Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Different Testing and Vocabulary Types
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Abstract. Vocabulary knowledge is an essential skill for language users to understand and use a language correctly. For teachers, it is useful to be able to test this knowledge from various aspects: meaning, word forms, collocations and the ability of students to surmise the meanings of unknown words from the context. The type of test is provided depends on the purpose of testing. Perhaps the most important reason of testing is to find out how well students have mastered the language skills which they were taught and help them solve occurring problems. The article aims to analyze different methods of vocabulary testing as well as two vocabulary types, academic and technical. In addition, the study tries to determine how these testing and vocabulary types are related to the number of mistakes students make in a test and to find out students’ opinion about difficulties they experience in relation to different testing types and factors influencing tests results. The theoretical background of the article is largely based on theoretical material on vocabulary testing, its methods, vocabulary types, passive and active vocabulary knowledge while the practical part includes the questionnaire data. The analysis of the data has revealed that academic vocabulary and its usage cause more problems to learners than the technical one, and that the most difficult task types are word building, definition making and collocation tasks.

Keywords: vocabulary testing, academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary, testing methods, active/passive vocabulary knowledge, contextualized/de-contextualized vocabulary.

Introduction

Learning vocabulary in C1 courses at University is a rather challenging task for students. Helping to develop this knowledge is not an easily attained target for teachers too. Vocabulary in C1 courses includes academic words and technical terms. In order to master these items learners, first of all, have to have good knowledge of general English and at least some understanding of the speciality field too. Moreover, specific vocabulary requires not only more sophisticated teaching methods but more considerate testing methods as well.

Students at Kaunas University of Technology are taught English for specific purposes (ESP) in level C1 depending on their field of study: informatics, fundamental sciences, mechanics, telecommunications, etc. Thus, during the courses they gain competence in the field related terminology along with academic vocabulary which is necessary for such skills as summary writing on a specific subject, analyzing scientific articles, giving presentations on speciality oriented topics, etc. To ensure fluent usage of ESP and academic vocabulary in a related discourse learners are given a lot of practice and testing.

Testing is one of major means that contributes to determining if students have learned and understood the new vocabulary and that they will be able to use it in the context correctly. Still, to get the real view of material acquisition, it is necessary to choose appropriate testing methods which are impartial and reliable.

The aim of the study is to analyze vocabulary testing methods and academic and technical vocabulary types. The study intends, firstly, to ascertain if different vocabulary testing methods can have any influence on the number of mistakes students make in the test. Secondly, if the number of mistakes can depend on the usage of different vocabulary types, such as technical and academic. And finally, what students’ opinion is on different testing methods/types and what factors they see as important for the result they get.

Theoretical Background

Students learning the second language have to acquire a lot of knowledge in grammar and vocabulary but vocabulary is considered to be the main element of mastering the language (Schmitt, 2010b, p. 4). Wilkins defined it very straight that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (1972, p. 111). Similarly, Laufer et al. in their article Size and strength: do we need both to measure vocabulary knowledge? (2004) emphasize word meaning as a key feature for perception of any language. They provide the example stating that if a student knows what evidence means, but does not know that it is a singular noun and uses it grammatically incorrectly in a sentence he will still be understood, in spite of the grammatical error. On the other hand, if a student knows this grammatical peculiarity but confuses its meaning with avoidance, he or she will experience “a breakdown in communication”. Thus, communicability and comprehension are likely to be compromised if the learner’s vocabulary knowledge is deficient (Milton & Donzelli, 2013, p. 441) and for this reason vocabulary learning and testing is an essential part of the curriculum.
Testing itself can be defined in various ways. The definition specifies testing as a

practice and study of evaluating the proficiency of an individual in using a particular language effectively (http://languagetesting.info/whatis/lt.html).

