

From Sports Terminology to Professional Communication: A Multisite Quasi-Experimental Study of an Integrated ESP–CLIL–EMI–TBLT Model

JAXONGIR ABDISALIMOVICH KENJABAYEV
Termez State University, Uzbekistan

ABSTRACT

Professional English courses for sports majors often struggle to move learners from knowing isolated terminology to using specialized language under the time, role, and decision-making pressures of real professional communication. This study evaluates an integrated English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), English-medium Instruction (EMI), and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) model in undergraduate sports education. A multisite quasi-experimental pretest–posttest control-group design was implemented across three universities in Uzbekistan. The pooled sample comprised 360 first-year sports-activity students, with 180 students in the experimental condition and 180 in the control condition. The intervention organized sports terminology as a didactic core and moved learners through a recurring cycle of needs-based terminology activation, content-language integration, scaffolded English-medium input, authentic professional tasks, reflection, assessment, and transfer. Outcomes were assessed through a 100-point multidimensional framework covering terminology, listening, speaking, reading, writing, situational appropriateness, and professional transfer. Baseline scores did not differ significantly between groups ($M_{exp} = 3.722$, $M_{con} = 3.739$; $t = -0.212$, $p = .8321$). At the intermediate stage, the difference favored the experimental group (4.039 vs. 3.789; $t = 3.168$, $p = .0017$, $d = .334$), and at the final stage the gap

widened (4.283 vs. 3.828; $t = 5.898$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2 = 32.195$, $p < .001$, $d = .622$). Relative growth was 15.07% in the experimental group and 2.38% in the control group, with a difference-in-differences estimate of 0.472. The findings suggest that specialized terminology becomes more educationally powerful when treated not as a vocabulary list but as a resource for accomplishing authentic disciplinary tasks. The study offers a replicable model for ESP course design in sports and other professionally oriented higher-education contexts.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes; sports English; professional communicative competence; CLIL; EMI; task-based language teaching; terminology; quasi-experimental design

1. INTRODUCTION

The internationalization of sport has expanded the communicative demands placed on coaches, athletes, referees, sport managers, analysts, and media professionals. Professional interaction increasingly crosses linguistic borders: a coach may need to brief an international squad, an athlete may respond to a post-match interview, a referee may explain a decision, and a sport manager may negotiate schedules, events, or partnerships in English. For students in sports-related degree programs, English therefore has value not merely as a general academic subject but as a working resource for accessing disciplinary knowledge and participating in professional communities.

This distinction is central to English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In the classic learning-centered formulation of Hutchinson & Waters (1987), ESP begins with the reasons learners need English, while later work has emphasized the importance of needs analysis, genre, discourse, materials design, and authentic target situations (Basturkmen 2010; Dudley-Evans & St John 1998; Hyland 2006). The practical consequence is that a sports student should not encounter English as an abstract inventory of grammatical structures and translated terms. The course should instead ask what the learner will need to do with English: explain

a tactical change, interpret a training plan, report an injury-prevention procedure, write a match report, participate in a press conference, or respond appropriately to a referee or athlete.

Recent studies reinforce the need for this shift. Work with sport-science students has shown that specialized vocabulary, professionally relevant materials, and task relevance are valued by learners and stakeholders (Dou, Chan & Thein 2024; Gómez-Ortiz, Domínguez Romero & Bobkina 2023; Penjak 2024; Ropa & Malahova 2023; Vahdat et al. 2023). Yet much sports-ESP practice still treats terminology as a preparatory lexical layer rather than as a resource to be mobilized in disciplinary reasoning and professional interaction. This produces a familiar gap: students may recognize terms such as formation, rebound, rotation, recovery, or injury prevention but remain hesitant when required to use them in spontaneous explanations, role-based interaction, or written professional genres.

