some who thought they were hopeless. They had been learning for nine years and still didn't reach the top of

B1 level or beyond. They felt there was no point learning any further. […] They had already given it up when they were sixteen or seventeen".

But there are high-achieving students with strong initial motivation who could lose their motivation over the years. "We can see that many students lose their motivation over the three terms. We may not provide them with the kind of education they need, which mainly applies to students who start the university with high proficiency" (Csilla). If the goal is not different from the present situation, it cannot generate motivation or effort (Locke, 2000).

These students had completely or partially fulfilled the requirements for the degree when they were admitted at the university. They attended the obligatory LSP classes, but sooner or later they got demotivated because the expectations were way below their actual level, and some reportedly experienced decreased proficiency as well. Some interviewees voiced their opinion that this type of lost motivation was not entirely the students' fault, "I don't think that the expectation to improve your proficiency at the university would be so outlandish" (Hedvig).

5.3.3 Consistently Low Motivation

According to the language instructors there were students whose choice was not a conscious choice of a profession but a choice of a school where they could learn something they enjoyed learning or doing in secondary school. This was the case for many students of tourism who were interested in culture, traveling, and improving their language skills. The tourism course attracted students who did enjoy language learning, having strong intrinsic motivation, but were not motivated at all to learn a language for *specific* purposes. As Ábel said, "There are quite some among tourism

students who are more sensitive and receptive to the different aspects of culture than the average. I have literature, theaters, fine arts, museums and such in mind. Language for specific purposes as a school subject is not that motivating for them. They agree that it is important, the classes are good because they get a lot of new information, and they can take the exam but actually, they are not really interested. […] These students can be thoroughly bored during classes".

There was a cohort of students displaying a complacent attitude to LSP. They were the ones who already had a good, working knowledge of the language, usually having a B2 level language certificate. They felt they had done what was expected and learned the language and were by no means motivated to improve their skills. Language learning was a necessary but not favorable task to do and having passed the language exam they considered it to be an accomplished task.

The last group with constantly low motivation consisted of students whose cold and businesslike attitude to LSP and higher education prevented them from being involved in learning. They thought that having paid the tuition fee guaranteed a university degree without further effort on their part. Their disengagement, manifested in negative attitude to classes, like regular lateness, lack of homework, resentment over low grades, sored their relationship with their language instructors as well. The consistently low motivation of these students cannot be attributed to unmet needs, rather to the lack of goal commitment (Locke, 2000).

5.3.4 Increasing Motivation

According to the interviewees this last path was taken by students who started the LSP courses somewhat unwillingly, either because they did not like, and might

not have been successful in language learning, or because this university was only the second best, or a mere safe choice. Why were not they among those who lost or were unmotivated? If these students had lost their motivation at some point, what made them remotivated? The interviews revealed three possible causes. The first and most important tool of remotivation, that is, "getting your motivation online again" (Ushioda, 1998, p. 86). Was LSP itself. Language learners who struggled mastering grammar rules "could find a support in LSP" (Gabriella). Those students who got bored with the same old coursebook topics, and "were sick and tired of discussing 'my family' since nursery" (Jázmin), found the specialized vocabulary, skills, and genres refreshingly useful and practical. As the focus of the LSP courses were typically appropriacy and not accuracy, students could manage more easily, and felt more confident when communicating.

The second possible cause was work experience. Students had to spend one term in internship, and many made use of this opportunity to work abroad. In an actual workplace situation, they faced the real value of language proficiency, and especially among elderly colleagues they felt appreciated for their language skills. When they returned to the university, their motivation soared in LSP classes because what so far had seemed distant and irrelevant course material was now practical and relevant knowledge.

The third possible cause was not LSP-specific. Traveling abroad offered numerous opportunities for students to use their language skills, like meeting different cultures, being able to communicate with foreigners. Students felt really proud of themselves when they managed to book accommodation and made all travel arrangements on their own. Although this experience was not related to their

profession directly, it gave them a very solid sense of achievement in their long and tedious process of language learning. "They have a term when they can do internship abroad, which dramatically boosts [their learning]. During that time, they absorb the language, and then and there it's a wake-up call for them that without language skills it is rather difficult to manage today" (Nándor).

In her exploratory study, Ushioda (2001) identified four attributional patterns for remotivation in a higher education setting: attributing positive L2 outcome to one's ability or qualities; attributing negative L2 outcome to lack of controllable factors (e.g., effort); dissociating from negative language learning experience; and believing in self-motivation, goal setting. However, my research indicates that remotivation can happen by learning a language for specific purposes, after struggling with learning a language for generic purposes. Finding a connection between one's professional goals and an instrument that can help to achieve that can definitely enhance motivation.

5.4 Evaluation

In order to answer the third research question (How do language instructors evaluate the effectiveness of courses?) I have analyzed the emerging theme pertaining to the evaluation that were identified by my participants.

The interviewees mostly relied on the results of formative evaluation when they assessed students, and in order to ensure fairness, they made clear their expectations at the beginning of the course. The results of the summative evaluation were seen as a proof of successful teaching, and instructors felt "appreciated when students share the news of a successful language exam" (Danuta). But the problem of uneven expectations and assessments could cause quality assurance problems, as

Hedvig remarked, "In one group you are expected to write three letters [as an assignment], in the other only two, in the third none… I find it very strange".

A sure sign of an effective course (and that of effective teaching) was when individual students showed improvement. They might be short of the level of the class but compared to their former performance they improved. Some interviewees confessed that when they were grading these students, they gave these students better grades than what their actual performance would have deserved because they appreciated the effort they had made. "I keep watching them if they have improved. I give a five for those who get from one to four, based on their grades, or compared to what I saw at the beginning of the term based on their results. I check if their writing skills have improved, which might not be reflected in their grades, or if they are willing to speak more" (Jázmin).

Although mere anecdotal evidence, students boasting about situations when they were able to use the language successfully was also seen as a form of evaluation both of students and teachers. As Beáta said, "… when they boast that they were able to book accommodation in the summer, using the language we had learned in class, and how they enjoyed it. It is a great feeling for me as well, because I can see that my effort is worthwhile". This form of evaluation was the closest to concept of ESP assessment tests, because it shows that a student could do in real world what they learned in the classroom (Douglas, 2011).

Language instructors evaluate themselves in the light of their students' success, as Beáta's words showed, but students' failure also perceived as a professional failure. When their students gave up learning LSP or dropped out, they blamed themselves as well, "it's my failure too, because I didn't know how to

motivate them" (Veronika). Teachers lacked being evaluated in a systematic way with pre-defined criteria, or by analyzing their results (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The explanation for this can be found in Sándor's words:

There is a very good English staff here, regardless of their completely different methods. There are some old-school teachers, and I don't mean it derogatorily at all, kudos to them, students adore them, they put in all work, have been teaching here for 30 plus years, xeroxing the articles – students tell me. Their students are successful, they pass the exams, enjoy their classes. And there are the ones who are not experts. Although they don't know what 'brown sauce' is, their students adore them for their communicative classes, for making them speak. And there are teachers with true expertise who take their students to hotels, restaurants. […]

I think I have to allow my colleagues to do what they are good at. If one student doesn't like the communicative type of teacher, who keeps them active, and would rather do some Conditional Sentence drills, they will find the right teacher for that in the next term. It will make them motivated, successful, and they will pass the language exam – maybe with lower scores for the oral part, but with higher scores for the written part.

The emerging themes suggested that two elements of LSP course evaluation, that of students and teachers were often inseparable. The third element, the evaluation of LSP course as such (Anthony, 2018), was not done systematically either (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The interviewees named the following aspects that hampered the effectiveness of teaching LSP:

Time constraints were mentioned by almost all respondents: the two classes per week running for three terms were considered insufficiently short to teach

everything. Teachers who had worked in the university before the Bologna Process was implemented, recalled the former practice when students had ten to twelve language classes a week.

Inadequate facilities were named as a cause of frustration: lack of computers, loudspeakers, chalk and sponges in classrooms. Teachers had to provide these either by bringing their own equipment or buying them. Although the institution could cater for these needs, the supply was not always enough or accessible.

System-level problems made teaching stressful. Some examples: classes that were canceled due to some institutional program, switching workdays, or fire drills. Scheduling language classes either for the beginning or the end of the day was blamed for low student morale manifested in absenteeism and low motivation. The length of classes (90 minutes) did not facilitate students' attention span.

Group size was also labeled problematic because it did not allow teachers to deal with students individually. It was also seen as the cause of mixed proficiency groups, and increased level of language anxiety among students. These complaints were formulated to voice resentment over not being able to teach effectively. All these problems highlight the need for a proper means analysis (Anthony, 2018; Holliday & Cooke, 1982).

Course material was regarded outdated, narrow-focused, or of uneven quality by some respondents. Some topics within the materials would need some revision. On the other hand, the very same English course books were appraised for their content and method, and great variety. The need to find a new book for each group was mentioned in the context of adapting materials to groups. The criteria of selecting a

coursebook are its suitability to learners' needs, learning objectives, methodological

approach, relevance, and level of student autonomy (Chan, 2009).

5.5 Conclusion

In this phase I wanted to answer three research questions: 1) What needs are

reflected in the goals instructors formulate? 2) What motivational patterns can

language instructors identify? 3) How do language instructors evaluate the

effectiveness of courses? From the interviews we can see that language instructors

felt responsible for meeting numerous needs: preparing students for workplace

communication, teaching them the basics of their profession, and preparing students

for language exams. Meeting all these needs by creating a motivating learning

environment. Although each participant was emphasizing a different aspect of their

teaching practice, they all named a value they wanted to showcase for their students

using their own examples. The finding that language teachers intentionally use their

own work ethic to demonstrate and teach competencies to students in LSP classes is a

novelty.

In order to identify the target needs of their students, only few interviewees

could rely on work experience, and some more on trainings and courses. Therefore,

their primary source was printed or digital media to get informed. The answers given

to the question concerning conflicts between needs revealed the latent tension

between the stakeholders. There were conflicts identified between all possible

relations (Figure 1).

Figure 1

Relationship Between the Stakeholders

institution

language instructors   students
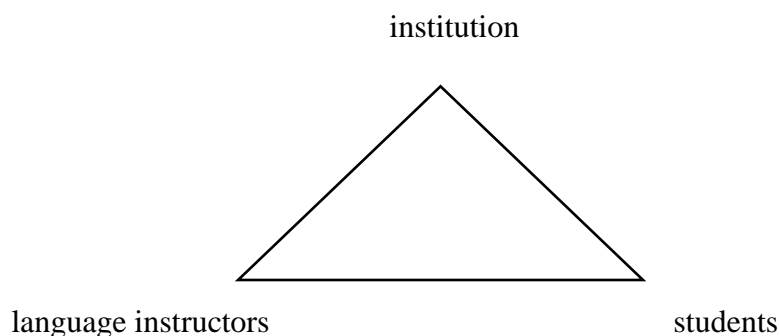
The requirement for the degree was seen as a hurdle in the way of teaching the language. Obligatory language courses for high achieving students caused demotivation. The perceived irrelevance of course materials caused conflicts between language instructors and students. These findings reflect the consequences of the lack of needs analysis. Concerning the motivational pattern of students, the participants could name four distinct types: two stable (either consistently low or consistently high), and two unstable (increasing or decreasing). The LSP-initiated motivation (remotivation) is unique because it can connect a future profession with a present activity.

The way the participants evaluated the effectiveness of the LSP course shows inconsistencies. Some aspects of students' performance are evaluated by tests, exams, some by their own self-reports. In some cases the border between the evaluation of students and teachers are blurred. Language instructors' self-evaluation is often dependent on students' achievements. The evaluation of courses and the circumstances of teaching happen on a non-systematic, subjective basis. The

interviews showed an LSP course design in which the first stage (needs analysis) and the end stage (evaluation) are missing, focusing only on what happens in the teaching – learning stage.

6 Results of the Questionnaire Study

In this chapter I am going to present and discuss the results of the data analysis processes in the order of the research questions four to nine.

6.1 Language Learning Experience

In order to answer my fourth research question (What characterizes students' language learning experience?), I analyzed descriptive statistics.

Language choice. The distribution of LSP's is rather disproportionate, nearly 70% of students were learning ESP, 24.7% were learning German as LSP, and a fraction of 5.5% were learning French, Italian, and Spanish (Table 12). The dominant role of English among other LSP's is partly due to its international position English is not only the *lingua franca* of general communication, but, for about three decades, it has been the *lingua franca* of business communication (Nickerson, 2015). In the field of Tourism, International Management etc. English is the working language, and relevant research papers, literature are published mainly in English.

On the other hand, choosing ESP at university level instead of other LSP's can be a mere safe choice. Students who had studied English for eight or more years, did not venture to learn a new language. It takes less effort, and they can focus on more difficult subjects. This is understandable but considering the fact that some courses require two B2 level language certificates this decision can postpone the time of graduation.

