Scholarship as a path to English for Academic Purposes practitioners' expertise

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In education, at any level and in any context, “students deserve the best knowledge and understanding [teachers] can muster when teaching” (Ding et al., 2018, p. 59). Teachers’ knowledge and understanding develops throughout their career, and some practitioners eventually become recognized as experts within their field due to their profound knowledge and considerable experience. Contra the common use of the term *expert* to refer to an experienced or skilled person, I use the term expert here in a very narrow sense, as someone who consistently delivers “elite, peak, or exceptionally high levels of performance on a particular task or within a given domain” (Bourne et al., 2014, p. 1). In this narrow understanding of expertise, not every practitioner becomes an expert with time and experience: in a field of practice, there are novices, experts and experienced non-experts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). Only experts are recognized within their community of practice for their considerable knowledge and skills, and their expertise is a result of deliberate action that goes beyond accumulated experience which is standard in the field.

It is a basic premise of this theoretical paper that it is worthwhile for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) practitioners to aim to develop expertise in order to improve their teaching practice. The emphasis here, however, is not on the state of being an expert recognized by the community of practice, but rather on the process of developing and maintaining expertise. During this *process of expertise* (Bereiter & Scardamalia’s, 1993 term), practitioners broaden and deepen their knowledge, enhance their practice and thus become better equipped to help students learn, as well as to contribute to the collective knowledge base of the community of practice. I argue that one way of developing and maintaining expertise in EAP is engaging in scholarship. As Bond (2024, p. 62) puts it, “[i]t is an ethical obligation to engage in scholarship in order to maintain and develop expertise as a practitioner.”

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on expertise and applies it to EAP. Section 3 draws links between expertise and scholarship and argues that expertise in EAP can be developed through conducting scholarship. Section 4 proposes a model of

EAP expertise and knowledge. Section 5 critiques three alternative models before concluding in Section 6.

Theoretical framework

The Nature of Expertise

The literature in expertise studies (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Glaser & Chi, 1988; Gruber & Harteis, 2018; Lee & Yuan, 2021; Tsui, 2003; van de Wiel et al., 2004) has identified several typical characteristics of experts in various fields. These roughly revolve around two areas: knowledge and the process of extending knowledge. Experts have extensive formal theoretical knowledge (see Section 4.2 for a detailed discussion of the term) of their domain and extensive experience in varying contexts and situations within the domain. They effectively translate between theoretical knowledge and practical experience: On the one hand, they skilfully apply formal knowledge in particular situations in practice, thus developing substantial experiential, practical knowledge. On the other hand, they are able to theorize their practical knowledge and disseminate it as formal knowledge.

Experts deliberately and continually extend their knowledge and the knowledge of their field. They do so by working at *the edge of their competence* (Bereiter & Scardamalia's 1993 term), i.e. just beyond their current level of competence, and by engaging in *deliberate practice* (Ericsson et al.'s 1993 term), i.e. in activities that seek to improve their performance. To put it simply, experts work at a level slightly beyond their comfort zone, challenging themselves and improving their work. As leading figures in their field, they often problematize what is considered unproblematic by their community of practice and they invest time and effort into solving such problems, even outside their working hours (Tsui, 2003). What allows them to work at this high level is their creative imagination, self-regulation, ability to recognize areas worthy of investigation, and readiness to take risks and to reflect on their performance (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993).

Expertise is not only a cognitive but also a social concept. In other words, individuals do not become experts in isolation from others. Firstly, they are recognized by other practitioners in their field as experts (Tsui, 2003; contra Fitzpatrick et al., 2022). Secondly, the development of expertise

requires drawing on community of practice in the form of *mental and material artefacts*, i.e. ideas and work produced by others, and *persons in the shadow* who help develop others, such as supervisors, mentors and coaches (Gruber & Harteis, 2018). This includes drawing on outputs disseminated by colleagues, discussions with critical friends and other colleagues, and professional bodies which facilitate knowledge sharing. Finally, experts contribute to the knowledge and expertise of others, which requires a feeling of responsibility to reciprocate learning with the community of practice, a commitment to the advancement of the field and a degree of professional pride (Simons & Ruijters, 2004).

Expertise is not a static immutable capacity that one has or has not, but a capacity that needs to be developed and maintained over time (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). In the words of Nunn (2008, p. 418), it "is a constant becoming instead of a destination, a process instead of a thing, a verb instead of a noun." Therefore, the distinction introduced in Section 1 between novices, experts and experienced non-experts is an oversimplification: novices and non-experts too can engage in the process of expertise by developing their "capacity to rise above present competence" (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993, p. 244), which may eventually lead to the development of expertise.