On a broad scale, language tests are very important tools that serve as gateways not only at transitional moments in education or employment but also in moving from one country to another (McNamara, 2000, pp.4–5). On a smaller scale, for example during the course of study achievement tests, which are sometimes called progress tests, are taken to check the students’ understanding of the material and the progress they have achieved as a result of teaching. Hence testing is, as Heaton (1990, p. 79) notes, a good guide to reading ability and learners’ understanding not only of the meaning of separate words but also their awareness how to use them in collocations with other words.

The reasons for testing might be indicated as the aim to select or place students, find out about progress, encourage students, find out about learning difficulties, achievement or proficiency (Heaton, 1990, pp. 9–17). Tests not only show students whether they have improved language skills but also give them motivation to study harder if the results of a test are not perfect and to feel satisfaction for those with excellent results. What is more, the feedback is necessary and useful for both learners and teachers. Summing up these reasons it is possible to state that there are three main ones: 1) to define the level of knowledge, 2) to indicate learner’s ability to understand and use a language and 3) to help to find solutions to possible problems (McNamara, 2000; Pavlu, 2009).

At Kaunas University of Technology testing is mainly used for these reasons: to establish the level of the students at the beginning of each course, to check their progress during the period of study at regular intervals and to evaluate overall achievement of language knowledge at the end of the course. To stream students into different levels there are placement tests used; to measure progress during the course, the so called informal testing (Thornbury, 2002) is used to revise vocabulary of the previous lecture and the tests are written after each or several units; at the end of the semester the students are given a final test based on the entire course material.

Testing can be divided into many different categories and subcategories but primarily, tests can be grouped into standardized and non-standardized. The former being prepared by professionals and, for this reason, supposed to be highly reliable while the latter being created by teachers themselves that makes them less reliable (Pavlu, 2009). Thus reliability and validity are supposed to be very important principles in testing (Schmitt, 2010b; Pavlu, 2009; Hughes, 2003).

Different authors present various patterns of vocabulary division, for example, Schmitt (2010b, p. 75) suggests bringing them under such categories as word class, content and function words, frequency (e.g. high-frequency vocabulary), written and spoken vocabulary, formulaic sequences, general vocabulary, technical vocabulary and academic vocabulary. Others allocate words to such main groups as non-technical or general, academic, semi-technical and technical (Nation & Coxhead, 2001).

However, the key problem is not only about the distinguishable groups but also about how these groups are defined by the researchers. For example, Mona Baker (1988) in her article Sub-Technical Vocabulary and the ESP Teacher: An Analysis of Some Rhetorical Items in Medical Journal Articles uses the name “sub-technical” and explains it as vocabulary “used for rhetorical/organizational purposes in specialized genres” (p. 91). Later on different views are presented explaining “sub-technical” words as having meanings common in several disciplines, e.g. factor and method; or words having different meanings in separate disciplines, like the word morphological that means a different thing for a linguist and a botanist; or words having general and specialized meaning, like bug in computer science and everyday language (Baker, 1988, p. 92). Tim Johns and Tony Dudley-Evans (1980) refer to this kind of vocabulary as “semi-technical” defining it as technicalised vocabulary used in ESP. Michael Wallace (1983) describes it as vocabulary items learners have already met in other literature before seeing them in scientific and technical texts. Nation and Coxhead (2001, 2000) in some of his books attributes sub-technical vocabulary as part of academic corpus. This study mainly focuses on two main groups such as academic and technical because students in level C1 generally deal with these vocabulary categories.

Academic vocabulary is essentially known as useful scientific vocabulary (Barber, 1962), and academic vocabulary lists include words that are commonly used in academic texts but are not so common elsewhere. Academic vocabulary is considered to be very useful and important, as it is used in a wide range of academic texts that need to be studied by students. In addition to this, Nation (2000, p. 309) states that “context-independent” words are “an important tool of the writer in doing learned and scientific things”. A small scale study by Cohen and Aphek (1979) showed that academic vocabulary might not be as well known as technical vocabulary and that understanding and using it might cause some problems for the learners. This can happen if they have not carried out any academic study in their native language and have not had enough practice with the appropriate range of academic discourse. That is why students need to be taught not only simple lists of words but to gain their experience in real context.