Language learning experience. Table 12 also gives information about the length of time students had spent learning the language (for generic purposes) they

were learning as an LSP. The time range was between "started at the university" and "longer than 8 years". The participants who marked "1–4 years" were, quite probably, learning an L3, they started learning at secondary school, and at the time of completing the questionnaire they were taking a course of the second LSP. The time span of 5–8 years probably meant that the respondent started leaning L2 at upper-primary school and continued till the end of secondary school. The 8+ years involved a period that started in lower primary school and had not been finished.

Considering the length of language learning , it is somewhat discouraging to see that students, who had already spent more than eight years learning English, were still learning it. Naturally, ESP *is* different from EGP that is taught at primary and secondary levels, but eight or more years are too long to devote to learning a foreign language. Even worse, there were 23 participants who had been studying for more than eight years, without any tangible proof of their proficiency.

The university courses that require two language certificates (e.g., Tourism), cannot provide such a long time for language learners to acquire a second foreign language. The practice of teaching mostly English at primary and secondary levels, and the dominance of English take its toll on language learning strategies. When one has eight or more years to study a language, they are not forced to use effective strategies that can be applied later when learning another foreign language.

The experience that learning a language should take such a long time can create low self-beliefs in students who will not be able to trust their own skills, and strategies to learn another second language (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). The fact that the respondents had such a low score on the self-assessment scale supports this statement as well. The content analysis (6.6) will reveal some desperate needs on the students'

part, that is, how much they want to rely on their teachers for helping them to learn by giving regular tests and quizzes. On the face value, it looks a valid need, but all respondents had a minimum of 8 years' experience of learning an L2.

Table 12

The Distribution of LSP's and Language Learning Experience

Language	LSP Students (*N* = 490)	%	Language learning experience			
			Started at university	1–4 years	5–8 years	8+ years
English	342	69.8 %	8	64	87	166[a]
German	121	24.7 %	15	46	19	28[b]
French	12	2.5 %	0	4	5	2[c]
Italian	8	1.6 %	0	6	2	0
Spanish	7	1.4 %	6	1	0	0

[a] Missing data: 17
[b] Missing data: 13
[c] Missing data: 1

Proximity to fulfilling degree requirements. A language certificate is a useful tool for measuring language proficiency. Most students had already passed one (or two) B2 general language exams when they applied for the university. Although it was not a requirement for admission, existing language certificates had increased their chances to be admitted. Table 13 shows that the 490 participants had 424 B2, and 104 C1 level language certificates when they started the university. A comprehensive list of all language certificates can be found in Appendix E.

All participants had been studying at the university for at least two terms, as it was one criterion of selection, therefore it seemed logical to ask them if they had obtained any other language certificates since their admission. Table 13 demonstrates

how active students were in gaining more language certificates since they enrolled the courses.

Several students enrolled university with one, two or even three B2, or C1 language certificates. 65 % had one (either B2 or C1) language certificate, and 22 % had two or three B2 or C1 level language certificates. In total it meant 528 language certificates. The fact that 87% of the students have at least one B2 level language certificate may seem encouraging until we compare the data with the requirements for the degree. At the time of data collection 56 students (11.6 %) had already fulfilled totally the language requirements, 77 students (16 %) partially, and the majority, 348 students (72 %) had not fulfilled the requirements at all.

Subtracting the number of students without any language certificates (n = 64) from the number of students who had not met the requirements at the time they completed the questionnaire (n = 348), we find that although there were 284 students who either had one or two (or even three) language certificates, they did not meet the requirements for the degree. These 284 students constitute 58% of the respondents. The regulations in the institute are not flexible enough to exempt these students from attending language classes. A logical assumption would be that students felt frustrated about this situation, and their attitude was rather negative. But the results of my research do not confirm this. The mean value of the attitude scale is high, and although it has a strong correlation with student goals, and a weaker one with the course goal scale, but an almost equally strong relationship with classroom activities. It suggests that in general, students have a positive disposition towards LSP classes, and find the activities useful.

There is a group of at-risk students, however, who did not have any written proof of their language proficiency ($n = 64$). They can be found in all courses, their proportion is the highest among Finance students, followed by Tourism students. Putting aside the degree requirement, we might assume that these students had high proficiency, and they simply did not have language certificates. This assumption cannot be ruled out completely, but the significantly low self-assessment value does not support it.

One final note on the total number of language certificates obtained by students either before they started the university ($n = 528$), or since they had been studying in higher education ($n = 33$). The latter figure would have been higher if the questionnaire had been administered three months later, because by that time most students would have taken their ESP exams.

Table 13

Distribution of Language Certificates Obtained Before and After Starting the University

	B2		C1		None
	Before	After	Before	After	
Commerce & Marketing	155	5	34	2	17
Tourism	142	14	28	4	24
Finance	44	3	13	1	17
International management	71	4	24	0	5
International Studies	12	0	5	0	1
Total (before, after)	424	26	104	7	
Total (B2, C1)		450		111	64

Although language certificates secured extra points in the admission process,
they did not guarantee that their holders fulfilled the requirements for the degree.
Courses set different requirements (for a detailed explanation, see chapter 6
Background), and Table 14 shows to what extent students had already fulfilled the
requirement for degree. "Fulfilled" means the requirements are met completely,
"Partially" applies to courses where two language certificates are expected, and so far
the respondent had only obtained one. "Unfulfilled" means that respondents did not
have a type of language certificate required by the university, though they may have
had other types, for instance one or two general B2 language certificates.

Table 14

Fulfillment of Degree Requirements

Course (number of respondents)	Degree requirements	Fulfilled	Partially	Unfulfilled
Commerce & Marketing (176)	LSP B2 or General C1	39	-	137
Tourism (151)	a) LSP B2 or General C1 b) LSP B2	1	38	112
Finance (66)	LSP B2 or General C1	15	-	51
International management (73)	a) LSP B2 or General C1 b) LSP B2	1	26	46
International Studies (15)	a) LSP B2 (any field) b) General B2	0	13	2
Total		56	77	348

Missing data: 9

6.2 Students' Characteristics

In order to answer my fifth research question (What relationships exist between the scales measuring aspects of learning a language for specific purposes?) correlational coefficients were computed. As Table 15 shows, there are positive and many statistically significant relations among the scales. When evaluating the strength of a relationship, I rely on Cohen's guidelines (1988, as cited in Pallant, 2011): the relationship is regarded

- small if r is between .10 and .29
- medium if r is between .30 and .49
- and large if r is between .50 and 1.00.

Comparing the scales, statistically the strongest correlation is between how students interpret the goals of the ESP course, and what classroom activities they find the most common (r = .686). This reflects the consistency between the goals ESP instructors set, and the tasks they choose to achieve these goals.

There is a strong correlation between student goals and target skills (r = .541), which suggests that the ESP related goals students set for themselves are in line with the skills they perceive to be important in future workplace situations. There is also a strong correlation of nearly the same strength between student goals and intended effort (r = .530), which shows that students have clear goals. Intended effort and attitude also have a relationship of medium strength (r = .488). The attitude and student goals scales also have a medium-sized relationship (r = .461). The table shows that of the 16 medium or strong relationships the scale of student goals has the highest number of strong (two) or medium-strength (six) relationships with other scales.

Table 15

Correlations for Scales

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Student goals	–									
2. Attributions	,285**	–								
3. Attitude	,461**	,314**	–							
4. Intended effort	,530**	,267**	.488**	–						
5. Course goals	,341**	,298**	.407**	.270**	–					
6. Target skills	,541**	,260**	.359**	.338**	.296**	–				
7. Classroom practice	,304**	,298**	.403**	.304**	.686**	.291**	–			
8. Teacher roles	,250**	,430**	.217**	.306**	.251**	.201**	.395**	–		
9. Self-assessment	,429**	0.028	.286**	.349**	.372**	.239**	.287**	.082	–	
10. Evaluation	,282**	,093*	.221**	.188**	.115*	.281**	.089*	.037	.282**	–

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

The power of correlation is weak between the correlational coefficients: z = -0.35 (p = 0.7263) between .115 and .096, z = 0.681 (p = 0.681) between .096 and .089, and z = 0.06 (p = 0.952) between .115 and .089.

The strong correlation between course goals and classroom practice suggests that there is goal consistency, which guarantees that learning goals have a motivating effect on learning (Latham and Locke, 2013). Other correlation values indicate that there is a motivated behavior behind these relationships. The correlation between

student goals and effort operate together to enhance motivation and performance (Gardner, 2001; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Locke, 2000). Students' motivation to learn LSP can explain that attitude has a correlational relationship with effort and student goals (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2001). The correlation between student goals and target goals signifies the importance of setting specific proximal goals (student goals) in order to achieve distal goals (target goals) (Latham & Locke, 2013).

6.3 Roles of Background Variables

In order to answer my sixth research question (What are the roles of background variables?) I carried out one-way between-groups analysis of variance and T-tests.

Age. To decide if age influences different aspects of learning LSP, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Respondents were divided into three age groups. The first group ($n = 210$) consisted of respondents aged 20 or younger, the second group ($n = 154$) had the 21-year-old students, and all respondents who were 22 and above to the third group ($n = 114$). See table 16.

Based on the results of Duncan's post-hoc tests and the level of significance ($p < .05$) I can state that there was a statistically significant difference in attitude between students aged 20 or less ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .57$) and students aged 22 and above ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .70$), $F = 4.312$. The effect size was .018, calculated by using eta-squared, which signifies a small difference. There was also a statistically significant difference in the intended effort between group two (21 years-old) ($M =$

2.80, *SD* = .68) and students aged 22 and above (*M* = 2.86, *SD* = .74), *F* = 3.308. The

effect size was small, the eta-squared value was .014.

Table 16

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Age Groups

Scales	≤ 20		21		22 ≤		*F*	η^2	*p*	Duncan's post-hoc test
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
Student goals	3.82	.62	3.73	.68	3.69	.73	1.697	.007	.184	1,2,3
Attributions	4.32	.49	4.31	.42	4.26	.53	.615	.003	.541	1,2,3
Attitude	4.30	.57	4.18	.68	4.09	.70	4.312	.018	.014	3<1
Intended effort	2.99	.69	2.80	.68	2.86	.74	3.308	.014	.037	2<1
Course goals	3.74	.57	3.70	.57	3.61	.54	2.093	.009	.124	1,2,3
Target skills	4.42	.51	4.42	.62	4.36	.77	.459	.002	.632	1,2,3
Classroom practice	3.58	.59	3.53	.56	3.45	.58	1.851	.008	.158	1,2,3
Teacher roles	4.25	.45	4.23	.44	4.25	.50	.126	.001	.881	1,2,3
Self-assessment	3.21	.84	3.19	.90	3.15	.87	.151	.001	.860	1,2,3
Evaluation	4.18	.89	4.15	.88	4.13	.94	.120	.001	.887	1,2,3

Note. *N* (≤ 20) = 210. *N* (21) = 154. *N* (22 ≤) = 114.

Gender. To determine the differences of the scores for male and female participants,

independent samples t-tests were conducted. If the difference was significant, the

effect size was labeled small if the Cohen's *d* was .01, moderate, if it was .06, and

large if it was .14 or higher (Pallant, 2011). In case of the *Attributions* scale, the

difference between the scores for males (*M* = 4.17, *SD* = .54) and females (*M* = 4.38,

SD = .41) was significant: *t* = -4.676, *p* <.001. The magnitude of the difference was

somewhat large (Cohen's *d* = -.467). There was also significant difference between

the *Self-assessment* scores for males (*M* = 3.38, *SD* = .81) and females (*M* = 3.08, *SD* = .87) was significant: *t* = 3.893, *p* <.001. The magnitude of difference was large (Cohen's *d* =.364). See Table 17.

Table 17

T-Test: Differences Between Male and Female Students

Scale	Male		Female		*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Student goals	3.77	.64	3.75	.68	.246	.806	.023
Attributions	4.17	.54	4.38	.41	-4.676	<.001	-.467
Attitude	4.20	.61	4.23	.67	-.503	.615	-.047
Intended effort	2.84	.67	2.94	.71	-1.541	.124	-.144
Course goals	3.68	.47	3.72	.61	-.848	.397	-.074
Target skills	4.39	.61	4.43	.61	-.754	.451	-.071
Classroom practice	3.51	.52	3.56	.61	-.872	.384	-.078
Teacher roles	4.21	.45	4.27	.46	-1.491	.137	-.139
Self-assessment	3.38	.81	3.08	.87	3.893	<.001	.364
Evaluation	4.23	.83	4.12	.93	1.396	.163	.127

Degree requirement. In order to see the effect of fulfilling the requirement for the degree, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Regarding what they attribute success in learning LSP, students who had already met the degree requirements (*M* = 4.09, *SD* = .45) show significant difference from the other two groups, unfulfilled (*M* = 4.33, *SD* = .47) and partially fulfilled (*M* = 4.36, *SD* = .38), *F* = 7.123, the effect size was small, eta-squared was .029.