Expertise and EAP practitioners

When considering the degree of engagement with the process of expertise, it may be useful to draw on Evans' (2002) distinction between two types of professionals. A *restricted professional* "is essentially reliant upon experience and intuition and is guided by a narrow, classroom-based perspective which values that which is related to the day-to-day practicalities of teaching" (Evans, 2002, p. 7). In contrast, an *extended professional* "value[s …] the theory underpinning pedagogy, and [… adopts …] a generally intellectual and rationally based approach" (Evans, 2002, p. 7).

When we apply these descriptions to EAP practitioners, the following two profiles emerge. An extended EAP practitioner is concerned with developing students' intellectual abilities and thus asks themselves not only *how* to teach but also *what* to teach. To develop their knowledge, they turn largely to published research and scholarship. Their own scholarship is firmly embedded in existing

scholarship and aspires to be an intellectual contribution to the field rather than 'tips and tricks' for the classroom. Due to the demands of this intellectual involvement, they might feel inadequate rather than confident about their abilities. If, however, they persist in this endeavour, they develop extensive knowledge of existing theory, successfully use it to inform their practice and disseminate their application to achieve impact in the community of practice.

Eventually, an extended practitioner might become an expert, widely recognized in the field and pushing the boundaries of the field's knowledge by questioning its *doxas*. Bourdieu defines doxa as "a set of fundamental beliefs which does not even need to be asserted in the form of an explicit, self-conscious dogma" (2000, p. 15). In other words, doxas are long-lived, accepted but unsubstantiated norms and practices. An example of questioning a doxa is McCreary's (2022) paper challenging the use of learning objectives in educational design.

In contrast to an extended practitioner and an expert, a restricted EAP practitioner is concerned mainly with helping students navigate university systems and meet university expectations, such as using educational technology, developing study skills and passing university assessments. The content of their teaching might be restricted by their existing knowledge, and to improve their practice, they may ask themselves *how* to better teach the existing content rather than question *what* should be taught. Therefore, they tend to turn to introspective reflection rather than to external sources of new knowledge or they turn to continuous professional development (CPD) that offers directly adaptable teaching activities and strategies rather than to raw, 'undigested' theory and research. If they do contribute to the field, their contributions mirror the ways of learning that they value themselves – accounts of their own teaching practice that other practitioners can adapt. Their references to literature tend to be afterthoughts, in order to tick the respective box of academic conventions, rather than to serve as a foundation for their scholarship. Largely staying within their comfort zone, they feel competent and confident, basing these feelings on, for instance, student success, their teaching experience measured in the number of years taught and their language proficiency or language learner identity. As Ding (2022, p. 168) points out, "[t]his may include a

rejection of a more academic identity through asserting their pedagogical and linguistic capitals (defining themselves as expert language teachers), through aligning with business and neoliberal doxa (defining themselves as working in an 'industry' with all that it implies), and/or through a dismissal of scholarship (where theory is suspicious, research/scholarship irrelevant and experience priceless)". It is this rejection of formal theoretical knowledge that prevents a restricted EAP practitioner from becoming an expert.

The two types of EAP practitioners described are of course exaggerations: Evans (2002) points out that her two types of professionals are two extremes on a continuum rather than a dichotomy. It follows that any single practitioner will not be exactly as one type described; instead, a practitioner can gravitate towards one extreme or the other.

Novices in the field can choose to follow either path, that of a restricted practitioner, or that of an extended practitioner. Their choice is likely to be influenced by the milieu they work in. When working with extended practitioners who model basing their practice on theory, novices are likely to follow the path to extended practice. In contrast, they might be swayed to the restricted professional path if they are initiated into the field by restricted practitioners or by books for novice EAP practitioners "which offer, at best, a doxa, a cracked mirror version of EAP" (Ding, 2022, p. 165). Since such introductory EAP teacher books simplify the field's formal knowledge rather than appropriately represent its complexities or point out its doxas, this reductivism can lead to forming misconceptions which are difficult to overcome later on and which are a barrier to developing expertise (Feltovich et al., 1993).

Given that expertise is a continuum rather than a dichotomy, a restricted practitioner can gradually move away from the restricted end of the continuum towards more extended practice. This is engaging in the process of expertise. The next section discusses how this can be accomplished.