A second challenge is methodological fragmentation. ESP can establish needs and specialized language; CLIL can integrate disciplinary content and language; EMI can increase exposure to English as a medium for processing content; and TBLT can organize language use around goal-oriented tasks. However, these approaches are often implemented separately. Their theoretical purposes differ, and uncritical combination can produce method labels without a coherent learning mechanism. The present study therefore treats integration as functional differentiation rather than simple accumulation: ESP identifies professional needs and terminology; CLIL links that language to sports content; scaffolded EMI creates controlled English-medium disciplinary input; and TBLT requires students to use the resulting resources to complete authentic communicative tasks.

The study is based on a doctoral research program conducted in Uzbekistan across three higher-education institutions. It tests a model in which sports terminology serves as the didactic core of a cycle moving from professional need to terminology, content, communicative task, reflection, assessment, and professional transfer. The central claim is deliberately narrow: terminology contributes to professional communicative competence when

learners repeatedly move it from receptive recognition into context-sensitive, purpose-driven performance.

The study addresses three research questions: (RQ1) Does an integrated ESP–CLIL–EMI–TBLT model produce greater gains in professional communicative competence than the existing instructional approach? (RQ2) Does the experimental advantage increase across the diagnostic, formative/intermediate, and final stages of the study? (RQ3) How can the observed quantitative gains be interpreted in relation to the model's design features—especially authentic sports tasks, multidimensional assessment, and professional transfer?

2. CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1. *Sports ESP: From lexical relevance to professional action*

Needs analysis has long distinguished ESP from general English because specialized courses are justified by the communicative demands of a particular academic or occupational community. In sports education, those demands are diverse. Learners may need everyday interaction, technical vocabulary, reading of sport-science texts, coaching discourse, injury-prevention language, media communication, and event-management genres. Dou et al. (2024), drawing on students, graduates, teachers, and administrators, argue that sport-science learners require English tied to immediate academic and future professional needs rather than a general college-English curriculum alone. Similar needs-analysis work in sports science has identified the importance of field-specific vocabulary and productive skills (Vahdat et al. 2023).

The lexical dimension remains important because specialized communication depends on efficient access to concepts. However, specialized words are not fully learned when they can only be translated. Professional use requires knowledge of collocation, semantic precision, pragmatic force, genre, and context. Earlier work by Kenjabayev (2020, 2021) emphasized the development of oral competence through sports terminology. Subsequent studies addressed communicative exercise systems, internet-mediated oral-speech development, digital-resource-

supported teaching, sport-related lexical organization, and linguocultural dimensions of sports terminology (Kenjabayev, 2023a, 2023b, 2023c, 2024, 2025). The present study extends that line by operationalizing terminology across listening, speaking, reading, writing, and transfer rather than treating it as an isolated vocabulary outcome.

This distinction aligns with broader ESP research showing that technical vocabulary learning improves when words are embedded in meaningful tasks and domain-relevant materials. Gómez-Ortiz et al. (2023), for example, used a project-based Instagram activity with sports-science students and reported positive learner perceptions regarding technical vocabulary development. Ropa & Malahova (2023) similarly found that sports and health-science students perceived consistent gains in field-related vocabulary and reading across online and face-to-face formats, while speaking remained more challenging. Taken together, these studies suggest that vocabulary relevance is necessary but not sufficient: productive professional communication requires structured opportunities to use specialized language under communicative pressure. Recent terminographic research in another specialized domain likewise shows that professional concepts are best interpreted through their semantic relations, discourse contexts, and evolving patterns of use rather than as isolated labels (Mirjonov et al. 2025).

2.2. *Functional integration of ESP, CLIL, EMI, and TBLT*

The model evaluated here is built on four approaches with distinct functions. ESP supplies the needs-based logic for selecting target situations, genres, and terminology (Basturkmen 2010; Hutchinson & Waters 1987). CLIL contributes the principle that language and disciplinary content can be learned through a shared task, commonly conceptualized through content, communication, cognition, and culture (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010). In a sports context, a tactical formation, training principle, or nutrition plan becomes simultaneously a disciplinary object and a reason to communicate in English.