Fulfilling degree requirement had an impact on students' intended effort. There was a significant difference between those who had not fulfilled the

requirements ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .69$) and those who partially fulfilled them ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .67$), $F = 3.600$. Although the difference is significant statistically, the effect size is small, the eta-squared is .015.

The effect of fulfilling the degree requirement can be seen on self-assessment as well. Students who already owned the necessary language certificates ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .66$) differed significantly from those who did not have any ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .86$), or only had one certificate out of the required two ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .85$), $F = 11.787$, but the effect size is just about moderate, eta-squared is .047. See Table 18.

Table 18

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Degree requirements

Scales	Unfulfilled		Fulfilled		Partially		F	η^2	p	Duncan's post hoc test
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Student goals	3.71	.69	3.87	.58	3.88	.57	2.891	.012	.056	1,2,3
Attributions	4.33	.47	4.09	.45	4.36	.38	7.123	.029	<.001	2<1,3
Attitude	4.21	.66	4.08	.59	4.35	.57	2.907	.012	.056	2<3
Intended effort	2.86	.69	2.89	.76	3.09	.67	3.600	.015	.028	1<3
Course goals	3.70	.57	3.72	.49	3.71	.54	.054	.000	.947	1,2,3
Target skills	4.41	.64	4.45	.50	4.41	.49	.100	.000	.905	1,2,3
Classroom practice	3.55	.58	3.38	.56	3.61	.54	2.801	.012	.062	2<3
Teacher roles	4.26	.46	4.12	.45	4.26	.44	2.404	.010	.091	2<1,3
Self-assessment	3.14	.86	3.72	.66	3.14	.85	11.787	.047	<.001	1,3<2
Evaluation	4.11	.93	4.27	.71	4.38	.73	3.528	.015	.030	1<3

Work experience. To understand the effect of work experience on learning LSP, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. First, students were divided into three groups according to their work experience. Group one had none ($n = 207$); Group two had 1 to 12 months of work experience ($n = 176$); Group three had more than a year work experience ($n = 94$). There were three cases where work-experience had an effect on the scores of scales (Table 19). Regarding student goals, those with up to 12 months' work experience ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .63$) showed a significant difference (at $p < .05$) compared to those with more than a year work-experience ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .72$), $F = 3.893$, however the effect size was quite small, eta-squared was .016.

There was a significant difference between these two groups regarding course goals. The difference between Group 2 ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .52$) and Group 3 ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .60$) was significant (at $p < .05$), $F = 3.204$, but the effect size was also small, eta-squared was .016.

As for self-assessment, there was a significant difference between those students who did not have work-experience ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .86$) and those with up to 12 months' experience ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .85$), $F = 3.799$ (at $p < .05$), but the actual effect size was quite small in this case as well, eta-squared was .016.

Table 19

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Work Experience

Scales	None		1 – 12 months		12+ months		F	η^2	p	Duncan's post hoc test
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
Student goals	3.72	.67	3.87	.63	3.66	.72	3.893	.016	.021	3<2
Attributions	4.32	.43	4.27	.50	4.33	.52	.613	.003	.542	1,2,3
Attitude	4.26	.63	4.25	.64	4.11	.66	2.013	.008	.135	1,2,3
Intended effort	2.84	.68	3.00	.70	2.91	.72	2.486	.001	.084	1,2,3
Course goals	3.70	.57	3.77	.52	3.59	.60	3.204	.013	.041	3<2
Target skills	4.45	.55	4.43	.59	4.27	.77	2.982	.012	.052	3<2,1
Classroom practice	3.58	.58	3.52	.55	3.46	.60	1.521	.006	.220	1,2,3
Teacher roles	4.22	.47	4.26	.42	4.27	.49	.578	.002	.561	1,2,3
Self-assessment	3.09	.86	3.33	.85	3.20	.88	3.799	.016	.023	1<2
Evaluation	4.15	.92	4.18	.80	4.18	.94	.049	.000	.952	1,2,3

Note. *N* (None) = 207. *N* (1-12 months) = 176. *N* (12+ months) = 94.

Workplace language use. The participants had to mark whether they had or had not used any L2 while working. It was an important move from work-experience, because experience alone does not guarantee the use of L2. Therefore, to explore the possible impact of workplace L2 use, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted (Table 20). Participants were divided into three groups: Group 1 had no work-experience, Group 2 used L2 in a workplace situation, Group 3 did not.

Regarding student goals, there was statistically significant difference at $p < .001$ between Group 2 (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .63) and the other two groups who did not use

L2 either because did not have work experience ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .62$), or because did not have the chance ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .78$), $F = 8.264$, the effect size was somewhat moderate, eta-squared was .034.

There was a statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ between Group 1 ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .56$), Group 2 ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .63$) and Group 3 ($M = 4.01$, $SD = .76$), $F = 5.726$ in their attitude, the effect size was rather moderate, eta-squared was .024.

There are two scales, *target skills* and *self-assessment*, where there is a significant difference between Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3 at $p < .001$. As for *target skills,* there is a difference between Group 1 ($M = 4.48$, $SD = .55$), Group 2 ($M = 4.46$, $SD = .58$) and Group 3 ($M = 4.17$, $SD = .75$), $F = 8.164$, the effect size is somewhat moderate, eta-squared was .034. In case of *target skills,* there is a difference between Group 1 ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .79$), Group 2 ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .84$) and Group 3 ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .93$), $F = 9.517$, the effect size is somewhat moderate, eta-squared was .039.

Table 20

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Workplace L2 Use

Scales	No work experience		L2 use		No L2 use		F	η^2	p	Duncan's post-hoc test
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Student goals	3.66	.62	3.85	.63	3.54	.78	8.264	.034	<.001	1,3<2
Attributions	4.35	.42	4.29	.50	3.76	.67	.665	.003	.515	1,2,3
Attitude	4.33	.56	4.24	.63	4.01	.76	5.726	.024	.003	3<1,2
Intended effort	2.88	.63	2.97	.70	2.73	.75	3.776	.016	.024	3<2
Course goals	3.75	.50	3.71	.55	3.57	.62	2.780	.012	.063	3<1,2
Target skills	4.48	.55	4.46	.58	4.17	.75	8.164	.034	<.001	3<1,2
Classroom practice	3.59	.56	3.54	.56	3.44	.63	1.472	.006	.231	1,2,3
Teacher roles	4.21	.48	4.25	.45	4.25	.48	.227	.001	.797	1,2,3
Self-assessment	3.11	.79	3.31	.84	2.86	.93	9.517	.039	<.001	3<1,2
Evaluation	4.12	1.02	4.23	.82	4.05	.91	1.655	.007	.192	1,2,3

Courses. To explore the effect of courses on different aspects of learning LSP a one-way analysis of variance was conducted (Table 21). There was a significant difference in intended effort at $p<.001$ between students of Business ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .71$), Finance ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .75$) and those studying International Management ($M = 3.16$, $SD = .66$), $F = 2.38$, with a slightly moderate effect size, eta-squared was .040.

Concerning classroom practice, there was a statistically significant difference between students of Finance ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .60$) and all the other groups, Business ($M = 3.57$, $SD = .56$), Tourism ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .56$), International Management ($M = 3.61$, $SD = .57$), International Studies ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .46$) at $p<.001$, $F = 2.09$, the effect size was quite moderate, eta-squared was .051.

As for self-assessment, one group, Tourism ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .84$) was statistically different from all the other groups Business ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .77$), Finance ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.02$), International Management ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .83$), International Studies ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .74$) at $p<.001$, $F = 5.31$, the effect size was moderate, eta-squared was .059.

Table 21

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Courses

Scales	Business		Tourism		Finance		Internat. Managem.		Internat. Studies		F	η^2	p	Duncan's post-hoc test
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Student goals	3.77	.65	3.77	.58	3.56	.86	3.89	.69	3.87	.59	2.263	.018	.061	3<4,5
Attributions	4.22	.50	4.38	.47	4.27	.37	4.34	.50	4.43	.41	2.894	.023	.022	1,2,3,4,5
Attitude	4.19	.60	4.29	.65	3.96	.77	4.31	.55	4.44	.53	4.305	.034	.002	3<2,4,5
Intended effort	2.84	.71	2.96	.65	2.67	.75	3.16	.66	2.89	.60	2.380	.040	<.001	1,3<4
Course goals	3.71	.55	3.66	.58	3.63	.57	3.84	.54	3.81	.38	.563	.015	.128	1,2,3,4,5
Target skills	4.47	.51	4.39	.58	4.24	.92	4.49	.52	4.35	.64	.754	.017	.088	1,2,3,4,5
Classroom practice	3.57	.56	3.59	.56	3.21	.60	3.61	.57	3.72	.46	2.090	.051	<.001	3<1,2,4,5
Teacher roles	4.25	.47	4.28	.45	4.15	.47	4.23	.43	4.31	.42	.239	.009	.333	1,2,3,4,5
Self-assessment	3.31	.77	2.90	.84	3.25	1.02	3.43	.83	3.49	.74	5.310	.059	<.001	2<1,3,4,5
Evaluation	4.18	.85	4.10	.93	4.21	.88	4.16	.96	4.38	.71	.387	.004	.747	1,2,3,4,5

Language choices. The last aspect of RQ 3 was the possible effect of languages students learn at the university. The uneven distribution of LSP's (Table 12) allowed to compare two languages, English and German, computing a t-test (Table 22).

There were three scales affected by language choice: intended effort, classroom practice, and teacher roles. As for intended effort, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups at level p<.001, English (M = 2.84, SD = .69), German (M = 3.09, SD = .71), F = -3.443, the effect size was somewhat moderate (-.364).

Regarding classroom practice, the difference was statistically different at level p<.001, English (M = 3.47, SD = .56), German (M = 3.75, SD = .57), F = -4.745, the effect size was moderate (-.502).

Language choice had an effect on how LSP learners saw the roles of teachers, creating a statistically significant difference at level p<.001, between learners of English (M = 4.21, SD = .45), and learners of German (M = 4.37, SD = .45), F = -3.519, the effect size was quite moderate (-.372).

Table 22

T-Test: Differences Between Students Learning English and German

Scale	English		German		t	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Student goals	3.77	.68	3.81	.61	-.688	.492	-.073
Attributions	4.29	.50	4.36	.39	-1.625	.105	-.152
Attitude	4.18	.67	4.32	.56	-2.216	.028	-.216
Intended effort	2.84	.69	3.09	.71	-3.443	<.001	-.364
Course goals	3.68	.54	3.79	.60	-1.851	.066	-.206
Target skills	4.42	.63	4.43	.57	-.117	.907	-.012
Classroom practice	3.47	.56	3.75	.57	-4.745	<.001	-.502
Teacher roles	4.21	.45	4.37	.45	-3.519	<.001	-.372
Self-assessment	3.26	.83	3.01	.91	2.786	.006	.295
Evaluation	4.23	.81	3.99	1.06	2.312	.022	.280

Background variables influenced scales to a different extent. The youngest age group (20 years old or less) had more positive attitude to learning LSP than the oldest age group (22 years old or more), and it is the youngest students whose intended effort is higher than the next age group (21 years old). Being more optimistic about learning, and investing more energy characterizes the younger students (Chemers et al., 2001; Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

There were significant differences between male and female students concerning their attributional beliefs, and self-assessment. Female participants attributed success more to the factors (effort, teacher's help, aptitude etc.) listed than male participants. Previous research proved that men tend to attribute their success in language learning to effort more than women, whereas women are more likely to attribute their failure to lack of effort (Williams et al., 2004). The difference between

the two groups concerning self-assessment cannot be explained by relying on the data available. As a meta-analysis of 187 research articles dealing with self-confidence and self-efficacy could not verify that there was a systematic difference between male and female students in the academic context (Chiungjung, 2013). The investigation of self-efficacy and strategy use in L2 learning could not find significant difference between male and female language learners (Bonyadi et al., 2012).

The difference between participants who already fulfilled all requirements for the degree and those who did not or only partially did so can be seen how they assess themselves. Past achievements (language certificates) improve self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The demoralizing effect of the lack of motivating goals (Latham & Locke, 2013) on students who already met the university-set requirements is seen that they cared less about teachers' roles and classroom activities and had lower attitude. Students who partially met the requirement were more motivated than those who did not. This can be explained by the relationship between perceived difficulty of a task and one's self-efficacy beliefs based on their past language learning experience (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998).

The results show that work experience alone could not influence any aspect of LSP learning. However, a workplace situation where L2 was not used had a negative effect on student goals, the view they saw target skills, and self-assessment. This can be explained by the modifying effect experience have on goal setting (Earley et al., 1990). If there is no discrepancy between a current performance and a future desired goal (being able to use LSP), then goals will not be set (Locke & Latham, 2013).

