NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENECS

COURSE CODE: ENG 411

COURSE TITLE: ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

COURSE GUIDE

ENG 411
ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Contents

Introduction

I warmly welcome you to the course ENG 411 – English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This course is designed for final year students whose major discipline is English. I can assure you that you will enjoy studying this course that will make you practitioners and course designers for specific purposes.

This course guide is meant to give you a general overview of what this course is all about. It will briefly tell you what the course is about, what course materials you will be using and how to work your way through these materials. It suggests some general guidelines for the amount of time you are likely to spend on each unit of the course. It also gives you some guidance on your tutor-marked assignments. This course should be taken as self-study. You are expected to complete it in one semester of about three months with your facilitator helping out. It is left for you to make sure that you attend lectures and agree with your facilitator on how best to complete this manual and at the same time make the best out of it.

Course Aims

ENG 411 – English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is designed to introduce you to a learning-centred approach to ESP, and the development of a programme of instruction for ESP. The overall aim of this Manual is to provide you with a theoretical grounding in language teaching and with an introduction to the practice and theory of ESP incorporating English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Educational or Academic Purposes (EAP). The aim is to enable you plan and design ESP programmes and teaching materials for use in your own teaching contexts. The Manual will support you in planning an ESP programme for specified group of learners and prepare sample materials that you would use for the programme

Course Objectives

It is hoped that by the time you complete this course using this manual, you will be able to:

- define ESP
- discuss the origins of ESP and its development;
- state the special characteristics of ESP programmes and teaching materials;
- be equipped with theories and application examples of course design.

- will go through curriculum and syllabus construction by doing an ESP course design project such as designing appropriate courses for specified groups of ESP learners

- conduct analyses of the communicative and linguistic needs of specific groups of learners;

- critically evaluate and select ESP teaching materials and methods and be able to conduct ESP course evaluation;

- create original ESP teaching materials;

- recommend methods of assessment and testing appropriate for specific ESP contexts and

- make connections between the relevant findings from discourse analysis, in particular from genre analysis, and the teaching of ESP discourse skills;

Working through the Course Manual

To complete this course, you are advised to read the study units, and read other materials recommended for further reading and those at the reference sections of the course. Each unit contains self assessment exercises, and at specific points in the course you will be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, there is a final examination. You will find all the components of the course listed below. You have to allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course successfully and on time.

For you to understand this Course material, you are expected to study all the units diligently and successfully. Do not hesitate to consult your facilitator where need be. Each study unit introduces you to one or more key concept in ESP and your ability to master all will make you a successful ESP course designer and material writer. In order to complete your training in ESP successfully, you should:

- Not disregard any aspect of this manual or see it as being simple, difficult or complicated. Just read on and you will always see the connections.

- Do all the self assessment exercises, either alone or in a discussion group with your course mates

- Do not neglect any of the tutor-marked assignments, answer and submit to your facilitator on demand.

Course Materials

The major components of the course are:
1   Study units
2   Textbooks
3   Assignment File
4   Presentation schedule

Study Units

There are twenty one (21) study units divided into six modules. The first module has five units and deals with historical and theoretical perspectives of ESP, touching the characteristics and what differentiates ESP from General English (GE). The second is on ESP course and syllabus design with the aim of looking at factors affecting ESP course design and steps to course design. The third module is on the specialized methods and strategies for teaching ESP. The fourth is on material design/adaptation and material evaluation while

module five treats evaluation and testing, Module six looks at some genres at the target situation. These Modules are arranged as:

Module 1: Historical and Theoretical Perspective on ESP

Unit 1   Definition and Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

2   Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP

3   History and Phases in the Development of ESP

4   Differences between (i) ESP and General English (GE) Programmes; (ii) ESP Teacher and General English Teacher

5   Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching

Module 2:   ESP Course and Syllabus Design

1   Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design; Types of Syllabus

2   Factors Affecting ESP Course Design

3   Approaches and Techniques for Needs Analysis; Principles for Analyzing Learners Needs

4   Approaches to and Steps in ESP Course Design

Module 3:   Methods and Strategies

1   ESP Methods and Principles of Communicative Methodology

2   Some Attributes of ESP Methodology

3   Principles of Learning

Module 4:   Material Design and Evaluation

1   Material Production and Selection

2   Using Authentic Material

3   Material Evaluation

Module 5: Evaluation and Testing in ESP

1   Evaluation and Testing: Meaning, Effects and Purpose

2   Types and Functions of Evaluation and Testing

Module 6:   Genre Analyses

1   Meaning of Genre Analysis

2   Legal Language

3   Language of Journalism

4   Language of Science and Technology

Each module is divided into units that expand on topics related to the main theme of the module. Next, these topics are listed followed by discussions on them. You should be able to complete assignments that are added at intervals as the discussions go on. Each assignment provides practice for you in developing the sequential components of ESP course. Your answers are supposed to be relevant and short.

In module one, you will read about the history and development of ESP from English Language Teaching (ELT): under the umbrella term of ESP, there are a myriad of sub-divisions. For example English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and numerous others with new ones being added yearly to the list. In Japan, Anthony (1997a: 1) states that as a result of universities being given control over their own curriculums *"a rapid growth in English courses aimed at specific disciplines, e.g. English for Chemists arose."* The reasons for the evolution of ESP, its characteristics and phases in its development were also discussed.

The second module teaches you the difference between the terms curriculum, syllabus, course and syllabus design. It also introduces you to factors affecting ESP course design and the steps you will follow in designing a course for specified learners. As ESP is based on learners' reasons for needing English, special attention will be paid to needs analysis. Needs analysis is the process of establishing *what* and *how* of a course (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Before the advent of Munby's model, EAP course may have been based mainly on teachers' intuitions of students' needs. The needs analyses address workplace and teaching expectations (Engineering and ESP) and learners' (as engineers and language users) needs, wants, and desires (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The key feature of ESP is that the teaching and the materials should be founded on the results of needs analysis.

Module three exposes you to the ESP methodology as a communicative one with its attributes of task-based, problem solving, collaborative and team teaching.

In the fourth module, you will learn about getting materials and resources for teaching ESP. These materials should be authentic. The ESP teacher has the choice of producing fresh materials, or adapting the existing ones to suit his purpose Materials and methodology are significant in the ESP context where they are used as a source of language, motivation and stimulation and reference (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Materials evaluation and development are complementary. We can get ideas and techniques for our writing from evaluating existing materials. Similarly, writing materials makes us aware of what to look for in the published materials (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The principles underlying EAP methodology are the same as those underlying sound ELT methodology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Therefore, functional syllabus, communicative and learning-centred approaches, and authenticity in language and materials are all relevant to EAP (Jordan, 1997).

The fifth module talks about evaluation and assessment in ESP. Evaluation is a process, which begins with determining what information to gather and which ends with learners and courses. It makes use of quantitative methods (e.g. tests) and qualitative methods (e.g. interview and questionnaire). It can be formative (on-going) or summative (end-of-course).

Finally, module 6 looks into the meaning of genre, how to analyse genres and analysis of some sample genres in order to help you understand the specialized nature of ESP and what to expect in different target situations. You will be exposed to features of Legal language, language of journalism and English for Science and Technology.

Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorials

A total of 8 hours of tutorials is provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutorial facilitator, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your tutorial facilitator will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter, as well as provide assistance to you during the course. You must mail your tutor marked assignments to your tutorial facilitator well before the due date. They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your tutor by telephone or e-mail if you need help. Contact your tutorial facilitator if:

- you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings.
- you have difficulty with the self assessment exercises.
- you have a question or a problem with an assignment, with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your tutor and ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials prepare a question list before attending them. You will gain a lot from participating actively.

Assessment File

There are two aspects of the assessment of this course; the tutor marked assignments and a written examination. In doing these assignments, you are expected to apply information gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutorial facilitator for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the presentation schedule and the *Assignment file*. The work that you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total course mark.

Tutor Marked Assignment

There is a tutor marked assignment at the end of every unit. You are required to attempt all the assignments. You will be assessed on all of them but the best three performances will be used for your continuous assessment. Each assignment carries 10%.

When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a (tutor-marked assignment) form, to your tutorial facilitator. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutorial facilitator on or before the deadline. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutorial facilitator before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension.

Final Examination and Grading

The final examination ENG 411 will comprise a written exam and a project and will carry 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which will reflect everything you have learnt about ESP. You should use the time between finishing the last module and taking the examination to revise the entire course. You may find it useful to

review your self assessment exercises and tutor marked assignments before the examination. You are expected to align yourself with either of the coin of ESP – English for academic purposes (EAP) or English for occupational purposes (EOP) and design a three weeks course of four contact hours a week on your chosen area reflecting factors influencing course design and steps to be followed in ESP course design. (Be as detailed as possible explaining why your chosen profession needs English, your choice of syllabus type, etc

Course Marking Scheme

The following table lays out how the actual course marking is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignments (the best three of all the assignments submitted)	Three assignments, marked out of 10% Totalling 30%
Final examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

Course Overview

Unit	Title of Work	Weeks Activity	Tutor-Marked Assignment
	Course Guide	1	
Module 1: Historical and Theoretical Perspective on ESP			
1	Definition and Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)	2	
2	Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP	3	
3	History and Phases in the Development of ESP	4	
4	Differences between (i) ESP and General English (GE) Programmes; (ii) ESP Teacher and General English Teacher	5	
5	Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching	6	TMA 1
Module 2: ESP Course and Syllabus Design			
1	Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design; Types of Syllabus	7	
2	Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Language Description	8	

3	Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Learning Theories and Needs Analysis	9	
4	Approaches and Techniques for Needs Analysis; Principles for Analyzing Learners Needs	10	
5	Approaches to and Steps in ESP Course Design	11	TMA 2
Module 3: Methods and Strategies			
1	ESP Methods and Principles of Communicative Methodology	12	
2	Some Attributes of ESP Methodology	13	
3	Principles of Learning	14	TMA 3
Module 4: Material Design and Evaluation			
1	Material Production and Selection	15	
2	Using Authentic Material	16	
3	Material Evaluation	17	TMA 4
Module 5: Evaluation and Testing in ESP			
1	Evaluation and Testing: Meaning, Effects and Purpose	18	
2	Types and Functions of Evaluation and Testing	19	TMA 5
Module 6: Genre Analyses			
1	Meaning of Genre Analysis	20	
2	Legal Language	21	
3	Language of Journalism	22	
4	Language of Science and Technology	23	TMA 6
	Total	23	

Summary

This Course guide has served as a window to you on what to find in this training manual and how best to make use of the information learnt. You have learnt that there are six modules and study units and each module dealing with concepts in ESP. It will guide you to the practical applications of the course design in the form of a syllabus, materials, methodology and assessment for particular professional needs. You have also been informed that your grading on the course will be based on all the tutor-marked assignments and the end of course project.

Acronyms

The following acronyms could be found in this Course material. Read and understand their meanings.

CBI	Content-based Instruction
CL	Cooperative Learning
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EBP	English for Business Purposes
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes
EGAP	English for General Academic Purposes
EMP	English for Medical Purposes
EMFE	English for Management, Finance and Economics
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
EPP	English for Professional Purposes
EST	English for Science and Technology
EVP	English for Vocational Purposes
EWP	English for/in the Workplace
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English language Teaching
ESBP	English for Specific Business Purposes
PSA	Present Situation Analysis
TBL	Task-based Learning
TSA	Target situation analysis

Contents

COURSE MATERIAL

**ENG 411
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CONTENTS

MODULE 1

Historical and Theoretical Perspective on ESP

Introduction

In Module one, you will read about the history and development of ESP from English Language Teaching (ELT). Under the umbrella term of ESP there are a myriad of sub-divisions. For example English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and numerous others with new ones being added yearly to the list. In Japan, Anthony (1997a: 1) observes that, as a result of universities being given control over their own curriculums, *"a rapid growth in English courses aimed at specific disciplines, e.g. English for Chemists arose."* The reasons for the evolution of ESP, its characteristics and phases in its development will also be discussed.

Unit 1   Definition and Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Unit 2   Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP

Unit 3   History and Phases in the Development of ESP

Unit 4   Differences between (i) ESP and General English (GE) Programmes; (ii) ESP Teacher and General English Teacher

Unit 5   Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching

Module 1: Unit 1

Definitions, Characteristics and Principles of ESP

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the general concept of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In doing that, you will be told about what ESP is and what it is not. English for Specific Purposes or English for Special Purposes arose as a term in the 1960s as it became increasingly aware that General English (GE) courses frequently did not meet learners' or employers' needs. It has become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching today. This unit exposes you to the definitions of ESP, tracing its origin as an approach to language teaching that focused on learner's reasons for learning English. It also describes the characteristics of ESP as an approach to language teaching. This unit also attempts a survey of the development and directions of ESP, otherwise known as "enduring conception" or basic principles and they include authenticity, research-base, language/text, need and learning/methodology.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

You are expected, by the end of this unit, to be able to:

  (a) define ESP;
  (b) state the relationship between ESP and ELT;

(c) describe some characteristics of ESP;

(d) discuss Swale's (1990) enduring conceptions of ESP.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is ESP?

From the outset, the term ESP was a source of contention with many arguments as to what exactly was ESP? Even today there is a large amount of on-going debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP constitutes (Belcher, 2006, Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, Anthony, 1997). I would add that as general English courses become increasingly specialized and learner centred with many courses using needs analysis, it is getting harder to describe what ESP is and what "General English" is.

According to Strevens (1977) "ESP concerns the emergence of a number of activities, movements and subjects that are carried out predominantly (though) not exclusively in English across the world)" (p. 57). It looks at the purpose for which the student needs to learn English, i.e. for occupational or for study purposes. ESP is a term that refers to teaching or studying English for a particular career (like law, medicine) or for business in general.

The fact that learners know specifically why they are learning a language is a great advantage on both sides of the process. The learners are therefore motivated, and this enables the teacher to meet learners' needs and expectations more easily. Learner and the way of learning ("acquiring language") are considered to be the main factors in the whole process. Hutchinson and Waters (1992) emphasize ESP to be an approach and not a product which means language learning not language use is highlighted. They draw attention to a learning-centred approach "in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner´s reason for learning" (p. 19).

Coffey (1985) observes that ESP is "a quick and economical use of the English language to pursue a course of academic study (EAP) or effectiveness in paid employment (EOP)" (p.79). Lorenzo (2005) reminds us that ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (p. 1) He also points out that as ESP is usually delivered to adult students, frequently in a work related setting (EOP), that motivation to learn is higher than in usual ESL (English as a Second Language) contexts. Carter (1983) believes that self-direction is important in the sense that an ESP course is concerned with turning learners into users of the language.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Using at least three definitions explain the term ESP.

(b) ESP is a process not a product. Explain.

3.2 The Relationship between English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English Language Teaching (ELT)

Now that you know what ESP is, let us examine ESP as a branch of ELT. Robinson (1989) describes ESP as a type of English Language Teaching (ELT) and defines it as: "Goal-oriented language learning" (p. 398). This means a student has a specific goal that is going to be attained. Coffey (1985) sees ESP as a major part of communicative language teaching in

general. Umera-Okeke (2005, p. 4) adapting Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ELT Tree traced the relationship between ELT and ESP. She establishes that the general purpose of language teaching was initially as a result of learning and communication which was later narrowed to ELT. English was taught as a Mother Tongue (EMT), a Foreign Language (EFL) or a Second Language (ESL). It was ESL and EFL as branches of ELT that later gave rise to ESP and GE. This is as illustrated in *The ELT Diagram* below.

Fig 1: The ELT Diagram (Source: Umera-Okeke, 2005:4)
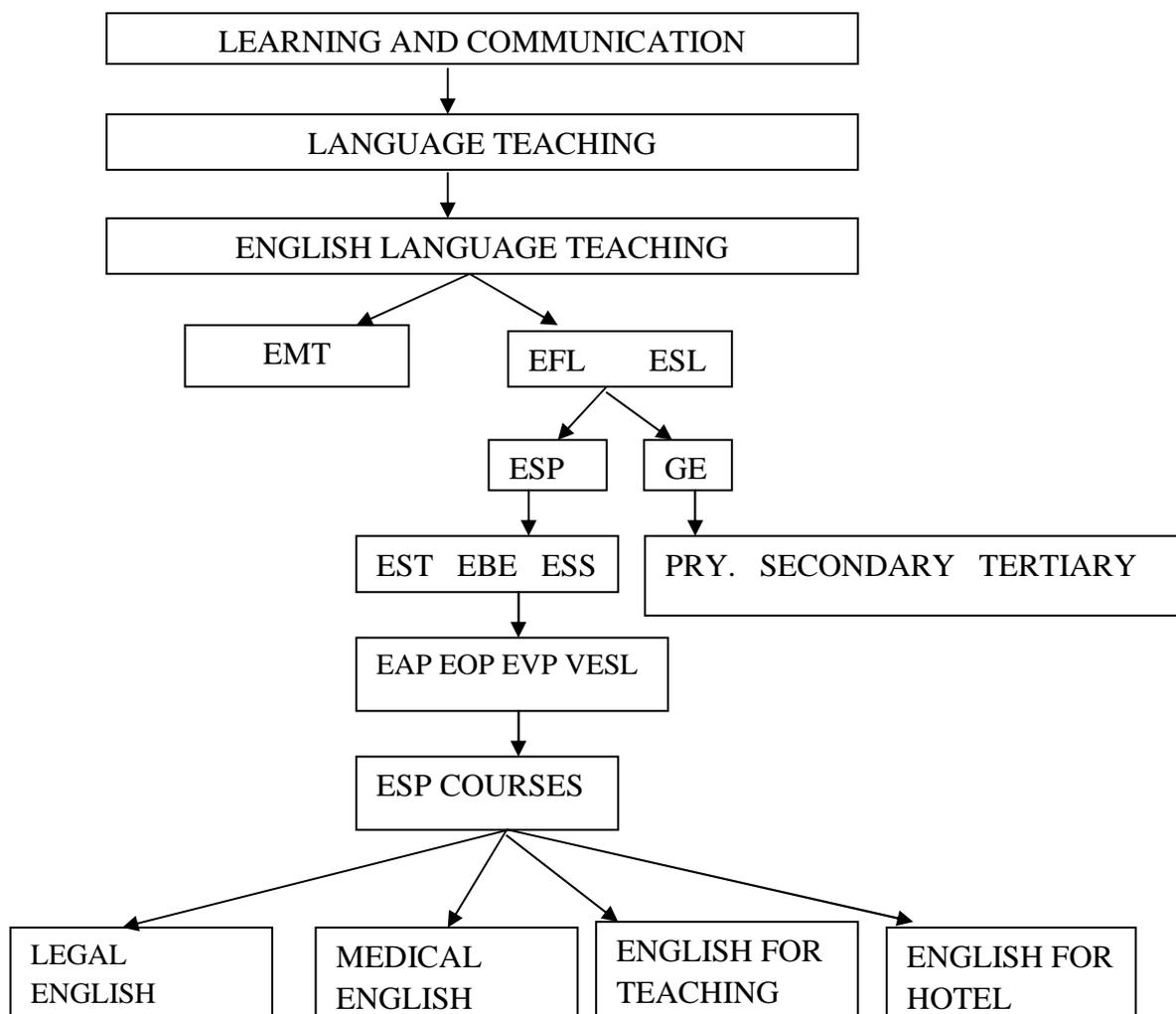
The diagram illustrates that ESP is an approach to language teaching. This is a similar conclusion to that made by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who state that, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p.19). It is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English; not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists; not different from any other kind of language teaching but concerns what people do with the language and the range of knowledge and abilities that enable them to do it (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981). This definition is as against seeing ESP as a product, that is, there is no particular kind of language or methodology nor does it consists of a particular type of reading material. It is rather an approach to language learning based on learner's need (Why does the learner need to learn a foreign language?).

From everything said, you can see that some of the qualities of ESP as one of the ELT branches include that:

1. ESP has specific needs.

2. ESP has content related materials.

3. ESP is centred on particular language function, skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading); English components (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary) or activities.

4. ESP is learner-centred.

5. ESP is perceived as relevant by the learners.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) How can you describe ESP in relation to ELT?

(b) ESP is an approach, not a product. Discuss.

3.3 Characteristics of ESP

We have established the relationship between ESP and ELT. Now you will be informed about some characteristics of ESP. ESP is seen as an approach by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). They suggest that ESP does not concern a particular language, teaching methodology or material. If you want to understand ESP, they suggest that you find out exactly why a person needs to learn a foreign language. Your need for learning English can be for study purposes or for work purposes. However, it is the definition of needs that is the starting point for decisions which determine the language to be taught.

Strevens (1988) makes a distinction between absolute characteristics and variable characteristics of ESP. The absolute characteristics are that ESP courses are:

1. designed to meet the specific needs of the learner;

2. related in content to particular disciplines or occupations;

3. centred on language specific to those disciplines or occupations;

4. in contrast to General English.

The variable characteristics are that courses may:

1. be restricted in the skills to be learned;

2. not be taught according to a particular methodology.

Robinson (1991) also suggests two absolute criteria for defining ESP courses. The first is that ESP programmes are normally goal-oriented. The second is that they derive from a needs analysis. The needs analysis will state as accurately as possible what the learners will have to do when speaking the language.

Two divisions of the characteristics of ESP are outlined by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998): some absolute and some variable to resolve arguments about what ESP is. This followed on from the earlier work by Strevens (1988). These characteristics include:

31

Absolute Characteristics

1.   ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.

2.   ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.

3.   ESP is centred on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics

1.   ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.

2.   ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English.

3.   ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.

4.   ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

5.   Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems (p.4).

This description helps to clarify to a certain degree what an ESP course constitutes and what it does not constitute. Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristics that "ESP is in contrast with General English" and added more variable characteristics. They assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline and that it is likely to be used with adult learners although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting. ESP should be viewed as an "approach" to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an "attitude of mind."

Other characteristics are that ESP courses are generally limited to a certain time period, and that they are taught to adults in classes that are homogeneous in terms of the work or study that participants are doing. However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 1992) do not emphasize any concrete limits of students' level or age; they emphasize learners' individual needs and specialist knowledge of using English for specific purposes. Although there exist several aims and different purposes why learning English, the way of learning may be the same. They state: "Though the content of learning may vary there is no reason to suppose that the processes of learning should be any different for the ESP learner than for the General English learner" (p.18). They add that ESP methodology "could just as well have been used in the learning of any kind of English" (p. 18). Perhaps one of the main distinguishing characteristics is that certain but by no means all ESP (especially EOP) courses are carried out for a group of workers from one area of work.

There are a number of other characteristics of ESP that several authors have put forward. Belcher (2006), states that "ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored to fit instruction" (p. 135). Mohan (1986) adds that ESP courses focus on preparing learners "for chosen communicative environments" (p. 15).

Learner's purpose is also stated by Graham and Beardsley (1986) and learning centredness (Carter, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) as integral parts of ESP. Thus it could be argued that ESP, from the outset, focused on learner centred teaching, a situation that was certainly not true of traditional general English courses. As stated above however, this situation has changed dramatically in recent years.

Lorenzo (2005) reminds us that ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (p. 1). I would agree with him, but would argue that grammar still plays an important and necessary part in an ESP course. He also points out that as ESP is usually delivered to adult students, frequently in a work related setting (EOP), that motivation to learn is higher than is usual in English as Second Language (ESL) contexts. Carter (1983) believes that self-direction is important in the sense that an ESP course is concerned with turning learners into users of the language. Thus ESP played an integral role in communicative language teaching.

To sum up, there are three features common to ESP: (a) authentic materials, (b) purpose-related orientation, and (c) self-direction. These features are indeed useful in attempting to formulate one's own understanding of ESP. Revisiting Dudley-Evans' (1997) claim that ESP should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level, one would conclude that the use of authentic learning materials is entirely feasible. The use of authentic content materials, modified or unmodified in form, is indeed a feature of ESP, particularly in self-directed study and research tasks. Purpose-related orientation, on the other hand, refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting, for example, student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note taking, and writing. Finally, self-direction is characteristic of ESP courses in that the point of including self-direction is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users. In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. There must also be a systematic attempt by teachers to teach the learners how to learn by teaching them about learning strategies (Hutchinson &Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans, 1987 &1998; Shohamy, 1995; Douglas, 2000).

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Using Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) definition, write out five characteristics of ESP.

(b) At the centre of all ESP courses is the learner. Expatiate.

(c) What are the three features common to ESP?

3.4 The Basic Conceptions/Principles of ESP

At this point, you should note that there are five conceptions considered to be the foundations, essential features or basic principles of ESP. Swale (1990) uses the term "enduring conceptions" to refer to them. These five conceptions are: authenticity, research-base, language/text, need and learning/methodology. These five conceptions originate from both the real world (the "target situation" of the ESP) and ESP pedagogy. It is therefore crucial to discuss each of them in an attempt to survey the development and directions of ESP. As a matter of fact, each of the conceptions will identify a focus-based approach to ESP and serves as a contribution to the concept of ESP itself.

3.4.1. Authenticity

The earliest concept to emerge from the development of ESP was that of authenticity. The first generation of ESP materials that appeared in the mid-1960s took skills as their principal means of selection (Close, 1992). The underlying concept is that ESP teachers would need to establish the skills priorities of students in order to develop appropriate ESP teaching materials. As Close argues, the conception of authenticity was central to the approach taken to the reading skill.

As earlier discussed, the main objective of ESP is usually developing communicative competence. This could only be achieved through an adoption of authentic materials that serve the needs of learners in different fields such as aviation, business, technology, etc. Some courses prepare learners for various academic programs. Others prepare learners for work in the fields such as law, medicine, engineering, etc. The problem that frequently arises with such ESP courses is the teachers' dependence on published textbooks available. These textbooks rarely include authentic materials in their design. A trained teacher should, therefore, resort to supplementary material that compensate for the lack of authenticity in textbooks.