Technical vocabulary is usually defined as a type of vocabulary learned in “the course of the study of a particular field” (Schmitt, 2010b, p. 78). Therefore lists of technical words differ from subject area to subject area. Technical vocabulary is supposed to be easily learned because such words have a fixed meaning. Another reason pointed by the same Schmitt (2010b) why it is easier to learn technical terms than other words, particularly for the speakers of Romance languages is that technical words are usually of Latin origin, which makes them easily recognizable. On the other hand, technical vocabulary is that area where teachers can have problems because of the
lack of background knowledge of the subject (Nation, 2000). A group of technical terms is especially useful for learners with specific goals in language use, such as reading academic texts in a particular discipline, writing technical reports, or participating in subject specific conferences.

Measuring depth of students’ active and passive knowledge of academic or technical vocabulary different types of tasks can be used, such as multiple choice, cloze test, dictation, true/false, questions and answers, gap-filling, transformation, rewriting, matching, error correction, essay, translation, rearranging words, information transfer, etc. This research will only focus on five types: gap filling, word building, collocations, multiple choice and definitions matching because these were used to check learners’ active words during the study course.

COBUILD dictionary provides a gap filling definition according to which a gap-fill test is an exercise in which words are removed from a text and replaced with spaces. The learner has to fill each space with the missing word or a suitable word. This type of testing is sometimes mixed with a cloze but the main difference is that in a cloze more than one option is possible while in gap filling usually there is only one possibility.

Word building which, in some literature, is also called word formation is defined by DICTIONARY.COM as the formation of a word by changing the form of the base or by adding affixes to it. Ishii and Schmitt (2009) argue that even advanced students might “have limited awareness of the different derivative forms of a word” because of incomplete knowledge of all word family members. Hence, while performing word building tasks in tests level C1 learners have to demonstrate deep knowledge of language: perception of the meaning itself, awareness of the necessary written form and grammatical characteristics of a word as well as understanding of contextual associations.

Collocation, according to OXFORD DICTIONARY (http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/) is the habitual juxtaposition of a particular word with another word or words with a frequency greater than chance, or as a pair or group of words that are habitually juxtaposed. Nation in his book Learning Vocabulary in Another Language (2000) speaks about collocation as about information expressed by words in the immediate neighbourhood of a word. Richard Nordquist states that

> the size of a collocational range is partially determined by a word's level of specificity and number of meanings (n.d.).

In order to use collocations correctly the contextual knowledge, which can involve situational context, topical context and local context is essential (Nation, 2000, p. 74), as well as the knowledge of grammar, semantics and a register (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). The importance of collocations is especially stressed by Nation (2000, pp. 522–523) who puts the equals sign between language knowledge and collocational knowledge and argues that it is required for fluent language. Webb and Sasao (2013) maintain that learners often know words but are unable to use them properly because “they do not know their collocates”.

Multiple choice is a task which consists of a so called stem and several (usually four) options from which only one is correct. These wrong items used are called distracters and the best ones for vocabulary items are either words with similar meaning to the correct word but which are inappropriate in context, or words that are contextually related but which do not fit in the context (McNamara, 2000). It is supposed to be a rather easy method to test students’ knowledge, as this test type can be easily checked. But on the other hand, as Hughes (2003) points out, it might be a little bit subjective as reliability is only 33%, and a teacher cannot be sure if a student knows the word or if it was a guess work.

The last testing type relevant to this study is definition matching. It can be performed in various ways but most often there are two columns with words used and learners have to find the right pair. Matching tasks can be used to test students’ knowledge from many different aspects such as synonyms or antonyms, but it is particularly good for testing definitions. The tested words can be given the equal number of words or definitions to be matched with or sometimes it might be useful to provide more items than possible matches. Why do we use definition matching? One of many reasons, as it is stated by S.M. Knight (1994), is because word definitions are good means to increase and enhance vocabulary learning. R. Ellis (1995) also supports this opinion, especially pointing out the usefulness of short, simple and unambiguous definitions.