There are differences between university courses concerning intended effort, classroom practice, and self-assessment, but these are no way systematic, therefore, I

restrain from making conclusions. Students choosing English or German showed differences in their intended effort, how they perceived classroom practice and LSP teachers' roles. Previous studies comparing students' motivation found that learners of English were more motivated (Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Csizér & Lukács, 2010). However, my results only allow me to conclude that students of German as LSP were more willing to exert effort, and found teachers' roles and classroom activities more important than students of ESP.

6.4 The Impact of Scales

In order to answer research question seven (What influences students' intended effort, self-set and course goals?) I carried out several multiple regression analyses. In order to measure the effects of scales on the given constructs, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were calculated. In all cases the results were checked for multicollinearity. The VIF values (Variance Inflation Factor) were below 3 for all independent variables, ensuring the reliability of the regression analyses. For the values of VIF see Appendix F.

Attitude, student goals, attributions, and target skills explain 36.1% of the variance in intended effort (Table 23), and student goals contribute to the largest extent (β= .368), but attitude also makes a statistically significant contribution (β= .293).

Table 23

Regression Coefficients of Scales on Intended Effort

Dependent scales	β	SE	95% CI for B		t	p	R^2	F
			LL	UL				
							.361	68.412
Attitude	.293	.046	.228	.409	6.930	<.001		
Student goals	.368	.048	.289	.479	7.959	<.001		
Attributions	.065	.057	-.017	.208	1.665	.097		
Target skills	.017	.050	-.079	.118	.385	.701		

p<.001

Five scales, intended effort, course goal, target skills, self-assessment, and attitude explain 48.9% of the variance in student goals (Table 24). Of the five scales four make statistically significant contribution: intended effort (*β*= .269), target skills (*β*= .343), self-assessment (*β*= .201), and attitude (*B* = .133).

Table 24

Regression Coefficients of Scales on Student Goals

Dependent scales	β	SE	95% CI for B		t	p	R^2	F
			LL	UL				
							.489	92.446
Intended effort	.269	.037	.184	.331	6.880	<.001		
Course goal	.038	.045	-.043	.133	1.013	.311		
Target skills	.343	.040	.298	.453	9.502	<.001		
Self-assessment	.201	.028	.100	.212	5.495	<.001		
Attitude	.133	.042	.056	.221	3.315	<.001		

p<.001

Course goals, teacher roles, classroom practice, student goals explain 25.7% of the variance in self-assessment. Student goals (β= .292) to a larger extent, and course goals to a lesser extent (β= .233) make statistically significant contributions (Table 25).

Table 25

Regression Coefficients of Scales on Self-Assessment

Dependent scales	β	SE	95% CI for B		t	p	R^2	F
			LL	UL				
							.257	33.371
Intended effort	.139	.058	.057	.286	2.953	.003		
Classroom practice	.020	.084	-.135	.195	.353	.725		
Course goal	.233	.085	.190	.525	4.190	<001		
Student goal	.292	.068	.244	.510	5.557	<001		
Target skills	-.042	.067	-.190	.073	-.875	.382		

p<.001

Four scales, student goals, classroom practice, teacher roles, and self-assessment explain 52.5% of the variance in course goals (Table 26). Two scales make statistically significant contributions: classroom practice in larger part (β= .605), and to a lesser degree self-assessment (β= .165) and attitude (β= .130) .

Table 26

Regression Coefficients of Scales on Course Goals

Dependent scales	β	SE	95% CI for B		t	p	R^2	F
			LL	UL				
							.525	133.972
Classroom practice	.605	.033	.525	.661	3.440	<.001		
Self-assessment	.165	.030	.063	.151	-1.097	.273		
Intended effort	-.041	.022	-.092	.026	4.797	<.001		
Attitude	.130	.035	.035	.605	17.149	<.001		

p<.001

Intended effort. The regression analysis showed that three scales influenced the intended effort significantly: attitude, student goals, and self-assessment, and attributions. This result corresponds to motivational theories (e.g., Gardner, 2001, Dörnyei, 2001) naming attitude to L2 as a determinant factor of motivation. The scale of student goals was the strongest predictor of how willing students are to exert. Setting specific and both proximal goals (obtaining a language certificate), and distal goals (perform well in workplace situations) can also enhance motivation (Morisano, 2013). It is somewhat surprising that in the light of the importance of goals, course goals did not influence effort at all. The role of self-beliefs (i.e., how student assess their current capabilities) was discussed earlier, stating that the higher one's self-efficacy beliefs are, the more effort they are willing to exert (Bandura, 1986).

Self-assessment. Both students' own goals and course goals are equally good predictors of self-assessment, suggesting that students measure themselves against

their own goals and those set by the university. The positive effect of self-set goals on self-efficacy in academic setting has been studied by Schunk (1985).

Student goals. Of four scales that influenced student goals significantly, intended effort, target skills, self-assessment, and attitude, I would like to highlight the one of target skills that is the strongest predictor. This scale measured how likely participants believed they would need certain skills in their workplace situations. Their influence on students' self-set, or internalized authority-set goals (e.g., language exam) can be interpreted within the framework goal setting theory, in which goal choice is "what the individual thinks can be achieved and what he or she would like to achieve or thinks should be achieved" (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Course goals. The way the participants viewed the course goals were influenced first, and to the largest extent, by their attitude. Students' view of course goals was more sensitive to changes in attitude than their own goals were. This can be explained by the fact that the attitude items in the questionnaire focused on learning LSP in the institutional context. Intended effort and classroom practice also played roles in course goals but only to smaller, but still significant, extent.

The results demonstrate that the four constructs, effort, self-assessment, student goals and course goals, are interlinked, and feed to goal-setting and self-efficacy theories. Students who started the university with high self-efficacy based on their success in learning L2, can transfer it to the more complex task of learning LSP in the university setting (Zimmermann et al., 1992). Their self-efficacy will determine the goals they set (Bandura, 1997), which will impact the effort they exert (it also impacts choice, persistence, and task strategies) (Locke & Latham, 2013b). Setting proximal goals, for instance, passing the language exam, can give them a sense of achievement (Latham

& Seijts, 1999), which, in turn, will increase self-efficacy. This could explain why

LSP instructors saw their high-achieving students demotivated. For these students

obtaining a language certificate does not serve as a proximal motivating goal (Latham

& Locke, 2013).

6.5 Student Profiles

I wanted to investigate the difference between students concerning their

motivation. The rationale behind this interest was that the level of motivation can

reflect the extent to which students' LSP related needs are met (Woodrow, 2018). The

large standard deviation values of the scales in the initial analysis indicated that there

might be measurable differences among the participants of the questionnaire study.

The analysis of the qualitative data also suggested that there were distinguishable

motivational patterns among the students perceivable by language instructors. In order

to answer the eighth research question (What student profiles can be concerning

motivation?) and see if observations can be tabulated into subgroups, a cluster

analysis was run. This method can only be used to describe groups, it is not suitable to

test a hypothesis (Csizér & Jamieson, 2012). In order to identify subgroups, the three

measures were chosen from the questionnaire: intended effort, attitude, student goals.

These scales were able to signify students' motivated behavior (Dörnyei, 2005;

Gardner, 2001). Based on the outcome of the cluster analysis, three clusters were

identified.

The visual representation of the analysis produced a dendrogram (Figure 2).

The three-cluster solution is justified by the measurable difference between the three

clusters as it is statistically significant across all scales (Table 27). The mean values of the three clustering variables are presented in in Table 28. The members of the first group had the most positive attitude to learning LSP, they were willing to exert effort in order to achieve success and had the most specific goals. The members of the second group had the least positive attitude and reported to exercise the least effort to learn LSP and their goals were least tangible. The members of the third group were positioned between the first and the second group concerning the mean values on all three scales. The observable differences between the levels of motivation led me to name Group 1 Highly motivated, Group 2 Least motivated, and Group 3 Moderately motivated. The ratio of the three groups is shown in Table 29. The composition of the sample was positive as students of the Least motivated profile made up only 18% of the total number of participants.

Table 27

One-way Analysis of Variance: The Scales Used for the Construction of the Clusters

	Cluster		Error		F	Sig.
	Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df		
Attitude	52.314	2	.199	487	262.731	<.001
Intended effort	71.747	2	.194	487	369.405	<.001
Student goals	57.712	2	.211	487	274.001	<.001

Table 28

Final Cluster Centers

	Cluster		
	1	2	3
Attitude	4.63	3.31	4.23
Intended effort	3.54	2.13	2.66
Student goals	4.28	2.92	3.66

Table 29

The Number and Percentage of the Participants Belonging to Each Cluster

	Number of valid cases	Percentage
Cluster 1 (Highly motivated)	190	38.8%
Cluster 2 (Least motivated)	89	18.2%
Cluster 3 (Moderately motivated)	211	43.0%
Total	490	100%

Figure 2

Dendrogram of the Clusters

Dendrogram using Average Linkage (Between Groups)
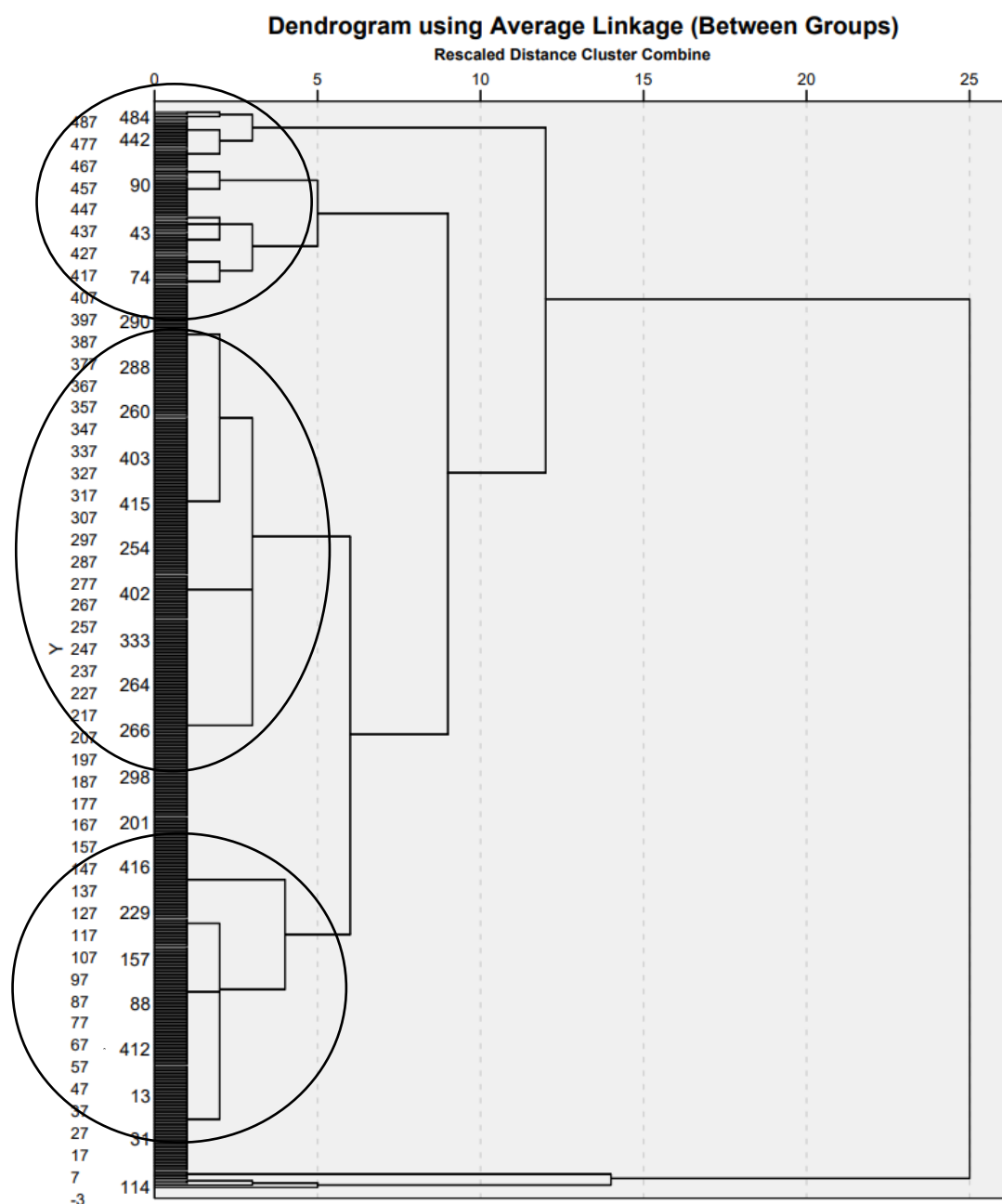
In order to see how the three groups performed on the other scales, a one-way analysis of variance test was conducted. As it can be seen from Table 30, members of the three clusters were significantly different on all scales except one. The post-hoc test proved that the mean values of teacher roles were not significantly different

between the Least and Moderately motivated groups. In other words, students' motivation profiles have the same rank order concerning their self-assessment, attributional beliefs, course goals, classroom activities, target skills, and the preferred forms of evaluation. Most important of all, it means that students with the Highly motivated profile considered themselves the more capable of performing work-related tasks using LSP. The course goals were the most discernable for students with the Highly motivated profile, and so were the practical aspects, the classroom practice. On the other hand, the Least and Moderately motivated students did not rank teachers' roles differently, suggesting that their expectations were similar. An important result of the analysis is that the ranking of the target situation skills could have been the same in all three groups, instead, the Highly motivated students ranked them the highest, which suggests that they were the most aware of the challenges they would encounter in their workplaces, and the Least motivated students considered these skills the least important.