Skills-based approaches to ESP have enlarged the conception of authenticity in two principal ways. First, authenticity of text was broadened as to include texts other than the ones that are in textbooks, and, at the same time, was narrowed in the sense that in each skill a distinction is made between different types of texts generated by a given skill. Reading, for example, may be sub-divided into reading reports, reading technical journals, reading instruction manuals, etc. Secondly, the conception of authenticity was enlarged to include authenticity of task. In effect, this meant designing tasks requiring students to process texts as they would in the real world. In other words, ESP learners were required to use ESP materials which employed the same skills and strategies as would be required in the target situation (Morrow, 1980).

3.4.2. Research Base

Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) were the first scholars who point to the importance of and the need for a research base for ESP set out in one of the earliest discussions of ESP. This was a call for a programme of research into ESP registers which was taken up by several early ESP materials writers such as Herbert (1965) or Ewer and Latorre (1969), who analyzed large corpora of specialist texts in order to establish the statistical contours of different registers. The principal limitation of this approach was not its research base but its conception of text as register, restricting the analysis to the word and sentence levels as register was invariably defined in these terms. The procedure adopted for the analysis was twofold. The main structural words and non-structural vocabulary were identified by visual scanning. For the main sentence patterns, a small representative-sample count was made.

3.4.3. Language/Text

In the 1990s, there were a number of ESP projects which were triggered by concerns over international safety and security. The first of these was SEASPEAK. It was a practical project in applied linguistics and language of engineering. According to Strevens and Johnson

(1983), SEASPEAK, which was published in 1987-1988, was the establishment, for the first time, of international maritime English. They explain that other ESP projects were published later as a result of the success of the first project. These projects included AIRSPEAK (1988) and POLICESPEAK (1994). Each of these projects involved a substantial research phase with linguists and technical specialists cooperating. The NEWSPEAK research shared the large-scale base of the register-analysis approach but the principal advance was that it was now applied to a more sophisticated, four-level concept of text: purposes of maritime communication, operational routines, topics of maritime communication, and discourse procedures. Although register analysis remains small-scale and restricted to native-speaker encounters, later research demonstrated the gap between ESP materials designers' intuitions about language and the language actually used in ESP situations (Williams, 1988; Mason, 1989; Lynch & Anderson, 1991; Jones, 1990).

The reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. The approach was clearly set out by two of its principal advocates, Allen and Widdowson (1974). They specifically argued that one might usefully distinguish two kinds of ability which an English course at ESP level should aim at developing. The first is the ability to recognize how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, or the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognize and manipulate the formal devices which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passages of prose. One might say that the first has to do with rhetorical coherence of discourse, the second with the grammatical cohesion of text.

In practice, however, the discourse-analysis approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions. The main shortcoming of the approach was that its treatment remained fragmentary, identifying the functional units of which discourse was composed at sentence/utterance level but offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text.

As an offspring of discourse analysis, the genre-analysis approach seeks to see text as a whole rather than as a collection of isolated units. According to Johnson (1995), this is achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of the text through a series of phases or 'moves'. The major difference between discourse analysis and genre analysis is that, while discourse analysis identifies the functional components of text, genre analysis enables the material writer to sequence these functions into a series to capture the overall structure of such texts. The limitation of genre analysis has been a disappointing lack of application of research to pedagogy. There are few examples of teaching materials based on genre-analysis research.

3.4.4. Learning Needs

Another basic conception of ESP and one that has been addressed frequently is learning needs. This should not be a surprise for each and every specific domain would impose its own needs, and it goes without saying that the needs required for a specific field and the

methodology for serving these needs on the ground do not work with another field which would defiantly dictate its own requirements. All language teaching must be designed for the "specific learning and language use purposes of identified groups of students" (Mackay & Mountford, 1978, p. 6). Thus, a systematic analysis of these specific learning needs and language-use purposes (communication needs) is a pre-requisite for making the content of a language programme relevant to the learners' needs.

The definition of purposes is essentially a decision that should lead to a situation where ESP assumes a valued place in the school/university curriculum, particularly if the target population (learners who will be taught ESP) are aware of the ways in which this component of the language teaching program is likely to help them achieve immediate learning needs and potential professional needs. Such definition should also yield a more systematic approach, among teachers, to syllabus design, methodology of teaching and assessment practices. A general approach that is oriented towards integrating language and the content of students' disciplines of specialization is likely to produce course content and a methodology of teaching that emphasize the needs of learners and that provide ample opportunities to use the language in meaningful situations.

A question, in the context of needs assessment that is often asked with respect to ESP, concerns who should be involved in the definition of such needs. Obviously, the teachers themselves are the most concerned in this process. But, for the definition of needs to be as reliable as necessary, it is essential that both the learners and their potential employers are given an opportunity to state their own views in the matter. In this way, we may talk about "real" perceived needs. However, the problem that exists in Nigeria is that there is not yet a realization, neither by institutions nor by learners, of the importance of such a definition and assessment of needs. This is evident in the fact that such analyses are rare, and, if conducted, they are not taken seriously by both parties (i.e. institutions and learners). One reason for this carelessness could be cultural. Compared to the West, people in Nigeria are not used to articulating what they want; if they ever know what they really want. The result would be designing syllabuses and methodologies based on teachers' or employers' intuitions that do not directly address the real needs of the learners. If I may ask, how many people have ever interviewed you on your reason(s) for wanting to study English?

If you want to conduct a needs analysis you must first answer the following crucial question: "Will the students use English at university or in their jobs after graduation?" If the answer is no, then ESP is not a reasonable option for the university's English language programme. The university will have to justify its existence and improve the programme through other means. If the answer is yes, however, then ESP is probably the most intelligent option for the university curriculum. Other such questions are: What language skills will be required (reading, writing, listening, speaking)? What are the significant characteristics of the language in these situations (lexicon, grammar, spoken scripts, written texts, other characteristics)? What extra linguistic knowledge of academia, specific disciplines, specific vocations, or specific professions is required for successful English usage in these areas? You begin with these basic questions so as to survey what will be needed.

Needs analysis was firmly established in the mid-1970s as course designers came to see learners' purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP. Early instruments, notably Munby's (1978) model, establishes needs by investigating the target situation for which learners were being prepared. Munby's model clearly establishes the

place of needs as central to ESP, indeed the necessary starting point in materials or course design. However, his model has been widely criticized for two apparently conflicting reasons: (i) its over-fullness in design, and (ii) what it fails to take into account (that is, socio-political considerations, logistical considerations, administrative considerations, psycho-pedagogic, and methodological considerations).

To counter the shortcomings of target-situation needs analysis, various forms of pedagogic needs have been identified to give more information about the learner and the educational environment. These forms of needs analysis should be seen as complementing target-situation needs analysis and each other, rather than being alternatives. They include deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, and means analysis.

Deficiency analysis gives us information about what the learners' learning needs are (i.e., which of their target-situation needs they lack or feel they lack). This view of needs analysis gains momentum when we consider that the question of priorities is ignored by standard needs analysis. In discussing learners' perceptions of their needs, deficiency analysis takes into account lacks and wants, as well as objective needs of the learners (Allwright, 1982).

Strategy analysis seeks to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn. By investigating learners' preferred learning styles and strategies, strategy analysis provides a picture of the learner's conception of learning.

Means analysis, on the other hand, investigates precisely those considerations that Munby excluded. These relate to the educational environment in which the ESP course is to take place (Swales, 1989).

3.4.5 Learning/Methodology

As a result of the attention given to strategy analysis, a new generation of ESP materials was founded. This new generation of materials is based on conceptions of language or conception of need. The concern was with language learning rather than language use. It was no longer simply assumed that describing and exemplifying what people do with language would enable someone to learn it. A truly valid approach to ESP would be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to this approach as the learning-centred approach and stress the importance of a lively, interesting and relevant teaching/learning style in ESP materials. In the context of a language programme that emphasizes the needs of the learners, anything but a learner/learning-centred syllabus and methodology is bound to create contradictions that will negatively affect students' perceptions of the programme. As advocated in the literature on communicative language teaching, content and teaching-learning procedures must take into account the interests and concerns of the learners, as well as the socio-economic and cultural context in which the language programme is to be implemented.

A syllabus normally refers to "what is to be learnt with some indication of the order in which the items should be learnt" and "the interpretations that it is put to" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 81). In this case, the main orientation of such a syllabus is determined by the needs of the learners as discussed above, with an indication of how the content may be most effectively used to cater for these needs. As mentioned earlier, and in conformity with the

interdisciplinary approach advocated for an ESP programme, the syllabus will also incorporate aspects of the students' discipline of study, which will reinforce their motivation and the usefulness of the language to be learnt.

"Learner-learning centred", "task-based", "activity-based" and "problem-solving" are all attributes which are generally associated with an effective communicative-oriented approach. And, as may be deduced from the recent literature on ESP, this orientation is characteristic of special purpose language teaching in general and ESP in particular. Such an approach aims, among other things, at helping learners develop the skills associated with language learning, as well as skills related to their own discipline of study.

However, in order for an ESP programme to be successful, it would not be sufficient to identify learners' needs, and create syllabuses and adopt methodologies that serve these needs; these are not the whole picture. One very important issue in the context of ESP is programme assessment. Assessment involves an evaluation of the learners' ability to communicate effectively using the target language, as well as their ability to participate fully in the target discourse communities which have been initially defined as relevant to their needs. The formative purpose of such assessment is reflected in the possibility for the learners to use it as feedback on how they can improve their performance, and for the teacher on how he or she can adapt his or her teaching to better fit with the needs of the learners.

Finally, an ESP programme that aims to meet the ever-changing needs of the learners will include an on-going system of evaluation, aiming to provide information on how the programme itself can be improved through the introduction of changes that are deemed necessary.

Self Assessment Exercise

Briefly discuss Swale's (1990) enduring conceptions of ESP.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The expansion of demand for English to suit particular needs and the development of linguistics and educational psychology have given rise to the growth of ESP. In ESP, Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the ESP classroom right away in their work and studies. ESP is therefore seen as a recent trend in ELT, which started in the 1960s to take care of English language needs of individuals. Teaching language in general, and English, in particular, is no longer just a matter of application that serves all needs through any kind of syllabus and methodology. Rather, it is a regulated application that deals with each situation or given discipline independent of the other. And unless language teachers are trained enough to handle such situations and realize the idiosyncrasies of ESP, fruitful outcomes would never be reached.

5.0 SUMMARY

As you have read, ESP was classified based on the need it was supposed to fulfil. It is just a process and a new trend in language teaching that considers not the structure of the language but the ways in which language is actually used in real communication. Everything about it is learner or learning-centred because it was discovered that the learner's needs and interest have bearing on their motivation. It is expected that all efforts should be geared toward discovering the features of specific situations and then making these features the basis of the learner's course if language varies according to situation. In this unit we have established ESP as a major part of communicative language teaching in general which is based on the language need of learners. It has been seen as a process of language teaching with no specialized materials or methods; rather, the emphasis is on what learners do with the language in specialized contexts. In sum, five conceptions/principles of ESP originating from its target situation have been discussed and they include: authenticity, research-base, language/text, need and learning/methodology.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

   (a) Aptly describe at least four characteristics of ESP

   (b) Discuss learning/methodology as a principle of ESP

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Module 1: Unit 2

Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you read about what ESP is and what it is not. It was mentioned to be a resent trend in language teaching and learning with the learner at the centre of everything. We also discussed the general principles of ESP. In this unit we will take you into the reasons for the evolution of ESP. It could be said to be as a result of the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and focus on the learner. The unit will also discuss the two branches of ESP - English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) – whether it is needed for study purposes or for work purposes respectively. The time frame available for the adult ESP learner to master the English for these purposes will also be explained in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

(a) explain the factors that led to the emergence of ESP as an approach to English Language Teaching (ELT) and

(b) clearly define and explain the different types of ESP

(c) discuss the yardstick for the division of EOP and EAP according to time frame

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Reasons for the Evolution of ESP

As earlier mentioned, ESP is still a prominent part of EFL. Johns and Dudley-Evans (2001) are of the opinion that, "the demand for English for specific purposes… continues to increase and expand throughout the world" (p.115). The "internationalism" (Cook, 2001, p.164) of English seems to be increasing with few other global languages i.e. Spanish or Arabic, close to competing with it. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, Pp. 6-8) give three reasons for the emergence of ESP as the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics and a new focus on the learner.

3.1.1 The Demands of a Brave New World

Hutchinson and Waters explain that two historical periods played an important role that led to the creation of ESP; the end of World War II and the Oil Crisis in the 70s. On the one hand, the end of the Second World War in 1945 brought about an era of expansion in scientific, technical and economic activities world-wide. English was therefore learnt as a key to international currency and an international language of technology and commerce. One can say that people were instrumentally motivated to study English because it became the language of manuals, textbooks and journals in specialized fields, and the language of selling of products. The demand increased with the influx of oil and English was taught on the demand and wishes of people. The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English has previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, p.7). On the other hand, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English. This led, consequently, to exerting pressure on the language teaching profession.

3.1.2 A Revolution in Linguistics

Another reason cited to have had tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Most of the work of linguists in the 60s and 70s of the past century focused on the ways in which language is used in real communication. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. This is what Widdowson has in mind when he states that:

> traditionally, the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usages, that is, the grammar. However, new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication (In Umera-Okeke 2005, p. 5).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. That is, the context determines what is said or written. If language varies according to situation, it then follows that all efforts should be geared toward discovering the features of specific situations and then making these features the basis of the learner's course. Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST), which is where ESP stems from. Crystal and Davy (1969) acknowledge this fact when they note that

a particular social situation makes us respond with an appropriate variety of language and that as we move through the day, so the type of language we are using changes fairly instinctively with the situation (p. 4).

This brought about the learner-centred programme whereby the teacher or course designer must define very carefully the specific needs of the learner and then find out the best way(s) to enable him/her achieve those objectives.

3.1.3 Focus on the Learners

The final reason that Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned to have influenced the emergence of ESP has more to do with the development of educational psychology than linguistics. More attention was given in the 70s of the past century to the means through which a learner acquires a language and ways in which it is learnt. Hence, there was a shift of focus from methods of language learning to the different learning strategies, different skills, different learning schemata and different motivating needs and interests that are employed by different learners. This consequently led to a focus on learners' need and designing specific courses to better meet individual needs. The learner's needs and interest was seen to have bearing on their motivation. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. The result of this was a natural extension of "learner-centred" or "learning-centred" perspectives on ESP. Texts were taken from the learner's area of specialization and English lessons developed from them. This increases learner's motivation and makes learning better and faster. Strevens in Kinsella (1985) captured this view when he states that "Special Purpose English teaching are determined by the requirement of the learner rather than by external factors" (p. 196).

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Mention and explain three factors that led to the emergence of ESP

3.2   Types of ESP

Now that you have studied reasons for the emergence of ESP, let us examine the types. ESP was classified depending on the utilitarian purpose it was supposed to perform. Mackay and Mountford (1978) suggest three kinds of utilitarian purposes for which students learn English:

❖ Occupational requirements; for international telephone operations, civil airline, pilot, etc.

❖ Vocational training programme for hotel and catering staff, technical trades, etc.

❖ Academic or professional study, engineering, medicine, law, etc (p. 2).

In their classifications, they distinguish between "language" and "restricted language" use of English language with this statement:

> … the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not

> grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (Mackay & Mountford 1978, pp. 4-5).

It was on the basis of Mackay and Mountford's classifications that Munby (1978) divides ESP into two broad areas:

- ❖ English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) "where the participant needs English to perform all or part of his occupational duties" and

- ❖ English for educational Purposes (English for Academic Purpose or EAP) "where the participant needs English to pursue part or all of his studies" (p. 55).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) using his "Tree of ELT" break ESP into three branches:

- ❖ English for Science and Technology (EST)

- ❖ English for Business and Economics (EBE), and

- ❖ English for Social Studies (ESS) (p. 17).

Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example for EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.

EAP may include: EST (English for Academic Science and Technology), EMP (English for Academic Medical Purposes), ELP (English for Academic Legal Purposes) and English for Management, Finance and Economics (EMFE) which is often taught to non-native speakers on, for example, MBA (Master of Business Administration) courses. A distinction can be made between common core English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). EGAP examines the skills and language associated with the study of all academic disciplines, for example: listening to lectures and reading textbooks. ESAP integrates the skills of EGAP with the features that distinguish one discipline from another.

EOP refers to courses that are not for academic purposes. EOP includes: English for professional purposes in administration, law, medicine, business, and vocational courses. A distinction is therefore made between English for Academic Medical, Legal or Scientific Purposes, and English for practising doctors, lawyers and scientists. EOP is therefore divided into English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes. English for Professional Purposes can include: EMP (English for Medical Purposes) and EBP (English for Business Purposes). English for Vocational Purposes can be divided into Pre-vocational and Vocational English. Pre-vocational English is concerned with, for example, finding a job and interview skills. Vocational English is concerned with the language of specific trades or occupations. A distinction should also be made between English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). We suggest that EIB is a category within EOP and therefore one of a range of courses that can be taught under the umbrella term ESP.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) however note that there is no clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: "… people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job" (p. 16). Taking care of the learning period or time distinction, Strevens (1977) and Robinson (1991) give their own classifications of ESP. For them, EOP can be Pre- or Post-experience, simultaneous in-service or a teacher-conversion programme. EAP can be integrated or independent; pre- or post-experience or teacher conversion programme.

It is post experience if the learner is already familiar with the job and just adding a relevant knowledge of English. Example is English for traffic controllers, hotel employees, international banking and other well defined job areas.

Pre-experience indicates that the English for the job is being taught simultaneously with the learning of the job itself. Munby gave as an example of pre-experience EOP as an Indonesian working in an oil field at the same time as he is being instructed in the job itself.

Teacher's conversion courses mean re-training as teachers of other languages to enable them to convert to teaching English, either additionally or alternatively.

Educational ESP was distinguished according to the aim and framework within which it is offered. This brings about the distinction between 'discipline based' and 'school subject ESP'. Discipline based is as obtained in tertiary institutions where English is studied for academic purposes (EAP). But if the student had already completed his or discipline, ESP course is the 'post study' but where students are learning English as part of their studies, the ESP will be 'pre-study/in-study'.

The 'school subject' ESP is offered at the lower level of education such as primary and secondary levels.

Distinction was also made between integrated and independent ESP. It is integrated if a single syllabus integrates the learning of English with the learning of other subject. This necessitates collaboration between the content teacher and ESP teacher. While the content teacher provides the content and culture of the discipline/profession, the ESP teacher will look into how language is used in that profession. Below are figures showing Strevens' and Robinson's classifications of ESP, reflecting the time frame for learning.

Fig 2: Strevens' (1977, p.148)Types of ESP

```
                                                          ┌──── Pre-Experience
                                    ┌ ─ ─ ─ ─ Occupational ├──── Post Experience
                                    ┆                     └──── Teachers' Conversion
        ┌ ─ ─ EST ─ ─ ┐           ┌─┴─                         ┌── Pre-Experience
        ┆             ┆     ESP ───┤                  ┌─ Discipline ├── Post Experience
        ┆             ┆           └ ─ ─ ─ ─ Educational─┤   Based   └── Teachers Conversion
        └ ─ Others ─ ─┘                              │
                                                     │              ┌── Independent
                                                     └─ School ──────┤
                                                        Subject      └──Integrated
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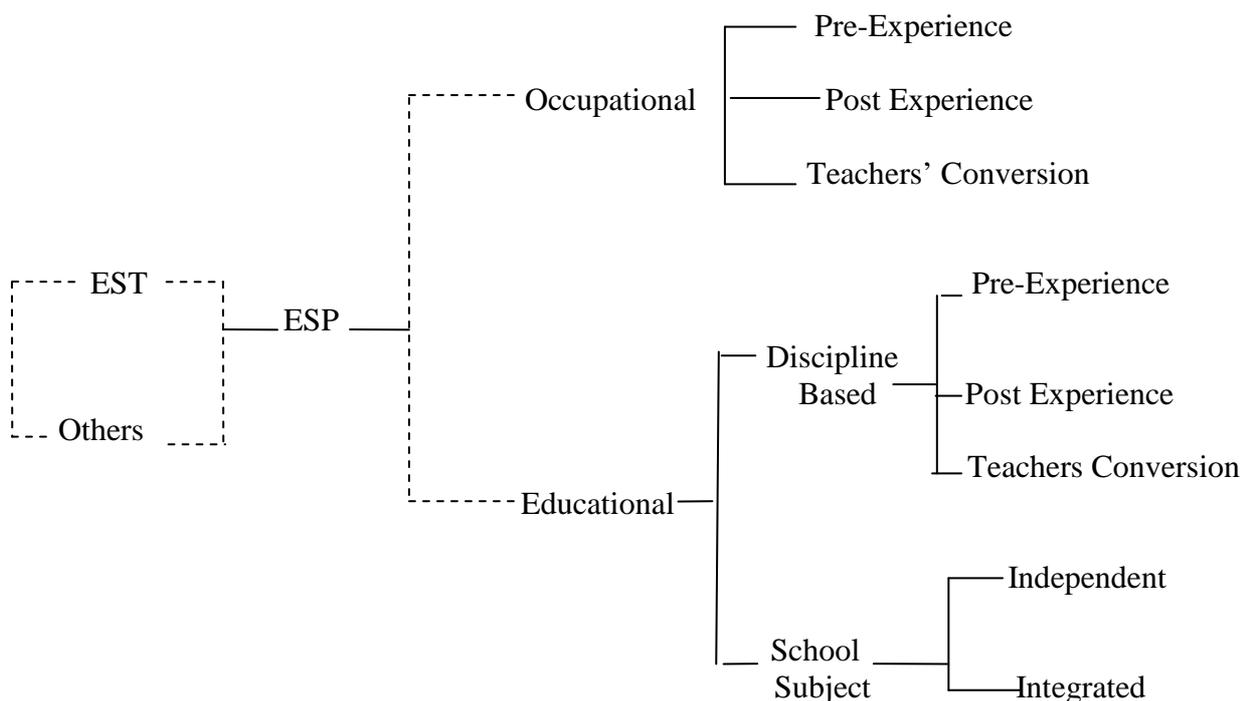
Robinson (1991, p.3) in her classification also indicated the time for learning in an ESP programme as shown in the figure below:

Fig 3: Robinson's Types of ESP

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                          ┌─── Pre-Experience
        ┌──── EOP ────────┤─── Simultaneous in-service
        │                 └─── Post-Experience
        │                                      ┌── Pre-study
        │                 ┌─ For study in      ├── In-study
  ESP ──┤                 │  Specific discipline└── Post-study
        │                 │
        │                 │
        └──── EEP/EAP ─────┤                    ┌─Integrated
                          └─ As School Subject ──┤
                                                 └─Independent
```
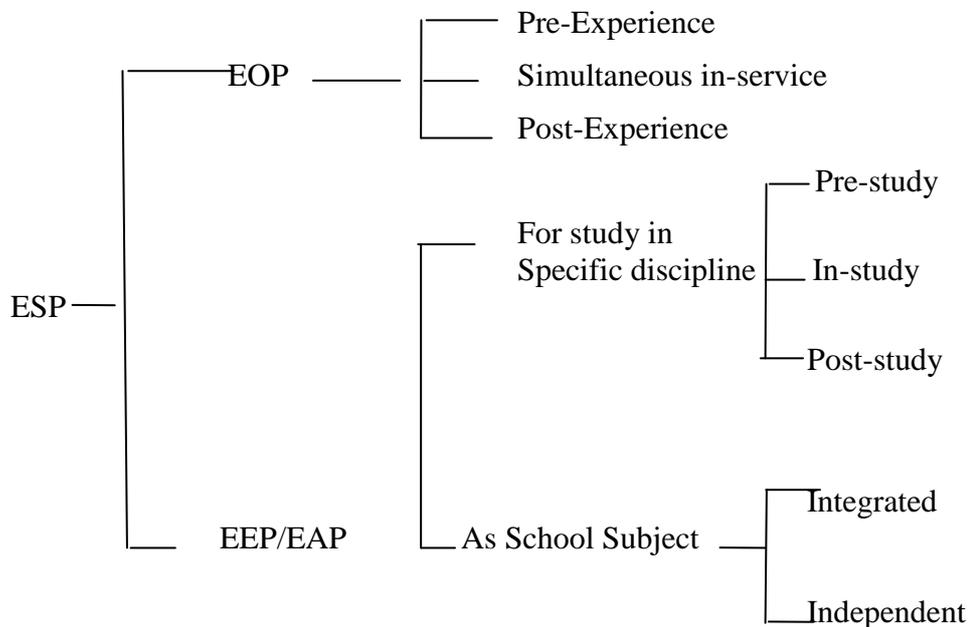
Self Assessment Exercise

(a) On what basis was ESP divided? State and explain the types of ESP.

(b) Educational ESP varies according to the aims and framework within which it is offered. Explain.

47

(c) What do you understand by ESP as a school subject and ESP as a study in specific discipline?

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have read that ESP has increased over the decades as a result of market forces, globalization and a greater awareness amongst the academic and business community that learners' needs and wants should be met wherever possible. ESP courses were designed to meet the learning gap that General English textbooks could not provide. As our global village becomes smaller so the transfer of resources, capital, goods, and information increases. Flowerdew (1990) attributes its dynamism to market forces and theoretical renewal.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, the origin of ESP was traced to ELT and then EST. All branches of ESP stems from two major branches, whether English is studied for educational purposes (EAP) or for work purposes (EOP) EOP can be Pre- or Post-experience, simultaneous in-service or a teacher-conversion programme. EAP on the other hand can be integrated or independent; pre- or post-experience or teacher conversion programme depending on the time available to the adult learner. It is a trend in language teaching that came to be because of increasing demand for a global language to cope with the new world of technology and commerce. It became the lot of the English language because it is the language of the world's economic power. The reasons for the emergence of ESP were summarized as the demand of a brave new world, revolution in linguistics and the focus on the learner.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a)   ESP came about as a result of needs, new ideas about language and new ideas about learning. Explain.