Developing expertise in EAP through scholarship

The question arises how one moves from experiential practice of a restricted professional to theory-informed practice of an extended professional. One answer is offered in Simons and Ruijters'

(2004) tripartite model of professional learning. The first component of professional learning is *elaboration*, in which a professional makes their tacit, experiential knowledge explicit. Within elaboration, practitioners draw on experiential knowledge, but unlike restricted professionals, they engage in the process of expertise by attempting to theorize this experiential knowledge. The second component is *expansion*, which involves explicit learning not only about one's own practice, for instance through action research, but also about theory through reading professional literature, and subsequently critically evaluating one's practice against theory. This component thus develops expertise by extending one's formal knowledge and by attempting to apply it in one's practice. The last component in Simons and Ruijters' model is *externalization*, or dissemination of the knowledge acquired in the process of professional learning in order to innovate the field and to contribute to the collective vision of the profession.

Taking Simons and Ruijters' (2004) model of professional learning as a model of transition from a restricted to an extended professional, I propose that one way of engaging in the process of expertise in EAP is through scholarship. I do so on the basis that Simons and Ruijters' model not only reflects engagement in the process of expertise but also contains elements of scholarship: In the elaboration component of their model, the element of scholarship is moving from experience to theoretical knowledge. In the expansion component, it is drawing on previous literature to gain a greater understanding, and bilaterally linking theory and practice. In the externalization component, it is disseminating knowledge in order to achieve impact on the field.

This leads us to the definition of scholarship in EAP. I define scholarship as individual and collective intellectual activity in which practitioners engage in order to (i) extend their own individual knowledge as well as the collective knowledge of the field, and to (ii) achieve impact on their own individual practice as well as on the wider practice and scholarship of the profession. To ensure a meaningful contribution to the field's knowledge base, this activity is firmly embedded in previous scholarship and/or research. Scholarship is to be viewed as a process rather than a product – a product such as a journal article or a conference presentation on its own is not scholarship but an outcome of

scholarship activity. This definition recognizes the value of knowledge and its continual extension, and the role of both theory and practice, all aspects of expertise discussed above.

EAP practitioners have a number of motivations for doing scholarship (see e.g. Banegas & Romano, 2024; Davis, 2019; Webster, 2022), and additional reasons for practitioner scholarship have been proposed (Ding & Bruce, 2017). These can be classified as individual or collective, material or non-material. Individual material benefits can include meeting one's contractual obligations, ensuring job security, gaining promotion, securing research funding and establishing personal credentials. Collective material benefits may include attracting larger numbers of students for scholarship-active EAP institutions, establishing credentials for the field and consequently safeguarding an EAP unit against outsourcing. To what extent scholarship can lead to these desired outcomes, however, is unclear. For instance, Bond (2021) pointed out that no particular professional experience guarantees obtaining permanent employment in EAP. Material benefits of scholarship, thus, are contingent on institutional and larger social structures.

Non-material benefits at the individual level include intellectual satisfaction and professional development, and at the collective level, improved learning for students and intellectual advancement of EAP. Nonetheless, non-material benefits of scholarship can be questioned by some practitioners, as the following quote from a participant in Ding and Monbec's (2024, p. 35, original emphasis) study illustrates: "Scholarship or an interest in carrying out research [is overvalued] – it is a useful insight/development of skills **but it doesn't necessarily** result in better practical teaching." This quote leads us to ask what *does necessarily* result in better teaching: formal education, experience, reflection, CPD, fellowship? All of these can be argued to contribute to improving teaching but none on its own guarantees quality. In fact, quality teaching is probably best achieved by an amalgamation of different components, and scholarship can and should be one of these components.

The reason why some EAP practitioners may resist the calls to engage in scholarship may be feelings of inadequacy, especially if "their prior education and subsequent experience of teaching EAP have not prepared them for scholarship" (Ding, 2022, p. 168). Nonetheless, scholarship as a path to

expertise as presented here, is supposed to be done not within one's comfort zone but at the edge of one's current competence. In other words, scholarship should not just reflect the knowledge an EAP practitioner already has but it should serve to develop the practitioner's knowledge and contribute to the knowledge of the field. This is possible when scholarship is conceptualized as a process rather than a product, as advocated in this paper.

Without commitment to scholarship, EAP practitioners' teaching practice may be little informed by theory (Cowley-Haselden & Monbec, 2019), rely on teaching resources little informed by research (Walková, 2020) and perpetuate myths rather than reflect state-of-the-art knowledge of the field. Moreover, there is a danger that the advancement of EAP becomes the prerogative of (mostly applied linguistic) researchers who do not teach EAP and whose preoccupations in EAP are not of practical nature. This, on the one hand, leads to the generation of "studies […] in the leading *ESP/EAP journals* that fade away before offering well-articulated pedagogical applications" (Swales, 2019, p. 78, original emphasis) and "streams of research that take on a life of their own and become somewhat disconnected from actual practice" (Bruce, 2021, pp. 26–27). Nevertheless, the solution does not lie in adding a short section on practice recommendations to papers as afterthoughts, in order to tick the box of mentioning pedagogical implications; rather, we need more EAP research that is, from its conception, motivated by pedagogical needs and by the concerns of EAP practitioners.