EMI is used more cautiously. Research has repeatedly shown that English-medium higher education can create language-

related barriers when learners lack adequate proficiency or scaffolding (Feng, He & Yiganmu 2023; Macaro 2018). The present model therefore does not equate EMI with an abrupt shift to English-only teaching. Instead, short English-medium mini-lectures, instructions, video explanations, and feedback segments are supported with visual prompts, terminology cards, sentence frames, and staged increases in linguistic demand. This responds to concerns in contemporary EMI scholarship that quality depends on the relationship among content difficulty, student proficiency, pedagogical support, and interaction.

TBLT provides the performance engine of the model. Tasks are organized around outcomes such as a coach briefing, match analysis, referee–captain exchange, press conference, injury-prevention case, tactical discussion, or competition commentary. In this sense, language is not the endpoint of an exercise but the resource through which the task is completed. The design draws on the task-based principle that meaning-focused activity can create conditions for language development when learners have a goal, information to process, and an observable outcome (Ellis, Skehan, Li, Shintani & Lambert 2020; Long 2015; Nunan 2004).

The integration can therefore be summarized as a chain rather than a mixture: ESP asks what language and genres matter; CLIL asks what disciplinary content gives them meaning; EMI expands the amount of disciplinary input processed through English; TBLT asks learners to mobilize that input to achieve a professional outcome. Reflection and assessment then determine whether the learner can transfer the language to a new situation. This functional sequencing is the conceptual contribution tested empirically in the present study.

2.3. Research gap and contribution

Three gaps motivate the study. First, sports-ESP research is still small relative to established ESP domains such as business, medicine, engineering, and academic writing. Recent sports studies have often focused on needs, learner perceptions, or single innovations rather than controlled comparisons of an integrated instructional model. Second, research on CLIL, EMI, and TBLT is substantial, but evidence is usually organized within

each approach separately. Systematic reviews of CLIL and EMI continue to report heterogeneous designs, outcomes, and implementation conditions (Feng et al. 2023; Poveda-García-Noblejas & Antropova 2024). Third, assessment in specialized language courses can remain dominated by linguistic accuracy even when the stated goal is professional communication.

The present study addresses these gaps by combining a multisite quasi-experimental design with a multidimensional outcome model. It evaluates not only whether students know terminology, but whether they can understand, speak, read, write, select language appropriately, and transfer their knowledge to a new professional task. This is important for ESP because the educational value of specialized language lies ultimately in its usability within target communities and target situations.

3. METHOD

3.1. *Design and research context*

The research employed a multisite quasi-experimental pretest – posttest control-group design. The study was implemented in three successive stages: a diagnostic stage in 2023-2024, a formative/intermediate stage in 2024-2025, and a final verification stage in 2025-2026. The independent instructional factor was the integrated sports-terminology-based ESP–CLIL–EMI–TBLT model. The dependent outcomes were professional communicative competence indicators operationalized through terminology, listening, speaking, reading, writing, situational appropriateness, and professional transfer.

The comparison condition retained the existing instructional approach. The research design sought to keep major contextual factors broadly comparable across groups – including course level, general thematic direction, assessment timing, and instructional time – while differentiating the experimental condition through systematic use of sports terminology, authentic professional tasks, staged English-medium input, and the integrated methodological cycle. Because intact educational groups rather than individually randomized participants were

used, the study is interpreted as quasi-experimental rather than randomized.

3.2. *Participants and sites*

The pooled sample comprised 360 first-year students enrolled in sports-activity programs at three public universities in Uzbekistan, anonymized as University A, University B, and University C for peer review. Across the full sample, 180 students were assigned to the experimental condition and 180 to the control condition. Site-level distributions are shown in Table 1. The dissertation data support pooled inferential analysis; therefore, this article does not report site-specific means or p values that cannot be reconstructed from individual-level records.

Table 1. *Participant distribution across the three university sites*

University	Experimental	Control	Total
University A	63	62	125
University B	60	61	121
University C	57	57	114
Total	180	180	360

3.3. *The integrated instructional cycle*

The intervention was organized around an 80-minute recurring lesson protocol designed to move learners from terminology activation to professional performance. A representative football lesson focused on tactical communication, but the same structure was adapted to basketball, volleyball, athletics, wrestling/kurash, sports physiology, injuries and prevention, nutrition, coaching communication, sports media, and competition organization. Table 2 summarizes the six-stage cycle used in the dissertation materials.