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Module 1: Unit 3

History and Phases in the Development of ESP

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed reasons for the evolution of ESP which include the demand of a brave new world, revolution in linguistics and the focus on the learner. In this unit, you will read about the growth and development of ESP, which is not something that happened in one day. You will also see that ESP is not a monolithic universal phenomenon; rather it is something that has developed at different speeds in different countries. We shall therefore discuss, in this unit, the five phases to the development of ESP as recorded by (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 pp. 9-14).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit you are expected to be able to:

  (a)   trace the growth and history of ESP;

  (b)   describe each phase in the development of ESP;

  (c)   State the differences in the phases;

  (d)   differentiate between language use and language learning;

(e)   explain what is meant by CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content-based Instruction) and TBL (Task-based Learning); and

(f)   outline the criticisms against register analysis.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The History and Growth of ESP

ESP has a long history in the field of English teaching. From the early 1960s, ESP has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching today. It is driven often by stakeholders, and sometimes by material writers. An examination of ESP textbooks today would find a huge variety of them designed, for example, not just for Business English, but now for Marketing, Banking, and Advertising English. ESP has a history of almost 40 years and so you would expect the ESP community to have a clear idea about what ESP means.

The movement toward teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) grew as international recognition for the English language as a medium of communication in science, technology, and commerce was established. The origin of ESP and its development is closely linked with learners' interest in various specific disciplines e.g. "Law English", "English for Hotel Industry" or "English for Tourist Management". "By the 1980s, in many parts of the world, a needs-based philosophy emerged in language teaching, particularly in relation to ESP and vocationally oriented programme design" (Brindley, 1984). Students learn English for a specific purpose, represented by studying subject matter, to gain and develop appropriate knowledge and skills through English. The reason(s) why students learn English are ascertained through needs analysis. It is the process of determining the things that are necessary or useful for fulfilment of defensible purposes. "Students study ESP not because they are interested in the English language as such but because they have to perform a task in English. Their command of the English language must be such that they can reach a satisfactory level in their specialist subject study" (Robinson & Coleman, 1989, p. 396).

The ESP concept of instruction was further supported and defined as "an approach to language teaching, course design and material development in which all decisions as to content and method are based on learners' reason for learning" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:19).

The division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics (See Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) in particular, was initially very helpful in resolving arguments about what is and is not ESP. We can see that ESP is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range. However, in my opinion, one of the main differences between ESP and GE is that the vast majority of ESP courses are studied by adults. ESP should be seen as an "approach" to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an "attitude of mind". This is a similar conclusion to that made by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who state, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p. 19). What they mean by this is that today many ESP teachers and courses are now based around a certain textbook without looking closely at learners' needs or wants. A proper review of materials from the textbook may be lacking and actually conducting work based research into finding target

51

language structures is seldom done. It almost could be said that it is the very success of ESP English that is now driving the failure of courses for students.

The field of ESP/EOP has developed rapidly over the past 40 years and become a major force in English language teaching and research. The idea of including content of a subject under study into a language classroom was first introduced in the 1970s by Hutchinson and Waters. They state that the content of a subject, for example, economics or management, should be used for teaching a foreign language. The emphasis of ELT has always been on practical outcomes on the language. It has always focused on the needs of learners and it has been preparing them to communicate effectively in the tasks required by their field of study or profession (Bojovi_ 2006). The idea of "natural" language acquisition promoted by Krashen (1981) supports this approach as both claim that the best way to learn a language is to use it for "meaningful" purposes. These meaningful purposes change greatly, so, various applications of ESP have arisen in terms of the field or the approach of teaching specific English; i.e. EAP (English for Academic Purposes), CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content-based Instruction) and TBL (Task-based Learning).

CLIL, for instance refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language in which this content is encoded (Marsh, et al 2001). It is widely seen as an excellent means of learning a language, and of introducing international aspects into the teaching of content subjects. Advocators of CLIL claim that it is a very effective way of learning a language as it provides the learners with meaningful input and authentic situations as suggested by Comprehensible Input Theory of Krashen. According to Krashen (1981), the mistake of language teaching is that we first teach the skills and only later use them, while the most effective way should be learning something and using it at the same time.

Another application of ESP is the Content-Based Instruction (CBI), which focuses on the teaching of academic English through content knowledge. Language learning and content of subject matter could be brought together because a foreign language is most successfully acquired when learners are engaged in its meaningful and purposeful use. The integration of language and content involves the incorporation of content material into language classes. Content can provide a motivational and cognitive basis for language learning since it is interesting and of some value to the learner (Brewster, 1999). Kasper (1997) has greatly strengthened the evidence for the effectiveness of content-based courses. She has reported both improved language and content performance among students exposed to content-based English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes and they have higher scores in reading proficiency and higher pass rates on ESL (English as a Second Language) courses. She has also supplied quantitative evidence that such students gain a performance advantage over students who are exposed to non-content based ESP training and that they maintain it in the following years.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) When did the concept of ESP begin? Briefly describe what led to this growth in the history of language teaching.

(b) Write short notes on CLIL, CBI and TBL as developments in ESP

3.2. Phases in the Development of ESP

Now that we have looked at the growth and development of ESP, let us examine the phases in its development. Categorising the concept of 'specific' or 'special' language, five stages are recognized as follows: Register analysis, rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills and strategies and learning-centred approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Chanloner, 2006).

3.2.1 Register Analysis

The first phase is register analysis. A register is a language variety which is based on the *use*. It is different from dialect which is also a language variety based on the user. The scope of register is not only on the choice of words, but also on the choice of other linguistic aspects. There are many registers in this world such as meeting register, truck drivers' register, school register, and military register, medical register, etc. A register is related to social context. Register analysis is derived from Halliday's systemic functional grammar which is "geared to the study of language as communication, seeing meaning in the writer's linguistic choice and systematically relating these choices to a wider socio-cultural framework" (Munday, in Hermansyah, 2005, p. 32).

At first, register analysis was used to design ESP courses. Register analysis was the focus on grammar and structural and non-structural vocabulary found in target situations within the ESP environment. The underlying idea behind register analysis was; that certain grammatical and lexical forms were more frequently used in scientific and technical writings than in GE (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Thus, the aim was to identify these forms and produce teaching materials that took these forms as their syllabus (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

This stage in ESP development is also referred to as the stage of the concept of special language. This stage took place mainly in the 1960s and the early 1970s (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and the work of Register Analysis largely focused on the Scientific and Technical English. A course in basic scientific English compiled by Ewer and Latorre (1969) is a typical example of an ESP syllabus based on register analysis. Ewer and Latorre (1969) put it in the following way:

> In order to get a working idea of what this basic language consisted of,
> a frequency analysis of the English actually used by scientific writers
> was required …. In subject, it covered ten main areas of science and a
> large number of individual disciplines from anatomy to volcanology.

The snag was that it looked at the linguistic forms without attaching the overall meaning of such forms. As a result, materials produced under the banner of Register Analysis concentrated on a restricted range of grammar and vocabulary such as tense, frequency, sentence types, etc. instead of language use and communication (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). This weakness and the attempts to rectify it led to rhetorical and discourse analysis in early 1970s.

The criticism on register analysis can be summarized as the following:
- it restricts the analysis of texts to the word and sentence level (West, 1998)
- it is only descriptive, not explanatory (Robinson, 1991);

- most materials produced under the banner of register analysis follow a similar pattern, beginning with a long specialist reading passage which lacks authenticity (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

3.2.2 Rhetorical and Discourse Analysis

Since register analysis operated almost entirely at word and sentence level, the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence and tried to find out how sentences were combined into discourse (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Also, West (1998) is of the opinion that the reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. The assumption of this stage was that the difficulties which students encountered arose from the unfamiliarity with the use of English. Consequently, their needs could only be met by a course that developed the knowledge of how sentences were combined in discourse to make meanings. According to Allen and Widdowson (1974) cited in Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it focused on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. Allen and Widdowson (1974) view the approach as follows:

> One might usefully distinguish two kinds of ability which an English course at this level should aim at developing. The first is the ability to recognize how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognize and manipulate the formal devices which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passage of prose. We might say that the first has to do with rhetorical coherence of discourse, the second with the grammatical cohesion of text (p. 10).

They explain further:

> The difficulties students experience does not so much arise from defective knowledge of the system of English but from an unfamiliarity with English … and that their needs can be met by a course which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communication acts (op.cit).

The aim, therefore, was to identify organizational patterns in texts and specify the linguistic means by which these patterns are signalled. It is these patterns that will form ESP syllabus. "By dissecting sentences and deciphering how combined discourse produce meaning, patterns in texts and how they were organized were the main concerns" (Poppe, 2007).

Therefore, the discourse analysis approach focused on the way sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and developed materials based on functions. Such functions included definitions, generalizations, inductive statements, and deductive statements, descriptions of processes, descriptions of sequences of events, and descriptions of devices. The pioneers in the field of discourse analysis (also called rhetorical or textual analysis) were Lackstorm, Selinker, and Trimble whose focus was on the text rather than on the sentence, and on the writer's purpose rather than on form (Robinson, 1991). In practice, according to West (1998), this approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions.

The discourse analysis approach soon came under attack. One of the shortcomings of the discourse analysis is that its treatment remains fragmentary, identifying the functional units of which discourse was composed at sentence/utterance level but offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text (West, 1998). There is also the danger that the findings of discourse analysis, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse, fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). "We are given little idea of how these functions combine to make longer texts." (Robinson, 1981)

The concept of text - the genre analysis approach - came to make up for this shortcoming, as the approach considers text as a total entity, rather than a collection of unrelated units. Dudley-Evans (1987) conveys the idea in the following way: "If we are to teach the writing of certain very specific texts such as … the business or technical report, we need a system analysis that shows how each type of text differs from other types." This, as Johnson (1993) says, can be achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of text through a series of phases or moves.

3.2.3 Target Situation Analysis

Due to the limitations of genre analysis, its research was hardly applied to pedagogy. In the mid-1970s, materials developers came to see learners' purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP. The conception of need - the target situation needs, an analytical approach, was to lead the way. One systematizes the course and places the learner's needs at the centre of the course design process. Munby's model of needs analysis (1978) clearly established the place of needs as central to ESP. In order to establish needs, the target situation for which learners were being prepared has to be defined. Chambers (1980) defines the latter as follows:

> By the language I mean the language of the target situation. Thus, needs analysis should be concerned with the establishment of communicative needs and their realizations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation- what I will refer to from now on as Target Situation Analysis (TSA)   (p. 18).

The conception of pedagogic needs analysis came to complement target-situation needs analysis. This includes three types of analysis: deficiency analysis gives us information about what target-situation needs learners lack or feel they lack (Allwright, 1982). Specialized language forms related to target themes were examined, and procedural steps to address the needs emphasized (Song, 2006). This stage, though contributed nothing to the development of ESP, set the existing knowledge on a more scientific basis by relating language analysis to the reasons why a learner needs to learn language. The expectations of this stage, is that the linguistic features of a learner's specific situation should be identified and used to form the syllabus.

3.2.4 Analysis of Study Skills and Strategies

Strategy analysis seeks to establish learners' preferred learning styles and strategies (Allwright, 1982); means analysis investigates the educational environment in which the ESP course is to take place (Swales, 1989).The assumption of this stage was that underlying all language use there were common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface form, enabled us to extract meaning from discourse (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Therefore, the teaching of language in itself was not sufficient and the thought processes should be addressed. This is because the thinking processes that underlie language use enable us to extract meaning from a discourse. In this stage, ESP teachers focused on the teaching of study skills and assumed that these skills learnt through exercises could be transferred to students' own specific academic studies (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). For instance, the meaning of words could be guessed from context and the type of a text could also be known by observing the visual layout. ESP at this stage looked for particular skills and strategies that are peculiar to different situations. The emphasis on this stage was on how words are combined to make meaning.

Finally, the attention to strategy analysis gave rise to a new generation of ESP materials based on the conception of learning, that is, learning-centred approaches:

> Our concern in ESP is not with language use - although this will help to define the course objectives. Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language will enable someone to learn it …. A truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 53).

3.2.5 Analysis of Learning Needs

The concern in each stage outlined so far is with describing what people do with language, that is, language use. At this stage, emphasis shifted to understanding the processes of language learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 14). This is the next stage of ESP development: the learning-centred approach. It involves considering the process of learning and student motivation, working out what is needed to enable students to reach the target, exploiting in the ESP classroom skills which students develop from their specific academic study and taking into account the fact that different students learn in different ways (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) offer an often-cited learning-centred approach to ESP. They argue that other approaches give too much attention to language needs, whereas more attention should be given to how learners learn. They suggest that a learning needs approach is the best route to convey learners from the starting point to the target situation. Learner needs are approached from two directions; target needs and learning needs. Target needs are defined as "what the learner needs to do in the target situation" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 54). They are broken down into three categories: necessities, lacks and wants.

Necessities are considered to be "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" (p. 55).

Lacks are defined as the gaps between what the learner knows and the necessities (p. 56).

Wants are described as "what the learners think they need" (Nation, 2000, p. 2).

The second focus in this approach is on learning needs, referring to numerous factors, including who the learners are, their socio-cultural background, learning background, age, gender, background knowledge of specialized contents, background knowledge of English, attitudes towards English, attitudes towards cultures of the English speaking world and studying English. Learner needs also involve:

- Teaching and learning styles with which the learners are familiar

- Appropriate or ineffective teaching and learning methods

- Knowledge of specialized contents that teachers should have

- Suitable instructional materials and study location

- Time of study and status of ESP courses

- Expectations about what learners should achieve in the courses

- How necessary the courses are for the learners

Similar to the systemic approach, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 1992) also recommend that needs analysis be checked constantly. They also stress the use of multiple methods of data collection – such as interviews, observation, and informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others involved – to deal with the complexity of target needs.

Analysis of needs in this approach is well-supported (Nation, 2000; West, 1994). Richterich and Chancerel (1977) insist on considering learners' background knowledge from the outset of the teaching and learning process. Grellet (1981) supports the use of authentic materials to encourage students to face the complexity of authentic texts. Eggly (2002) discusses differences in expectations between students who are forced to study and those who voluntarily enrol.

Most experts view learner-centred learning as a major paradigm shift in ESP teaching (Nunan, 1988; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998). In such an environment, the focus is shifted to the constructive role of the learner, which differentiates it from a teacher-centred model in which knowledge is transmitted from teacher to learner. When ESP learners take some responsibility for their own learning and are invited to negotiate some aspects of the course design, the subject matter and course content has relevance for the learner as they feel motivated to become more involved in their learning and often seem to participate more actively in class.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Write and explain three developmental stages in ESP

(b) What were the criticisms against register analysis?

(c) Which stages of the developmental phases are termed 'language centred' and which are 'learner-centred?'

4.0   CONCLUSION

ESP at the modern times is learning-centred. It involves considering the process of learning and students' motivation, working out what is needed to enable students to reach the target, exploiting in the EOP/EAP classroom skills which students develop from their specific academic study and taking into account the fact that different students learn in different ways (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), all for meaningful communication situation.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit looked at the stages in the development of ESP. It was discovered that this development started in the 1960s and 1970s and continued till date. At first, the analysis of

language was just register analysis to discourse level to analyzing the skills and strategies underlining language learning and finally to learner/learning approach which is the bulk of what this course material shall discuss. In the next unit, we shall be viewing closely the difference between ESP and GE programmes and also find out if the teachers are the same.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Differentiate between language-centred and learner-centred approaches to language learning.

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Module 1: Unit 4

Differences between
- ## ESP and General English Programmes;
- ## ESP Practitioner and GE Teacher

Contents

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Differences between ESP & General English Programmes

            Self assessment Exercise

    3.2   Differences between General English Teacher and the ESP Practitioner

            Self Assessment Exercise

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you saw the phases to the development of ESP up to the learning/learner centred phase where we are today. In this unit we shall compare the ESP programme and teacher with the GE programme and teacher. In as much as English is the same, there are still some differences between the ESP programme and GE programme just as the teachers of GE are different from ESP practitioner who has many roles to perform. GE teachers may not be able to teach the ESP subject matter. This unit therefore sets out to itemize and explain these differences in the programmes and the teachers and the role of ESP practitioner. You are expected to read this unit carefully so as to notice why we say that GE English is not ESP.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

    (a) list and explain the differences between ESP programme and GE programme;

    (b) state the differences between an ESP Practitioner and a GE teacher;

    (c) explain vividly the three major ways of retraining EFL teachers to be able to teach ESP;

    (d) describe the problems of having unqualified ESP teachers and

(e) proffer short and long term solutions to the problems.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Differences between ESP and General English Programmes

Have you ever stopped to wonder what differentiates ESP programme from General English programme? Are they not the same English? Read on this unit to discover why the term ESP when we study the English language every day.

The main difference of ESP and GE is on the purpose of learning English and its focus of language learning, as mentioned by Lorenzo (2005):

> ESP students… have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job related functions. An ESP program is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required….ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners (p. 43).

ESP, unlike GE, which has several levels of language learners competence, is followed by the people who already have some background in English mastery and the purpose is to set a 'professional skill' such as speaking, writing and presentation skills in typical job-related situations as well as evaluation and assessment procedure in certain job function. Due to this fact, the focus of ESP is more to "language in context" rather than grammar and the structure of language. Theoretically, ESP is a "dependent subject of study" linked to particular area: vocational, academic, professional (Allen & Widdowson, 1974). Even though some experts do not really consider a sharp difference between ESP and General English, at least they agree that the *practical outcome* of the learning and the *vocabulary used* in learning are different.

ESP programmes are content-based, task-based, interactive programmes which provide cooperative learning. Small groups of students work together to accomplish meaningful tasks in this approach to L2 learning so both cognitive and socio-cultural processes are at work together (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

Wright (1992) describes one of the differences succinctly; General English is concerned with everyday life. These "universal topics are socializing, shopping, travelling, eating out, telephoning friends….So when one learns a language, one must be exposed to linguistic items relating to these universal topics. This is the task of a General English course" (p.1). A specific English course may contain material pertaining to a GE course but according to Wright (1992) "when we reach the stage at which any topic constitutes an individual's profession, it becomes crucial that he has mastery of the specialized language pertaining to it" (p.1).

A simple distinction to make between ESP and GE is that ESP builds upon what has been learnt and studied in earlier GE classes with a more restricted focus. It aims at acquainting learners with the kind of language needed in a particular domain, vocation, or occupation. In other words, its main objective is to meet specific needs of the learners. Of course, this indicates that there is no fixed methodology of ESP that can be applicable in all situations, but rather each situation and particular needs of learners belonging to a particular domain impose a certain methodology of teaching. On the other hand, English for General Purposes (EGP), as it is sometimes called, is essentially the English language education in junior and senior secondary schools. Learners are introduced to the sounds and symbols of English, as well as to the lexical/grammatical/rhetorical elements that compose spoken and written discourse. There is no particular situation targeted in this kind of language learning. Rather, it focuses on applications in general situations: appropriate dialogue with restaurant staff, bank tellers, postal clerks, telephone operators, English teachers, and party guests as well as lessons on how to read and write the English typically found in textbooks, newspapers, magazines, etc. EGP curriculums also include cultural aspects of the second language. EGP conducted in English-speaking countries is typically called ESL, and EGP conducted in non-English-speaking countries is normally called EFL. EGP is typically viewed as a level that precedes higher-level instruction in ESP if ESP programs are to yield satisfactory results.

Again, ESP students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP programme is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required. Belcher (2006) states that "ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored to fit instruction" (p.135). Mohan (1986) adds that ESP courses focus on preparing learners "for chosen communicative environments (p.15). Learner purpose is also stated by Graham and Beardsley (1986) and learning centredness (Carter, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) as integral parts of ESP. Thus it could be argued that ESP from the outset focused on learner centred teaching, a situation that was certainly not true of traditional GE courses.

Strevens (1977) also asserts that "special-purpose language teaching (SP-LT) occurs whenever the content and aims of the teaching are determined by the requirements of the learner rather than by external criteria" (p.186). Strevens' definition contrasts what obtains in GE where the syllabus is pre-planned and the learner and often times too, the teacher, has no input.

ESP is centred on the language appropriate to the activities of a given discipline. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p. 19). In this connection, Dudley-Evans (1998) explains that ESP may not always focus on the language for one specific discipline or occupation, such as English for Law or English for Engineering. University instruction that introduces students to common features of academic discourse in the sciences or humanities, frequently called English for Academic Purposes (EAP), is equally ESP.

For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), in answer to the question "What is the difference between the ESP and General English approach?" state, "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal" (p. 53). Attention is focused on the language need of learners which is effective communication in different situations in which they find themselves. To meet this communication needs, according to Hortas (1999) view,

more and more individuals have highly specific academic and professional reasons for seeking to improve their language skills: for these students, usually adults, courses that fall under the heading 'English' for special purpose (ESP) hold particular appeal (Cited in Robinson 1991, p. 3).

Supporting Hortas' view, Robinson (1991) states that "students study English not because they are interested in English language (or English language culture) as such but because they need English for study or work purposes" (p. 2). Students are just motivated to learn English.

Furthermore, ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (Lorenzo (2005, p. 1). Though I agree with Lorenzo, but I would argue that grammar still plays an important and necessary part in an ESP course. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes), instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners.

In addition, there is specified time for ESP course. ESP has specified objectives for the adult learners which should relate to the time available for them to learn the course. In some countries, English and content subject are taught together; it could be language and work training at the same time or English for students in tertiary institutions who must have had training in GE.

GE and ESP diverge not only in the nature of the learner, but also in the aim of instruction. While in GE all four language skills; listening, reading, speaking, and writing, are stressed equally, in ESP it is a needs analysis that determines which language skills are most needed by the students, and the syllabus is designed accordingly. Seeking out learners' needs implies that ESP learners are adult learners who know why they need language either for further academic pursuit(EAP) or for work purposes (EOP); that motivation to learn is higher than in usual ESL (English as a Second Language) contexts.

Carter (1983) believes that self-direction is important in the sense that an ESP course is concerned with turning learners into users of the language. Thus ESP plays an integral role in communicative language teaching. Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the ESP classroom right away in their work and studies. The ESP approach enhances the relevance of what the students are learning and enables them to use the English they know to learn even more English, since their interest in their field will motivate them to interact with speakers and texts. An ESP programme, might, for example, emphasize the development of reading skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in business administration; or it might promote the development of spoken skills in students who are studying English in order to become receptionists. However, various ideas and teaching methods can be transferred to the classes of ESP from the classes of GE and vice visa, giving you as a learner the opportunity to acquire better skills in a foreign language.

As a matter of fact, ESP combines subject matter and English language teaching. Such a combination is highly motivating because students are able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study, whether it be accounting, business management, economics, computer science or tourism. Being able to use the vocabulary and structures that they learn in a meaningful context reinforces what is taught and increases their motivation. The students' abilities in their subject-matter fields, in turn, improve their ability to acquire

English. Subject-matter knowledge gives them the context they need to understand the English of the classroom. In the ESP class, students are shown how the subject-matter content is expressed in English. The teacher can make the most of the students' knowledge of the subject matter, thus helping them learn English faster.

Clearly the line between where GE courses stop and ESP courses start has become very vague indeed. Teachers, nowadays, however, are much more aware of the importance of needs analysis, and certainly materials writers think very carefully about the goals of learners at all stages of materials production. Perhaps this demonstrates the influence that the ESP approach has had on English teaching in general.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) State and explain at least four differences between ESP and General English.

(b) Why do we say that the line between ESP and General English Courses are vague?

(c) General English and ESP diverge not only in the nature of the learner, but also in the aim of the instruction. Discuss

3.2 General English Teacher versus ESP Practitioner

Having looked at the difference between ESP programme and GE programme, it will also be good that you also consider what differentiates a GE teacher from an ESP teacher. Just as it is difficult to delimitate where GE and ESP course starts and ends, it is the same with the role of the teacher in these two courses. The aim of ESP teacher is not only to meet the learners' specific needs in the field of particular discipline but also to provide satisfying learning background (designing courses, setting goals and objectives, selecting material etc.) as has already been pointed out. Coming from a background unrelated to the discipline in which they are asked to teach, ESP teachers are usually unable to rely on personal experiences when evaluating materials and considering course goals. At the university level in particular, they are also unable to rely on the views of the learners, who tend not to know what English abilities are required by the profession they hope to enter. The result is that many ESP teachers become slaves to the published textbooks available, and worse, when there are no textbooks available for a particular discipline, resolve to teaching from textbooks which may be quite unsuitable.

Dudley Evans (1998) describes the true ESP teacher as needing to perform five different roles. These are

(a) Teacher,

(b) Collaborator,

(c) Course designer and materials provider,

(d) Researcher, and

(e) Evaluator.

3.2.1 Responsibility as a Teacher

As you will agree with me, a teacher is first a teacher before anything else. The role of an ESP teacher as a 'teacher' is synonymous with that of the GE teacher. Teacher expects, or is

expected, to control the class, to provide information about skills and language or to control the activities. It is in the performing of the other four roles that differences between the two emerge. Studying subject matter in English is in the centre of students' attention in GE course, that is why the concept of ESP course is adapted to students' needs. On the other hand ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject of the subject matter (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.163). Teachers that already have experience in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) can exploit their background in language teaching. They should recognize the ways in which their teaching skills can be adapted for the teaching of ESP. Moreover, they will need to look for content specialists for help in designing appropriate lessons in the subject matter/field they are teaching. When you become an ESP teacher, you must play many roles. You may be asked to organize courses, to set learning objectives, to establish a positive learning environment in the classroom, and to evaluate students' progress. Below you will see what it means to perform these functions as a teacher.