Knowledge base of EAP for scholarship

Following Bereiter and Scardamialia's (1993) four types of expert knowledge, this section proposes a model of EAP knowledge base for scholarship. Rather than proposing particular theoretical frameworks, the model proposes types of knowledge which are required in order to conduct EAP scholarship successfully and which are further developed by conducting scholarship.

In Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1993) model, expert knowledge is composed of formal knowledge and of three types of tacit knowledge: informal, impressionistic and self-regulatory knowledge. First, *formal knowledge* is declarative knowledge of one's domain that is explicitly taught to novices and disseminated through academic texts. Second, *informal knowledge* is implicit, practical

knowledge developed by applying formal knowledge to solve new problems in professional practice. It can become new formal knowledge when it is made explicit, peer reviewed and disseminated. Third, *impressionistic knowledge* involves creative imagination that enables problematizing what the field does not consider a problem, and thus involves taking risks and also the ability to judge what problems are worthy of investigation. This ability, Bereiter and Scardamalia point out, requires informal knowledge and substantial experience, which means it is not available to novices. Finally, *self-regulatory knowledge* is, unlike the other three types of knowledge in Bereiter and Scardamalia's model, knowledge independent of one's field but it is necessary for one to perform effectively in their domain. As such, self-regulatory knowledge underlies the other three types of knowledge.

The four types of knowledge are mutually dependent: Self-regulation is the foundation upon which the other types of knowledge are built; formal knowledge is required for the development of informal knowledge, which in turn is required for the development of impressionistic knowledge. This mutual dependency is visually expressed in Figure 1 as four layers of knowledge. I will now discuss these four types of knowledge for EAP scholarship in turn.

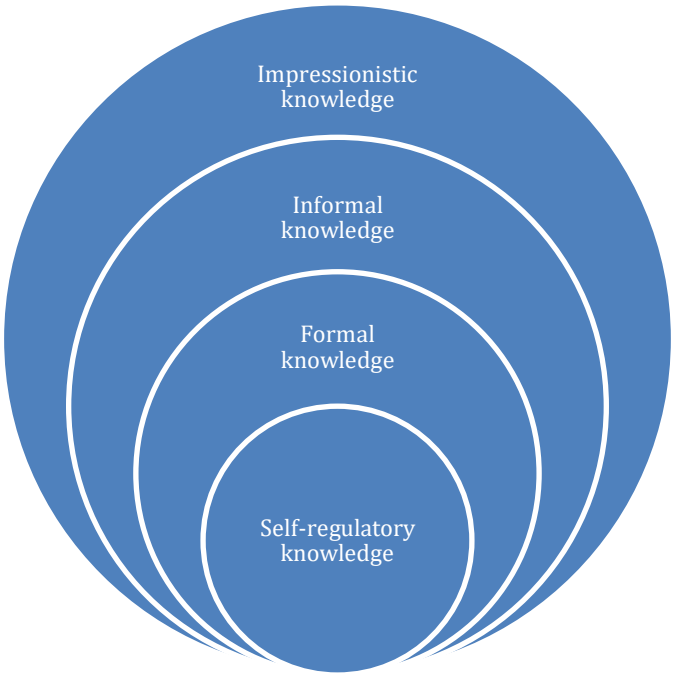

Figure 1. Individual knowledge for EAP scholarship

Self-regulatory knowledge

The first layer of knowledge for EAP scholarship is self-regulatory knowledge. Zimmerman (2006, p. 705) defines self-regulation as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are strategically planned and adapted to the attainment of personal goals". It involves setting goals, planning action, choosing or creating a suitable environment, ability to find resources, self-efficacy, time management, sustaining motivation, monitoring and evaluating one's own progress, and managing emotions. In Simons and Ruijters' (2004) model, self-regulation includes feelings of professional pride, curiosity, confidence, interest and excitement. In EAP scholarship, self-regulation can thus involve, for instance, identifying scholarship interests as issues within practice that puzzle, frustrate or concern practitioners; making the best of time available for scholarship when this time is limited; managing competing priorities; having resilience in the face of obstacles; and gaining access to colleagues and networks supportive of scholarship.