Table 2. *Core 80-minute ESP–CLIL–EMI–TBLT lesson cycle*

Stage	Time	Method / skills	Representative learner activity	Intended outcome
1. Professional need and terminology activation	10 min	ESP / translation + speaking	Activate 8-10 terms from a match image; compare English–Uzbek/Russian equivalents; use terms in context	Needs, initial lexical resources, contextual accuracy

2. Understanding sports content	15 min	CLIL / listening + reading	Process a 60–90 second tactical clip; identify terms; interpret a short tactical text or diagram	Recognition of terms in meaningful disciplinary input
3. English-medium professional input	10 min	Scaffolded EMI / listening + note-taking	Listen to a short English mini-lecture or coaching explanation; note key points; summarize meaning	Processing disciplinary information through English
4. Authentic professional task	20 min	TBLT / speaking + role-play	Coach–player, referee–captain, or analyst–journalist interaction using at least six target terms	Fluency, pragmatic fit, terminological precision
5. Written professional product	15 min	ESP + CLIL / writing	Produce an 80–100 word match report or coach briefing; check contextual use of terms	Genre awareness, discourse logic, functional terminology
6. Assessment, reflection, transfer	10 min	Integrated / speaking + writing	Final briefing, exit ticket, peer/self-assessment, transfer example	Multidimensional diagnosis and transfer

Within this cycle, terminology was taught through a progression from receptive recognition to contextual understanding and productive use. Typical tasks included term-definition matching, collocation building, information-gap work, coach-command drills, case analysis, role-play, live commentary, and reflective exit tickets. The final products were deliberately professional: coach briefings, match analyses, timeout instructions, rule explanations, injury-prevention advice, athlete nutrition plans, post-match interviews, and competition briefings.

The intervention also used formative feedback and scaffolding. EMI segments were supported by visual materials, key phrases, short questions, and terminology prompts. CLIL activities required students to explain disciplinary relationships – for example, how a 4–3–3 formation affects pressing and transition – rather than merely translating vocabulary. TBLT then reduced teacher support and required students to achieve a communicative outcome using the available language resources.

3.4. *Assessment framework*

The study used equivalent but non-identical pretest and posttest tasks to reduce simple recall effects. The assessment framework measured terminology in context and communicative

performance rather than translation alone. Tasks included terminology-definition and collocation items, audio/video comprehension, commentary, interview and role-play, professional reading, match reports or tactical notes, and a novel sport situation requiring transfer.

A 100-point diagnostic framework was used: terminology (20 points), listening (15), speaking (20), reading (15), writing (15), and professional transfer (15). Speaking and productive tasks were judged for terminological precision, fluency, logic, and situational appropriateness. For the three-level statistical model, 86–100 points were classified as high (coded 5), 71–85 as medium (coded 4), and 0–70 as lower (coded 3). The same classification rule was applied across measurement stages.

3.5. Statistical analysis

The dissertation reports descriptive statistics (mean, variance, standard deviation, standard error, and 95% confidence intervals) together with Welch–Student *t* tests for mean differences, Pearson χ^2 tests for the distribution of high/medium/lower performance levels, Cohen's *d* for practical effect size, a ratio-based effectiveness coefficient (η), and a difference-in-differences (DID) estimate based on change in pooled group means. Two-sided *p* values were used. Because the available data are aggregated rather than individual-level repeated measures, the present article reports the dissertation's verified statistics and does not add unsupported ANCOVA, mixed-effects, or site-level inferential analyses.

3.6. Ethics and data transparency

The analysis reported in this manuscript uses anonymized aggregate educational outcomes and does not include personally identifiable participant data.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Baseline equivalence and developmental trajectory

At the diagnostic stage, the experimental and control groups were statistically comparable. The experimental mean was 3.722 (SD

= 0.748) and the control mean was 3.739 (SD = 0.743). Welch's $t = -0.212$, $p = .8321$, and Cohen's $d = -.022$, indicating no meaningful baseline difference. This initial equivalence is important in a non-randomized design because it reduces, although does not eliminate, the possibility that subsequent differences simply reflect initial achievement gaps.