A number of researchers (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Pavlo, 2009; Schmitt, 2010b and Thornbury, 2002) suggest dividing vocabulary knowledge into passive and active. Nevertheless, there is much discussion among different authors what passive and what active knowledge is. Active involvement is mainly associated with speaking and writing skills, while passive is related to reading and listening. Some linguists argue that passive knowledge can be tested by asking translation of the tested words and for active knowledge a teacher should ask to provide synonyms or antonyms of the word, or to paraphrase it (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). Others consider translation to be active knowledge as test-takers have to produce something by themselves. Laufer and Goldstein (2004) especially stress the differences among learners to produce the L2 word by themselves, which is considered to be active knowledge, and to provide the meaning only when the word is already given, which is supposed to be passive knowledge. Moreover, they distinguish between the ability to produce a form of a word independently and to recognize the given form or meaning in some contexts (pp. 404–405). Thus, generalizing the above indicated statements it is possible to claim that the distinction between active and passive knowledge is quite an arbitrary issue.

In this research, the active vocabulary is considered to be such, which can be actively used by students recalling the meaning, forms and collocations, when students are able not only to translate it into L1 but to explain it in L2 producing either the definitions or synonyms. On the
contrary passive vocabulary is the one that can be recognized in a context but is not actively used. Though the provided tests mainly contained active vocabulary, which was distinguished in the texts and tasks as key words and phrases, the tests’ format used, in most cases, required passive recognition because students did not have to provide words themselves but they were given several items to choose from (Thornbury, 2002), which was easier for both the teachers to test and for the testees to do.

Tests can also be contextualized and de-contextualized. The contextualized ones check the understanding of the words with the help of a context whereas de-contextualized testing is used to test words without any context (Pavlu, 2009). Even though it is arguable which tests contextualized or de-contextualized have greater validity (Laufer et al., 2004) testing, which is used for level C1 language learners at Kaunas University of Technology, is mostly contextualized because they are required to demonstrate sophisticated language knowledge and skills. Due to this reason the meaning of a word is tested in a context rather than in isolation because contextual testing helps explicitly show learners’ ability to understand connotative suitability of a word for certain context (Schmitt, 2010a).

Methodology

The study was carried out as a small scale analysis combining qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches. The participants were 72 students of informatics and chemical technology in their second and third year of study at Kaunas University of Technology. The former tasks were compiled by university teachers and informal testing with the key vocabulary which was taken from two course books. The first one is Advanced Market Leader (2011) and the second is a textbook English for Students of Chemical Technology for chemistry students and English for Students of Computer Science for students of informatics. In the Market Leader (2011) the main attention is focused on the academic vocabulary whereas text books are intended for practicing speciality vocabulary. Various tasks were performed to learn, improve and to consolidate the necessary words, including all four skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking. Furthermore different task types were used: sentence completion, translation, odd one out, cloze tests, synonyms and many more. In addition to class work the learners had to practice in a virtual Moodle class on their own.

Hence the first question in this study focused on the testing techniques used in practice. It sought to determine the effectives of each method. Five testing methods, which have been presented in the “Theoretical Background” section in more detail, were used. These were: gap filling, word building, collocations, multiple choice and definitions matching. To ensure validity and reliability multiple choice, gap filling, word building and collocations tasks were taken from the Market Leader test book; and definitions matching were created by several teachers. All these task types were based only on academic vocabulary to be sure that mistakes were not caused by different vocabulary types. Each task consisted of 10 questions.

As it is shown in Figure 1, the biggest number of mistakes was made in word building. On average a student made about 6 mistakes. The second most difficult test task was definition matching where about 4 mistakes were made in the task and collocations with 3 mistakes per person. Multiple choice and gap filling respectively had the smallest number of mistakes, i.e. approximately 2 mistakes per task.