(i) Organizing Courses

You have to set learning goals and then transform them into an instructional program with the timing of activities. One of your main tasks will be selecting, designing and organizing course materials, supporting the students in their efforts, and providing them with feedback on their progress.

(ii) Setting Goals and Objectives

You arrange the conditions for learning in the classroom and set long-term goals and short-term objectives for students' achievement. Your knowledge of students' potential is central in designing a syllabus with realistic goals that takes into account the students' concern in the learning situation.

(iii) Creating a Learning Environment

Your skills for communication and mediation create the classroom atmosphere. Students acquire language when they have opportunities to use the language in interaction with other speakers. Being their teacher, you may be the only English speaking person available to students, and although your time with any of them is limited, you can structure effective communication skills in the classroom. In order to do so, in your interactions with students try to listen carefully to what they are saying and give your understanding or misunderstanding back to them through your replies. Good language learners are also great risk-takers, since they must make many errors in order to succeed. However, in ESP classes, they are handicapped because they are unable to use their native language competence to present themselves as well-informed adults. That is why the teacher should create an atmosphere in the language classroom which supports the students. Learners must be self-confident in order to communicate, and you have the responsibility to help build the learner's confidence.

(iv)Evaluating Students

The teacher is a resource that helps students identify their language learning problems and find solutions to them, find out the skills they need to focus on, and take responsibility for making choices which determine what and how to learn. You will serve as a source of information to the students about how they are progressing in their language learning.

3.2.2 Responsibility as a Collaborator

Another role of an ESP teacher is collaboration. The role of a 'collaborator' is connected with working (collaborating) with specialists to meet the specific learners' needs. In order to meet the specific needs of the learners and adopt the methodology and activities of the target discipline, the ESP Practitioner must first work closely with field specialists. ESP teacher needs to have a prior content knowledge. ESP teaching should be carried on by the collaboration of an EFL teacher with a content teacher. They can carry out ESP teaching scaffolding each other; the former provides the latter with methodology of language teaching while the latter makes the content meaningful, helping the EFL teacher learn content knowledge. This collaboration, however, does not have to end at the development stage and can extend as far as team teaching, a possibility discussed by Johns et al. (1988). When team teaching is not a possibility, the ESP Practitioner must collaborate more closely with the learners, who will generally be more familiar with the specialized content of materials than the teacher. Fluency in academic English is an inevitable skill for an ESP teacher to be successful, because ESP teaching requires particular and sometimes special skills, such as dealing with language input, handling skills work, answering questions on terminology, and listening to lectures and research presentations and seminar skills training.

3.2.3 Course Designer, Materials Provider and a Researcher

The aim of the role of "course designer" and "materials provider" is the same in both ESP and GE courses; to provide the most suitable materials in the lesson to achieve set goals. Researcher's results find out if the choice of materials meets learners' and teachers' expectations. Both GE teachers and ESP practitioners are often required to design courses and provide materials. One of the main controversies in the field of ESP is how specific those materials should be. Hutchinson et al (1987) support materials that cover a wide range of fields, arguing that the grammatical structures, functions, discourse structures, skills, and strategies of different disciplines are identical. More recent research, however, has shown this not to be the case. Hansen (1988), for example, describes clear differences between anthropology and sociology texts, and Anthony (1998) shows unique features of writing in the field of engineering. Unfortunately, with the exception of textbooks designed for major fields such as computer science and business studies, most tend to use topics from multiple disciplines, making much of the material redundant and perhaps even confusing the learner as to what is appropriate in the target field. Many ESP practitioners are therefore left with no alternative than to develop original materials. It is here that the ESP practitioner's role as researcher is especially important, with results leading directly to appropriate materials for the classroom.

3.2.4 As an Evaluator

ESP practitioner is also an evaluator. The role of 'evaluator' is very important in the whole learning process. It is necessary to inform students about their progress in their language learning that is why giving feedback is an inevitable part of each activity (Anthony, 1997). Evaluating is perhaps the role that ESP practitioners have neglected most to date. As Johns et al. (1991) describe, there have been few empirical studies that test the effectiveness of ESP courses. For example, the only evaluation of the non compulsory course reported by Hall et al. (1986, p.158) is that despite carrying no credits, "students continue to attend despite rival pressures of a heavy programme of credit courses." On the other hand, a more recent work such as that of Jenkins et al. (1993) suggests an increasing interest in this area of research.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in their contribution, stress that two roles differentiate ESP and GE teachers. Beside the typical duties of classroom teacher, the ESP teacher "deals with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaptation and evaluation; they see "ESP teacher's role in one of many parts" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.157). The other aspect refers to training ESP teachers, which was not covered as much so teachers of ESP have to "orientate themselves to a new environment" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1992, p.157). In general, positive attitude to ESP content, learners and previous knowledge of the subject area are required (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 163).

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Briefly explain three important roles of an ESP practitioner.

(b) An ESP practitioner is often regarded as a course designer and evaluator. Explain.

(c) In which situation can a collaborative teaching exist between the ESP teacher and the content teacher?

4.0   CONCLUSION

Rather ironically, while many GE teachers can be described as using an ESP approach, basing their syllabi on a learner needs analysis and their own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication, it is the majority of so-called ESP teachers that are using an approach furthest from that described above. Instead of conducting interviews with specialists in the field, analyzing the language that is required in the profession, or even conducting students' needs analysis, many ESP teachers have become slaves of the published textbooks available, unable to evaluate their suitability based on personal experience, and unwilling to do the necessary analysis of difficult specialist texts to verify their contents. It is obvious that different disciplines have different ways of viewing the world. Therefore, ELT teachers and content-area teachers teaching academic English have their own way of teaching. Teaching language structures is possible only when it is meaningful for the learners, and teaching content through L2 is useful only when learners can give feedback in L2, too. To achieve the above goal, it is pertinent to organize training for ESP teachers or get them involved in collaborative teaching. Again, if the ESP community hopes to grow, it is vital that the community as a whole understands what ESP actually represents, and can accept the various roles that ESP practitioners need to adopt to ensure its success.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have looked at the differences between the ESP programme and the GE programme and noted that the major difference lies in the learners and their purposes for learning English. Unlike in GE, ESP learners are usually adults who know why they need English, either for work purpose or for study purpose. The difference between a GE teacher and an ESP practitioner was also looked at. A GE teacher teaches the four language skills with a pre-planned curriculum and syllabus but an ESP practitioner is a teacher like the GE teacher and also a collaborator, course designer and material provider, a researcher and an evaluator. There is every need for pre-service and in-service trainings for EFL teachers, as well as their getting involved in collaborative teaching with content teacher for successful teaching of English for Specific Purposes.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Briefly describe the essential roles of an ESP teacher.

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Module 1: Unit 5

Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, the roles of the ESP practitioner were extensively discussed. ESP teaching requires particular and sometimes special skills, such as dealing with language input, handling skills work, answering questions on terminology, and listening to lectures and research presentations and seminar skills training. For this reason the ESP teacher is supposed to have not only language but also content knowledge of the field. This unit will examine some of the handicaps of the ESP teacher that call for training, how they should be trained and resources available to them to be able to face the new challenges of language teaching to meet learners' specific needs.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

   (a) explain an ESP teacher will require an extra training to carry out his or her job

   (b) state how the training should be done

   (c) explain ways of equipping the ESP teacher

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Why Train ESP Teachers

Can all General English (GE) teachers teach ESP? The answer is no. Language teachers lacking content knowledge to teach ESP feel unprepared to integrate authentic texts, tasks, or tests from content areas in their English classes. In this case, the task of teaching ESP is shouldered by content teachers who have got a degree in a university with English-medium instruction. However, these content teachers without training, skills and strategies for

language teaching perceive themselves as unable to help ESP learners to understand academic concepts, facts and knowledge encoded in academic texts through the language that they are still learning.

A survey for the purpose of identifying English Language Needs for Technical Education was conducted in 1990 by the Language Studies Unit of the Curriculum Development Cell, IIT, in Tamil-Kanpur, India. The third research question of this survey was "*Whose job is it to teach you the language of Science and Technology? English teachers / Subject teachers (Teachers of Civil, Mechanical, and Electrical Engineering etc)/ Both English teachers and subject teachers.*" 15.6% of the students said that it is the duty of their English teachers, 10.2% are of the view that it is the duty of Subject teachers and 74.2% of the respondents said that it is the duty of both English teachers and subject teachers (Venkatraman & Prema, 2006). The researchers are of the opinion that teaching academic English cannot be left simply either to the language teacher or the content teacher alone because both have particular deficiencies in this matter.

Language teachers lacking language and content knowledge to teach academic English feel unprepared to integrate authentic texts, tasks, or tests from content areas in their English classes. In this case, the task of teaching ESP is shouldered by content teachers who have got a degree in a university with English-medium instruction. However, these content teachers without training, skills and strategies for language teaching perceive themselves as unable to help ESP learners to understand academic concepts, facts and knowledge encoded in academic texts through the language that they are still learning. Consequently, I am of the opinion that not only EFL teachers who have to teach ESP but content teachers who have to teach academic English due to the same reason should get special training to perform well to meet the needs of tertiary level students. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 157) refer to this as "orientate themselves to a new environment" (p. 157).

A lot of deficiencies arose in the situation mentioned above; both General English and content teachers teaching ESP try to join language and content doing their teaching through direct translation activities and intensive reading. The former does so as he/she does not have prior content knowledge or proficiency in academic language while the latter prefers focusing on content while teaching translation from English into mother tongue as he/she can do it easily but cannot make clarifications about particular formal points in academic texts when necessary. This type of ESP teaching provides the learners only with a tool to comprehend what they read in their content books. This may improve their passive knowledge of the form of academic foreign language and content knowledge they have in their field (Savaç, 2009). Undergraduates need to have productive linguistic skills as well so as to make more use of ESP training.

Both ELT and content teachers trying to teach field-specific English by means of direct translation cannot make reverse translations (from mother tongue into English), which learners, in fact need to learn to acquire the desired language skills. In an attempt to make a reverse translation, ELT teacher cannot make sense of the content encoded in the text even if it is in his/her L1 and the content teacher cannot write in English correctly and appropriately even if he/she understands the content of the text due to lack of a suitable training. According to Swain's Output Theory, teaching ESP requires productive activities because learning a language requires interaction so that learners can notice whether the sentences they make up are correct or not.

3.2 How to Train ESP Teachers

How then should this training be done?

As mentioned before, ESP teaching requires a special approach to the training of the teachers who are supposed to teach English through content. First of all, EFL teachers should be provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with students' special field of study, because they are not specialists in the field, but in teaching English, their subject is English for the profession but not the profession in English. They are expected to help students, who know their subject better than them, develop the essential skills in understanding, using, and/or presenting authentic information in their profession (Bojojic`, 2006). This is quite a challenging task to perform with any knowledge of content through which they will teach English as it facilitates learners' acquisition of formal schema of academic texts.

3.3 Ways of Equipping ESP Teachers

Both prospective ESP teachers and those who are already in the profession can be equipped with necessary tools in a couple of ways;

1. *Pre-service/In-service training*

Current language teaching programs may not consist of ESP methodology teaching or curriculum may not allow establishing separate departments for ESP teacher training as in Nigeria. In this case, pre-service training after undergraduate study can be a solution.

Similarly, for currently working EFL teachers, in-service training programs can be helpful. Language teachers and prospective language teachers can attend professional development workshops to let themselves acquire a second field of expertise, such as medicine, engineering or law. In these settings entailing continuous participation in situational decision making and professional involvement in the disciplinary culture in which the learners in question communicate, a prospective ESP practitioner can conceptualize appropriate notions for teaching approaches (Chen 2000).

2. *Collaborative work (Team teaching)*

Chen (2000) holds that the language teacher should not be expected to possess sophisticated content knowledge, but basic concepts are needed to design an ESP syllabus that backs up the content course. Indeed, language teachers have not been trained to teach content subjects but they could definitely be a competent ESP teacher if they participate in content teaching classes and thus develop the flexibility to undergo disciplinary acculturation. In this regard, the content teacher shares the responsibility not only of providing opportunities for the language teacher to overcome the fear of a lack of content knowledge but also of introducing him/her to the modes of disciplinary thought and values. Therefore, language teachers can ask for assistance from content teachers. When this is the case, it is possible, through collaboration and cooperation, for both language and content teachers to develop the confidence and the competence to effectively integrate language and content instruction in ESP teaching, which entails:

(a) analysis of texts, materials, and curriculum;

(b) classroom observation, reflection, and feedback;

(c) collaborative action research and reflection;

(d) development of integrated or complementary lessons, materials, or curricula;

(e) Collaborative or team teaching (Crandall, 1998).

In the long term, an acculturation or specialization can be a permanent solution of the problem. Both results of the faculty survey and theories of language learning in general and of foreign language learning in particular confirm that the best way of teaching ESP and training the future ESP teachers is to perform classroom activities collaboratively. Those who are eager to be ESP teachers after graduating from ELT teacher training programmes can be given opportunity to choose the field in which they would like to teach ESP. They can have particular introductory classes in engineering, medicine, biology, physics, or whatever field they like during their undergraduate study. These classes may even be in their L1 too, which will provide them at least with content knowledge of that field. Students from physical sciences can also attend ELT teacher training programs, both to learn English and teaching methodology if they are planning to study for an MA or PhD degree in their field during which they are expected to teach content classes. In order to ensure that the two curricula are interlocking, modifications to both courses may be required. The rationale behind this model is that the linked courses will assist students in developing academic coping strategies and cognitive skills that will transfer from one discipline to another. This model integrates the language curriculum with the academic language demands placed on students in their other university courses and future professional life, which is something ELT teacher training program cannot realize on its own due to vast range of scientific fields.

Self-Assessment Exercise

(a) What are the consequences of having unqualified ESP teachers?

(b) List and describe three major ways of re-training EFL teachers for ESP job

4.0   CONCLUSION

There are both short and long term solutions of the problem brought about by lack of qualified ESP teachers. To decrease the severity of the problem currently, ELT teachers could get professional help from prospective content teachers. Those who are making an M.A or Ph.D. study could acquire these teaching qualifications if they worked with EFL teachers in ESP classes. These students could therefore learn academic language in L2, which would, in turn, facilitate their academic studies and teaching skills that they need while teaching departmental classes on one hand while on the other hand they could scaffold ELT teachers trying to teach ESP with content knowledge. This could be a kind of in-service-training for prospective content teacher and for ELT teacher together.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have established that a GE teachers lack the skills to be an ESP teacher; lack language and content knowledge to teach academic English. They need training requiring special approaches such as pre-service and in-service courses and collaborative or team teaching with the content teacher. This collaboration and cooperation, for both language and content teachers help to develop the confidence and the competence to effectively integrate language and content instruction in ESP teaching.

6.0   TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) List two major ways that could be used to equip prospective ESP teachers.

(b) What is collaborative work and what does it entail in getting ELT teachers to teach ESP?

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MODULE 2

ESP Course/Syllabus Design

Introduction

Module 1, as you have seen is an introduction to the course ESP. You have learnt to define ESP and can now distinguish it from GE. In Module 2 will be exposed to the issue of course/syllabus design. The module distinguishes between the terms curriculum, syllabus, course and syllabus design. It also introduces you to factors affecting ESP course design and the steps you will follow in designing a course for specified learners. As ESP is based on learners' reasons for needing English, special attention will be paid to needs analysis. Needs analysis is the process of establishing *what* and *how* of a course (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Before the advent of Munby's model, EAP course may have been based mainly on teachers' intuitions of students' needs. The needs analyses address workplace and teaching expectations (Engineering and ESP) and learners' (as engineers and language users) needs, wants, and desires (Hutchinson &Waters, 1987). The key feature of ESP is that the teaching and the materials should be founded on the results of needs analysis. We expect to see all this as broken down in the units below.

Module 2:   **ESP Course and Syllabus Design**

Unit 1	Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design; Types of Syllabus
Unit 2	Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Language Description
Unit 3	Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Learning Theories and Needs Analysis
Unit 4	Approaches and Techniques for Needs Analysis; Principles for Analyzing Learners Needs
Unit 5	Approaches to and Steps in ESP Course Design

Module 2: Unit 1

Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous module, you read that one of the functions of an ESP practitioner is to design courses for specified learners. Before we go into how he does that, let us first of all look at the issue of definitions. Often times you hear of syllabus, courses and curriculum. Do you the difference between them? This unit will teach you the difference between courses and syllabus and curriculum. It also lists and explains the different types of syllabuses in language learning. The increasing demand of ESP programmes has sprouted a multitude of language training organizations that offer courses focusing on a particular or specific need. All ESP courses are needs driven.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

  (a)   define the terms: curriculum, syllabus, course, course design and syllabus design;

  (b)   make a clear distinction between course, syllabus and curriculum;

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Issue of Definitions: Courses, Syllabus versus Curriculum; Course/Syllabus Design

Every day you hear about curriculum, courses, syllabus and course/syllabus design. Have you ever stopped to wonder what differentiates one from the other?

The terms "syllabus", "syllabus design" and "curriculum" have given rise to confusion in terms of their definitions and use. According to Stern (1983), the field of curriculum studies is part of the discipline of educational studies. In its broadest sense, it refers to the study of goals, content, implementation and evaluation of an educational system. In its restricted sense, curriculum refers to a course of study or the content of a particular course or programme. It is in this narrower sense of curriculum that the term "syllabus" is employed. According to Stern, "syllabus design" is just one phase in a system of interrelated curriculum development activities.

3.1.1 Syllabus on the other hand refers to the "Content" or "subject matter" of a particular individual subject. Graves (1996), citing White's (1988) definition, states that "A syllabus will be defined narrowly as the specification and ordering of content of a course or courses" (p. 25). So, you may start with the demand for a course, for a specific group of learners over a specific length of time, and then you design a syllabus for it. Shaw (1975) defines a syllabus as "a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself" (p. 62).

In defining a language "syllabus", Noss and Rodgers (1976) refer to it as "a set of justifiable, educational objectives specified in terms of linguistic content" (p. 123). Here the specification of objectives must have something to do with language form or substance, with language-using situations, or with language as a means of communication. Strevens (1977) says that the syllabus is

> partly an administrative instrument, partly a day-to-day guide
> to the teacher, partly a statement of what is to be taught and
> how, sometimes partly a statement of an approach ... The
> syllabus embodies that part of the language which is to be
> taught, broken down into items, or otherwise processed for
> teaching purposes   (p. 29

In Wilkins' (1981) words, syllabuses are "specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process."

Johnson (1982) explains syllabus as an "organized syllabus inventory" where "syllabus inventory" refers to the items to be taught. Crombie (1985) also defines syllabus as a list or inventory of items or units with which learners are to be familiarised. In addition to specifying the content of learning, a syllabus provides a rationale of how that content should be selected and ordered (Mackey, 1980).

Candlin (1984) takes a different stand when he says that syllabuses are

> social constructions, produced interdependently in classrooms
> by teachers and learners ... They are concerned with the
> specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently

77

> set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by
> teachers and learners (p. 79).

Basically, a syllabus can be seen as "a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning" (Breen, 1984) while its function is "to specify what is to be taught and in what order" (Prabhu, 1984).

A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both the teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define syllabus as follows: "At its simplest level, a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt; it reflects the language and linguistic performance" (p. 80). This is a rather traditional interpretation of syllabus, focusing on outcomes rather than process. However, a syllabus can also be seen as a "summary of the content to which learners will be exposed" (Yalden.1987, p. 87). It is seen as an approximation of what will be taught and that it cannot accurately predict what will be learnt. Syllabus then refers to that subpart of a curriculum which is concerned with the specification of what units will be taught.

3.1.2 Curriculum as defined by Allen (1984) is a very general concept. It involves consideration of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational programme. It is the totality of what happens in an educational setting:

> Traditionally "curriculum" is taken to refer to a statement or statements of intent – the "what should be" of a course of study. In this work a rather different perspective is taken. The curriculum is seen in terms of what teachers actually do; that is, in terms of "what is", rather than "what should be" (Nunan, 1988, p. 1)

Barnes (1976) in line with the above added that

> when people talk about 'the school curriculum' they often mean 'what teachers plan in advance for their pupils to learn'. But a curriculum made only of teachers' intentions would be an insubstantial thing from which nobody would learn much. To become meaningful a curriculum has to be enacted by pupils as well as teachers …. A curriculum as soon as it becomes more than intentions is embodied in the communicative life of an institution…. In this sense curriculum is a form of communication (p. 14).

As the word 'curriculum' can be interpreted in many ways, it should be clarified here how it is perceived in this course material. Curriculum is "a very general concept involving consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social, and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an education programme" (Allen, 1984, p. 62). It is generally understood that curriculum development comprises three main stages: design, implementation, and evaluation (Brown, 1995; Johnson, 1989; Richards, 2001). It is sometimes interpreted as syllabus or course. However, syllabus is most often defined as specifications of content to be taught in a course, and is concerned with course objectives (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Jordan, 1997; Nunan, 1988; Richards, 2001). A course is an instructional programme (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Feez, 1998) with a name such as "English for Engineering Students 1."

In recent times, the 'process' meaning of curriculum has been added to the former 'product' concept. In the process/product orientation framework, a curriculum is designed prior to classes, but remains open to scrutiny and adjustment in real situations (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Nunan, 1988; Smith, 1996, 2000; Stenhouse, 1975). Brown (1995) describes curriculum as a systematic process during which language teaching and language programme development are a "dynamic system of interrelated elements" (p. ix). The elements include needs analysis, goals and objectives, language testing, materials development, language teaching, and programme evaluation. He stresses that learner needs should be served, while alternative perspectives should also be taken into account. In addition to language needs, human needs and contextual variables should also be appraised. It is further recommended that evaluation should be regarded as an ongoing needs assessment. Richards (2001) emphasises that the processes of "needs analysis, situational analysis, planning learning outcomes, course organisation, selection and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching and evaluation" (p. 41) are all integrally interconnected. Richards (2001) places teachers at the centre of the planning and decision-making process. The processes in curriculum development reflect the contributions of a variety of people with various roles and goals.

Shaw's (1975) survey of literature on second language syllabus development brings out the following distinction between "curriculum" and "syllabus". He says,

> ... the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community, through classroom instruction and related programs... (p. 83).

Curriculum refers to the totality of the content to be taught. It includes everything about the learner (who), contents to be taught (what), methodology (how), aims (why), context/setting (where), time (when) and evaluation (how much was achieved). Curriculum is wider term as compared with syllabus. Curriculum covers all the activities and arrangements made by the institution throughout the academic year to facilitate the learners and the instructors; whereas Syllabus is limited to particular subject of a particular class.

ESP curriculum is rather different than the one in General English. In ESP curriculum, the objective or goal is more to the practical aspect: *applying the language in a job-specific-related-situation*. Corresponding to this goal, ESP requires a curriculum which facilitates the use of English language in a job-related-situation. This curriculum contains the following aspects (beside the other core aspects of curriculum such as goal and syllabus):

- specific task, vocabulary, and language in context,

- the starting point based on the learners' background knowledge,

- operational, communicative, and notional syllabus, and

- learner centred.

3.1.3 ESP Curriculum

ESP curriculum is rather different than the one in General English. In ESP curriculum, the objective or goal is more to the practical aspect: applying the language in a job-specific-related-situation. Corresponding to this goal, ESP requires a curriculum which facilitates the use of English language in a job-related-situation.

This curriculum contains the following aspects (beside the other core aspects of curriculum such as goal and syllabus):

- Specific task, vocabulary, and language in context (Higgins in Swales, 1988),
- The starting point based on the learners' background knowledge,
- Operational, communicative, and notional syllabus,
- Learner centred.

In the first aspect, the specific task, vocabulary and language in context need to be taught because ESP learners aim to use the language in their own field. If the ESP students get other aspects of language learning instead of the specific task, vocabulary, and language in context, they will firstly spend too much time in learning English (whereas usually ESP courses are held in 'urgency' basis—for specific purpose and limited time) yet inefficiently.

The next question is where do you start the lesson in ESP? What is the benchmark? The starting point for the ESP lesson is based on the learners' background knowledge (how much they have already known English and to what practical extent: speaking, reading, listening, writing). Then, Operational, communicative, and notional syllabus is the kind of syllabus fitting the ESP setting. The students of ESP usually have more realistic expectation in learning the language (e.g. to be able to read a manual book of a new machine which has just arrived) compared to their fellow university students who learn English for academic reason.

Finally, the ESP curriculum and its syllabus have to be learner-centred, which means all the teaching learning activities are focused on the learners' need and progress. The ESP teachers are true 'facilitators' or the resource-people who are expected to facilitate learning and not only lecturing. As P'Rayan (2008) argues:

> One of the hallmarks of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was that English Language Teaching (ELT) should be learner-centred, i.e., it should respond to the language needs of the learner. In this view, each language-learning situation is unique and should be thoroughly studied and delineated as a prerequisite for the design of language courses. With the spread of communicative language teaching (CLT), much emphasis in second language (L2) methodology has been paid to the learner-oriented instruction   (p. 55).

This last point trait of ESP curriculum, learner-centred curriculum, leads to the need of need analysis in ESP courses. Having understood what the terms "curriculum" and language "syllabus" refer to, the next step would be to come to terms with what language "syllabus design" encompasses.

3.2 Course/Syllabus Design

A Course might be taken to mean a real series of lessons (the particular course delivered last year to such and such a group of students and to be repeated again this year), while a "syllabus" can be taken to be something rather more abstract, with fewer details of the blow by blow conduct of individual lessons. Thus you and I might quite properly write rather different courses, with different materials, but based on the same syllabus. This happens a lot in publishing. For example, when notions and functions became popular as basis for course design, each major ELT publisher published a course based on what became known as a "notional/functional" syllabus.