By the formative/intermediate stage, the experimental mean had risen to 4.039 while the control mean was 3.789. The difference was statistically significant ($t = 3.168$, $p = .0017$), and the effect size was small-to-moderate ($d = .334$). The distributional test also favored the experimental condition ($\chi^2 = 10.014$, $p = .0067$). The pattern therefore suggests that the intervention effect emerged during implementation rather than only at the final measurement.

At the final stage, the experimental mean reached 4.283 (SD = 0.711; SE = 0.053; 95% CI [4.179, 4.388]), compared with 3.828 in the control group (SD = 0.754; SE = 0.056; 95% CI [3.717, 3.939]). Welch's $t = 5.898$, $p < .001$, while Pearson's $\chi^2 = 32.195$, $p < .001$. Cohen's $d = .622$ indicates a moderate practical effect. The effectiveness coefficient was $\eta = 1.119$.

Table 3. *Pooled performance across the three measurement stages (N = 360)*

Stage	Group	High (5)	Medium (4)	Lower (3)	Mean	SD	SE
Diagnostic	Experimental	32	66	82	3.722	0.748	0.056
Diagnostic	Control	32	69	79	3.739	0.743	0.055
Intermediate	Experimental	54	79	47	4.039	0.750	0.056
Intermediate	Control	35	72	73	3.789	0.747	0.056
Final	Experimental	78	75	27	4.283	0.711	0.053
Final	Control	38	73	69	3.828	0.754	0.056

Table 4. *Inferential comparisons across stages*

Stage	Mexp	Mcon	Welch t	p(t)	Pearson χ^2	p(χ^2)	Cohen d
Diagnostic	3.722	3.739	-0.212	.8321	0.123	.9406	-.022
Intermediate	4.039	3.789	3.168	.0017	10.014	.0067	.334
Final	4.283	3.828	5.898	<.001	32.195	<.001	.622

4.2. Relative gains and difference-in-differences

Across the diagnostic-to-final interval, the experimental mean increased from 3.722 to 4.283, a relative increase of 15.07%. The

control mean increased from 3.739 to 3.828, a relative increase of 2.38%. In absolute terms, the experimental gain was 0.561 points and the control gain was 0.089 points on the 5–4–3 coded scale. The difference between these changes was 0.472, reported in the dissertation as the DID estimate.

This pattern is substantively important because both groups improved. The result is therefore not that the control group failed to learn, but that the integrated condition was associated with a substantially steeper learning trajectory. The intermediate-stage statistics strengthen this interpretation by showing that divergence emerged progressively: *d* moved from essentially zero at baseline (–.022), to .334 at the intermediate stage, and to .622 at the final stage.

4.3. *Development of competence dimensions*

The dissertation also reports descriptive growth in four core competence indicators within the experimental group. Terminological competence rose from 48% to 84%, professional speaking/communication from 45% to 81%, understanding of sports discourse from 50% to 86%, and independent professional activity from 52% to 88%. Each indicator increased by 36 percentage points from the first to the third stage. These figures are descriptive rather than separate inferential outcomes, but they help interpret what the general score increase represented pedagogically: improvement extended beyond lexical recall to discourse comprehension, productive communication, and more independent professional action.

Table 5. Descriptive change in selected experimental-group indicators

Indicator	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III	Overall change
Terminological competence	48%	64%	84%	+36 pp
Professional speaking / communication	45%	62%	81%	+36 pp
Understanding sports discourse	50%	68%	86%	+36 pp
Independent professional activity	52%	70%	88%	+36 pp

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Why the model produced more than vocabulary growth

The central finding is not simply that the experimental students learned more terminology. The model's pedagogical contribution lies in the repeated transformation of terminology from lexical knowledge into communicative action. A term such as high pressing was first recognized and defined, then encountered in video or text, processed within an English-medium explanation, used to justify a tactical decision, incorporated into a coach briefing or match analysis, and finally transferred to a new scenario. This progression resembles a movement from receptive knowledge to proceduralized disciplinary language use.