The next important issue was to establish which vocabulary type causes more mistakes. The learners were given two tasks (10 questions each) with technical and two tasks (also 10 questions each) with academic vocabulary. The former tasks were compiled by university teachers

Results and Discussion

Before taking a test C1 level students had a lot of practice and informal testing with the key vocabulary which was
while the latter were taken from the Market Leader test book. Figure 2 illustrates the number of errors made according to different vocabulary types. The total average number of mistakes made in the technical vocabulary tasks was 6 mistakes and 8 mistakes in academic vocabulary. These results can be defined as anticipated because this finding coincides with earlier studies of other authors that pointed out academic vocabulary as more difficult than the technical one.

![Figure 2. The average number of errors students made in different vocabulary types](image)

At the beginning of the course before writing any tests students were given to answer two questions in order to ascertain their opinion on difficulties related to different testing types and different vocabulary types. The questions presented to them were:

1. Which type of tasks is the easiest and which is the most difficult for you? (Please mark all the given types according to the difficulty from 1 to 5; 1 – the most difficult, 5 – the easiest).
   a) Gap filling
   b) Multiple Choice
   c) Collocations (word pairs or word groups)
   d) Word Building
   e) Matching Definitions

2. Which vocabulary type is easier for you?
   a) Academic Vocabulary (e.g. assume, conceptalize, define, estimate, etc)
   b) Technical (e.g. Fortran, megabyte, hypotenuse)

After students had written the test they were asked to comment on the real difficulties that they had. This question was:

3. What caused the biggest difficulty in the test?
   a) Testing methods used. If yes, underline which one: matching definitions, word building, collocations, gap filling, multiple choice
   b) Vocabulary type. If yes, underline which one: academic or technical
   c) Lack of knowledge
   d) Other (point out)

From Table 1 it can be seen how learners evaluated the difficulty levels of different task types before they wrote the test. Here, in total evaluation, the smallest number shows the most difficult task level while the biggest number indicated the easiest task level. Student based this evaluation on their previous experience with the tests. Thus, according to students’ opinion, the most difficult task was supposed to be gap filling, slightly less difficult tasks were related to collocations and word building and multiple choice with definition matching were viewed as the easiest tasks.

It is interesting to note here that if we compare the real number of mistakes made in the test with what students thought to be difficult and easy tasks we will be able to see inconsistency between the two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Easiness point</th>
<th>A gap filling</th>
<th>B multiple choice</th>
<th>C collocations</th>
<th>D word building</th>
<th>E definition matching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (the most difficult)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (the easiest)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, the first position stands for the biggest number of mistakes and the most difficult task. Thus, even though word building had the biggest number of mistakes, it was regarded as moderately difficult. While definition matching was evaluated as the easiest task, the number of mistakes made in it was high (second position). The most clear-cut credibility was between mistakes (fewest) made in gap filling and attribution of it to the most difficult
tasks. Adequacy in number of mistakes and difficulty level could be viewed only in multiple choice and, with a slight deviation, in collocations tasks.

Table 2. Comparison of number of mistakes and difficulty level of the tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of mistakes made in five tasks</th>
<th>Difficulty level of five tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Word building</td>
<td>1 Gap filling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Definition matching</td>
<td>2 Collocations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Collocations</td>
<td>3 Word building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Multiple choice</td>
<td>4 Multiple choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Gap filling</td>
<td>5 Definition matching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to answer the question why there was such a difference between students’ evaluation (or anticipated results) and factual number of mistakes two additional tasks were prepared. The students were given a gap filling task and a definition matching task (10 questions each) with technical vocabulary. The obtained results were compared with the previous results of the same tasks given to check academic vocabulary.

The graphical representations of the results shown in Figure 3 could lead to the assumption that the big number of mistakes made in definition matching might be related to vocabulary type because academic definition matching was a greater challenge to the students than technical one. These results comply with the findings of other studies, in which it was stated that technical terms usually do not cause greater problems for learners but the academic vocabulary could be more difficult for them. However, contrary to expectations, this comparison of the results has not answered the question why the students thought gap filling to be the most difficult task.