Table 30

One-way Analysis of Variance of the Clusters on the Rest of the Measures

Scales	1		2		3		F	η²	p	Duncan's post-hoc test
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
Self-assessment	3.51	.78	2.56	.88	3.17	.77	43.797	.152	<.001	2<3<1
Attributions	4.45	.40	4.05	.58	4.28	.44	23.476	.088	<.001	2<3<1
Course goals	3.92	.58	3.34	.53	3.66	.46	38.118	.135	<.001	2<3<1
Classroom practice	3.81	.55	3.17	.55	3.56	.50	43.762	.152	<.001	2<3<1
Target skills	4.68	.38	3.92	.83	4.38	.52	59.851	.198	<.001	2<3<1
Teacher roles	4.40	.40	4.08	.53	4.18	.43	20.370	.077	<.001	2,3<1
Evaluation	4.36	.75	3.76	1.10	4.15	.86	14.172	.055	<.001	2<3<1

I was interested in how the differences between the three groups are reflected in the process of meeting the requirements for degree. Therefore, a crosstab was created to compare the ratio of the fulfillment of the degree requirements across the groups (Table 31). It is noteworthy that the Least motivated group had the highest proportion (83%) of students who had not passed the required language exams. One fifth of the students partially fulfilled the requirements, and this value was merely 7% in the Least motivated group. Another interesting background variable was the experience the participants had or did not have using L2 in workplace situations. In order to examine the differences between the groups, another crosstab was done (Table 32). The results showed that the highest proportion of students who had already had experience in using L2 in workplace situations (69%) was found in the Highly motivated group. On the other hand, the ratio of those who had had work

experience but did not use L2 was the highest (30%) was the highest among the Least motivated students.

Table 31

The Ratio of Fulfillment of Requirements for the Degree

	Highly motivated		Moderately motivated		Least motivated	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Unfulfilled	129	69	146	71	73	83
Fulfilled	19	10	27	13	9	10
Partially fulfilled	38	20	34	16	6	7
	186	100	207	100	88	100

Missing data: 9

Table 32

The Proportion of Workplace L2 Use

	Highly motivated		Moderately motivated		Least motivated	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No work experience	30	16	43	21	14	16
L2 use	129	69	130	63	47	53
No L2 use	24	13	30	14	26	30
	183	100	203	100	87	100

Missing data: 17

These results are important because they support the theory that internalized instrumental motivation (Dörnyei, 2009) to learn a second language, which is the case when a student learns LSP is characterized by a positive attitude to the language, and the learning environment, and also by having both proximal and distal goals (Gardner,

2001; Latham & Locke, 2013), and a high sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997;

Dörnyei, 2009). The opposite end is observable in the results: students with the Least

motivated profile had the least positive attitude, the lowest intention to make effort to

learn LSP, and goals, whether their own, or perceived target situation goals, or course

goals were rather elusive for them. The Highly motivated group is characterized by

the high proportion of students who partially fulfilled the requirements for the degree,

which suggests that a goal perceived plausible is more motivating (Dörnyei, 2009)

than a goal perceived unreachable.

The motivating effect of language learning experience (Dörnyei, 2009), and

the positive effect of feedback (Locke, 2000) on goals can also be seen in the

differences of workplace L2 use experience. The Highly motivated profile is a

characteristic of students who had already had positive experience in language

learning: they might have had language certificates to prove their proficiency and / or

had used their language skills in workplace situations. This experience and their high

score on the self-assessment scale indicate a motivated disposition toward learning

LSP.

6.6 Unmet Needs

I wanted to investigate students' views on LSP teaching in more depth.

Therefore, the last research question (Which unmet needs cause dissatisfaction?) was

answered by analyzing the answers given to the sentence completion item ("The

problem with teaching LSP at the university is…"). This question gave the

participants the opportunity to articulate their appraisal and criticism. The answers, as

in all qualitative data, had the potential to raise issues not touched upon in the questionnaire. The analysis produced rich data, which were categorized into four main themes. The emerging themes with an example for each are listed in Table 33.

Table 33

Emerging Themes of the Sentence Completion Item

Themes	Example
Need for a more personalized learning environment	"It is not student centered."
Need for relevance	"It doesn't prepare us for real-life situations."
Need for a higher-level culture of learning	
Learning strategy	"It still feels like secondary school."
Roles of a teacher	"A lot depends on which teacher you have."
Need for autonomy	
Need for more autonomy	"You don't need an obligatory course to be able to take an exam."
Need for less autonomy	"Weaker students should be given more tests."

6.6.1 Need for a More Personalized Learning Environment

A main source of dissatisfaction was the way courses were organized at the university. According to students the system was not flexible enough. For instance, beginner courses were not advertised, which was a problem for those students who were required to take two language exams. Many students complained that the allocated three terms and two classes per week were not enough for them to learn LSP. Another problem they mentioned was the size of groups, and as a side-effect, the lack of streaming. High-achievers complained that the speed and depth of teaching are adapted to lower-level students; and low-achievers complained that they could not

keep pace with the rest of the group. Both felt frustrated because they felt they could not improve. A need for a more personalized environment was manifested in the complaint that performance was not measured against one's improvement but against to the best student's performance. The lack of students' follow-up was also a source of dissatisfaction.

The problems mentioned within this theme highlight the importance of conducting a means analysis before launching an LSP course (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The output of a means analysis can define better the environment where teaching would take place (Holliday & Cooke, 1982) and the constraints of a course. The responses highlight the fact that ignoring needs concerning the circumstances and organization of courses could cause dissatisfaction as students did not perceive genuine improvement in their language skills.

6.6.2 Need for Relevance

This theme has two subthemes. The first refers to the need for including more professionally relevant materials into the LSP course. Students voiced their criticism over oversimplified, shallow texts and materials lacking specificity, which they found demotivating. Several students expressed their dissatisfaction of not being given opportunity to practice real-life situations or drafting more emails typical in workplaces. The other subtheme originated from the belief that the goal of the LSP course is to prepare students for language exams. For these students, relevance meant practicing skills assessed during exams, doing exam tasks.

The link between specificity and motivation in universities has been established in ESP literature (Gollin-Kies et al, 2015; Woodrow, 2018). It is quite

probable that more motivated students want to have access to more specific literature, as motivation and the need for specificity are linear (Hyland, 2002). When students reported that target situation skills were not emphatic part of course design, they articulated their objective needs. On the other hand, the relevance of the explicit need for an LSP course to prepare its students for a language exam cannot be ignored. Although the long-term practical value of taking language exams can be questioned, their short-term value cannot, as long as they are indispensable requirements for the degree.

6.6.3 Need for a Higher-Level Culture of Learning

This theme reflects the participants' language learning experience, and expectations for a more engaging learning environment where they are treated more equally. The first subtheme involves preferred learning strategies and teaching methods. First, students wanted to see a more interactive, creative, even playful teaching environment. They would like to learn by watching professional videos, sightseeing (Tourism students) and discussing current affairs, business news. They wanted more than merely learning and cramming from a coursebook. The ideal focus for LSP classes would be speaking in all possible forms: monologues, dialogues, debates, and group discussions.

The second subtheme concerns the roles of LSP teachers. They are criticized for not being field experts which stopped them from teaching LSP effectively. Lack of competence and native-like language proficiency were also mentioned. On the other hand, some teachers were perceived as perfect ("There is only one Miss Honey!").

Students who had had learned with several LSP instructors concluded their experience saying that the quality of teaching is uneven at the university.

LSP learners' subjective needs that could be collected by conducting a learning situation analysis (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1997) are one of the corner stones of course design. University students' needs for a wider variety of learning strategies should be taken into consideration, because these strategies can be used in the long term, even in workplaces, and would promote life-long learning. Active engagement of students would also improve motivation. Students' need for a more egalitarian relationship is also justified in LSP setting (Basturkmen, 2010). Criticizing language instructors for lack of field related knowledge is not a rare phenomenon, but this could be avoided by focusing or target situation communication needs more, and not on teaching theoretical knowledge.

6.6.4 Need for Autonomy

This theme, especially the fact that it has two opposing subthemes, indicates the differences between students proven by the cluster analysis. Students who expressed their need for more autonomy felt that making courses obligatory is useless, because they could learn LSP without that. Some of them even regarded obligatory courses demotivating. They also wanted to have more variety of languages offered by the university, and more opportunity because they were only given three terms, enough for learning one LSP. The most reliable and valuable feedback for autonomous students would be a reality-check, trying themselves out in target situations with speakers of L2 of different nationalities.

Students who wanted less autonomy relied more on LSP instructors for motivation. Less autonomous students expected teachers to punish them for not doing their homework because this could motivate them to learn at home. Regular test, quizzes were perceived to increase their motivation as well. LSP teachers were to make students learn what they did not like. Slower pace, explanations given in Hungarian would make their learning more effective.

Finding mandatory LSP courses demotivating is common among autonomous language learners (Woodrow, 2018). However, university students' levels of proficiency are uneven (Sturz, 2009). Another group of students heavily rely on language instructors' help and felt lost without their teachers' support. Quite possibly the less autonomous students are aware of their lack of effective language learning strategies, and their language learning experience do not have motivating effect (Dörnyei, 2009). Alternative ways of learning could be offered based on the results of a present situation analysis which can provide language learning information about learners (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1997).

6.6.5 Conclusion

The results of the content analysis show that there are four main types of needs which students did not perceive to be met. To the last research question (Which unmet needs cause dissatisfaction?) the answer is that students need a more personalized environment, relevant material and classroom practice, they want to experience a higher-level culture of learning, and they are definitely not unified in the level of autonomy they need. Some of these needs require institutional changes (for instance, the range of 149anguagees, the length and intensity of classes) and some can be

addressed by LSP instructors at course level by focusing more on target situation

communication skills. The positive and negative critical remarks on language

instructors' roles suggest that teachers play a decisive role in learner experience. The

difference between students in the level of autonomy they feel comfortable with

highlights the importance of differentiation in the practice of teaching LSP.

7 Conclusion

This chapter will conclude the study by summarizing the key research findings in relation to the research aims and questions, discussing the value and contribution of the study. It will also review the limitations of the study and propose pedagogical implications. This study primarily aimed to investigate the LSP related needs as they are reflected in the learning goals formulated by language instructors, and to contrast these with the needs students identified. The results indicate that there is an overlap between the needs LSP instructors cater for and what students formulate, still there are many which are only perceived needs, and many that remain unmet. The secondary aim of this study was to explore the patterns students' motivation follow. The findings of the qualitative study suggest that there are four different motivational patterns, the results of the quantitative study offer three patterns. The extent to which needs are met and the level of motivation are interrelated.

7.1 Main Findings

RQ 1 *What needs are reflected in the course goals language instructors formulate?*

The goals language instructors formulated reflect four types of needs: linguistic needs, field-related knowledge, learning needs, and the need for a motivating environment. The linguistic needs include the perceived target situation communication needs, proficiency, and the need to pass the language exam. Teaching field related knowledge is a need language teachers perceived they had to address in order to be able to teach LSP effectively. Within learning needs the most salient goal

is to teach language learning strategies. The fourth type of needs is that of a motivating learning environment.

The sub-question concerning the sources of needs (What sources do language instructors rely on when defining needs?) found that LSP teachers relied on their work experience (to the smallest extent), digital and printed media, and coursebooks. In the face of missing field-related experience, LSP instructors relied on their own personal values, work experience (as teachers) to teach perceived target situation competencies, showcasing authenticity. The findings regarding the second sub-question (What conflicts do language instructors perceive between needs?) indicate that LSP instructors could identify three areas. There are conflicts within themselves: they felt they could not teach the language without compromising their perceived responsibility to prepare students for exams. There are conflicts within students as well: they have to balance their LSP studies and other academic (and work) commitments. The third area of conflict arises from the situation that several students have already met the degree requirement and still have to attend obligatory LSP classes.

RQ 2 *What motivational patterns can language instructors identify?*

According to the language instructors, students' motivation can take four paths. It can remain constantly high throughout their LSP studies especially among students who already have clear career plans and can see the instrumental value of LSP. Due to lack of challenging goals beyond language exams, motivation can palpably decrease over the three terms students attend the university language courses. There are students whose motivation is consistently low either because they

were not interested in the first place, or too complacent to learn, or whose motivation is directed to languages for generic and not specific purposes. The fourth motivational Pattern is the increasing one, indicating that LSP can have an inevitable role in remotivating language learners.