The interpretation is consistent with recent sports-ESP literature. Dou et al. (2024) show that sports students and stakeholders value English that responds to disciplinary and career needs. Gómez-Ortiz et al. (2023) demonstrate that project-based, domain-specific activity can support technical vocabulary learning. Ropa & Malahova (2023) report that sports and health-science students perceive vocabulary and reading gains across modalities but find speaking more difficult. The present study adds controlled comparative evidence suggesting that productive gains are more likely when vocabulary is systematically linked to performance tasks such as briefing, analysis, commentary, and role-based interaction.

This also helps explain why a terminology-centered model need not be reductionist. In the present design, terminology was not treated as a list to memorize. It served as a bridge between conceptual content and professional genres. Students could not complete a tactical analysis by naming terms alone; they had to relate formation, pressing, marking, possession, or transition to causes, consequences, decisions, and communicative purposes. In this sense, terminology became a tool for disciplinary thinking as well as a linguistic resource.

5.2. Integration worked because the approaches had different jobs

The findings also support the study's functional interpretation of methodological integration. ESP, CLIL, EMI, and TBLT were not

used as interchangeable labels. Each approach addressed a distinct weakness that would remain if the others were used alone. ESP ensured relevance but does not by itself guarantee sustained disciplinary reasoning. CLIL links content and language but may not automatically reproduce the time pressure and outcome orientation of professional communication. EMI increases English-medium exposure but can overload students when content and language demands are not scaffolded. TBLT creates purposeful language use but depends on learners having adequate lexical, conceptual, and discourse resources to perform the task.

The 80-minute cycle addressed these dependencies sequentially. Needs-based terminology activation provided linguistic access; CLIL gave that terminology disciplinary meaning; scaffolded EMI increased processing through English; and TBLT required students to convert the available resources into an outcome. Reflection and formative assessment made the cycle recursive by identifying what needed to be reactivated or transferred next. The progressive effect sizes across stages are compatible with a cumulative mechanism of this kind, although the aggregated data do not allow a mediation analysis that would isolate the contribution of each component.

The cautious role assigned to EMI is especially important. Systematic review evidence indicates that EMI outcomes depend on prior proficiency, language support, pedagogy, and contextual conditions (Feng et al. 2023). The present model therefore used short, scaffolded English-medium segments rather than an ideological English-only policy. For first-year sports students, this may have protected disciplinary comprehension while still expanding English-medium processing.

5.3. Assessment and the importance of professional transfer

A further contribution concerns assessment. If a course claims to develop professional communication but assesses only grammar and vocabulary recall, the assessment construct remains misaligned with the instructional goal. The present framework therefore distributed performance across terminology, receptive skills, productive skills, situational appropriateness, and transfer.

Tasks such as commentary, role-play, match reporting, and novel-scenario decisions made it possible to observe whether language could be mobilized under professional constraints.

Professional transfer is particularly important. A learner who reproduces a practiced sentence may perform well in a familiar classroom exercise without being prepared for a new sport situation. Transfer tasks required students to interpret an unfamiliar episode, explain a problem, propose a tactical alternative, or generate a professional response with appropriate terminology. This provides a more demanding test of functional competence and aligns with the broader ESP principle that learning should be judged against target communicative activity rather than decontextualized language knowledge.

The descriptive indicator data are consistent with this interpretation: improvement was observed not only in terminology but also in sports-discourse understanding, professional speaking, and independent professional activity. Although separate inferential tests are not available for each indicator, the breadth of the descriptive gains supports the view that the intervention influenced a network of related abilities rather than a single lexical score.

5.4. Implications for ESP course design

For course designers, the study suggests four practical principles. First, select terminology through professional need and frequency, but immediately attach each item to collocations, genres, and target situations. Second, use disciplinary content as the reason for communication, not as decorative context. Third, increase English-medium input gradually and support it with visual, lexical, and discourse scaffolds. Fourth, make the final unit of learning a professional product or decision—such as a briefing, analysis, interview, report, or recommendation—rather than a language exercise.