Having learnt about courses and syllabuses, what does it entail to design a course or a syllabus?

Syllabus Design: To design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language underlying the language teaching method will play a major role in determining what syllabus should be adopted. Theory of learning also plays an important part in determining the kind of syllabus used. For example, a syllabus based on the theory of learning evolved by cognitive code teaching would emphasize language forms and whatever explicit descriptive knowledge about those forms. A syllabus based on an acquisition theory of learning, however, would emphasize unanalyzed and carefully selected experiences of the new language. The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible. There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabuses and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method.

For Munby (1984), syllabus design is seen as "a matter of specifying the content that needs to be taught and then organizing it into a teaching syllabus of appropriate learning units." According to Webb (1976), syllabus design is understood as the organization of the selected contents into an ordered and practical sequence for teaching purposes. His criteria for syllabus design are as follows:

- progress from known to unknown matter
- appropriate size of teaching units
- a proper variety of activity
- teachability
- creating a sense of purpose for the student.

Garcia (1976) expands on this and provides more comprehensive criteria which should be taken into consideration when designing a language syllabus. He says that

> particulars concerning the social forces, the prejudices, the habits and the motives of the student population, the relation of student characteristics to what are considered universal concepts in language learning processes, contemporary insights into the nature of the language, and how it should be taught to non-native speakers and for what realistic purposes, must guide curricular decisions   (p. 26).

Designing a language syllabus is no doubt a complex process. According to Halim (1976), the language course designer has to pay serious consideration to all the relevant variables. He has grouped all the variables into two categories, namely:

1. linguistic variables, which include the linguistic relations, between the language to be taught and the language or languages which the student uses in his or daily activities; and

2. non-linguistic variables which range from policy to social, cultural, technological and administrative variables.

Maley (1984) sums it up when he says that syllabus design encompasses the whole process of designing a language programme. He says that

> the needs analysis which produces an order unit of items to be taught is organically related to a methodology consistent with the syllabus, a set of techniques consistent with the methodology, and evaluation procedure consistent with the whole (p. 47).

From the above explanations on syllabus design, it can be concluded that syllabus design involves a logical sequence of three main stages, that is,

i) needs analysis,

ii) content specification, and

iii) syllabus organization.

This follows very closely the general model advocated by Taba (1962) which gave the following steps:

i.   needs analysis

ii.   formulation of objectives

iii.   selection of content

iv.   organization of content

v.   selection of learning activities

vi.   organization of learning activities

vii.   decisions about what needs evaluating and how to evaluate.

Course Design is concerned precisely with how much design should go into a particular course, that is, how much should be negotiated with the learners, how much predetermined by the teacher, and how much left to chance and the mood of the participants on the day. This notion is bound up with the idea of the "focus on the learner".

Curriculum Design is more general as it includes all processes in which the designers should look into the needs of the learners, develop aims, determine an appropriate syllabus, and evaluate it.

 Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Distinguish between course design, syllabus design and curriculum design

4.0 CONCLUSION

Designing a language syllabus is no doubt a complex process with the language planner paying every attention to all variables. Syllabus design is a logical sequencing of what to be taught. In ESP, the practitioner negotiates this with the learner who knows why he or she needs English.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit started with the issue of definitions of often confused terms: syllabus, course and curriculum. It also discussed syllabus and course design and syllabus design is seen as a matter of specifying the content that needs to be taught and then organizing it into a teaching syllabus of appropriate learning units. The steps to be followed in designing an ESP courses were also highlighted. However, it was noted that central to all ESP syllabus design is needs analysis.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Give short definitions of the following:

(i) curriculum   (ii) Syllabus   (iii) course (iv) course design and (v) Syllabus design

(b) Distinguish between a curriculum and a syllabus

(c) What do you understand as course design?

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Module 2: Unit 2

Types and Importance of Syllabuses

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The last unit explained to you what is meant by the terms curriculum, syllabus and courses. It also informed you about designing courses in ESP, outlining the things a teacher should consider in doing that. The present unit will build on what you have learnt so far. The different ways a teacher can design a syllabus will be discussed with emphasis on the design suitable for ESP. The importance of having an organised syllabus will also be discussed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

   (a)   discuss the two syllabus sequencing

   (b)   differentiate between internal and external syllabus;

   (c)   differentiate between interpreted and uninterpreted syllabus and

   (d)   mention and describe some importance of a syllabus.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Syllabuses

The design of a syllabus a teacher adopts is dependent on the needs it is meant to serve. Various types of syllabuses can be designed to serve different needs. Before we go into the different types of syllabuses, let us first of all look into the two kinds of syllabus sequencing known as **"Linear" and "Spiral" Syllabuses**.

Language is mainly used either for production or reception. Usually, the same resources of language are used in different combinations to express different meanings. New bits of language are gradually learnt by experiencing them intermittently in different contexts. Repeated experiences of the same features of language are necessary. This is the concept behind the "cyclical" or "spiral" syllabus. It reflects the natural process of learning a language whereby the same things keep turning up in different combinations with different meanings.

*Linear Syllabus***:** Most language courses, especially in the past, were usually "linear" whereby new points are strung along in a line and each point was completely utilized before moving on to the next. That is, Language items like grammar and vocabulary etc. are presented once. They are presented in the first unit for example and then we don't go back to them again. All the learning points were isolated and they were presented one after the other in some order. They require a great deal of practice before moving on to the next item.

Cyclic or Spiral syllabus or Language items are presented more than once. For example, if the course has 24 units, every Unit is composed of 4 lessons including language items and the fourth Unit is always a revision. Revision is cyclic which is better. It helps learners to learn more on the general level. The "spiral" syllabuses have greater pedagogical and psychological advantages; they are more difficult to organize. That could be the reason why "linear" syllabuses are more readily found.

A syllabus can also be external or internal to the learner. While external syllabus exemplifies external specifications of the future learning, internal syllabus shows internal constructs developed by the learner. External syllabus is interpreted when the course designer has input to make in the designing of the syllabus but uninterpreted if otherwise. Syllabus types can be grouped under interpreted and uninterpreted as represented by Umera-Okeke (2005, p.57) in the figure below.

Fig 4: Types of Syllabus (Adopted from Umera-Okeke, 2005, p. 57)
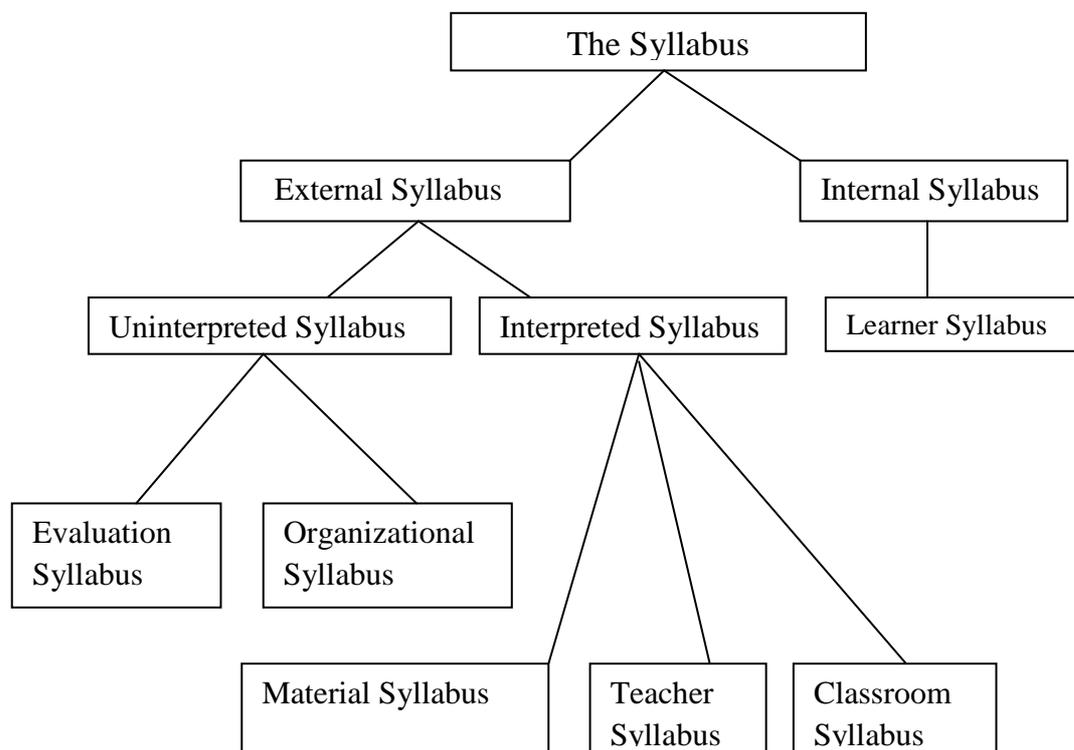
3.1.1 Evaluation Syllabus

This is a statement of what is to be learnt handed down by ministries and/or regulatory bodies. "It states what a successful learner will known by the end of the course… it reflects an official assumption as to the nature of language and linguistic performance (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:80). It is an uninterpreted syllabus because the teacher has no input in its design and s/he is expected to implement it whole without any change.

3.1.2 The Organisational Syllabus

Organisational syllabus is an implicit statement about the nature of language and of learning. This kind of syllabus not only lists what should be learnt but also states the order in which it should be learnt. Example of an organizational syllabus is the contents page of a textbook. It is the most commonly know syllabus. It differs from evaluation syllabus "in that it carries assumptions about the nature of learning as well as language, since, in organizing the items in a syllabus, it is necessary to consider factors which depend upon a view of how people learn (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 81). Such factors, they state, include:

- What is more easily learnt

- What is more fundamental to learning?

- Are some items needed in order to learn other items?

- What is more useful in the classroom?

These criteria determine the order of items to be learnt. Organisational syllabus is also an un-interpreted or a pure syllabus.

3.1.3 The Materials Syllabus

While organizational and evaluation syllabuses state what should be learnt with some indication of the order to be followed, they do not say how learning will be achieved. The organizational syllabus undergoes a lot of interpretations on its way to the learner. The first interpreter is the material writer; thus we have 'materials syllabus.' While the material writer writes his or her material, he or she makes assumptions about the nature of language, language learning and language use. The author also makes decisions as to the context of use, the skills and strategies, the number and types of exercises to be given, the how and when of revisions and tests, etc. There are 8 criteria for a materials syllabus design, namely, topic syllabus, structural/situational syllabus, functional/notional syllabus, skills syllabus, situational syllabus, functional/task-based syllabus, discourse/skills syllabus, and skills and strategies syllabus (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 85). In some syllabuses such as topic syllabus and skills syllabus, a single criterion is at work, while other syllabuses blend two criteria together, such as structural and situational syllabus.

3.1.4 Teacher Syllabus

Another person that interprets the syllabus is the teacher. Many students learn a language through the mediation of a teacher who influences the clarity, intensity and frequency of any item.

3.1.5 Classroom Syllabus

One thing is to plan a lesson and another is to achieve what has been planned in the classroom. A lot of classroom conditions can affect the planned lesson. Some of them are extraneous factors such as noise from outside, hot weather, interruptions to deal with other things. Other conditions that may affect the classroom learning might come from the learners as a group such as tiredness, distractions, etc. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) therefore conclude that

> the classroom is not simply a neutral channel for the passage of information from teacher to learner, it is a dynamic, interactive environment, which affects the nature both of what is taught and what is learnt (p. 82)

According to Breen (1984), "the classroom generates its own syllabus" (p. 66).

3.1.6 The Learner Syllabus

The learner syllabus is an internal syllabus. It is the network of knowledge that develops in the learner's brain and which enables that learner to comprehend and store the later knowledge (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 83). Candlin (1984) describes it as "a retrospective record of what has been learnt rather than a prospective plan of what will be learnt." The learner's syllabus is important because it is through its filter that the learner views all the other syllabuses.

Items in a syllabus can be broken down following certain criteria. These can generate other kinds of syllabuses such as structural/situational syllabus, functional-notional syllabus, skills syllabus, tasks-based syllabus, etc.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Briefly describe the two types of syllabus sequencing.

(b) What do you understand by interpreted and uninterpreted syllabus?

(c) What is the difference between internal and external syllabus?

(d) Briefly describe three types of syllabuses.

3.2 Importance of Syllabus

In designing a syllabus, the designer actually organizes and specifies what is to be taught in a body of materials to enable the learning of a language to be as effective as possible. Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p. 83) give the following as the 'hidden reasons for having a syllabus:

(a) Because language is a complex entity that cannot be learnt in a go, there is need to have some way of breaking it down into manageable units. The syllabus therefore provides a practical basis for the division of assessment, textbooks and learning time.

(b) A syllabus gives moral support to the teacher and learner, in that it makes the language learning task appear manageable.

(c) A syllabus, particularly an ESP syllabus has a cosmetic role. Sponsors and students (where there are commercial sponsors) will want some reassurances that their investment of money and/or time will be worthwhile. It shows that some thought and planning has gone into the development of a course.

(d) It gives direction to the teacher and the learner. It can be seen as a statement of projected routes, so that teacher and learner not only have an idea of where they are going, but how they might get there.

(e) A syllabus is an implicit statement of views on the nature of language and learning. It tells the teacher and the student not only what is to be learnt, but, implicitly, why it is to be learnt.

(f) A syllabus provides a set of criteria for materials selection and/or writing. It defines the kind of texts to look for or produce; the items to focus on in exercises, etc.

(g) A syllabus is one way in which standardization is achieved (or at least attempted). It makes for uniformity in educational activities.

(h) A syllabus provides a visible basis for testing.

To sum up, you must have learnt that a syllabus is an important document in the teaching/learning process though it has its limitations. It cannot express the intangible factors that are so crucial to learning: emotions, personality, subjective views, motivation. Syllabuses cannot take account of individual differences. Just as they are statements of ideals in language, they implicitly define the ideal learner.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Why do you think a language course should be divided in a syllabus?

4.0 CONCLUSION

A syllabus, either external or internal to the learner exemplifying external specifications of the future learning, or the internal constructs developed by the learner respectively is a complex work for the designer. But it clearly satisfies a lot of needs. You need to know the roles that the syllabus plays, so that it can be used appropriately. You also need to know its

limitations so that as good and future ESP practitioners you can fill in the missing gap. In closing, it is of great importance that you realise that no single type of syllabus is appropriate for all teaching settings. This is due to the fact that the needs and conditions of each setting are so characteristic and idiosyncratic that particular proposals for integration are not easily possible. The *possibility* and *practicality* aspects of a particular syllabus to be developed and implemented are of great significance while processing the issue. To put in more tangible terms, in making practical decisions about syllabus design, you must take into account all the potential factors that may affect the teachability of a specific syllabus. By beginning with an assessment and investigation over each syllabus type, keeping track of the choice and integration of the different types according to local needs, you may find a principled and practical solution to the problem of suitability and efficiency in syllabus design and implementation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that the syllabus can be either internal or external to the learner. You were also informed that external syllabus is interpreted when the course designer has input to make in the designing of the syllabus but uninterpreted if otherwise. Syllabus types were grouped along interpreted and uninterpreted lines. While evaluation and organizational syllabuses are uninterpreted, material, teacher and classroom syllabuses are interpreted. Finally, the roles of syllabuses were also discussed. The mastery of all these make for the appropriate use of the syllabuses, especially in an ESP setting.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSESSMENT

(a) Describe, using adequate examples, the two broad divisions of a syllabus.

(b) State at least five roles of a syllabus.

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Module 2: Unit 3

Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Language Description

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you studied the different kinds of syllabuses – both internal and external to the learner. In this unit we shall study what is expected of an ESP course designer. An ESP programme designer usually looks at the specific purposes of learners, designs the course and prepares materials for the learners of a particular profession with special needs. ESP course is a pre-planned activity involving a lot of ingenuity on the part of the teacher or ESP practitioner. Course design in ESP involves syllabus design, material writing, classroom teaching and evaluation. According to Robinson (1991, p. 41), course design involves putting theoretical decisions about objectives and syllabus into context." Strevens (1977) is of the opinion that ESP course design should be based on "restriction", that is, "selection of items and features from the corpus of the language that are relevant to the designer's intention and students' needs" (p. 25). This is termed language description; that is the designer's ability to

find answers to issues concerning the nature of language. This unit will tell you about different ways of describing language as one of the factors to be considered in ESP course design.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

(a) state the factors that play crucial role in organizing an ESP course;
(b) state and explain some of the linguistic developments in course design;
(c) list the six main stages in the development of language in ESP
(d) distinguish the variations of register;
(e) distinguish between register analysis and discourse analysis;
(f) state and explain the development stages that are communicative in nature

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

General Introduction

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) list the questions that need the attention of the teacher in designing a course to include:

➢ Why does the student need to learn?

➢ Who is going to be involved in the process? – the teacher, sponsor, inspector, etc.

➢ Where is the learning to take place?

➢ What potentials does the place provide and what limitations?

➢ When is the learning to take place?

➢ How much time is available?

➢ How will it be distributed?

➢ What does the student need to learn?

➢ What aspect of language will be needed?

➢ How will they be described?

➢ What level of proficiency must be achieved?

➢ What topic area will be covered?

➢ How will the learning be achieved? and

➢ What learning theory will underlie the course? (pp. 21-22).

These questions they summarized into three key factors namely:

(a) Language description

(b) Learning theory and

(c) Needs analysis

Now look at the diagram below to see the systemic relationship existing between the three.

Fig 5: Factors affecting ESP Course Design
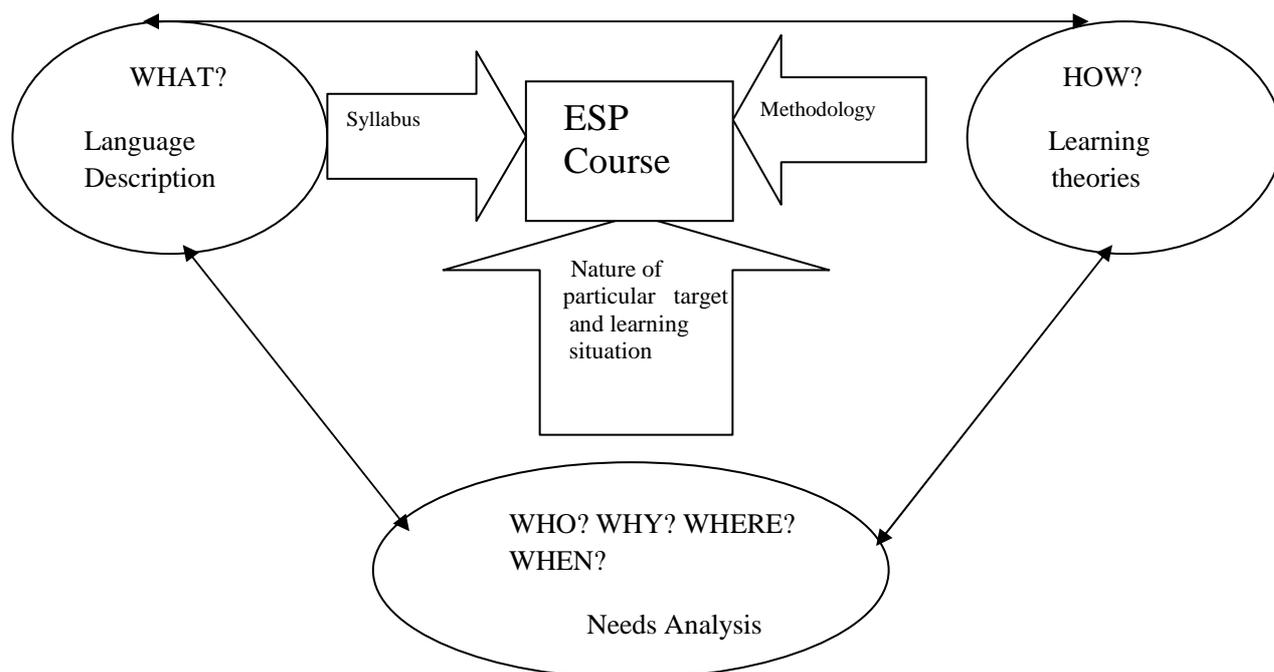
Source: Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p. 22)

In this unit, we shall discuss one of the factors which is language description. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the language description involves questions like "What topic areas will need to be covered?" 'What does the student need to learn?' "What aspects of language will be needed and how will they be described?" You can only find the right answers to these questions if you have been able to set exact goals and objectives of the course. Designing a syllabus analyses 'what' the course is going to be about. Setting goals and objectives of the course in advance is inevitable. The aim of language description is to understand the features of the development stages and incorporated the ideas in the course design. There are six main stages in the development of language. They include:

(a) Classical or Traditional Grammar

(b) Structural linguistics

(c) Transformational Generative Grammar

(d) Language Variation and Register analysis

(e) Functional/Notional Grammar

(f) Discourse (Rhetorical) Analysis

3.1 Classical or Traditional Grammar

Under classical grammar, languages were described based on the classical languages – Greek and Latin. They described language in terms of case based (Nominative, Genitive, dative, Instrumental cases). Inflections were used to mark grammatical classes. Traditional grammar is seen as prescriptive grammar because it is rule governed. It is seen as word grammar because it fails to show language as an integrated systemic event. The grammar of a language

93

is the rules that enable the language user to generate the surface structure (performance) from the deep level of meaning (competence). At a point, traditional grammar could no longer account for all the possibilities in grammar. However, register analysis draws heavily from its terminology and it shows how language operates.

3.2 Structural Linguistics

The structural or descriptive linguistics school emerged in the 20th century, around the 1930s-1950s. It is characterized by its emphasis on the overt formal features of language, especially of phonology, morphology, and syntax. It is usually a synchronic approach to language study in which a language is analyzed as an independent network of formal systems, each of which is composed of elements that are defined in terms of their contrasts with other elements in the system.

It deals with languages at particular points in time (synchronic) rather than throughout their historical development (diachronic). The father of modern structural linguistics is Ferdinand de Saussure, who believed in language as a systematic structure serving as a link between thought and sound; he thought of language sounds as a series of linguistic signs that are purely arbitrary. It is an approach to linguistics which treats language as an interwoven structure, in which every item acquires identity and validity only in relation to the other items in the system. All linguistics models in the 20th century are structural in this sense, as opposed to much of the work in the 19th century, when it was common to trace the history of individual words. Insight into the structural nature of language is due to the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, who compared language to a game of chess, noting that a chess piece in isolation has no value and that a move by any one piece has repercussions on all the others. An item's role in a structure can be discovered by examining those items which occur alongside it and those which can be substituted for it.

The structural approach developed in a strong form in the US in the second quarter of the century, when the prime concern of American linguists was to produce a catalogue of the linguistic elements of a language, and a statement of the positions in which they could occur ideally without reference to meaning. Leonard Bloomfield was the pioneer among these structuralists, attempting to lay down a rigorous methodology for the analysis of any language. Various Bloomfieldians continued to refine and experiment with this approach until the 1960s, but from the late 1950s onwards, *structural linguistics* has sometimes been used pejoratively, because supporters of *generative linguistics* (initiated by Noam Chomsky) have regarded the work of the American structuralists as too narrow in conception. They have argued that it is necessary to go beyond a description of the location of items to produce a grammar which mirrors a native speaker's intuitive knowledge of language.

3.3 Transformational Generative (TG) Grammar

In the 1950s the school of linguistic thought known as transformational-generative grammar received wide acclaim with the publication of Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* in 1957. Chomsky postulated a syntactic base of language (called deep structure), which consists of a series of phrase-structure rewrite rules, i.e., a series of (possibly universal) rules that generates the underlying phrase-structure of a sentence, and a series of rules (called transformations) that act upon the phrase-structure to form more complex sentences. The end result of a transformational-generative grammar is a surface structure that, after the addition of words and pronunciations, is identical to an actual sentence of a language. All languages have the same deep structure, but they differ from each other in surface structure because of

the application of different rules for transformations, pronunciation, and word insertion. Another important distinction made in transformational-generative grammar is the difference between language competence (the subconscious control of a linguistic system) and language performance (the speaker's actual use of language). Although the first work done in transformational-generative grammar was syntactic, later studies have applied the theory to the phonological and semantic components of language.

For ESP, the lesson we got from Chomsky's work was the difference between performance and competence, that is, surface structure and deep structure respectively. You must note that ESP, at the early stage, paid attention to describing just the performance needed for communication in the target situation but ignored or paid little attention to competence. It is important to describe what people do with the language, as well as the competence that enables them do it.

Language in the three developments so far discussed was only seen from the point of view of form. Language exists because people do something with it such as to give information, to make a promise, to identify, classify, report or to make excuses. It does not exist in isolation. This means that, apart from form, the function of language should also be considered.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Briefly explain the three factors to be considered in designing an ESP course

(b) How can you summarize ESP at its early stages?