That self-regulatory knowledge is not trivial can be evidenced by the fact that common obstacles to scholarship reported by EAP practitioners include a lack of time, institutional limitations, fear of failure, and a lack of relevant knowledge and skills (Banegas and Romano, 2024; Davis, 2019). Therefore, greater attention should be paid to its development in EAP practitioners' CPD. While EAP conferences sometimes offer workshops on writing for publication, these tend to focus on practical knowledge of the publication process (e.g. requirements for a scholarship project to be publishable and selecting an appropriate journal) rather than on developing the participants' self-regulation (e.g. sustaining motivation and dealing with rejections).

Formal knowledge

The second layer is formal, or theoretical knowledge. This type of knowledge is unfortunately often downplayed in EAP: as Breen (2019, p.9) reports, "many [EAP practitioners] define themselves by their practice and not their knowledge". The reasons may include rejection of theory by some, and feelings of inadequate knowledge by some others, as discussed above. Moreover, as EAP has numerous and varied pathways for entering the profession (Ding & Bruce, 2017), there is no standard accepted formal knowledge in the field. Although the BALEAP fellowship scheme (2025) attempts to

provide such a standard, its framework of knowledge base remains sketchy (in the four areas of: planning and design; teaching and learning; assessment and feedback; scholarship and development) and unspecified, as in "a range of theories and approaches" (p.28). As a consequence, EAP practitioners are not really expected to have knowledge of particular theories, frameworks and approaches, such as a particular genre theory, a particular language framework or a particular tool for discourse analysis. An attempt to outline ingredients of EAP knowledge base has been made by Ding and Bruce (2017), but they do not claim that their proposed ingredients (Systemic Functional Linguistics, genre theory, corpus linguistics, Academic Literacies and Critical EAP) are exhaustive.

This paper proposes ingredients of formal knowledge in EAP at a more abstract level, drawing on Ferguson (1997) and Grossman (1990), with the latter building on Shulman (1986 [2003], 1987). Following Grossman (1990), the model proposed here recognizes four main components of EAP formal knowledge: the knowledge of context, pedagogical knowledge, subject matter or content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. Unlike individual knowledge for scholarship (Fig. 1), the relationship between these types of knowledge is not hierarchical, see Figure 2. I will now describe and justify the main components of the model.

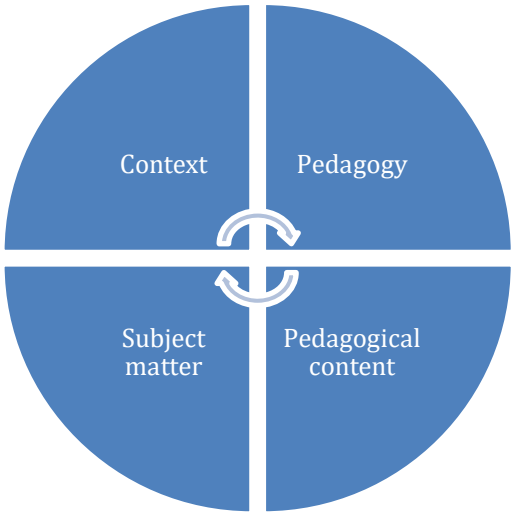

Figure 2. Main components of formal knowledge base of EAP

Knowledge of context

The knowledge of context involves the knowledge of individual students (e.g. their backgrounds, strengths and weaknesses related to learning) and the knowledge of institutional and regional constraints and affordances. To put it simply, the knowledge of context answers questions such as *who* is taught, *why*, *when* and *where*. It has to be pointed out that context can shift very rapidly, with new student cohorts, new modules and new institutional directions. The need for knowledge of context is obvious: it allows a practitioner to differentiate learning for individual students, to make the best of the context's affordances and to minimize the impact of its constraints.

EAP practitioners can acquire knowledge of their particular context, for instance, through observation of institutional practices, students' behaviour and performance, reading of policy documents and student records, and informal discussion with colleagues at the same institution. An example of scholarship aiming to develop this type of knowledge is a teaching innovation for a particular student cohort in a particular context. Nevertheless, such scholarship needs to be theorised to be transferrable to other contexts.

General pedagogical knowledge

General pedagogical knowledge addresses the question *how* to teach and involves not only traditional areas of instruction and class management, but also more recent trends such as the use of technology, inclusivity, decolonization and social justice. These are important components of a practitioner's knowledge because a practitioner needs to have a humanistic approach to students and a holistic approach to learning. Practitioners can develop this type of knowledge, for example, through teacher training, CPD and peer observation.