The model is potentially transferable beyond sport. Nursing, engineering, tourism, logistics, and other professionally oriented programs also contain specialized terminology, disciplinary content, English-medium resources, and recognizable target tasks. However, transfer should preserve the functional logic

rather than copying sports activities. The relevant terms, genres, content, and professional outcomes must be established through local needs analysis.

6. LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Several limitations are important for interpreting the findings. First, the study used intact educational groups and therefore cannot provide the causal certainty of individual random assignment. Baseline equivalence strengthens the inference but does not remove all selection effects. Second, the available dataset is aggregated. This prevents individual-level longitudinal analyses, mixed-effects modeling, moderation by site, or investigation of whether stronger and weaker learners benefited differently. Third, the dissertation reports a multidimensional assessment framework but the present dataset does not include separate reliability coefficients, rater-agreement statistics, or inferential tests for each subscale. Future work should report internal consistency, inter-rater reliability for productive tasks, and validation evidence for the professional-transfer construct. Fourth, the intervention integrates several pedagogical components. The design tests the package rather than the isolated effect of ESP, CLIL, EMI, or TBLT. Component or factorial studies could determine which combinations are necessary and for which learners. Fifth, a delayed posttest would be useful to examine whether gains in professional language use are retained after the instructional period. Finally, future multisite research should preserve site-level raw data so that institutional context, teacher effects, and implementation fidelity can be modeled directly.

These limitations are not peripheral to the contribution. They define the next methodological step. The present study establishes a sufficiently strong signal to justify more fine-grained experimental and longitudinal research on integrated sports ESP.

7. CONCLUSION

This multisite quasi-experimental study examined whether sports terminology can function as more than vocabulary content in an ESP course. The results show a clear developmental divergence between students taught through the integrated ESP–CLIL–EMI–TBLT model and those following the existing instructional approach. The groups were equivalent at baseline, but the experimental advantage emerged at the intermediate stage and became moderate in magnitude by the final stage. The final statistics – $t = 5.898$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2 = 32.195$, $p < .001$, and $d = .622$ – support both statistical and practical significance.

The pedagogical interpretation is that specialized terminology becomes powerful when it is repeatedly moved through content, input, task, reflection, and transfer. In that process, a term ceases to be an item to remember and becomes a resource for explaining, deciding, negotiating, reporting, and acting within a professional discourse community. For sports education, this means that English instruction can be organized around the communicative work students are likely to perform as coaches, athletes, referees, analysts, managers, and media participants.

The broader implication for ESP is methodological: integration is most useful when each approach has a defined function and when assessment captures what learners can do with specialized language in new professional situations. The study therefore offers both an empirical result and a design principle for professionally oriented language education.

REFERENCES

- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. 2010. *Language Assessment in Practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Basturkmen, H. 2010. *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. 2nd ed. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2018. *Research Methods in Education*. 8th ed. Routledge.

- Coyle, D., Hood, P. & Marsh, D. 2010. *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dearden, J. 2014. *English as a Medium of Instruction – A Growing Global Phenomenon*. British Council.
- Dou, A., Chan, S. & Thein, W. M. 2024. Making a case for English for specific purposes in China: Listening to stakeholders' voices. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 11, 1646. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-024-04145-4>.
- Dudley-Evans, T. & St John, M. J. 1998. *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A Multi-disciplinary Approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. 2003. *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- . Skehan, P., Li, S., Shintani, N. & Lambert, C. 2020. *Task-based Language Teaching: Theory and Practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Feng, L., He, L. & Yiganmu, A. 2023. Determinants of students' academic success in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) classes: A systematic review. *Heliyon*, 9/10, e20421. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e20421>
- Field, A. 2017. *Discovering Statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics*. 5th ed. SAGE.
- Gómez-Ortiz, M.-J., Domínguez Romero, E. & Bobkina, J. 2023. Instagram as a learning tool to improve technical vocabulary for sports science students. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 32, 100416. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2022.100416>.
- Hyland, K. 2006. *English for Academic Purposes: An Advanced Resource Book*. Routledge.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centred Approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Kenjabayev, J. A. 2020. Linguistic features of the development of oral speech competence of students of the direction of physical culture education (on the example of sports terminology). *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences*, 8/11, 48-51.
- . 2021. Lingvodidakticheskie osobennosti razvitiya ustnoy rechevoy kompetentsii studentov fizicheskogo vospitaniya (na primere sportivnoy terminologii) [Linguodidactic features of developing oral speech competence in physical education students]. *Obshchestvo i innovatsii*, 2/3, 150-154.