![Figure 3](image_url)

Figure 3. The average number of errors students made in gap filling and definition matching tasks with different vocabulary types

The comparison of obtained results and students’ expectations on which vocabulary type might cause more difficulties, once again, showed some discrepancy. The students pointed out that they feel more competent in academic vocabulary than in the technical one. The reason for this result is not clear but it may have something to do with learners mistrust in their ability to use technical terms correctly because they had just started dealing with this new field.

Surprisingly enough, after writing the test and pointing out the real difficulties they had encountered in it the students named gap filling as the biggest difficulty in the test (12 respondents) once again. An additional review of the tests has partially helped to answer the question why a number of mistakes made in the test were relatively small; nevertheless rather a big number of students indicated this task as problematic. It proved to be due to the fact that namely 12 testees made the biggest number of mistakes this gap filling task while others made no mistakes. Thus, the average number of mistakes in all the tests was not big but it was rather big only in those mentioned ones. Word building was mentioned as difficult only by a few (only 6 answers). Vocabulary type was indicated as having caused some difficulties but academic one was not distinguished as being more difficult because 8 people pointed out academic and the same number of respondents named technical vocabulary. 18 students indicated that main problems were due to the lack of knowledge and others distinguished other important issues among which the main was grammar, not enough preparation for the test and lack of general vocabulary that prevented their perception.

Conclusions

The present study was designed to determine how different testing types and different vocabulary types are related to the number of mistakes students make in a test. In addition, one more objective was pursued with the present study which was to find out students’ opinion on different testing types and what factors they consider to be important for the result they get.

To sum up the essential theoretical points it is possible to state that the main types of vocabulary that students deal with in C1 level are mainly academic and technical or specialized. As previous research of other linguists showed (Nation, 2000 and Schmitt, 2010b), learners experience more problems using academic words correctly rather than the technical ones. In order to check the acquisition of new vocabulary, either academic or technical, different task types can be used such as translation, gap filling, word building, collocations, etc. All of these tasks have advantages and drawbacks. Thus, to ensure the evaluation objectivity different tasks should be applied in tests.

Taken together, the results of the practical part suggest that according to the different types of tasks the most difficult or causing most problems were word building, definition making and collocation tasks. Comparison of academic and technical vocabulary tasks supports the providence made by many linguists that academic words and their usage elicit more problems to learners than the technical ones. One unexpected finding in this research was that the opinion and anticipated results of the students, in most cases, did not coincide with the factual results of the test. On the one hand this factor could be seen as the limitation of this study but, on the other hand, this might be seen as the possibility to perform a deeper investigation into this matter. The difficulties indicated by the students prove the assumptions made by other linguists that the knowledge of...
a language is the whole of various components and that everything is closely related together. Due to this reason it is possible to state that the greater variety of tasks are given to the students in a test, the better and more objectively it is possible to evaluate the knowledge of learners.

The results of this research have also indicated some guidelines how the teaching of vocabulary should be arranged in an ESP course of English. Such courses should attune acquisition of specialized and academic vocabulary competence with special attention paid to the latter one.

References


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Įvairių testavimo ir žodžio tipų teoriniai ir praktiniai aspektai
Santrauka

Žodžio žinios yra esminis kalbos vartotojų gebėjimas ne tik suprasti, bet ir taisyklingai varti kalbą. Dėstantiems kalbą yra svarbus jos tokių įvairių aspektų testavimas, kaip žodžių reikšmės, bei besimokančiųjų gebėjimo nusprendimas išlaikyti nežinomo žodžių reikšmes iš konteksto. Studentams pateikiami testai, kurie yra specializuoti ir kokologinės šeimos terminologijos, kad studentai apie tai, ką jie teigė, gali priimti atitinkamą reakciją, o tokių testų rezultatai yra siauresni nei atitinkami testai, kurie yra suremontuoti ir kurių rezultatai yra aiškūs ir suprantami. Tokie testai gali būti naudingi studentams, kurie nori plinti savo kalbos mokymo lygme.
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