As general pedagogical knowledge is the type of knowledge that EAP practitioners share with educators from other fields, universities might promote scholarship on this type of knowledge and encourage its sharing across disciplines. The value placed by institutions on general pedagogical knowledge might stimulate considerable EAP scholarship in this area, perhaps even at the expense of other types of EAP knowledge. As Ding and Monbec (2024, pp. 39-40) put it, "when practitioners shift their investments and interests into an adjacent (sub-)field or micro-context, such as higher education

or the university, where they might actively engage in promoting 'sustainability', 'belonging', 'decolonisation', or any number of initiatives directed and encouraged within and most often by the neoliberal university […] [, i]t is quite possible that some practitioners are only minimally engaged in EAP while having to dedicate a significant amount of time and resources to another field".

To avoid the danger of uncritically adopting institutional ideologies, as well as of being distracted from the specialism of EAP, I propose that practitioners should both engage in reflexivity – "an ability to locate yourself in the picture, to understand, and factor in, how what you see is influenced by your own way of seeing, and how your very presence and act of research influences the situation in which you are researching" (Fook, 1999, p.12) – and strive to bring a unique EAP perspective to scholarship on pedagogical knowledge. An example of such reflexivity is Moosavi's (2023) paper that recognizes the limitations of decolonization and the author's complicit action of perpetuating stereotypes of Western domination in his very attempt to decolonize education in Singapore.

Subject matter knowledge

The third component of the model is subject matter knowledge. The EAP subject knowledge in the model proposed here, following Ferguson (1997), includes sociological knowledge of disciplinary practices, epistemological knowledge of what constitutes knowledge in particular disciplines, and linguistic knowledge of a variety of spoken and written academic texts. Linguistic knowledge pertains to language used in academic discourse and accessed via various frameworks, e.g. genre theories, corpus linguistics, Systemic Functional Linguistics, among many others. Sociological knowledge of disciplines includes, for instance, the rate of dissemination, and epistemological knowledge the extent of shared knowledge between the writer and the reader. While linguistic knowledge has received ample attention in EAP research, epistemological and sociological knowledge yet need to be brought to the forefront of EAP scholarship (cf. Bruce & Ding, 2026). This epistemological, sociological and linguistic subject knowledge should encompass not only the disciplines of our students but also EAP itself, to foster the field's reflexivity.

The need for subject knowledge in EAP pedagogy is driven by the requirement to teach students content that is accurate, up-to-date, and tailored to their individual needs. Given that many EAP practitioners come to the field from a language teaching background, practitioners typically have developed general pedagogical knowledge and strategies for acquiring the knowledge of context upon their entry to EAP, but EAP subject matter knowledge is what they often need to develop (Campion, 2016; Webster, 2022). Examples of disseminated EAP subject knowledge can be found in numerous journal articles and monographs. Subject knowledge is best acquired by direct access to original theoretical and research literature, and alternatively by less direct access through examples of the application of original theories and findings through conference presentations and published work. Walková (2024) warns against the shortcut access through teaching materials developed by others as it might result in perpetuating myths in EAP and in de-skilling EAP practitioners rather than in developing expertise.

Scholarship on subject matter knowledge needs to abstract away from context-dependant observations and make generalisations based on data sample of sufficient size. Perhaps for this reason, practitioners might feel reticent to undertake scholarship aiming to develop subject knowledge, as it is commonly perceived as a domain reserved for researchers. However, I argue that it is imperative that practitioners also contribute to EAP subject knowledge for the reason of developing collective expertise. Practitioners are much better placed to contribute with pedagogically pertinent subject matter knowledge than researchers disconnected from EAP teaching practice. Through scholarship on subject matter knowledge, practitioners can drive the EAP research agenda, addressing actual student problems they encounter in their practice and taking responsibility for advancing the field.

Pedagogical content knowledge

Pedagogical content knowledge enables practitioners to teach their particular subject matter. It is the result of theorising informal knowledge that EAP practitioners have developed by applying theoretical knowledge in teaching practice to facilitate student learning (see Section 4.3). I will

illustrate this knowledge loop with Leńko-Szymańska's (2004) paper on demonstratives. Leńko-Szymańska observed an issue in her students' learning of content that could not be solved by insights in the literature (formal, subject matter knowledge), namely, the use of demonstratives in writing. Therefore, she used her subject matter knowledge, namely corpus linguistics, to derive insights to inform her teaching (thus constructing informal knowledge). When Leńko-Szymańska then disseminated these insights as a scholarship output in the form of a published paper, she contributed to the collective knowledge base of EAP (becoming formal pedagogical content knowledge). This is an example of how EAP practitioners can contribute to EAP pedagogical content knowledge through scholarship. Such scholarship needs to be firmly embedded in formal knowledge and the conclusions need to be sufficiently theorised to be generalizable.