- . 2023a. Communicative language teaching and the system of exercises. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Negative Results*, 14/2, 1017-1022. <https://doi.org/10.47750/pnr.2023.14.S02.122>
- . 2023b. Development of oral speech through internet sites. *European International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Management Studies*, 3/11, 59-71.
- . 2023c. Ingliztilini internet resurslarasosidao‘qitishmetodikasi [Methodology for teaching English based on internet resources]. *Ijtimoiy-gumanitarfanlarningdolzarbmualammolari*, 3/11, 407-411. <https://doi.org/10.47390/SP1342V3I11Y2023N55>
- . 2024. A cross-sectional study of lexicon related to Olympic sports in Uzbek and English languages. *Ekonomikaisotsium*, 3-2/118, 172-174.
- . 2025. Linguocultural features of sports terminology in English and Uzbek. *Modern American Journal of Linguistics, Education, and Pedagogy*, 1/5, 182-186.
- Long, M. H. 2015. *Second Language Acquisition and Task-based Language Teaching*. Wiley Blackwell.
- Macaro, E. 2018. *English Medium Instruction: Content and Language in Policy and Practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Mirjonov, N., Komilova, M., Qosimov, S., Sattorkulov, O., Yoqubov, D., Avazyazova, D., Latipjonova, M. & Kenjabaev, J. 2025. Lexicographic and terminographic exploration of neologisms and water-related concepts for environmental research. *International Journal of Aquatic Research and Environmental Studies*, 5/2, 873-882. <https://doi.org/10.70102/IJARES/V5I2/5-2-76>
- Nunan, D. 2004. *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Pallant, J. 2020. *SPSS Survival Manual*. 7th ed. McGraw-Hill/Open University Press.
- Penjak, A. 2024. English for Specific Purposes for sport as a profession in Croatia: Students’ and teachers’ voices. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 11/2, 786-801. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v11i2.36829>.
- Poveda-García-Noblejas, B. & Antropova, S. 2024. Analysis of CLIL-related research in school settings: A systematic review. *Journal of Language and Education*, 10/1, 146-159. <https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2024.18150>
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. 2014. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. 3rd ed. Cambridge University Press.
- Ropa, A. & Malahova, L. 2023. The benefits and limitations of teaching English for Specific Purposes online and face-to-face: Sport and

- health sciences students' perspectives. *Baltic Journal of English Language, Literature and Culture*, 13, 108-124. <https://doi.org/10.22364/BJELLC.13.2023.08>
- Swales, J. M. 1990. *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge University Press.
- Vahdat, S., Gooniband Shooshtari, Z., Bina, N. & Nikbakht, M. 2023. Investigating the English-specific needs of the M.A. students of Sports Science in Iran. *Research in English Language Pedagogy*, 11/4, 681-709. <https://doi.org/10.30486/relp.2023.1985298.1459>
- Widdowson, H. G. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press.

DECLARATIONS

Ethics and participant data: This manuscript reports anonymized aggregate educational data and contains no personally identifiable information.

Data availability: Aggregated data are reported in the dissertation. Any sharing of anonymized individual-level data is subject to institutional permissions and the target journal's policy.

Author contribution: The author contributed to conceptualization, methodology, investigation, data analysis, writing – original draft, and writing – review and editing.

JAXONGIR ABDISALIMOVICH KENJABAYEV

PHD IN PEDAGOGICAL SCIENCES,

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR,

INTERFACULTY DEPT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES,

TERMEZ STATE UNIVERSITY, UZBEKISTAN.