(c) Write short notes on (i) classical grammar   (ii)   structural   linguistics   and
(iii)   TG grammar

Linguistic Developments Based on Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence is important to ESP and it led to the following three stages of linguistic development:

(i) Language Variation and Register analysis

(ii) Functional/Notional Grammar

(iii)Discourse (Rhetorical) Analysis

Before you look into each of these, let us first of all discuss what is meant by communicative competence. This involves the rules that guide "the formulation of grammatical correct sentence as well as what, whom to speak with, where and in what manner of a language" (Umera-Okeke, 2005). Umera-Okeke went further to cite Dell Hymes who states that communicative competence is "a person's knowledge and ability to use all the semiotic systems available to him as a member of a given socio-cultural community" (p. 26). Thus, the study of language should involve non-verbal communication, medium and channel of communication, role relationship between participants, topic as well as purpose of communication. It is that part of our language knowledge which enables us to choose the communicative system we wish to use, and when that selected system is language, to connect the goals and contexts of the situations with the structures which we have available in our linguistic repertoire through functional choice at the pragmatic level. In making these selections, language users accommodate linguistic features both consciously and

unconsciously in order to adjust the social distance between the producer and the receiver. The linguistic development based on communicative competence will henceforth be discussed:

3.4 Language Variation and Register Analysis

Dialect variation, because it is semi-permanent, is language variation which helps to distinguish one person, or group of people from others. But all of us are also involved in another kind of language variation, which is much more rapid. We vary our language from one situation to another many times in the same day. Typically, the English we use when we write is different from the English we use when we speak, the language students use to write literature essays is different from the language used to write linguistics or biology essays, and the English we use in formal situations like lectures and seminars is different from the English we use when chatting with friends in a market place or beer parlours. This means that language varies according to context of use. Thus we can have Legal English, Medical English, etc. This kind of language variation, which can vary from minute to minute in the same day, is usually called **register**.

Register can vary according to medium, domain and tenure.

Medium (sometimes called 'mode'): Your language changes according to the medium used (e.g. 'the language of speech', 'the language of writing').

Domain (sometimes called 'field'): Your language changes according to the domain that the language is related to. This includes (a) the subject matter being spoken or written about (e.g. the language of science, the language of law) and (b) the function that the language is being used for (such as the language of advertising, and the language of government).

Tenor: The tenor of your language (e.g. how politely or formally you speak) changes according to (a) who you are talking or writing to (e.g. the language we use when talking to close friends compared with that used when talking to strangers or people who are socially distant from us) and (b) the social situation you find yourself in (e.g. a child whose mother is a teacher will talk to her in different ways, depending on whether they are at home or at school).

ESP is concerned with the identification of the characteristics of various registers in order to establish a basis for the selection of syllabus items. Register analysis is a result of language variation.

3.5 Functional/Notional Grammar

This is a juxtaposition of function and notion in Language learning. While function is concerned with social behaviour and intention of the speaker or writer, notion reflects on the way in which the human mind thinks and how it uses language to divide reality. This is an offshoot of work into language as a communication that has greatly influenced ESP. The functional view was adopted into language teaching in the 1970s. Then, there was a move from syllabuses organized on structural grounds to ones based on functional or notional criteria (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 32). The move towards functionally based syllabus has greatly influenced ESP because the adult ESP learners, who must have mastered the

language structure, probably at school are acquiring English for the needs. This is learning to use the structures already acquired.

The weak point of this syllabus type, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) is that "it suffers in particular from a lack of any kind of systematic conceptual framework, and as such does not help the learners to organize their knowledge of language".

3.6 Discourse (Rhetorical) Analysis

Not until this stage of discourse analysis, language has not been looked at beyond the sentence level. Discourse analysis is a logical development of functional/notional view of language. The emphasis here is on how meaning is generated between sentences. To create meaning, you should also consider the context of a sentence.

Self Assessment Exercise

    (a) what are the linguistic developments based on communicative competence?

    (b) What do you understand by the term "communicative competence?"

    (c) What are the differences between register analysis and discourse analysis?

4.0 CONCLUSION

To design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language explicitly or implicitly underlying the language teaching method will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined language description as one of the factors necessary for designing an ESP course. Six areas of description were discussed – classical/traditional grammar, structural linguistics, TG grammar, language variation and register analysis, functional/notional grammar and discourse analysis. The first three depict how ESP was organised at its earliest stages while the last three took care of communicative competence in language description. A course designer must have a knowledge of all these to be able to come up with appropriate course that meets the learner's target need

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

    (a) Write short notes on any three ways a course could be designed

    (b) Register can vary according to medium, domain and tenure. Explain.

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Module 2: Unit 4

Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Learning Theories and Needs Analysis

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You should remember that the term ´specific´ in ESP refers to a specific purpose for which English is learnt and teacher should be familiar with. Different speech situations require entirely a different course unlike the general English. Organizing the ESP course is a very important step to achieving a satisfying goal in the course. There are many factors playing a crucial role in organizing ESP course; without them the learning process would not lead to effectiveness. In the last unit, you studied one of the factors which is language description. In this unit, we shall look at how it is to be taught (learning theories) and for whom it is meant at what time and place (needs analysis). Basturkmen (2006) rightly observes that "in ESP, language is learnt, not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education", but to

enable learners to use English in specific environments, be it academic, professional or work. The understanding that an ESP course should be designed to meet particular needs led to the theory of Needs Analysis. However, how to carry out effective Needs Analysis (NA) continues to remain a problem in ESP. This unit will tackle the definition of the concept of needs analysis.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

(a) mention and explain some of the learning theories;

(b) define needs analysis and state its importance in ESP course design;

(c) define needs analysis;

(d) state and explain the various interpretation of needs;

(e) distinguish between product and process-oriented needs; objective and subjective needs;

(f) mention steps that could be taken in conducting needs analysis;

(g) state what informs a teacher's decisions about needs;

(h) discuss in groups Jordan's Needs analysis steps.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Learning Theories

Another feature of organizing course underlines the way the learning is achieved. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) speak about "´learning theories´ which provide the theoretical basis for the methodology, by helping us to understand how people learn" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.23). It is the psychological processes involved in language use and language learning. It is natural that learning strategies vary and corresponds with learners' groups, their age, level or for what reason they study English. The way adults acquire language differ from the way children do; Advanced group expects different attitudes from beginners, and teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on to meet learners' needs and expectations successfully. Some of these theories are: (a) Cognitive Code, (b) Behaviourism (c) Mentalism (d) Constructivism (e) Humanistic Theory/ Affective Factor (f) Learning and Acquisition

3.1.1 The Cognitive Theory

Cognitive theory according Cunnningsworth (1984) involves activities "which engage conscious mental processes such as analysing and understanding, and involved learning and applying explicitly formulated rules" (p. 31). It also assumes that responses are the result of insight and intentional patterning. Insight can be directed to (a) the concepts behind language i.e. to traditional grammar. It can also be directed to (b) language as an operation - sets of communicative functions. The grammar translation method which dominated the 60s is essentially cognitive in that it requires a clear understanding of rules and the ability to apply the given rules to new examples of language.

A variety of activities practised in new situations will allow assimilation of what has already been learnt or partly learnt. It will also create further situations for which existing language resources are inadequate and must accordingly be modified or extended - "accommodation".

This ensures awareness and a continuing supply of learning goals as well as aiding the motivation of the learner. Cognitive theory therefore acknowledges the role of mistakes.

Trainers of English language teachers can achieve practical coverage of cognitive learning theory by reviewing the history of language teaching, especially the period in the mid 20th century when "meaningful drills" were being advocated and the shortcomings of "meaningless drills" were being highlighted. Although drilling and rote learning became subject to considerable prejudice in some educational circles in the late 20th century, no language learner will proceed very far without recognition of language structure and nobody will succeed in learning much without practice and repetition. Knowledge of the "types of drill" which the accomplished language teacher or informed computer learning program can employ provide a full toolkit for anybody responsible for learning and teaching.

The weakness of this method lies in its too limited concept of what is involved in learning and using language. Being able to learn, and then apply it to an academic exercise involving translating sentences (often isolated sentences) from the L1 to the L2 is hardly fully representative of real-life language use in normal situations.

3.1.2 Behaviourism

Following grammar translation in the 1960s, the influence of Pavlov and Skinner and behaviourist theory all but revolutionized foreign-language learning with the concept that language learning, like all other learning, is essentially habit formation in response to external stimuli. The theory argued that 'learning is a mechanical process of habit formation of a stimulus-response sequence' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:40), in which the basic exercise technique of a behaviourist methodology is pattern practice, particularly in the form of language laboratory drills. As a matter of fact, such drills are now still found in ESP textbooks with more and more interesting and meaningful contexts.

Behaviourism is a learning theory that only focuses on objectively observable behaviours and discounts any independent activities of the mind. Behaviour theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behaviour based on environmental conditions. According to behaviourist thinking it wasn't really necessary for learners to internalize rules; instead they should learn the right patterns of linguistic behaviour, and acquire the correct habits.

Experiments by behaviourists identify **conditioning** as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioural pattern:

1. **Classic Conditioning** occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. We are biologically "wired" so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response. One of the more common examples of classical conditioning in the educational environment is in situations where students exhibit irrational fears and anxieties like fear of failure, fear of public speaking and general school phobia.

2. **Behavioural** or **Operant conditioning** occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviourist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley. This is like reinforcing a child each time he does something right.

There have been many criticisms of behaviourism, including the following:

101

- Behaviourism does not account for all kinds of learning, since it disregards the activities of the mind.

- Behaviourism does not explain some learning–such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children–for which there is no reinforcement mechanism.

- Research has shown that animals adapt their reinforced patterns to new information. For instance, a rat can shift its behaviour to respond to changes in the layout of a maze it had previously mastered through reinforcements.

How Behaviourism Impacts Learning

This theory is relatively simple to understand because it relies only on observable behaviour and describes several universal laws of behaviour. Its positive and negative reinforcement techniques can be very effective – such as in treatments for human disorders including autism, anxiety disorders, and antisocial behaviour. Behaviourism is often used by teachers who reward or punish student behaviours.

Behaviourism is often seen in contrast to constructivism. Constructivists are more likely to allow for experimentation and exploration in the classroom and place a greater emphasis on the experience of the learner. In contrast to behaviourists, they feel that an understanding of the brain

3.1.3   Mentalism

This theory is of the opinion that thinking is rule-governed. Chomsky's question in tackling behaviourism was how the mind is able to transfer what was learnt from one stimulus-response situation to another. Behaviourist theory states that it is due to generalization but Chomsky thinks otherwise. He sees learners as thinking beings who are capable of coping with infinite range of possible situations from a finite range of experience. The mind uses individual experiences to formulate hypothesis. For instance, knowing that words that end in '–y' take '–ies' to form their plural, while those that end in '–f' will change to '–ives', the learner given these rules can form a lot of plurals even of words they have never seen before.

3.1.4   Constructivism

Constructivism is an educational philosophy which holds that learners ultimately construct their own knowledge that then resides within them, so that each person's knowledge is as unique as they are. Constructivist learning is based on students' active participation in problem-solving and critical thinking regarding a learning activity which they find relevant and engaging. They are "constructing" their own knowledge by testing ideas and approaches based on their prior knowledge and experience, applying these to a new situation, and integrating the new knowledge gained with pre-existing intellectual constructs. Among its key precepts are:

- situated or anchored learning, which presumes that most learning is context-dependent, so that cognitive experiences situated in authentic activities such as project-based learning;

- cognitive apprenticeships, or case-based learning environments result in richer and more meaningful learning experiences;

- social negotiation of knowledge, a process by which learners form and test their constructs in a dialogue with other individuals and with the larger society [15].

- collaboration as a principal focus of learning activities so that negotiation and testing of knowledge can occur.

Relevance: Constructivism is one of the hot topics in educational philosophy right now. It potentially has profound implications for how current `traditional' instruction is structured, since it fits with several highly touted educational trends, for example:

- the transition of the teacher's role from "sage on the stage" (fount/transmitter of knowledge) to "guide on the side" (facilitator, coach);

- teaching "higher order" skills such as problem-solving, reasoning, and reflection (for example, see also generative learning);

- enabling learners to learn how to learn;

- more open-ended evaluation of learning outcomes; and

- cooperative and collaborative learning skills.

3.1.5   Humanism and Affective Factors

Humanism, a paradigm that emerged in the 1960s, focuses on the human freedom, dignity, and potential. A central assumption of humanism, according to Huitt (2001), is that people act with intentionality and values. This is in contrast to the behaviourist notion of operant conditioning (which argues that all behaviour is the result of the application of consequences) and the cognitive psychologist belief that discovering knowledge or constructing meaning is central to learning. Humanists also believe that it is necessary to study the person as a whole, especially as an individual grows and develops over the lifespan. It follows that the study of the self, motivation, and goals are areas of particular interest.

Key proponents of humanism include Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. A primary purpose of humanism could be described as the development of self-actualized, autonomous people. In humanism, learning is student centred and personalized, and the educator's role is that of a facilitator. Affective and cognitive needs are the key, and the goal is to develop self-actualized people in a cooperative, supportive environment.

Affective factors are emotional factors which influence learning. They can have a negative or positive effect. Negative affective factors are called affective filters and are an important idea in theories about second language acquisition. For instance, A learner's attitude to English, to the teacher, to other learners in the group and to herself are all affective factors and have impact on how well she learns. Affective factors may be as important for successful language learning, if not more so, than ability to learn. Teachers can reduce negative factors and develop positive ones by doing activities to build a positive group dynamic, by including students in deciding aspects of the course and choosing activities that are motivating for the age and interests of the learners.

The cognitive theory tells us that learners will learn when they actively think about what they are learning. This pre-supposes the affective factor of motivation. Motivation is important in the development of ESP. Gardner and Lambert (cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) identified two forms of motivation: instrumental and integrative motivation.

Instrumental motivation is the reflection of the external needs of the learner. The learners learn a language not because they want but because they need the language for something such as for study or work purposes, to transact business with the owners of the language, and learning a language for exam purpose and not for leisure, etc.

Integrative motivation, on the other hand, derives from the desire on the part of the learners to be members of the speech community that uses a particular language. Integrative motivation, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), "is an internally generated want rather than an externally imposed need" (p. 48). Example could be this new trend of many parents speaking English to their children at home in order to hasten their children's integration into the English dominated prestigious social class in Nigeria.

In ESP, students are motivated to learn English because they are offered courses relevant to their target needs. Students ought to be intrinsically motivated so that they can learn.

3.1.6 Learning and Acquisition

These are two psychological concepts. While acquisition is a subconscious, natural process and the primary force behind foreign language fluency, learning is a conscious process that monitors or edits the progress of acquisition and guides the performance of the speaker. It is used to correct errors in speech. There ESP should exploit both processes.

Of all the theories studied, there is none that is superior to the other. They all help us to know how to imbibe or inculcate a given knowledge to a learner. Learning theories provide theoretical basis for methodology by helping us to understand how people learn as language is a reflection of human thoughts processes.

Self Assessment Exercise

    (a) What do you understand by behaviourism as a theory of learning?

    (b) Distinguish between instrumental motivation and integrative motivation

    (c) What is the difference between language learning and language acquisition?

3.2 Needs Analysis

3.3.1 Definition and Development

Needs analysis came to be as a result of the fact that in ESP, the learners have different specific and specifiable communication needs, which informed the development of courses to meet these varying needs. It is, therefore, the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Needs analysis was firmly established in the mid-1970s as course designers came to see learners' purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP. Needs analysis is the process of establishing *what* and *how* of a course (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Conducting a needs analysis is an important first step in the development of a curriculum that is being developed from scratch for a completely new program (Brown, 1995). According to Brown (1995), needs analysis is "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation" (p. 36).

For Jordan (1997), "needs analysis is the requirement for fact-finding or the collection of data" (p. 22). Brindley (cited in Johnson 1989) states that it is "a vital pre-requisite to the specification of language learning objectives" (p. 63) while Hutchinson and Waters (1987) add that needs analysis is "the most characteristic feature of ESP course design."

The outcome of a needs analysis should be a list of goals and objectives for the parties involved, which should "serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for re-evaluating the precision accuracy of the original needs assessment" (Brown, 1995, p. 35).

Since needs analysis serves as an important initial step in curriculum design for further development of teaching materials, learning activities, tests, program evaluation strategies, and so forth, there is an impressive amount of research on needs analysis in the language teaching field. Recently, a considerable degree of emphasis has been placed on needs analysis for English for Academic Purposes, English for Business Purposes, and English for Specific Purposes (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002; Brown et al., 2007; Cowling, 2007; Edwards, 2000; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005 & Robinson, 1991).

As Nunan (1988) puts it, "during the 1970s, needs analysis procedures made their appearance in language planning and became widespread in language teaching" (p. 43). In their first days, such procedures were used as "the initial process for the specification of behavioural objectives" which then explored different syllabus elements, such as functions, notions, lexis, in a more detailed manner. At the same time, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) became a matter of general interest and LSP experts were making efforts to give birth to a more comprehensive and better LSP syllabus. As a result, needs analysis was warmly welcomed by LSP teachers as an approach to course design, which focused on learner's needs. But needs analysis did not find its remarkable influence and position in LSP until Munby's approach to needs analysis came into being.

Before the advent of Munby's model, EAP course may have been based mainly on teachers' intuitions of students' needs. Today, however, EAP literature is replete with descriptions of the methodology and outcome of research into learner needs around the world (Braine, 2001). Needs analysis was firmly established in the mid-1970s as course designers came to see learners' purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP. Early instruments, notably Munby's (1978) model, established needs by investigating the target situation for which learners were being prepared. Munby's model clearly established the place of needs as central to ESP, indeed the necessary starting point in materials or course design. However, his model has been widely criticized for two apparently conflicting reasons: (i) its over-fullness in design, and (ii) what it fails to take into account (that is, socio-political considerations, logistical considerations, administrative considerations, psycho-pedagogic, and methodological considerations).

Needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching nor within language training but it is often seen as being "the corner stone of ESP and leads to a much focused course" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998 p. 122).

Before beginning a needs analysis, one must first answer the following crucial question: "Will the students use English at the university or in their jobs after graduation?" If the answer is no, then ESP is not a reasonable option for the university's English language programme. The university will have to justify its existence and improve the programme via other means. If the answer is yes, however, then ESP is probably the most intelligent option

for the university curriculum. ESP begins with some basic questions to survey what will be needed. Will students use English at the university or in their jobs after graduation? In what situations? For what purposes? What language skills will be required (reading, writing, listening, speaking)? What are the significant characteristics of the language in these situations (lexicon, grammar, spoken scripts, written texts, other characteristics)? What extralinguistic knowledge of academia, specific disciplines, specific vocations, or specific professions is required for successful English usage in these areas?

Brindley (1989, p. 65) in trying to state the role of needs analysis, we shall first, try to define the word "needs". Looking at the works of others like Berwick, Mountford and Widdowson, he provides different interpretations of needs. The first interpretation is "narrow or product-oriented needs". The learner's needs are seen as the language they will use in a particular communication situation. It is the target language behaviour, that is, what the learners have to be able to do at the end of the language course. Widdowson (cited in Robinson 1991) calls this "goal oriented needs" (p. 7) while Berwick (1989) used the term "objective needs".

The second interpretation of needs, according to Brindly is the "broad or process-oriented needs". This involves analyzing the needs of the learner as an individual in the learning situation. In this kind of interpretation, the teacher tries to identify and take into account both the affective and cognitive variables which affect learning such as learner's attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, wants, expectations and learning styles. This is also called 'subjective needs' by Widdowson (1978).

Although there are various ways of interpreting 'needs', the concept of 'learner needs' is often interpreted in two ways:

- as what the learner *wants* to do with the language (*goal-oriented* definition of needs) which relates to terminal objectives or the end of learning; and

- what the learner *needs* to do to actually acquire the language (a *process-oriented* definition) which relates to transitional/means of learning.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classified needs into necessities, lacks and wants.

Necessities are what the learners have to know in order to function effectively in the target situations. By observing the target situations and analyzing the constituent parts of them, we can gather information about necessities.

Lacks are the gap between the existing proficiency and the target proficiency of learners.

Wants are what the learners feel they need. Wants perceived by learners may conflict with necessities perceived by sponsors or EAP teachers and this conflict may have a de-stabilizing effect on motivation. Therefore, ESP course designer or teacher must take into account such differences in materials and methodology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The objective needs should act as the starting point in programme design and after learning has begun, methods such as surveys, group discussion, counselling, interview, communication awareness activities and learning contracts can be used to assess needs as they arise and are expressed (Richterich & Chancerol, 1980). Information on learners ability to use English, his or her biological data (subjective needs) are necessary in order to make decisions on matters such as class placement and learning mode.

Jordan (1997:29) is of the opinion that the stakeholders in needs analysis are the student, the course designer and teacher, the employer/sponsor and the target situation. What is expected from each of them, he states as:

A.   Student: needs – present, current, subjective, felt, learning, learner-centred, wants/likes, lacks, deficiency analysis, present situation analysis (PSA) and process-oriented

B.   Course Designer and Teacher: purposes/needs- perceived needs, process-oriented, PSA, strategy analysis, means analysis, constraints, learning-centred.

C.   Employer/Sponsor: demands – product-oriented, PSA and TSA, language audits

D.   Target Situation: (Subject/department) needs – target, future, objective, target-centred, goal-oriented, aims, necessities, TSA, language analysis

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is needs analysis?

(b) State two broad interpretations of needs and explain them.

(c) What is the difference between product and process oriented needs?

3.2.2 Conducting Needs Analysis? (Sources and Procedure)

Conducting needs analysis requires knowing the sources of learners' needs and methods/steps to be used. Brindly (1989) states that teachers' approaches to needs are influenced by their personal philosophy and conception of their role. The teachers' views of students' needs were identified as

i.   Language proficiency view

ii.   The psychological-humanistic view and

iii. The specific purposes view.

Needs analysis from the specific purposes point of view is the 'instrumental' needs of the learners which arise from their stated purposes for learning English. That is, what a learner needs to do with the language once he has learnt it. Their responses will necessitate aligning course content with the learner's occupational or academic goals.

Jordan (1997) provides a variety of methods of data collection for needs analysis. They include advance documentation, tests, self-assessment, observation and monitoring, surveys, structured interview, learner diaries, case-study, evaluation, follow-up investigations and previous research. In order to obtain more information, different methods should be used simultaneously. In practice, time, money and resources may influence needs analysis. It is important to plan in advance and remember that needs analysis is not a once-for-all activity but a continuing process, in which conclusions are constantly checked and re-assessed (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Learners: both experienced and pre-experience learners: Find out what information they can provide. Do they have enough knowledge about the content of the job and language needs? Are they familiar enough with a target discourse domain to provide usable, valid information?

Information could be gotten from the learner through structured, semi-structured and unstructured interview.

Structured interview generates both qualitative and quantitative data. It consists of prepared questions to which the answers are noted or recorded, allowing follow-up of points arising. Unstructured interviews is time-consuming, has no fixed format, allowing in-depth coverage of issues than the use of pre-determined questions, categories and response options. Once unstructured interviews are done and the data from them analyzed, semi-structured or structured interviews may follow.

In conducting the interview, you should establish a cordial relationship with the interviewee; listen more, talk less; follow up on what the interviewee says, but don't interrupt; ask the interviewee to reconstruct, not to remember; keep the interviewee focused and ask for concrete details; do not take the ebbs and flows of interviewing too personally; and follow your hunches

Participant observation and non-participant observation could also be used to assess the learners' needs. Non participant observation means there is no involvement with the people or activities studied (collecting data by observation alone). Participant observation shows there is some degree of involvement. From the point of view of situation analysis and developing a real feel for workplace, it is the most useful of data gathering procedures.

Questionnaires might be designed for broad coverage of representative members and numbers of each category. It is the chief instrument for collecting quantitative data and also the most formal.

According to Drobnic (cited in Hutchinson & Waters 1987), needs analysis is not a once and for all thing. He states:

> It is also important to remember that needs analysis is not a once and
> for affair. It should be a continuous process in which the conclusion
> drawn are constantly checked and reassessed.