RQ 3 *How do language instructors evaluate the effectiveness of courses?*

Effectiveness of an LSP course should be measured by objective, formative tests, interviews with teachers and students. The results indicate, however, that in this research context, only students' progress is measured. The measurement tool is a successful language exam. When it comes to assessing their own effectiveness, LSP instructors can merely rely on students' success stories or failures. This situation makes teachers' motivation vulnerable, too much dependent on their students' achievements. The effectiveness of LSP courses is hampered by several institutional decisions, circumstances.

RQ 4 *What characterizes students' language learning experience?*

Most students learn ESP, a quite understandable choice in a sense that English is considered the lingua franca of the business world. Many students have been studying (mainly) English for eight or more years and have already passed one or more B2 or C1 level exams. The outcome of the research indicates that despite learning for eight or more years there was a cohort of students who did not have any tangible proof of speaking an L2. Another alarming finding is that a comparable gap exists between the large number of successful language exams and the requirements for the degree.

RQ 5 *What relationships exist between scales measuring aspects of learning a language for specific purposes?*

The results highlight that students perceive a high consistency between the course goals and the classroom activities. As for their own intended effort, it is closely linked to their own goals and to their attitude. It suggests that students are more willing to exert effort to reach their own goals than to achieve the goals LSP courses set. There is also a close connection between their own goals and target skills and attitude. The results indicate that students do not perceive that their own goals and course goals overlap. These two goals run parallel, inferring that there are needs not aimed to be fulfilled by LSP courses. The nature of these needs are discussed at the last research question.

RQ 6 *What are the roles of background variables?*

The effects of seven background variables were examined (age, gender, fulfilling the degree requirement, work experience, workplace L2 use, courses, language choice), but I will highlight two pivotal variables. Age. Although the age range of the participants was not particularly wide, the results indicate that older students have less positive attitude to learning LSP and are less willing to make effort. The starting point and the reason for the decreased intensity of attitude and intended effort cannot be inferred from the data, since a questionnaire can only give a cross-sectional view. Workplace L2 use. It must be noted that experience with using L2 in a workplace had more impact on students than the length of work experience. Those who have used L2 while working had more tangible goals than those who have worked but did not use L2. Undertaking a job where one did not use L2 had a more

negative effect on target skills and self-assessment than not having any work experience.

RQ 7 *What influences students' intended effort, self-assessment, self-set and course goals?*

The results indicate that student goals can be best explained by the importance students attribute to the target skills and the amount of effort they intend to exert. Intended effort is dependent on the attitude students have towards learning LSP. Course goals can be regarded the most tangible through classroom activities. Students' level of self-assessment largely based on course goals, and to a lesser extent, on their own goals. This last finding indicates that students' primary reference point is the academic environment.

RQ 8 *What student profiles can be identified concerning motivation?*

The results suggest that in the sample there are three distinguishable student profiles: the Highly motivated, the Moderately motivated, and the Least motivated. These profiles are significantly different from each other in other scales as well. Moreover, the comparison of groups based on their positions of fulfilling the degree requirements proves that being half-way meeting the requirements puts students more likely to the Highly motivated group. On the other hand, the lack of experience with using L2 in workplace situations will probably rank students among the Least motivated group members. These two findings exemplify that language learning experience can have a positive or a negative effect on motivation.

RQ 9 *Which unmet needs cause dissatisfaction?*

From the students' point of view, four unfulfilled needs can make them dissatisfied. The need for personalized environment involves many things: from group size to tailor-made evaluation. This need is students' desire to be seen as individuals. When students express their need for relevance, they expect language inspectors to step beyond coursebooks preparing them for actual target situations. The need for a higher-level culture of learning is an appeal for a more egalitarian treatment, a detachment from the over-regularized secondary school teaching practice. The last need is related to autonomy: there is an explicit want for more autonomy among those who consider themselves capable of regulating their own learning; and a similarly explicit desire to less autonomy, expecting more help from language instructors.

7.2 Main Contributions

The research gaps this study attempted to address was to investigate university students' LSP needs and motivational patterns as they are reflected in students' and language instructors' goals. The results of the research indicate that students' motivation to learn LSP in a university setting is influenced by positive and negative language learning experience, which can be counterbalanced by learning LSP itself. Placing this result in the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009), it raises the issue that a newly found professional identity (ideal self) can outweigh the effect of language learning experience another component of the three-partite model. The stronger motivating power of LSP-focused courses over general language courses has already been established, but the remotivating potential has not been discussed so far.

Another contribution of the study, in terms of practice, is to show how teachers' own work experience is used to compensate for the lack of information about target situation competences. In face of the sometimes sharp criticism made against LSP instructors (Einhorn, 2021; Jármai, 2008; Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018), recognizing that teachers can be authentic sources of certain target situation competences or skills is invaluable. If a complex needs analysis, including present situation analysis, means analysis, learning situation analysis, and target situation analysis, was conducted, teachers should not rely on their own resources to determine students' various needs in an LSP course. Apart from making LSP courses more effective, implementing the results of a needs analysis would remove an unnecessary burden from language instructors.

7.3 Pedagogical Implications

Most research findings in ESP/LSP are local, idiosyncratic, temporal, and situational, depending on learning contexts, disciplines, student groups, and societal expectations (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016). Identifying the neuralgic points of an LSP educational context also makes these findings valuable, and effective, provided they can inform the existing practice. Hereby, I would like to formulate some pedagogical implication of my research.

Uneven proficiency. Unless an institution sets a requirement for the entry level of proficiency, it should cater for the differences between students. The research has highlighted that it is not merely an issue of being at a different level but has a powerful impact on learning needs and goals. Although target needs are the same,

students have different needs regarding material, method, teacher roles, classroom activities, assessment etc. Students' need for differentiation is valid both in secondary education (Öveges & Csizér, 2018), and in a higher education context as well. An institution should carry out a thorough means analysis to determine if it has all the necessary resources (human, time, facilities) to handle this situation. If a higher education institute accepts students with uneven proficiency, then it should provide a flexible framework that would offer students different paths to improve.

LSP is a game changer in motivation. Language instructors should know that the most effective tool to remotivate students with lost motivation, and low self-beliefs is LSP itself. Its practicality, usefulness and relevance should be capitalized on, and emphasized in LSP courses. Choosing suitable teaching methods, classroom tasks, materials, and forms of assessment reflecting the very nature of LSP can create a motivating learning environment.

On-the-job needs analysis. What cannot be done by the university can be achieved by students. First of all, students have to be encouraged to apply for positions to companies where L2 is used. Then, during their internship or in their jobs, students can be asked to collect information about L2 use. They would receive a template (preferably digitalized), or an application they could enter the information that would be immediately available for LSP instructors. The template or application would contain questions typical in needs analysis, for instance:

- *What is your job now?*

- *What are your responsibilities?*

- *Give a list of situations when you are in contact with foreign clients or colleagues.*

- *What are you discussing when you meet?*

- *What skills do you need to improve?*

- *What new words, phrases have you learned this week?*

These questions would serve two purposes. First, they would help to make LSP education more specific and relevant by narrowing down the vast number of companies where students find employment, and it could give relevant and up-to-date information about the LSP and LSP related skills companies expect from students (Chan, 2021). Second, the questions would raise awareness of language learning strategy use. Reflecting on workplace language use, seeing it as another area of learning, students could master lifelong language learning skills. I think it could mitigate the stress at workplace by transforming it into a learning environment.

LSP simulation. Business and Tourism students have the opportunity to participate in high-stake international simulations annually. Assessing language skills can have a similar format could fulfill students' need for relevance. With all the information students have collected during the on-the-job needs analysis, LSP instructors can organize language assessment simulations.

7.4 Limitations of the Research and Further Research Directions

The very nature of research conducted in the field of LSP narrows the possibility of being adaptable to international context (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016). The main concern of both language instructors and language learners was the university-imposed requirement – the successful LSP exam. However, an unpremeditated government regulation phased out this requirement when this research had been completed. A definite limitation of the research is that not all language departments were involved in the qualitative phase. A wider context of the research could have given a more detailed picture of LSP teaching and learning. Definite methodological limitations of the study were that teachers' and students' data were not fully comparable, and student motivation was not addressed more thoroughly. The scope of research could have been wider. The involvement of other higher education institutions would have given room for better comparison of courses across universities.

Further research could be done into adopting the ideas raised in the pedagogical implications. By removing all items referring to the language certificate, and adapting it to the current situation, it could be replicated in other European higher education institutes. A valuable insight could be gained of LSP with an international perspective. Another promising research direction would be to adapt a goal setting program (Morisano et. al., 2010) with LSP learning focus.

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Appendix A

Interview questions

Interjúkérdések oktatóknak

Bio

1. Hány éve tanítasz az egyetemen szaknyelvet?

2. Tanítottál előtte máshol szaknyelvet?

3. Milyen szaknyelveket oktatsz? (területek)

4. Hogyan szerezted meg az ezekhez szükséges szakmai tudást? (autodidakta? szakképzés?)

5. Hogyan határoznád meg a szaknyelv fogalmát?

A diákokról

1. Hogyan látod a diákjaid céljait?

2. Hogyan látod a diákjaid hozzáállását? (Mennyire fontos nekik, hogy megtanulják a szaknyelvet? Szerepe?)

3. Mi motiválja a hallgatókat, hogy megtanulják a szaknyelvet? Mi veszi el a kedvüket?

4. Van hatékony nyelvtanulási stratégiájuk? Változik a három félév alatt?

5. Mennyire látod a hallgatóidat magabiztos nyelvtanulónak ill nyelvhasználónak?

6. Miben változnak a hallgatók a félév során? Hozzáállás, motiváció.

7. Szerinted mitől várják, hogy sikeresek legyenek?

8. Mitől sikeres ill sikertelen egy diák a te szempontodból?

9. Hogyan reagálsz, ha nem tanulnak, nem teljesítenek a hallgatók?

10. Miben tudsz hatni a diákjaidra? Miben nem?

A szaknyelv oktatásáról

1. Szerinted mi a leghangsúlyosabb része a szaknyelv oktatásnak?

2. Te mit hangsúlyozol a kurzusodon? Egy-egy órán?

3. Mi a célod? Mire akarod őket felkészíteni?

4. Milyen tudást akarsz átadni?

5. Mi segít ebben?

6. Mi hátráltat ebben?

7. Mi az, amit mindig megtanítasz? (nyelvi, tanulási stratégia, viselkedés, pontosság, gondolkodás, kreativitás, etika) „Ha csak egy dolgot tanulnak meg tőlem, az a " / „Egy diákom se fejezi be úgy a kurzust, hogy ne tanulna meg " [Your brand]

8. Mit változtatnál az egyetemi szaknyelvi képzésben? (könyv, óraszám, csoport-létszám stb)

Interview questions (translated)

Bio data

1. How long have you been teaching language for specific purposes in this university?

2. Did you teach LSP before?

3. What kind of LSP do you teach? (Language for Tourism/Business)

4. Where did you acquire the necessary background knowledge? (Did you teach yourself, or did attend formal training?)

5. How do you define the concept of *language for specific purposes*?

About the students

1. What do you think of your students' goals?

2. How do you perceive your students' attitude to LSP? (How important is it for them to learn LSP?)

3. What motivates students to learn LSP? What demotivates them?

4. Do they have effective language learning strategy? Does this strategy undergo some changes over the three terms?

5. To what extent do you find your students self-confident language learner and language user?

6. In what ways do they change over the three terms?

7. What do they attribute their success to?

8. What makes a student successful or unsuccessful?

9. How do you react when your students don't learn?

10. What influence do you have on your students?

On LSP

1. What is the most marked aspect of teaching LSP?

2. What aspect do you emphasize in your course / in your classes?

3. What is your goal? What do you want them to prepare for?

4. What sort of knowledge do you want to depart?

5. What helps you?

6. What stops you?

7. What is your personal brand? *If there is one thing I teach in a course it is ...*(punctuality, conduct, creativity) / *Nobody will complete my courses without having learned ...*

8. What would you change about LSP teaching in this university? (coursebook, class size, contact hours)

Appendix B

Interview themes

Codes and explanations/examples

STUDENT GOALS

- achievement goal — to pass a language exam, complete the course

- learning goal — proficiency

- performance goal — not be ashamed in front of others

- long-term goal — professional goals

- lack of goal — no goal is set

- personalized teaching — the need for personalized teaching/learning

STUDENT MOTIVATION

- instrumental motivation — language proficiency needed to attain professional goals

- initial motivation — the motivation first-year students have

- high achiever — successful students

- motivated SD — students motivated to learn LSP

- motivation found — students gaining motivation while learning LSP

- extrinsic motivation — learning to meet others' expectations

- degree paid — no motivation based on the idea that if tuition fee is paid, degree is guaranteed

- KM vs TV — the difference between the two student groups (business vs. tourism)

- lack of motivation   students unmotivated to learn LSP

- low achiever   unsuccessful students

- mission accomplished   no motivation to learn more

- motivation lost   students losing motivation while learning LSP

- quitter   students who give up learning LSP

MODIFIERS OF STUDENT GOALS

- effort   diligence

- autonomy   independence in learning

- self-efficacy   seeing oneself as capable of coping

- SD strategy   language learning strategy

- task-preference   students only willing to do highly relevant tasks in LSP classes

- attitude   predisposition towards LSP

- lack of effort   no diligence

- lack of autonomy   no independence in learning

- lack of self-efficacy   not seeing oneself as capable of coping

- overlearning   learning for a long time without results

- anxiety   afraid to talk

- aptitude   natural ability to learn a foreign language

- entry level   first year students' level of proficiency

- need for foundation   knowing the basics (language, culture, profession)

- workload   working beside studying

- feedback   feedback from university, teachers, employers

TEACHER GOALS

- cooperation   to teach students to work together

- critical thinking   to teach students to think independently

- culture   to teach students about cultural issues

- ESP   definition of ESP/LSP

- expectations   teacher's expectations

- help setting a goal   to help students to set their own goals

- learning environment   ideal learning environment

- relevance   choosing relevant/authentic materials, tasks

- skills   language skills (reading, writing, listening)

- T achievement goal   to make students pass the language exam

- TG accuracy   to teach accuracy

- TG appropriacy   to teach appropriacy

- TG communication   to make students communicate (speaking)

- TG language awareness   to raise language awareness

- TG lifeskill   to teach soft skills

- TG motivate   to motivate students

- TG strategy   to teach language learning strategies

- TG confidence   to increase students' self-confidence

MODIFIERS OF TEACHER GOALS

- CBLT   teaching content subjects, professional content

- STOPS   hurdles in teaching (size of classes, schedule, etc.)