Informal knowledge

Informal knowledge, the third layer of knowledge in EAP scholarship, involves using formal knowledge to inform teaching practice. Shulman (2000, p. 50) calls such pedagogical practice *scholarly teaching*, or "teaching that is well grounded in the sources and resources appropriate to the field [and which] reflects a thoughtful selection and integration of ideas and examples, and well-designed strategies". As scholarly teaching requires theoretical knowledge of one's discipline, it goes beyond the mere intuition- and experience-based pedagogy of Evans' (2002) restricted professional. Informal knowledge, thus, is not merely practical teaching experience accumulated and reflected upon over the years. Instead, it is practical knowledge resulting from the application of formal knowledge. The insights acquired through scholarly teaching can be made explicit, theorized and disseminated through scholarship activity, thus contributing one's individual knowledge to the collective knowledge of the field. Through this process, informal knowledge becomes formal, pedagogical content knowledge (Section 4.2.4). We can thus see that the boundary between formal and informal knowledge is permeable: formal knowledge informs informal knowledge, and informal knowledge can become formal.

Impressionistic knowledge

Finally, impressionistic knowledge in EAP scholarship involves identification of areas to which the field has paid limited attention so far but which do require further exploration. This is not simply identifying gaps in existing research: not all research gaps represent meaningful problems that need addressing. Rather, then, impressionistic knowledge involves identifying gaps in pedagogical practices and our understanding of HE operation, and challenging unjustified norms and outdated approaches. As novices have limited impressionistic knowledge (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993), they may overestimate the potential and the value of their scholarship ideas. For this reason, it is useful for novices to discuss their ideas with colleagues more experienced in scholarship, as persons in the shadow.

Alternative models

It could be argued that other models of knowledge and/or expertise better capture the complexities of knowledge and expertise in EAP. I will now consider three alternative models – Mishra and Koehler (2006), Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) and Schön (1983, 1987) – and explain why these were not used to develop the model proposed here.

The first alternative model is Mishra and Koehler's (2006) framework. Building on Shulman's (1986[2003], 1987) types of teacher knowledge, Mishra and Koehler add the knowledge of technology into their model, with the emphasis on technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK). There are two problems with their model, however. First, they see pedagogical content knowledge as an *intersection* of content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge, which they also represent visually by two intersecting circles. However, pedagogical content knowledge is not a mere intersection of content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge. If this were the case, then someone with content knowledge in a particular discipline, e.g. a researcher with a doctorate, would only need to develop general pedagogical knowledge, e.g. in the form of a pedagogical certificate qualification in HE teaching, to become an expert teacher in their discipline. That this is not the case has been demonstrated by university staff's dissatisfaction with generic teacher training with no disciplinary insights (Bostock, 2022).

The second problem with Mishra and Koehler's (2006) TPCK model is that, by adding a third intersecting circle of technology to the two of content and pedagogy, they arrive at four intersections in total – in addition to pedagogical content knowledge also technological content knowledge, technological pedagogical knowledge and technological pedagogical content knowledge. With seven types of teacher knowledge in total, the model is too fine-grained and puts undue emphasis on education technology. While such an emphasis was perhaps appropriate in Mishra and Koehler's context, since their paper focused on training aiming to develop teachers' knowledge of technology, elevating the knowledge of technology to the same level as content knowledge or pedagogical content knowledge might not be appropriate in all contexts. For this reason, the present model subsumes technological pedagogical content knowledge under the area of general pedagogical knowledge; admittedly, the downside of this approach is a lack of nuance in using technology to teach particular subject matter (e.g. the use of corpora to teach language).

Another alternative model not implemented here is Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986), which proposes five stages of becoming an expert. In the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model, the emphasis is on expert performance as effortless and automatic, intuitive rather than thoughtful, and non-reflective except in high-stake situations. This view, however, is in contrast to other expertise studies that show that experts invest considerable time and thought in their work (e.g. Chi, 2006; Tsui, 2003). This discrepancy can be explained when recognizing that Dreyfus and Dreyfus's (1986) account is only partial: while it is true that many processes in expert performance are automatized, experts re-invest the mental resources thus freed by automatization into solving increasingly complex problems (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). This account of expertise as automatized on the one hand, and progressive on the other hand, is reflected in models which distinguish between routine and adaptive expertise (Gruber & Harteis, 2018), providing further evidence of partiality of the Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) model.