Jordan (1997, p. 23) sees needs analysis as a systematic thing and identified the steps a needs analyst must follow in conducting needs analysis. The steps are as represented below:

Fig 6: Steps in Needs Analysis (Jordan R. R. 1997:23)

```
10. Evaluate procedure and results; implement decision
    9. Syllabus, content, material, methods, etc.
        8. Determine objectives
            7. Analyze and interpret results
                6. Collect data
                    5. Select methods of collecting data
                        4. Acknowledge constraints/limitations
                            3. Decide upon the approach(es)
                                2. Delimit student population
                                    1.  Purpose of analysis
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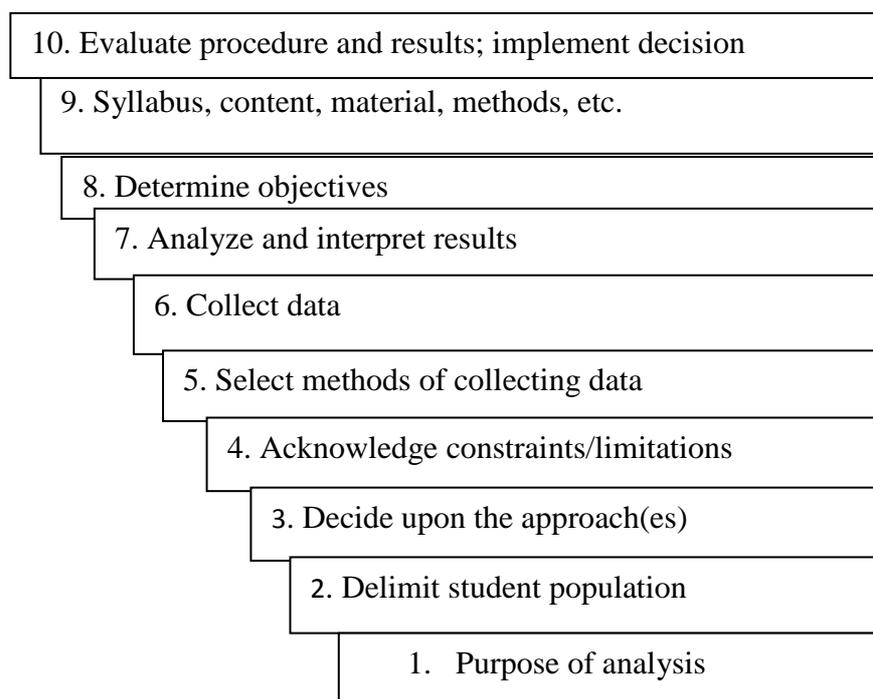
Below are questions you may ask a learner to ascertain the learner's language needs.

	STUDENT NEEDS ANALYSIS
1.	Why are you studying English?
2.	Where do you expect to use English in the future (e.g. what context or situation)?
3.	Order the following language skills from 1 (important) to 6 (unimportant): Reading ____ Listening ____ Vocabulary ____ writing ____ speaking ____ grammar ____
4.	What percentage (%) of class time do you think should be spent on each skill?
5.	What do you expect to learn from this class?
6.	What are your language strengths and weaknesses?
7.	Do you have a preferred learning style? If so, what is it?
8.	Do you prefer to learn individually, in pairs or in a group?
9.	Would you prefer to learn American or British English? or both?
10.	Do you like using a textbook? Why or why not?

Self Assessment Exercise
  (a)   Group Work: Looking at the diagram above and considering what you have studied in this course so far, discuss the steps in needs analysis

  (b)   How is the teacher expected to see the learner's needs?

3.2.3 The Purpose of Needs Analysis

Richards (2001) itemized the following as some of the reasons why needs analysis is conducted:

  (1) To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform well at the target situation

  (2) To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs and potential students

  (3) To determine which student from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills

  (4) To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important.

  (5) To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do

  (6) To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing. The information gathered distinguished ESP from General English instruction because it focused on an awareness of need. A flexible and responsive curriculum determined by an instructor's assessment led to ESP as an attractive learning alternative.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Theory of learning also plays an important part in determining the kind of syllabus used. For example, a syllabus based on the theory of learning espoused by cognitive code teaching would emphasize language forms and whatever explicit descriptive knowledge about those forms was presently available. A syllabus based on an acquisition theory of learning, however, would emphasize unanalyzed, though possibly carefully selected experiences of the new language in an appropriate variety of discourse types.

To organize the ESP course effectively and consequently achieve a satisfactory goal, having respect for all three factors necessary for course design is important. In addition, selecting an appropriate material regarding the main criteria is an essential phase in organizing each course. It may happen that learners´ needs and expectations are not met due to wrong choice of material. Text as a learning material is also an important aspect to be considered in ESP course design as it is a rich source for new vocabulary and other range of skills. Needs analysis came to be as a result of the fact that in ESP, the learners have different specific and specifiable communication needs which inform the development of courses to meet these varying needs. The importance of needs analysis lies in the fact that the outcome should be a list of goals and objectives for the parties involved, which should serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for re-evaluating the precision accuracy of the original needs assessment. Finally, you must note that needs analysis is a continuous process in ESP.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the last two factors necessary for designing an ESP course. They include a consideration of how? (learning theories) who? why? where? and when? (needs analysis) of learning. No ESP course could be designed without needs analysis. It means looking at the learner's needs in language learning which involve his wants, lacks and necessities. Different orientations to needs analysis were also discussed and they include broad or process oriented needs and narrow or product-orientated needs, objective and subjective needs of the learners. These needs could be ascertained through documentation, tests, self-assessment, observation and monitoring, surveys, structured interview, learner diaries, case-study, evaluation, follow-up investigations and previous research, questionnaires, etc. In order to obtain more information, different methods should be used simultaneously. Finally, the unit also gave us the steps in ESP needs analysis as provided by Jordan (1997), the outcome of which should be used in determining the syllabus, content, material and methods to be used. The role of materials and appropriate activities in running ESP course was also examined. All these are geared towards meeting the learning goals and objectives.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Briefly discuss the factors that are necessary for designing an ESP course

(b) How can you ascertain the learner's needs?

(c) What do you understand by necessity, lacks and wants as regards learner's needs

(d) Discuss the implication of the specific purposes view of needs.

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Module 2: Unit 5

Approaches and Techniques for Needs Analysis; Principles for Analyzing Learners Needs

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In needs analysis, the concepts of communication and learning needs have been obtained. However, questions posed to address the needs will have to be constructed. Under the umbrella of needs analysis, various approaches have been integrated. A lot of models have been proposed for identifying the needs of adults learning of a foreign language but Influential models of needs analysis include a sociolinguistic model (Munby, 1978), a systemic approach (Richterich & Chancerel, 1977), a learning-centred approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), learner-centred approaches (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989) and a task-

based approach (Long 2005a, 2005b). These approaches shall be discussed in this unit. Based on these approaches to needs analysis, assessing learner needs should not be seen as a once and for all thing. It should embrace the following principles: The ESP practitioner should first consider all the communication needs of the learner; equal importance should also be given to learning needs. The 'context' should be taken into account. The teacher should invite multiple perspectives and employ multiple data collection methods and needs analysis should be seen as an on-going activity. All these are the subjects of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

  (a) explain some of the models to needs analysis

  (a) distinguish between learning-centred approach and learner-centred approaches

  (b) suggest with reasons which model you think best fits ESP

  (c) describe some needs analysis strategies that complement target-situation analysis

  (d) say why communication needs of the learners should be considered first while carrying out needs analysis;

  (e) distinguish between learning needs and communication needs;

  (f) explain why there is need to source information about the learner from multiple perspectives;

  (g) explain why you think that needs analysis should be an on-going thing

  (h) describe the principle that should guide the teacher in analyzing learner's needs.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Approaches to Needs Analysis

3.1.1 A Sociolinguistic Model

In his attempt to make a contribution to syllabus design, Munby (1978) proposed his approach to needs analysis which soon drew great attention from syllabus designers, particularly ESP architects. His work was a landmark in ESP and had a huge influence on ESP since it provided a new vision on individual needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

His model can be used to specify valid 'target situations' (Jordan, 1997; West, 1994) that is, target communicative competence. *Target-situation analysis* proceeds by first identifying the target situation and then carrying out a rigorous analysis of the target tasks, linguistic features and knowledge requirement of that situation (Robinson, 1989). The best-known framework for target-situation analysis is devised by Munby. The core of this framework is the "Communication Need Processor" in which account is taken of the variables that affect communication needs and the dynamic interplay between them. After operating with this framework, we can obtain a profile of students' language needs and convert them into a "communicative competence specification" from which a syllabus is drawn up (Jordan, 1997).

A profile of communication needs which Munby presented comprise of communicative events (e.g. discussing everyday tasks and duties), purposive domain (e.g. educational),

medium (e.g. spoken), mode (e.g. dialogue), channel of communication (e.g. face-to-face), setting of communication, main communicator/s, person/s with whom the communicator/s communicate, dialect, attitudinal tone (e.g. informal), subject content and level of English ability required for the communication. After a profile has been created, the communication needs are developed into a syllabus. You can see that Munby emphasizes everything relating to learner's needs – purpose, medium/mode/channel of communication, Sociolinguistic aspects, linguistics and pragmatics. He looks at all the assumptions regarding the roles of language, the learner, the syllabus, the teacher that lie behind his design.

This indicates that he is taking into account language and culture and communication purpose, but pays no attention to implementation (activities, resources, and classroom dynamics). He also seems to assure a very teacher-directed method, in which students' inputs about purpose are superficial and only required at the beginning of the course. It is clear that his emphasis on text and his categorisation rely on his intuition. All of these weaknesses result in criticisms of his work.

While the model provides an abundance of detail, it is impractical, inflexible, complex and time-consuming (West, 1994). It does not include needs that are dependent on human variables. For example, learner's voice is not taken into account: "[It] collects data about the learner rather than from the learner" (West, 1994:9). Jordan (1997) criticizes the model for considering 'implementational constraints' such as the number of trained teachers available only after completion of syllabus specifications. Despite these criticisms, sociolinguistic variables remain important for effective communication

To counter the shortcomings of target-situation needs analysis, various forms of pedagogic needs have been identified to give more information about the learner and the educational environment. These forms of needs analysis should be seen as complementing target-situation needs analysis and each other, rather than being alternatives. They include deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, and means analysis. Before we move into another approach to needs analysis, let us consider these other needs analyses complementing target-situation analysis:

Deficiency Analysis gives us information about what the learners' learning needs are (i.e., which of their target-situation needs they lack or feel they lack). This view of needs analysis gains momentum when we consider that the question of priorities is ignored by standard needs analysis. In discussing learners' perceptions of their needs, deficiency analysis takes into account lacks and wants, as well as objective needs of the learners (Allwright, 1982).

Strategy Analysis seeks to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn. By investigating learners' preferred learning styles and strategies, strategy analysis provides a picture of the learner's conception of learning.

Means Analysis, on the other hand, investigates precisely those considerations that Munby excluded. These relate to the educational environment in which the ESP course is to take place (Swales, 1989).

West (1994: 9-10) mentions the shortcomings of the Munby's model in terms of four headings:

1. **Complexity**: Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex, and time-consuming.

2. **Learner-centredness**: Munby claims that his CNP is learner-centred. The starting point may be the learner but the model collects data *about* the learner rather than *from* the learner.

3. **Constraints**: Munby's idea is that constraints should be considered after the needs analysis procedure, while many researchers feel that these practical constraints should be considered at the start of the needs analysis process.

4. **Language**: Munby fails to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also point out that it is too time-consuming to write a target profile for each student based on Munby's model. This model only considers one viewpoint, i.e. that of the analyst, but neglects others (those of the learners, user-institutions, etc.). Meanwhile, it does not take into account of the learning needs nor does it make a distinction between necessities, wants, and lacks.

3.1.2 A Systemic Approach

Richterich and Chancerel (1977) propose a systemic approach for identifying the needs of adults learning a foreign language. This approach fills the gaps in the sociolinguistic model in terms of flexibility and shows a distinct concern for learners. The learners are the centre of attention, and their present situations are thoroughly investigated. *Present-situation analysis* ascertains students' language proficiency at the beginning of the course. Information is sought on levels of ability, resources and views on language teaching/learning. You can get information about the learners from students themselves, the teaching establishment and the user institution. In the words of Jordan (1997) "Learner needs are approached by examining information before a course starts as well as during the course by the learners themselves and by 'teaching establishments' such as their place of work and sponsoring bodies." Richterich and Chancerel (1977) also recommend using more than one or two data collection methods for needs analysis such as surveys, interviews and attitude scales.

Although this approach has not received much criticism, two concerns should be raised: lack of attention to learners' real-world needs and over-reliance on learners' perceptions of their needs. Jordan (1997) suggests that course designers approach real-world learner needs both in terms of the target situation as recommended by Munby, and in the systemic model put forth by Richterich and Chancerel (1977) as complementary approaches. Over-reliance on learners' perceptions becomes an issue because many learners are not clear about what they want (Long, 2005a). 'Learner training' (Trim, 1988, cited in Holec, 1988) can be usefully incorporated to strengthen the systemic approach, as it aims at training learners on how to learn. It is important for engineering students in particular because their needs are continually changing. Engineers must be able to identify emerging needs and gain new skills to satisfy them.

3.1.3 A Learning-Centred Approach

As a result of the attention given to strategy analysis, a new generation of ESP materials was founded. This new generation of materials is based on conceptions of language or conception of need. The concern was with language learning rather than language use. It was no longer simply assumed that describing and exemplifying what people do with language would

enable someone to learn it. A truly valid approach to ESP would be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) call this approach the learning-centred approach and stress the importance of a lively, interesting and relevant teaching/learning style in ESP materials. They argue that other approaches give too much attention to language needs, whereas more attention should be given to how learners learn. They suggest that a learning needs approach is the best route to convey learners from the starting point to the target situation.

Learner needs are approached from two directions; target needs and learning needs. Target needs are defined as "what the learner needs to do in the target situation" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:54). They are broken down into three categories: necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities are considered to be "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" (p. 55). Lacks are defined as the gaps between what the learner knows and the necessities (p. 56). Wants are described as "what the learners think they need" (Nation, 2000:2). Under target needs the following question can be posed:

- Why is the language needed?

- How will the language be used?

- What will the content areas be?

- Who will the learner use the language with?

- Where will the language be used?

- When will the language be used?   (Jordan 1997:25).

The second focus in this approach is on learning needs, referring to numerous factors, including who the learners are, their socio-cultural background, learning background, age, gender, background knowledge of specialized contents, background knowledge of English, attitudes towards English, attitudes towards cultures of the English speaking world and studying English. Hutchinson and Waters suggest posing the following questions to analyse learning needs:

- Why are the learners taking the course?

- How do the learners learn?

- What resources are available?

- Who are the learners?

- Where will the ESP course take place?

- When will the ESP course take place?

Learner needs also involve:

- Teaching and learning styles with which the learners are familiar

- Appropriate or ineffective teaching and learning methods

- Knowledge of specialized contents that teachers should have

- Suitable instructional materials and the study location

- Time of study and status of ESP courses

- Expectations about what learners should achieve in the courses

- How necessary the courses are for the learners

117

Similar to the systemic approach, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also recommend that needs analysis be checked constantly. They also stress the use of multiple methods of data collection – such as interviews, observation, and informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others involved – to deal with the complexity of target needs.

Analysis of needs in this approach is well-supported (Nation, 2000; West, 1994). Richterich and Chancerel (1977) insist on considering learners' background knowledge from the outset of the teaching and learning process. Grellet (1981) supports the use of authentic materials to encourage students to face the complexity of authentic texts. Eggly (2002) discusses differences in expectations between students who are forced to study and those who voluntarily enrol.

3.1.4 Learner-Centred Approach

Berwick (1989) and Brindley (1989) are leaders in contributing learner-centred approaches to needs analysis. Three ways to look at learner needs are offered: perceived vs. felt needs; product vs. process oriented interpretations; and objective vs. subjective needs. 'Perceived needs' are from the perspective of experts while 'felt needs' are from the perspective of learners (Berwick, 1989). In the product-oriented interpretation, learner needs are viewed as the language that learners require in target situations. In the process-oriented interpretation, the focus is on how individuals respond to their learning situation, involving affective and cognitive variables which affect learning (Brindley, 1989). Finally, objective needs are explored prior to a course, whereas subjective needs are addressed while the course is underway. According to Brindley (1989), objective needs can be derived from various kinds of factual information about learners, their real-life language use situations, their current language proficiency and difficulties. Subjective needs can be derived from information concerning their affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes, learning wants, learning expectations, cognitive style and learning strategies.

Aside from language needs, learners' attitudes and feelings are clearly highlighted in the learner-centred approaches. The classification of perceived vs. felt needs gives rise to consideration of how needs can depend on an individual's perceptions and interpretations. A combination of the concepts of needs as specified in the sociolinguistic model and the learning-centred approach would effectively embrace the issue raised concerning learner-centred approaches. For example, needs in the product-oriented interpretation are similar to the concepts of communication needs (Munby, 1978) and target needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Needs in the process-oriented interpretation, can be combined with learning needs.

In the context of a language program that emphasizes the needs of the learners, anything but a learner/learning-centred syllabus and methodology is bound to create contradictions that will negatively affect students' perceptions of the program. As advocated in the literature on communicative language teaching, content and teaching-learning procedures must take into account the interests and concerns of the learners, as well as the socio-economic and cultural context in which the language program is to be implemented.

3.1.5 A Task-Based Approach

A task-based syllabus supports using tasks and activities to encourage learners to utilize the language communicatively so as to achieve a purpose. It indicates that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through interaction and practice. The most important point is that tasks

must be relevant to the real world language needs of the learner. Long (2005a) recommends taking a task-based approach to needs analysis as well as with teaching and learning based on the argument that "structures or other linguistic elements (notions, functions, lexical items, etc.)" should not be a focal point of teaching and learning. "Learners are far more active and cognitive-independent participants in the acquisition process than is assumed by the erroneous belief that what you teach is what they learn, and when you teach it is when they learn it" (p. 3). In this approach, tasks are the units of analysis and "samples of the discourse typically involved in performance of target tasks" (p. 3) are collected. An example of a 'real-world task' or 'target task' for engineers is the reading of textbooks (Mudraya, 2006).

The concept of tasks is similar to that of communicative events as defined by Munby (1978). The difference is that language variables, rather than sociolinguistic variables, are highlighted in the task-based approach.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Write short notes on (i) sociolinguistic model, (ii) systemic approach and (iii) task based approaches to needs analysis

(b) What can you say are the differences between learning-centred approach and learner-centred approach to needs analysis?

(c) Which of the approaches to needs analysis you have studied do you consider best for ESP? Give reasons for your answer.

3.2 Principles for Analysing Learners' Needs

3.2.1 Give First Priority to Communication Needs

Communication needs come to attention when it is believed that what learners are taught should be specifically what they will really use, and that this should determine the contents of ESP courses (Munby, 1978; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). It is also argued that specific knowledge concerning English language alone is insufficient. The ability to communicate also involves understanding the discourse practices where the language is situated and in which learners must operate (Long, 2005a, 2005b; Orr, 2002). While many types of needs can be addressed in an ESP course, communication needs analysis is particularly necessary. These cases highlight the importance of predicting students' specific communication needs as accurately as possible to prepare them adequately for situations they are likely to face in the near future.

3.2.2 Give Equal Importance to Learning Needs

Cognitive and affective variables as well as learning situations are influential in determining the manner in which a language is learned or should be learned (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that the study of language descriptions, namely, the study of communication needs, does not enable someone to learn a language. Learning situations comprising several learning factors must also be taken into account. In fact, a thorough study of both descriptions will help elaborate learner needs more thoroughly.

3.2.3 Take "Context" into Account

Context influences the teaching and learning of ESP (Holliday & Cooke, 1982; Jordan, 1997; Richterich & Chancerel, 1977). Language teaching and design that does not consider

particular groups of students is likely to be either inefficient or inadequate (Long, 2005b). For instance, English instruction for the technical students can be directly based on the students' specialised knowledge, e.g. engineering, as suggested by Hutchinson & Waters (1987). The civil engineering students of the course under investigation will come from the technical background. English instruction for the academic students, on the other hand, probably should not be too closely connected with their specialised knowledge, as they do not possess much knowledge of the specialised content before attending ESP courses.

Additional factors to consider when looking at the context of teaching and learning include societal, institutional and teacher factors (Richards, 2001). Societal factors refer to expectations of society such as employers' English standards for employment. Educational institutions may influence the specificity of ESP for engineering. Finally, teacher factors influence the way ESP courses are run, for example, when ESP courses aim at teaching all four skills, a given teacher may believe that reading and writing should be emphasised more than listening and speaking. Teaching style, conservatism, and personality are also vital factors that influence every learning situation.

3.2.4 Invite Multiple Perspectives

Learners' English needs depend on various expectations, interpretations and individual value judgments (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989). Vandermeeren (2005:161) points out that "researchers, too, have attitudes concerning language needs, which inevitably influence their choice of research objectives and their interpretation of the findings". It is therefore important to ensure that interpretations consider the perspectives of all involved. Multiple perspectives refer to institutions, teachers and learners (Benesch, 1999; 2001; Richterich & Chancerel, 1977). ESP relates to work or professional study situations (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Jordan, 1997). Therefore, stake-holders from both locations should be invited to participate in needs analysis research.

Employers and engineers can be direct sources of learners' communication needs in workplaces. Lecturers witness actual professional study situations. Former students include those who have already completed the course under investigation, but continue studying other professional courses required in their programme of study. They will be witnesses of both learning needs and communication needs in professional study situations. The teachers and current students will contribute useful knowledge of the learning situation as well as a variety of experience.

3.2.5 Employ Multiple Data Collection Methods

Use of multiple data collection methods is recommended when dealing with complex needs and for validating data (Gilabert, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005; Richterich & Chancerel, 1977). Jasso-Aguilar's (2005) study reveal that some of the language needs of hotel maids could not have been found if participation observation had not been employed in addition to the study of task force predictions. Long (2005a, 2005b) calls for more attention to 'methodological options' in needs analysis. It is also recommended that limitations of data collection methods should be dealt with both before and during the research process.

Some of the data collection methods that will capture all available data include: individual interviews, class observation, collection of students' work samples, focus group interviews and evaluation of instructional materials. Interviews are the most direct way of determining