TEACHER MOTIVATION

- enthusiasm   teachers' motivation

- T adapting   adapting to students' needs, goals

- T behaviour   being authentic

- T experience   teacher as language learner

- T self-goals   teachers' professional goals

- T demotivation   losing motivation

TEACHER – STUDENT RELATIONSHIP,

EVALUATION

- bonding   positive relationship between students and teachers

- vicarious failure   students' failure influencing teachers

- vicarious success   students' success influencing teachers

- improvement   obvious improvement (achievement)

The codes and the coded transcript is accessible:

file:///media/victory/TOSHIBA%20EXT/Integral%20USB/Teacher%20interviews/Analysis/Codes%20and%20texts.html

Appendix C

Most frequently mentioned themes

The following table presents themes that were mentioned by at least half of the interviewees (n = 11).

Theme (code name)	How many interviewees mentioned	How extensively (number of words)
ESP	20	927
instrumental motivation	19	704
STOPS	17	1897
SD strategy	15	496
expectations	15	1332
lack of goal	14	471
lack of motivation	14	683
achievement goal	13	727
learning goal	13	351
TG communication	13	589
high achiever	12	542
effort	12	265
self-efficacy	12	370
lack of effort	12	336
relevance	12	659
motivation lost	11	726
TG strategy	11	501
CBLT	11	765
T behavior	11	453
T experience	11	713

Appendix D

Final questionnaire

Kedves Hallgató!

Ez a kérdőív az egyetemünkön folyó szaknyelv-oktatás hatékonyságáról szeretné megtudni a hallgatók véleményét. Ön már több féléve jár az egyetemre, biztosan sok tapasztalatot szerzett a szaknyelv tanulásában.

Személyes véleményére lennék kíváncsi: céljaira, élményeire. Mire számított, amikor elkezdte az egyetemet, és hol tart most a nyelvtanulásban, illetve mit gondol az egyetem által kínált lehetőségekről.

Ez a kérdőív egy átfogó kutatás része: a hallgatókon kívül az oktatók és a duális képzés üzleti partnerei is elmondják majd véleményüket.

Nyugodtan adjon hangot negatív véleményének is, bátorítom az őszinteségre, mert minden kritika előrébb viszi a nyelvtanítás színvonalát.

A kérdőív teljes mértékben anonim, az adatok feldolgozása során minden kérdőív kódszámot kap, az eredeti példányokat csak én látom.

Amennyiben érdekli a kutatás eredménye, szívesen megosztom önnel: a kérdőív végén megadhatja email-címét, amit harmadik félnek nem adok ki, és a kutatás során is elkülönítve kezelem az adattáblától.

Köszönöm, hogy segít, és időt szakít a kérdőív kitöltésére!

2021. november

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Néhány gyakorlati tudnivaló:

- Minden kérdés arra a szaknyelvre vonatkozik, amit **most** tanul.
- Válaszát egy X-szel tudja jelölni.
- A kérdésekre nincs se jó, se rossz válasz: azt jelölje be, ami leginkább kifejezi az ön gondolatait.

Mennyire jellemzőek önre ezek a célok?

Ezeket az állításokat egymástól függetlenül értelmezze, nem kell egymáshoz viszonyítania a válaszokat.

	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
1. A szakmai nyelvvizsga a fő célom.	○	○	○	○	○
2. A munkahelyi szituációkban hatékonyan akarok kommunikálni külföldi kollégáimmal.	○	○	○	○	○
3. Külföldi ügyfelekkel akarok hatékonyan kommunikálni (pl. panaszkezelés).	○	○	○	○	○
4. Rövid, munkahelyi emaileket akarok írni.	○	○	○	○	○
5. Összetettebb, szakmai tárgyú szövegeket akarok írni (pl. beszámolókat).	○	○	○	○	○
6. A szakmai beszélgetéseknek aktív részvevője akarok lenni.	○	○	○	○	○
7. Aktívan részt akarok venni az üzleti tárgyalásokban.	○	○	○	○	○
8. Szeretném megérteni a szakmámmal kapcsolatos előadásokat.	○	○	○	○	○
9. Az a célom, hogy nyelvileg helyesen fejezzem ki magamat.	○	○	○	○	○
10. Külföldön szeretném tanulni a szakmámat.	○	○	○	○	○
11. Szakszövegeket akarok értelmezni.	○	○	○	○	○
12. Az a célom, hogy minél több szakkifejezést megtanuljak.	○	○	○	○	○

Ön szerint mi kell a szaknyelv tanulásában a sikerhez?

	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
13. szorgalom	○	○	○	○	○
14. nyelvérzék	○	○	○	○	○
15. a választott szakma szeretete	○	○	○	○	○
16. kitartás	○	○	○	○	○
17. jó tanár	○	○	○	○	○
18. érdekes órák	○	○	○	○	○
19. szakmailag releváns tananyag	○	○	○	○	○
20. külföldiek között szerzett szakmai tapasztalat	○	○	○	○	○

Mennyire jellemzőek ezek a mondatok önre?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
21. Hasznosnak tartom a szaknyelv tanulását.	○	○	○	○	○
22. Ha nem lenne kötelező, nem járnék szaknyelvi órákra.	○	○	○	○	○
23. Ha tudok, idegen nyelven beszélgetek szakmai témákról más hallgatókkal.	○	○	○	○	○
24. Amikor a tanár feladja a tankönyv szavait, kifejezéseit, megtanulom őket.	○	○	○	○	○
25. Ha van rá lehetőségem, idegen nyelven tanulok tantárgyakat az egyetemen.	○	○	○	○	○
26. Ha találnék a szakmámhoz kapcsolódó idegen nyelvű online tanfolyamot, elvégezném.	○	○	○	○	○
27. Sok energiát fektetek a szaknyelv tanulásába.	○	○	○	○	○
28. Megkönnyebbülés lesz, ha befejezem a szaknyelvi kurzust.	○	○	○	○	○
29. Szeretem a szaknyelvi órákat.	○	○	○	○	○
30. Fölösleges időpazarlásnak tartom a szaknyelv tanulást.	○	○	○	○	○
31. Szívesen tanulom a szaknyelvet.	○	○	○	○	○
32. Ha a szakmámmal kapcsolatos idegen nyelvű szöveget kapok, szívesen elolvasom.	○	○	○	○	○
33. Fontosnak tartom a szaknyelvet mint tantárgyat.	○	○	○	○	○

Mennyire jellemzőek az egyetemi szaknyelvi kurzusokra ezek a célok?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
34. Magas szintű szaknyelvi tudást akar adni.	○	○	○	○	○
35. Általános idegen nyelvi tudást akar adni.	○	○	○	○	○
36. A nyelvi kollokviumra készít fel.	○	○	○	○	○
37. A külföldi kollégákkal való munkahelyi kommunikációra készít fel.	○	○	○	○	○
38. A külföldi ügyfelekkel való kommunikációra készít fel.	○	○	○	○	○
39. Nehezebb szakmai szövegek írására tanít meg.	○	○	○	○	○
40. Szakmai beszélgetésekre akar felkészíteni.	○	○	○	○	○
41. Üzleti tárgyalásokra akar felkészíteni.	○	○	○	○	○
42. A kurzus célja, hogy felkészítsen a szakmai nyelvvizsgára.	○	○	○	○	○
43. Az a célja, hogy szinten tartsa a tudásomat.	○	○	○	○	○
44. Megtanítja, miként tudom a nyelvtudásomat fejleszteni a munkahelyemen.	○	○	○	○	○
45. Szakmai tárgyú szövegek értelmezésére tanít meg.	○	○	○	○	○
46. Szakszavakat akar megtanítani.	○	○	○	○	○
47. A kurzus célja, hogy meg tudjak érteni szakmai témájú előadásokat.	○	○	○	○	○
48. A nyelvhelyességen van a hangsúly.	○	○	○	○	○

Ön szerint a munkahelyi környezetében mennyire lesz szüksége ezekre a készségekre?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
49. Olvasott szöveg értése.	○	○	○	○	○
50. Hallott szöveg értése.	○	○	○	○	○
51. Beszéd.	○	○	○	○	○
52. Írás.	○	○	○	○	○

Mennyire jellemzőek a szaknyelvi órákra ezek az állítások?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
53. A szakmánkra jellemző szituációkat gyakorlunk.	○	○	○	○	○
54. Szakszöveget értelmezünk.	○	○	○	○	○
55. Nyelvtani szabályokat tanulunk, gyakorlunk.	○	○	○	○	○
56. Szakszavakat, kifejezéseket tanulunk, gyakorlunk.	○	○	○	○	○
57. A szakmánkhoz kapcsolódó (releváns) témákat veszünk.	○	○	○	○	○
58. Szakmai jellegű szövegeket írunk (pl. ügyfeleknek szóló email).	○	○	○	○	○
59. Szakmai előadásokat hallgatunk.	○	○	○	○	○
60. Készülünk a kollokviumra.	○	○	○	○	○
61. Nyelvvizsga-feladatokat oldunk meg.	○	○	○	○	○
62. Hallgatói kezdeményezésére veszünk egy anyagot.	○	○	○	○	○
63. Az órát a mi tanulási céljainkhoz igazítja a tanár.	○	○	○	○	○
64. Szakmai témákról vitatkozunk.	○	○	○	○	○
65. Friss információkat kapunk a szakmánkhoz kapcsolódó témákról.	○	○	○	○	○

Most a szaknyelvet tanító nyelvtanárra vonatkozó kérdésekre szeretném, ha válaszolna. Ezek a kérdések nem alkotnak rangsort, önmagukban is értelmezhetőek.