While Dreyfus and Dreyfus downplay the importance of reflection, Schön's (1983, 1987) notion of reflective practitioner downplays the importance of theory, or formal knowledge. However,

expertise studies consistently (e.g. Chi, 2006; Gruber & Harteis, 2018; Tsui, 2003) show that experts have much more comprehensive knowledge than non-experts. In the words of Winch (2010, p. 169), "[t]he transition from novice to expert […] is thus largely a story of increasing involvement with the underpinning systematic or theoretical knowledge that is associated with the occupation." Winch (ibid.) also points out that underlying theory enables different and richer insights from experience and that generalisations drawn merely from experience are not sufficient to build knowledge in complex fields. As Grossman (1990, p. 49) puts it, "[l]earning from experience, then, can be haphazard, dependent to a certain extent on chance." In contrast to Schön's (1983, 1987) and Dreyfus and Dreyfus's (1986) models, then, the model proposed here acknowledges the role of both reflection and formal knowledge.

This paper has argued that practitioners can develop expertise by engaging in scholarship. I have characterized scholarship as an activity that aims to extend knowledge and to achieve impact and I have drawn a distinction between scholarship as an intellectual activity and scholarship outputs. I have proposed ingredients of EAP knowledge for scholarship: 1) foundational self-regulatory knowledge; 2) formal knowledge including a) the knowledge of context, b) subject matter knowledge, c) general pedagogical knowledge, and d) pedagogical content knowledge; 3) informal knowledge acquired in teaching practice; and finally 4) impressionistic knowledge that becomes available only with experience and expertise in scholarship.

Since this knowledge base is built in various ways, including formal learning and teaching experience, scholarship is not a sufficient condition for achieving expertise. However, it is a necessary condition for the development of expertise if expertise seen as contributing to one's field. For this reason, CPD without scholarship is not sufficient for the development of expertise as CPD means benefitting from the contributions of others but not contributing with new knowledge oneself. Bond (2024, p.62) highlights this aspect of scholarship dissemination when she argues that "[o]ne of the ethical imperatives within scholarship is to make our work public and in doing so to add to the

knowledge base of others – in this way our own scholarship becomes a form of professional development for others and contributes to the development of a coherent identity for a profession."

This paper leads to several practical recommendations. For EAP practitioners, it is to focus on scholarship that is at the edge of their current competence. This requires both embedding scholarship in formal knowledge of the field and deriving generalisable theoretical insights. Practitioners new to scholarship should seek advice from persons in the shadow. Such mentoring relationships can be provided through professional networks and associations. These should also provide training opportunities for practitioners' development of self-regulatory knowledge. Finally, institutions should create conditions in which practitioners can conduct scholarship in order to improve teaching. Several disclaimers need to be made. First, the model proposed here is precisely just that – a model, a simplification of complexities. It thus necessarily introduces boundaries where there are overlaps, such as between types of knowledge, and it collapses nuances which might perhaps be required in certain contexts. Second, I do not claim that all scholarship outputs lead to expertise. What is crucial for the development of expertise is the intellectual involvement at the edge of one's competence, hence the distinction between scholarship as a process and scholarship outputs. Finally, while expertise studies mention that recognition by peers is one of the characteristics of experts, this chapter has intentionally avoided underlining this aspect. The reason is that it is not clear what type of peer recognition could be a reliable measure of EAP practitioners' expertise. For instance, Ding and Monbec (2024, pp. 32-33) show that EAP practitioners' work can be influenced not only by world-leading figures in the field but also by other EAP practitioners whose recognition is not global. Thus, if recognition were measured by traditional metrics of citations and invited plenaries, the picture of experts in EAP would be inevitably very limited and distorted.

The final remark concerns whether expertise is achievable by all EAP practitioners. King (2022, p.3) draws a useful distinction between excellence as "the state of being better than others [… and] expertise [a]s a process potentially accessible to all." What follows is that if expertise is not seen as a state of being recognized by peers as superior but as a process of working at the edge of one's

competence, as conceptualised in this paper, then indeed all EAP practitioners can become experts. This requires both the will of individual practitioners and favourable institutional conditions. The former is stressed by Winch (2010, p. 151) when he concludes that "[t]he issue about increasing the number of experts in any given field then becomes one about getting more people to care about achieving" expertise. The latter is emphasised by King (2022, p.24) when she concludes that universities "must also foster and enable a culture of professional learning for teaching that is integrated into everyday practice, rather than being seen as an add-on. Without this active institutional-level commitment, expertise in teaching will only ever be a subculture of the few." This paper, then, is a plea for individuals to engage in scholarship to develop their practice and for institutions to create conditions in which scholarship is encouraged, work-loaded and valued.

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