Mennyire fontos, hogy a nyelvtanár...?	Nem fontos	Kevéssé fontos	Részben fontos	Fontos	Nagyon fontos
66. magas szintű nyelvtudással rendelkezzék	○	○	○	○	○
67. lelkesedjen a szakmája iránt	○	○	○	○	○
68. rendszeresen visszajelzést adjon az ön haladásáról	○	○	○	○	○
69. bátorítson	○	○	○	○	○
70. személyre szabottan figyeljen önre	○	○	○	○	○
71. naprakész ismeretekkel rendelkezzen az ön szakterületén	○	○	○	○	○
72. jól ismerje az ön szakterületén előforduló nyelvi helyzeteket (pl. milyen jellegű beszélgetés folyik egy étteremvezető és a beszállító cég vezetője között)	○	○	○	○	○
73. tájékozott legyen a szakmai nyelvvizsgában	○	○	○	○	○
74. változatos tanítási módszerei legyenek	○	○	○	○	○
75. támogassa a hallgatók tanulási céljait	○	○	○	○	○

Jelenlegi nyelvtudása alapján mennyire érzi magát felkészültnek arra, hogy...?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
76. olyan munkahelyre menjen dolgozni, ahol kizárólag idegen nyelven folyik a kommunikáció	○	○	○	○	○
77. külföldi kollégáival megbeszélje a napi teendőket	○	○	○	○	○
78. külföldi ügyfelekkel hatékonyan kommunikáljon	○	○	○	○	○
79. szakmai előadásokat megértsen	○	○	○	○	○
80. munkahelyi emaileket írjon	○	○	○	○	○
81. összetettebb szakmai tárgyú szövegeket írjon	○	○	○	○	○
82. idegen nyelvű szakmai anyagokat értelmezzen	○	○	○	○	○
83. aktívan részt vegyen egy üzleti tárgyaláson	○	○	○	○	○
Az alábbi két kérdésre csak akkor válaszoljon, ha még nincs szakmai nyelvvizsgája abból a nyelvből, amit most tanul.					
84. B2 szintű szakmai nyelvvizsgát tegyen	○	○	○	○	○
85. C1 szintű szakmai nyelvvizsgát tegyen	○	○	○	○	○

Mennyire jelzi az ön számára, hogy sikeres szaknyelv-tanuló?	Egyáltalán nem jellemző	Többnyire nem jellemző	Valamennyire jellemző	Többnyire jellemző	Tökéletesen jellemző
86. Elvégeztem a nyelvi kurzust.	○	○	○	○	○
87. Sikeresen letettem a B2 szintű szakmai nyelvvizsgát.	○	○	○	○	○
88. Sikeresen letettem a C1 szintű szakmai nyelvvizsgát.	○	○	○	○	○
89. Jeles eredménnyel zártam a szaknyelvi kurzust.	○	○	○	○	○
90. Idegen nyelvű munkahelyi környezetben is könnyen és hatékonyan tudok kommunikálni.	○	○	○	○	○
91. Bármilyen szakmai szöveget meg tudok írni idegen nyelven is.	○	○	○	○	○
92. Megértem az írott szakmai anyagokat.	○	○	○	○	○
93. Szakmai témájú előadásokat is megértek.	○	○	○	○	○

Kérem, néhány szóval fejezze be ezt a három mondatot:

94. Az egyetemi szaknyelv-oktatás hiányossága, hogy ...

95. Szerintem a hallgatók szaknyelv-tudását legjobban ezzel lehetne mérni:

96. Az órákon vett tananyagot ezzel a három szóval jellemezném:

Végül néhány kérdésre szeretnék még választ kapni öntől.
Tegyen X-et a választott négyzetbe.

Milyen szakon tanul?

kereskedelem-marketing	turizmus-vendéglátás	emberi erőforrások	gazdálkodási és menedzsment	pénzügy és számvitel	nemzetközi gazdálkodás	nemzetközi tanulmányok

Jelenleg milyen nyelvet tanul az egyetemen?

angol	német	francia	olasz	orosz	más:

Az egyetem előtt hány évig tanulta?

	itt kezdtem	1 – 4	5 – 8	8 +

Az egyetem elkezdésekor milyen nyelvvizsgával rendelkezett?

Nyelv	B2 / emelt szintű érettségi	C1	szakmai B2	szakmai C1

Amióta az egyetemre jár, milyen nyelvvizsgát sikerült letennie?

Nyelv	szakmai B2	szakmai C1	általános B2	általános C1

Hány év szakmai tapasztalattal rendelkezik? Csak azt számolja bele, ami valóban a szakmájához kapcsolódott (akár fizetett, akár önkéntes munka).

Még nem dolgoztam	1 – 6 hónap	7 – 12 hónap	1 – 3 év	3+ év

Kellett bármelyik munkahelyén idegen nyelvet használnia?

	még nem dolgoztam	igen	nem

Az ön neme

	nő	férfi

Születési éve:

Ha érdekli a kutatás eredménye, itt tudja megadni az email-címét: ....

Köszönöm, hogy kitöltötte a kérdőívet!

Dear Students,

This questionnaire is to know your opinion about the effectiveness of languages for specific purposes (LSP) teaching in our university. You have been studying in this university for years, so you must have gained experience in learning languages. I would like to learn about your opinion, goals, experience, your expectations when you started the university, your current situation, and your perspective on the opportunities offered by the university.

I encourage you to voice your criticism, and to be open, because critical feedback can be helpful in improving the level of language teaching. The questionnaire is completely anonymous. Each questionnaire will receive a code number in the data analysis. I will be the sole viewer of the original questionnaires. If you are interested in the results of the research, you can give your email address at the end of the questionnaire. I won't give it to any third party and use it separately from all data.

Thank you for your help and time.

[Researcher's name, email address, phone number; Supervisor's name, email address, phone number]

Practicalities:

Each question is about the LSP you are learning **now**.

Mark your answer with an X.

There is no right or wrong answer. Mark the answer reflecting your thoughts the best.

[Answers: Not typical at all. / Mostly not typical. / Somewhat typical. / Mostly typical. / Absolutely typical.]

How typical are these goals in your case? (Read these as stand-alone statements without relating them to each other.)

1. My main goal is to take the LSP exam.

2. I want to communicate effectively with my colleagues in workplace situations.

3. I want to communicate effectively with foreign clients (e.g., handling complaints).

4. I want to write short work-related emails.

5. I want to write long, complex, and professional texts (e.g., reports).

6. I want to be an active participant of workplace discussions.

7. I want to have an active role in business negotiations.

8. I would like to understand talks relevant to my profession.

9. My goal is to be linguistically accurate.

10. I would like to learn my profession abroad.

11. I would like to interpret professional texts.

12. My goal is to learn as many terms as possible.

What are the necessary ingredients of success in learning LSP?

13. hard work

14. aptitude

15. love of your future profession

16. perseverance

17. a good teacher

18. interesting classes

19. professionally relevant course material

20. professional work experience gained among foreigners

To what extent are these statements true for you?

21. I find learning LSP useful.

22. If it wasn't obligatory, I wouldn't go to LSP classes.

23. If I can, I use another language when I discuss professional issues with foreign students.

24. Whenever the teacher gives a list of words from the book, I learn them.

25. If I have the opportunity, I learn subjects in a foreign language at the university.

26. If I found a relevant online course in another language, I would enroll.

27. I put a lot of effort into learning LSP.

28. I will be relieved when I have completed the LSP course.

29. I like LSP classes.

30. Learning LSP is a waste of time.

31. I like learning LSP.

32. When I get a relevant text in another language, I am eager to read it.

33. LSP is an important subject.

To what extent are these statements true for university LSP courses?

34. It wants to teach high level of LSP.

35. It wants to teach high level of language.

36. It prepares you for the final exam.

37. It teaches you how to communicate with our foreign colleagues.

38. It teaches you how to communicate with our foreign clients.

39. It teaches to write complex professional texts.

40. It teaches you professional communication.

41. It teaches you how to communicate in meetings.

42. It is a language exam preparation course.

43. It wants to maintain my proficiency.

44. It teaches you how to improve my language skills at workplace situations.

45. It teaches how to interpret professional texts.

46. It teaches technical terms.

47. It teaches you to understand professional talks.

48. Accuracy is highlighted.

To what extent will you need these skills:

49. Reading

50. Listening

51. Speaking

52. Writing

To what extent are these statements true for LSP classes?

53. We are practicing relevant situations.

54. We are interpreting relevant texts.

55. We are learning and practicing grammar rules.

56. We are learning and practicing technical terms, idioms.

57. We are discussing relevant topics.

58. We are writing relevant texts (e.g., an email to a client).

59. We are listening to professionally relevant talks.

60. We are preparing for the final exam.

61. We are doing language exam tasks.

62. We are learning a topic on a student's recommendation.

63. The classes are adjusted to our goals.

64. We have debates on professionally relevant topics.

65. We are receiving up-to-date information about professionally relevant topics.

There are some questions about LSP teachers. Answer the questions independently, you don't have to rank them.

To what extent is it important for language teachers…?

66. to have high command of the language

67. to be enthusiastic about their profession

68. to give regular feedback on your progress

69. to encourage you

70. to pay undivided attention to you

71. to have up-to-date information about your profession

72. to be aware of communication situations in your profession (e.g., what kind of discussion happens between a chef and a waiter)

73. to be well-informed about the language exam

74. to have a wide repertoire of teaching methods

75. to support students' goals

Seeing your current proficiency, to what extent do you feel prepared…

76. to work in a place where communication happens solely in another language?

77. to discuss your daily tasks with foreign colleagues?

78. to communicate effectively with foreign clients?

79. to understand professional talks?

80. to write work emails?

81. to write complex professional texts?

82. to interpret professional materials in another language?

83. to be an active participant of a meeting?

Answer the following questions if you don't have an LSP language exam of the language you are currently learning.

84. to take a B2 level LSP exam

85. to take a C1 level LSP exam

What are the sure signs of being a successful LSP learner?

86. You have completed the language course.

87. You have passed the B2 level LSP exam.

88. You have passed the B2 level LSP exam.

89. You receive a top grade at the end of the course.

90. I can communicate effectively and easily in a foreign language in a workplace situation.

91. You can write up any professional text in another language.

92. You can understand written professional materials.

93. I can understand professional talks.

Please complete the following sentences with a couple of words.

94. The problem with teaching LSP at the university is...

95. I think LSP competencies can be best measured by…

96. I would describe the classroom materials with three words…

Finally, I would like you to answer to these questions.

What major are you doing now?

Commerce and Marketing / Tourism / HR / Management / Finance /

International Management / International Studies

What language are you learning now at the university?

English / German / French / Italian / Russian / Other: ….

How long had you been learning it before you started the university?

I started here / 1–4 / 5–8 / 8+

What type of language certificate(s) did you have when you started the university?

Language / Level

What type of language certificate(s) have you had since you started the university?

Language / Level

How much relevant work experience do you have? (paid and voluntary jobs)

I don't have any work experience / 1–6 months / 7–12 months / 1–3 years / 3+

years

Did you have to use a foreign language at your workplace? Yes / No

Your gender: Female / Male

Year of birth:

If you are interested in the results of the research, you can give your email address

here:

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

Appendix E

Distribution of language certificates by languages

Owned at the time of admission

Language	Level	Type[a]	Total
English	B2		303
English	C1		69
English	B2	SP	4
English	C1	SP	2
German	B2		97
German	C1		24
German	B2	SP	1
French	B2		5
French	C1		3
French	B2	SP	1
Italian	B2		7
Spanish	B2		3
Croatian	C1		1
Dutch	C1		1
Japanese	B2		1
Romany	B2		1
Slovakian	B2		1
Slovakian	C1		1
			528

[a] SP = specialized

Obtained since admission

Language	Level	Type[a]	Total
English	B2		3
English	C1		7
English	B2	SP	8
German	B2		4
German	C1		3
German	B2	SP	5
French	B2		1
Spanish	B2		1
Croatian	C1		1
			33

[a] SP = specialized

Appendix F

VIF values for regression analyses

Intended effort (dependent variable)

	VIF
Attitude	1.353
Student goals	1.616
Attributions	1.154
Target skills	1.461

Student goals (dependent variable)

	VIF
Intended effort	1.443
Course goals	1.337
Target skills	1.233
Self-assessment	1.266
Attitude	1.523

Self-assessment (dependent variable)

	VIF
Intended effort	1.442
Course goals	2.009
Classroom practice	2.027
Student goals	1.799
Target skills	1.462

Course goals (dependent variable)

	VIF
Attitude	1.463
Intended effort	1.413
Self-assessment	1.204
Classroom practice	1.27

Appendix G

Clusters Means Plots

Attitude

Means Plots
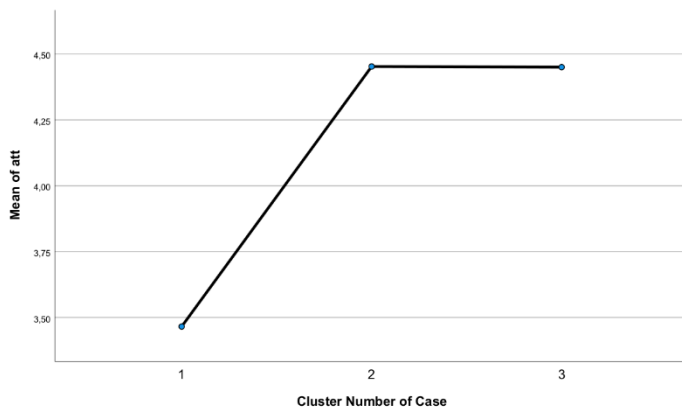
Intended effort

Means Plots
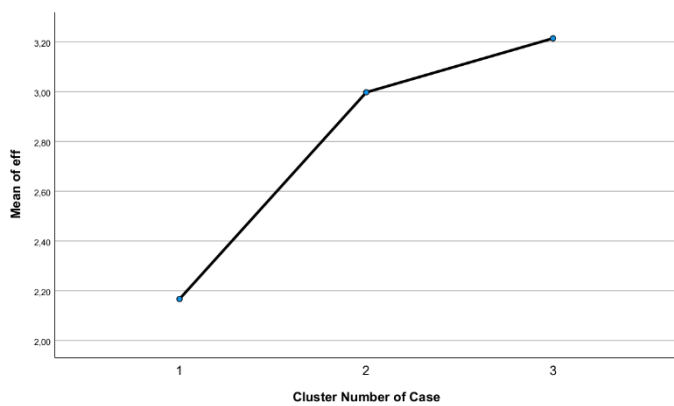
Self-assessment

Means Plots