what stakeholders will think about learner needs (Long, 2005a). Using structured interviews, questions concerning learner needs that have been carefully constructed can be asked repeatedly to focus all stakeholders on specific concerns (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998; Lynch, 1996). By collecting data through observation, enquiries into learner needs can be addressed by perceiving what will actually happen in day-to-day situations (Patton, 2002; Rea-Dickens & Germaine, 1992). Structured, but open-ended observation will provide the opportunity for observers to focus on particular aspects of learner needs and at the same time be open to the discovery of innovative findings (Lynch, 1996). Students' classroom work samples produced in the classroom can be useful sources for confirming the relative success of a course in satisfying learner needs (Wortham, 1995). Focus group interviews will be effective for discussing the fulfillment of specific learner needs in the course (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Patton, 2002). Instructional materials will need to be evaluated to ensure that they correspond to learner needs, reflected real language uses and facilitate the learning process (Cunningsworth, 1995).

3.2.6 Treat Needs Analysis as an On-going Activity

Finally, an ESP program that aims to meet the ever-changing needs of the learners will include an on-going system of evaluation, aiming to provide information on how the program itself can be improved through the introduction of changes that are deemed necessary. Learner needs should be analysed on an on-going basis because they are likely to change over time, depending on contextual and human affective variables (Brown, 1995; Holliday, 1994; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Richterich & Chancerel, 1977). This principle expands the attention of needs analysis to include both curriculum development and action research.

The purpose of needs analysis is to identify learner needs, taking place at a relatively theoretical level outside of classes, yielding recommendations on how a course should be designed. Yet, at a more profound level, needs analysis is actually a process in curriculum development (Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001); it can and should be extended to curriculum development because many other important variables are connected with learner needs in authentic teaching and learning. A description of needs conducted prior to classes, by itself, will not generate a complete understanding of learner needs. Allwright (1988:51) states that "what happens in the classroom still must matter. We need studies of what actually happens [inside classes]". In fact, Holliday (1994) points out that data about what really happens in the classroom are not only insufficient, but also lacking for the settings around the world.

The subject of needs analysis also extends to curriculum development by action research. The spiral, iterative and evaluative procedures of action research plus its belief in change for improvement demand consideration (Dick, 2000; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; McNiff & Whitehead, 2002). Action research usually originates from a 'thematic concern' (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988), which is 'learner needs' in the present situation. The concern leads to the first 'moment' (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988), planning, which involves building learner needs into the first half of a curriculum. Research then proceeds to subsequent moments such as acting, observing and reflecting. Implementing and evaluating are engaged to ascertain whether or not the curriculum meets learner needs. Action research generates spirals of investigation which "unfold from themselves and fold back again into themselves" (McNiff & Whitehead, 2002:56). With this consideration, a curriculum is redesigned based on learner needs discovered in the initial procedure of teaching and learning, which are then implemented and evaluated in the second half. Change for improvement is another important characteristic. Action research is "an inquiry which is carried out in order to … change, in

order to improve some educational practice" (Bassey, 1988:93). In employing action research in needs analysis, needs are checked in the first component; elements which are unsuitable can be changed to improve the curriculum during the second half to comply with learner needs more effectively.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) why should a needs analyst consider first the communication needs of the learner?

(b) What and how can you differentiate between communication needs and learning needs:

(c) explain why you think that needs analysis should be an on-going thing

(d) Write short notes on the following: (i) target situation analysis (ii) present situation analysis (iii) objective needs (iv) subjective needs (v) process oriented needs (vi) product-oriented needs, strategy analysis, means analysis, perceived needs

4.0   CONCLUSION

An eclectic approach to needs analysis, I think, should be a way out in ESP. The learner's present situation analysis is a guide to the course designer as to what the learner knows. The target situation analysis signifies the target communicative competence. Again, the experts and sponsors have what they consider the 'Perceived needs' of the learners which must also count in addition to the learners' 'felt needs', product-oriented needs, process-oriented interpretation with its focus is on how individuals respond to their learning situation, involving affective and cognitive variables. Finally, objective needs are explored prior to a course, whereas subjective needs are addressed while the course is underway. All these go to show that needs analysis is an on-going thing, starting from the beginning of the course to the end of the course. *Learning-situation analysis* is the route with present-situation analysis as the starting point and target-situation analysis as the destination (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). For various reasons, learners may be well motivated in the subject lesson but totally turned off by encountering the same target materials and tasks in an EAP classroom. The target situation is thus not the only indicator of what is useful in learning situation. Needs, potentials and constraints of the learning situation must also be taken into consideration (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The focus in all of the data collection methods is on learners' communication needs and learning needs. The data obtained from all the sources are analysed to reveal how effectively the curriculum in the first cycle has met learners' communication and learning needs. The needs are reviewed in preparing the design of the second cycle curriculum. Based on the evaluation of the curriculum during the first cycle, the curriculum for the second cycle is designed. Strengths are maintained and weaknesses addressed accordingly. The same curriculum design process and data collection procedures employed in the first cycle is emulated in the second cycle. However, new questions are formulated to evaluate the complete curriculum in the final observation, the second focus group interview, and the final instructional materials evaluation. After data collection is completed, the data generated from both cycles are thoroughly examined to generate conclusions, implications and recommendations.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you noticed that while Munby's approach to course design focuses on target situations, the systematic approach considers present situations of the learners before engaging in the language course. The present situation analysis was however criticized for its over-reliance on learners' perceptions of their needs. Criticising other approaches attention to the learners' language needs, Hutchinson and Waters suggested learning-centred approach to needs analysis because it considers the learner from the onset of the language course till he reaches the target situation. Another approach to needs analysis that was considered is learner-centred approach where the learner's needs are viewed in three ways: perceived vs. felt needs; product vs. process oriented interpretations; and objective vs. subjective needs. Finally, it has been recommended that the best approach to needs analysis is task-based approach. This involves selecting relevant tasks from the real world language needs of the students.

The unit also tells us that the investigation into the learner's needs starts from an analysis of communication and learning needs, and proceeds through the spiral and interactive stages of curriculum development. Prior to classes, learner needs are established as a result of individual interviews with key stakeholders from five groups. After the interviews, the identified needs are assessed in terms of their suitability for the context under investigation. Based on the identified needs and preliminary reflections, a new curriculum is designed for the first part of the course by the teacher researcher. The curriculum design process includes: context analysis and course planning; establishing the principles of teaching and learning; formulating aims and objectives; designing of syllabus and instructional materials; and, in conclusion, assessment. All of the processes are treated as an interrelated whole as suggested in the literature (Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Explain why there is need to source information about the learner from multiple perspectives

(b) Briefly describe the principles of needs analysis

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Module 2: Unit 6

Approaches to and Steps in ESP Course Design

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Now that you have learnt what it means to design a course, let us examine the approaches you can adopt in doing so. Some of the existing approaches to course design include: language-centred approach, skills-centred approach and learning-centred approach. A course designer organizes the syllabus on any of the three depending on what he or she intends to achieve. However, ESP course design is learning/learner centred with the learner at the centre of all instructions. A native speaker uses language to perform a large number of notions and functions in the course of his/her everyday life. It is almost impossible, and impractical to attempt to predict all the possible uses for which a foreign learner might want to use language. There has to be some criterion for the selection of those notions and functions which would be particularly useful. Every course designer in ESP must follow a particular sequence for goals to be achieved. Curriculum development processes in language teaching comprise needs analysis, goals setting, syllabus design, methodology, testing and evaluation.

ESP course design follows this procedure. By analysing the language needs of specific groups of learners, we should be able to identify those notions and functions which will be most valuable to teach. The concept of needs analysis enables us to discriminate between various learner types and to produce syllabus inventories specifically geared to their needs.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

You are expected, by the end of this unit, to be able to

(a) explain the difference between language centred and learning-centred approaches to course design

(b) state the disadvantages of language-centred approach to course design

(c) state when a syllabus is said to be skill-based

(d) state the design that is appropriate to ESP

(e) explain what is meant by needs analysis.

(f) list and explain the two orientations to needs analysis

(g) state the factors to be considered in the implementation of a syllabus

(h) formulate goals and objectives for specific learners of English

(i) state the criteria upon which a course could be organized

(j) differentiate between process and product syllabus

(k) briefly explain the steps one should follow in designing a course

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Approaches to Course Design

A course could be designed following any of the approaches below:

3.1.1 Language-centred approach to Course Design

Language is the focus in a course book, in which learners have the chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practises putting it back together (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.109). A syllabus based on language centred approach highlights the structures of a discourse. Firstly, it presents many significant vocabulary items: subject-specific words of the topic, sub-technical words in scientific English and many common core words as well. Lexis is important to express functions (Swan, 1990) and the lexical input enables participants to learn and master these expressions to communicate on their subject. The following steps should be taken by a course designer who intends adopting the language-centred approach to course design:

 i.   Identification of the target situation;

 ii.   Selecting the appropriate learning theory;

 iii. Finding out the linguistic features characteristic of the target situation;

 iv.   Designing/creating a syllabus

 v.   Designing or writing materials to suit the purpose and

 vi.   Evaluation/assessment of the syllabus (Umera-Okeke, 2005, p. 53)

The learner is only used to identify the target situation and is dumped. His learning needs are not considered.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) give the following as the disadvantages of constructing syllabus based on language-centred approach:

(a)   it is a learner-restricted syllabus.

(b)   It is a static and an inflexible procedure. Once the initial target situation analysis is done, no change is done. It did not take care of conflicts and contradictions inherent in human endeavours.

(c)   It appears to be systematic giving the impression that learning is systematic. Systematization in learning is internally generated not externally imposed.

(d)   Language centred approach is at the surface level. It says nothing about competence that underlies performance. Learning is not a straightforward logical process. A lot of other factors come into play.

(e)   It gives no attention to other factors which play a part in course design such as the role of interest and motivation (p. 68-69).

A language-centred course design, according to Hutchinson and Water (1987, p. 66) will look like this:

Fig 7: A Language-centred Approach to Course Design
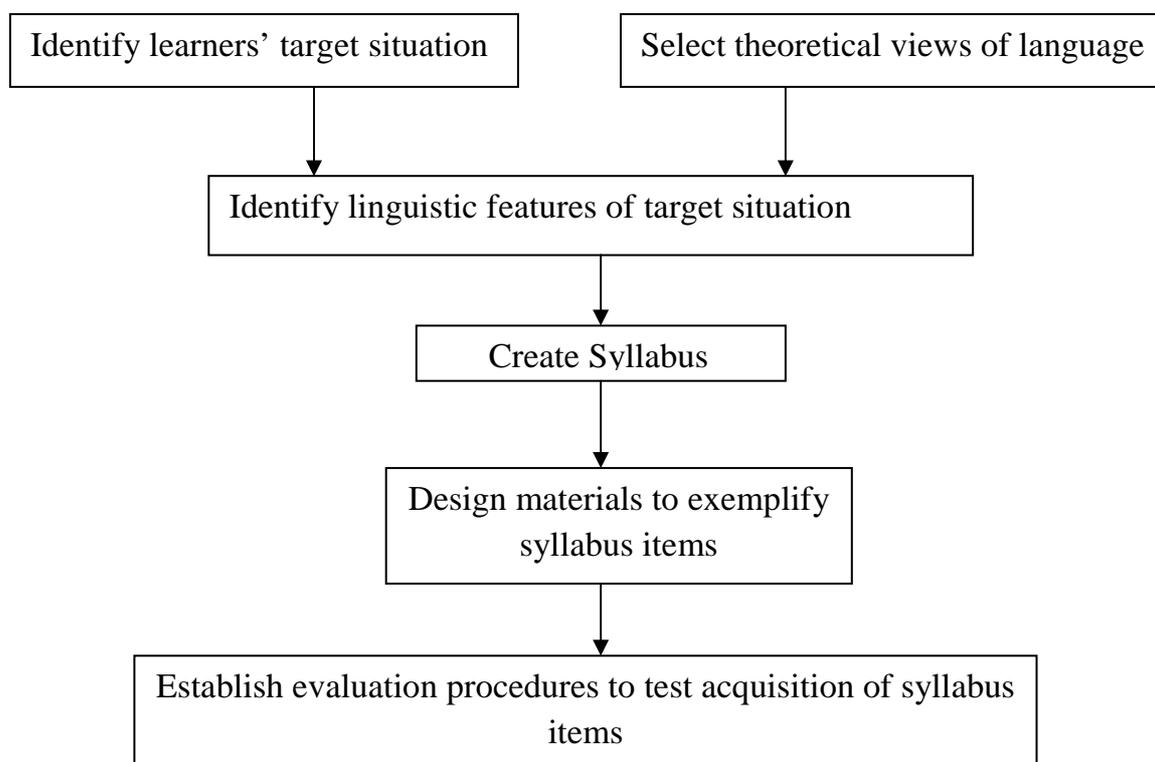
Source: (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 66)

3.1.2 A Skill-based Syllabus

Skills are abilities that people must be able to do to be competent enough in a language, rather independently of the situation or context in which the language use can occur. In this syllabus, the content of the language teaching involves a collection of particular skills that may play a role in using language. Although situational syllabuses combine functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi merge linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behaviour, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, delivering effective lectures, and so forth.

The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

Skills-centred approach enables the course designer to discover the potentials and abilities that the learner brings to the ESP classroom. By this approach, Widdowson's goal oriented and process oriented courses are distinguished. The entire success of a programme is not achieved at the target situation because of time and students' experiences. Therefore, the process oriented course is intended to enable learners achieve a purpose of constantly developing proficiency as the learning process goes on. The learners are expected to achieve what they can within a given time constraint. The process oriented approach concentrate on skills. Skills-centred approach is said to be a reaction to constraints of learning imposed by limited time, resources and idea of specific registers of English as a basis for ESP.

It is the duty of ESP to help learners to develop skills and strategies which might stay with them even after ESP course. The learner is considered in the process of learning unlike in the language-centred approach. Language is viewed in terms of how the mind processes it and the learner is seen as a user of language and not a learner of it.

In skills and strategies approach, ESP learning situation is still dependent on the target situation and the learner is used to identify and analyse the target situation needs.

Fig 8: A Skill-centred Approach to Course Design

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┌──────────────────┐
│ Theoretical views│
│   of language    │
└──────────────────┘
                                                    ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
                      ┌──────────────────┐          │ Select texts and │  │ Establish        │
                      │ Analyse          │          │ write exercises  │  │ evaluation       │
┌────────────┐        │ skills/strategies│ ┌───────┐│ to focus on      │  │ procedures which │
│ Identify   │        │ required to cope │ │ Write ││ skills/strategies│  │ require the use  │
│ target     │───────▶│ in target        │─│syllabus│─▶ in syllabus    │──▶ of skills/       │
│ situation  │        │ situation        │ └───────┘│                  │  │ strategies in    │
└────────────┘        └──────────────────┘          └──────────────────┘  │ syllabus         │
                                                                          └──────────────────┘

                      ┌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌┐
                      ╎ Theoretical views╎
                      ╎   of learning    ╎
                      └╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌╌┘
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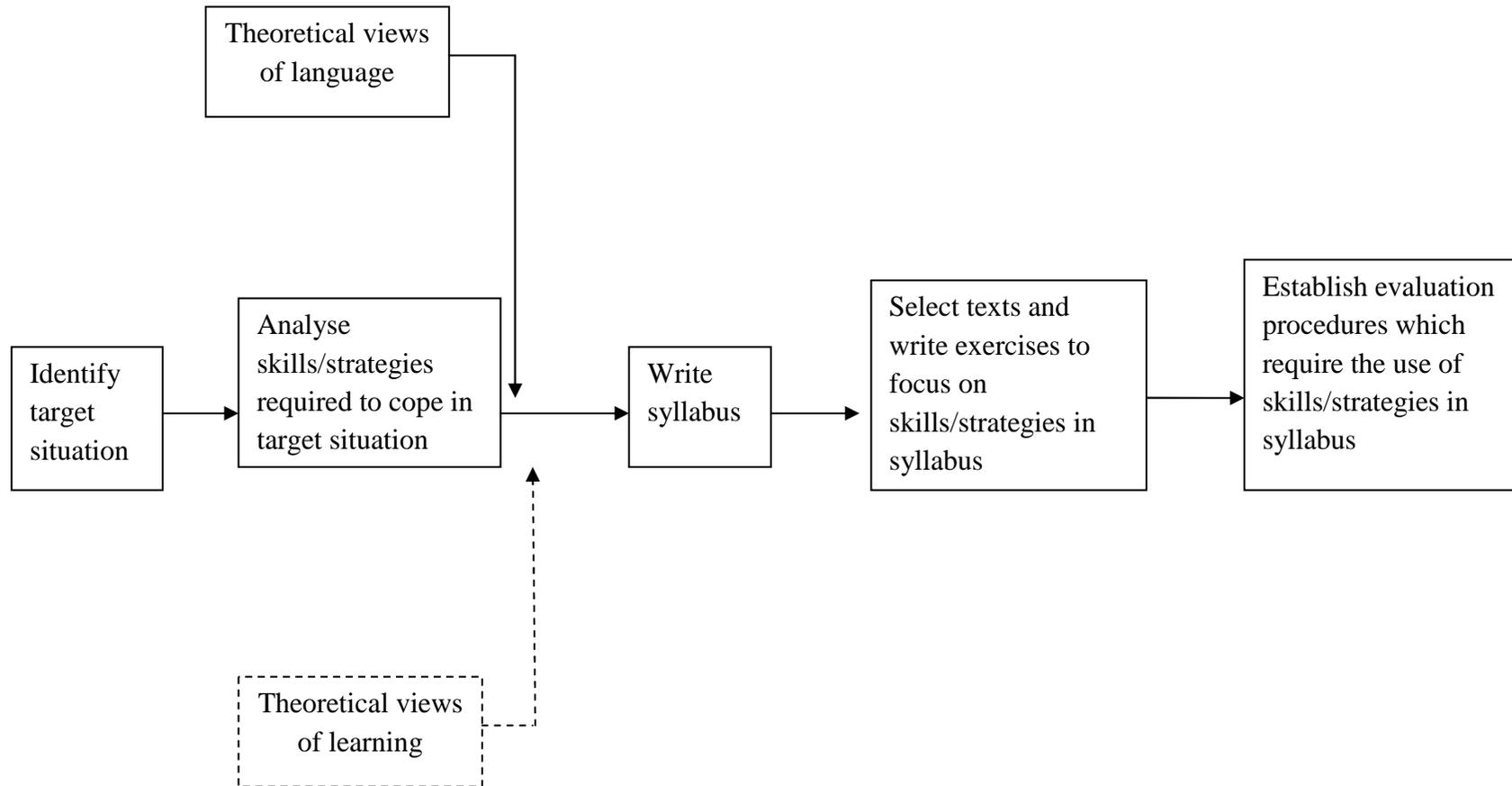
Source: (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:71)

3.1.3 Learning-Centred Approach

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) offer an often-cited learning-centred approach to ESP. They argue that other approaches give too much attention to language needs, whereas more attention should be given to how learners learn. They suggest that a learning needs approach is the best route to convey learners from the starting point to the target situation. Learner needs are approached from two directions; target needs and learning needs. Target needs are defined as "what the learner needs to do in the target situation" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:54-56). They are broken down into three categories: necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities are considered to be "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation". Lacks are defined as the gaps between what the learner knows and the necessities. Wants are described as "what the learners think they need" (Nation, 2000:2). The second focus in this approach is on learning needs, referring to numerous factors, including who the learners are, their socio-cultural background, learning background, age, gender, background knowledge of specialized contents, background knowledge of English, attitudes towards English, attitudes towards cultures of the English speaking world and studying English. Learner needs also involve:

- Teaching and learning styles with which the learners are familiar
- Appropriate or ineffective teaching and learning methods
- Knowledge of specialized contents that teachers should have
- Suitable instructional materials and study location
- Time of study and status of ESP courses
- Expectations about what learners should achieve in the courses
- How necessary the courses are for the learners

Similar to the systemic approach, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also recommend that needs analysis be checked constantly. They also stress the use of multiple methods of data collection – such as interviews, observation, and informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others involved – to deal with the complexity of target needs.

Analysis of needs in this approach is well-supported (Nation, 2000; West, 1994). Richterich and Chancerel (1977) insist on considering learners' background knowledge from the outset of the teaching and learning process. Grellet (1981) supports the use of authentic materials to encourage students to face the complexity of authentic texts. Eggly (2002) discusses differences in expectations between students who are forced to study and those who voluntarily enrol.

This, in essence, emphasizes the fact that learning is more than representing language items and skills advocated by the two previously discussed approaches. Learning centred approach considers the social context of education and gives more latitude to the teacher. Learning should consider tasks, exercises, teaching techniques, and all other activities through which the content is to be learnt. Learning-centred approach examines how the learners achieve their goals in learning.

All that is required at the initial stage of the learning process is a general syllabus stating the content and skills and the teacher/material writer takes care of other factors that emerge from the needs analysis of the learning situation.

Fig. 9: Learning-centred Course Design Process
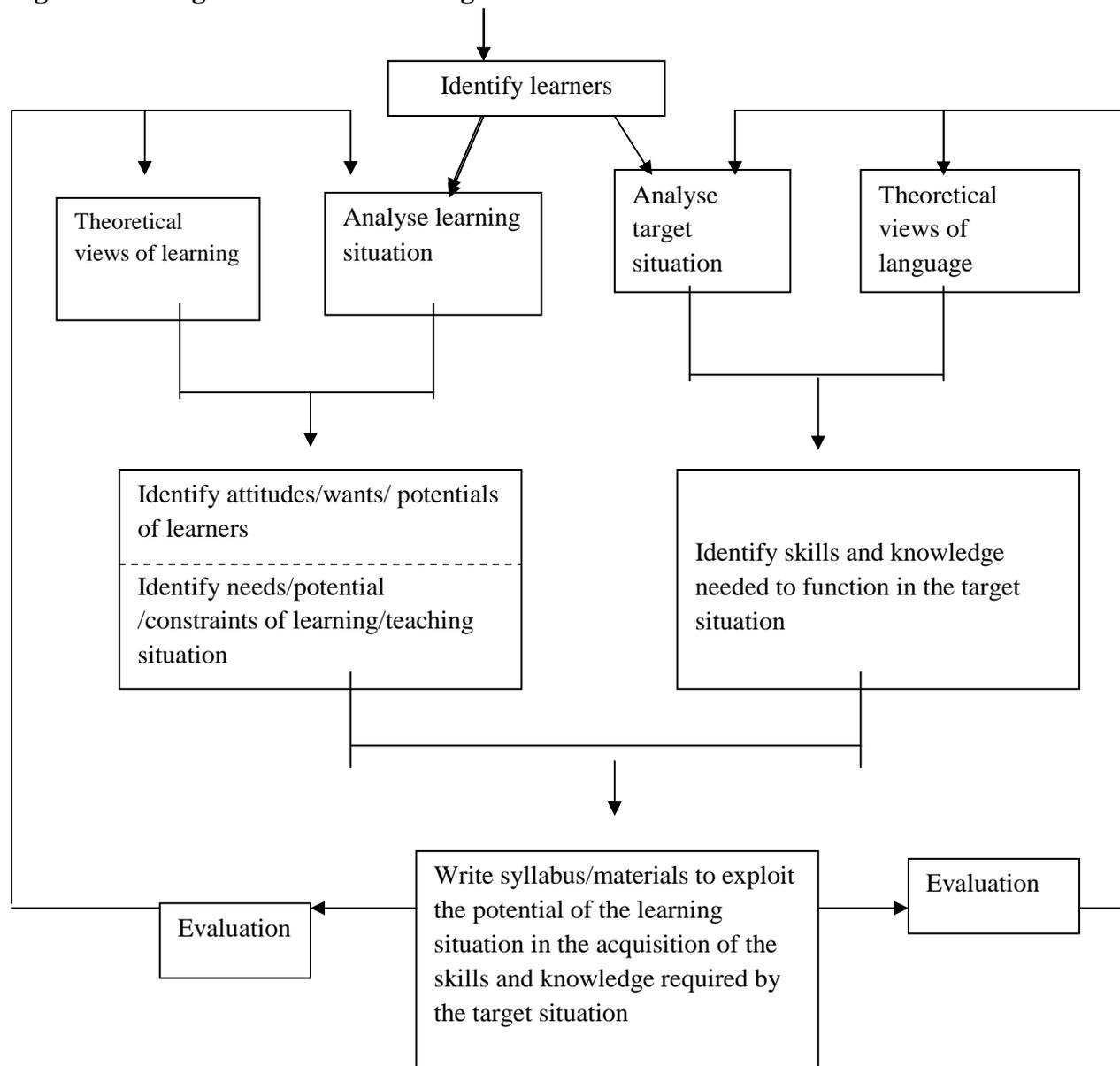
Source: (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:74)

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Differentiate between language-centred approach to course design and learning-centred approach.

(b) State when a syllabus is said to be skill-based

(c) Mention and explain the design that is appropriate to ESP

3.2 Steps in ESP Course Design

To design a course based on the learners needs, you are expected to follow a particular procedure. The figure below illustrates the steps in ESP course design:

132

Fig. 10:   **Steps in ESP Course Design**

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│      STEPS IN ESP COURSE         │
│            DESIGN                │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│         Needs Analysis          │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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                ▼
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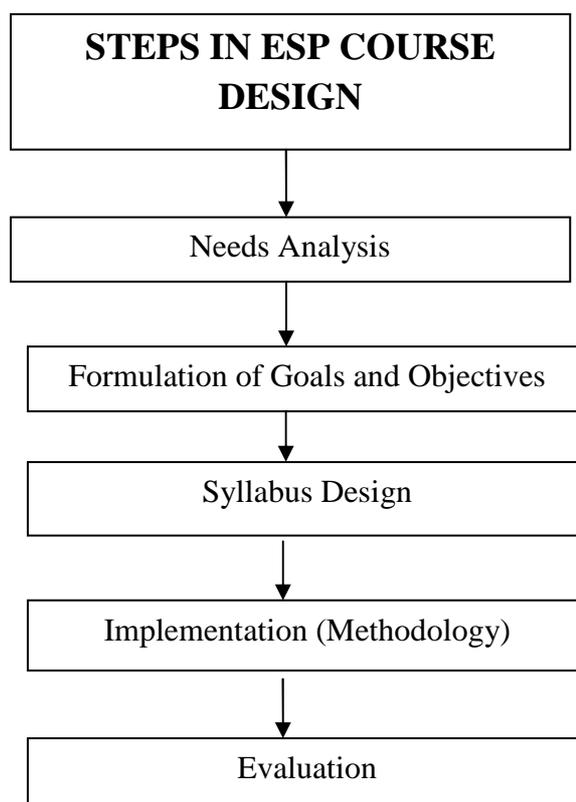
3.2.1   Needs Analysis

Analyzing the specific needs of a particular learner group serves as the prelude to an ESP course design, because it determines the 'what' and 'how' of an ESP course. Chen (2006) also reached the conclusion that ESP course designers should explore and identify the learners' potential needs in the first place. What is an undisputed fact is that any ESP course should be needs driven, and has an '*emphasis on practical outcomes*' (Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998:1). Therefore needs analysis is and always will be an important and fundamental part of ESP (Gatehouse, 2001, Graves, 2000). It is *'the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course*' (Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998:122). Seeking out learner's needs is in recognition of the fact that in ESP, the learners have different specific and specifiable communicative needs which they want to achieve by undergoing the course. Needs analysis is the process of establishing *what* and *how* of a course (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Needs analysis evolved in the 1970's to include 'deficiency analysis', or assessment of the 'learning gap' (West, 1997:71) between target language use and current learner proficiencies. The course designer should take cognizance of the fact that there may be variation between the learner's needs and that of the teacher or the guardian.

Certainly though ESP was a driving force behind needs analysis as Richards (2001) observes,

> The emergence of ESP with its emphasis on needs analysis as a starting point in language program design was an important factor in the development of current approaches to language curriculum development (p.72).

There are two orientations to needs analysis in ELT circles, according to Brindly. They are the "narrow or product-oriented interpretation of needs whereby the learner's needs are seen solely in terms of the language they will have to use in a particular communication situation." The second is the "broad or process-oriented interpretation which sees needs in terms of "the learning situation."

The current concept of needs analysis in ESP, according to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:125), includes consideration of the following aspects:

(a) Professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for – *target situation analysis* and *objective needs*.

(b) Personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English - *wants, means, subjective needs*.

(c) English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are - present situation analysis – which allows us to assess the learners' lacks.

(d) The learners' lacks: the gap between (c) and (a) – lacks.

(e) Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (d) – learning needs.

(f) Professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation- linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis.

(g) What is wanted from the course?

(h) Information about the environment in which the course will be run – means analysis.

3.2.2 Specifying the Goals and Objectives of the Course

The course designer, after ascertaining the learner's needs tries to formulate the goals and objectives of teaching the course. In ESP, the goal is often for communicative competence rather than linguistic competence. Corder (1973) said that the content and structure of a syllabus is related to the objectives of the learner or of society. These must be specified in terms of what he wants or must be able to do in terms of social behaviour and linguistic performance. This is known as his "terminal behaviour". But Ingram (1982) maintains that a clear specification of objectives provides a means of ensuring coherence of language activities in responding to learner needs. What do you want them to know and be able to do at the end of the semester? How will the course build on where students started and help them move through the rest of the curriculum?

In most language teaching programmes, strict behavioural objectives as defined by Mager (1962) are not often used. Mager state that behavioural objectives should:

i.   describe the behaviour to be performed;

ii.   describe the conditions under which the performance will be expected to occur;

iii.   state a standard of acceptable performance.

Language programmes usually use objectives which specify:

  i.   the processes which underlie fluency in specific skill areas;

 ii.   the form of the linguistic or communicative content which will be covered; or

iii.   the form of a level of proficiency.

Hawkey suggests that research in learner needs should be taken into account when specifying objectives. Van Ek (1976) sums up the situation by asserting that language learning objectives must be geared towards learners' needs, and that they should specify the following components:

  i.   the situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics to be dealt with;

 ii.   the language activities in which the learner will engage;

iii.   the language functions which the learner will fulfil;

iv.   what the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;

  v.   the general notions which the learner will be able to handle;

vi.   the specific notions which the learner will be able to handle;

vii.   the language forms which the learner will be able to use;

viii.   the degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

For instance, the goals and objectives for a course in Business English could be stated as:

Goals and Objectives

The overall aim of the course is to fully prepare the senior students for their future career because after the graduation they are likely to seek employment in international companies. Before recruitment, resumes are sent out to companies and interviews are conducted, therefore, job application constitutes a vital part of the course. In their future business career, they may find themselves working in a company where English is widely spoken, or using English as a medium of communication with other business people from all over the world.

Goals
By the end of the course, learners should be able to familiarize themselves with business terminology and write competently in English. For example, they should be capable of writing appropriate business letters, e-mails as well as a good resume. They must have the ability of understanding intermediate business articles and newspapers, understanding and conducting general business conversation as well as maintaining relationships with the target community.

Objectives
The objectives for each skill are as follows:

Listening:
To understand telephone messages and conversations in business settings

▪ To understand relevant business news reports.

Speaking:

To communicate effectively with native speakers in job interviews as well as business settings.

▪ To respond effectively to telephone messages and job interviews

Reading:

▪ To understand or even interpret a variety of texts, such as business reports, documents and newspaper articles.

Writing:

▪ To write resumes and business-related letters or e-mails.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) As a course designer, what would you consider the goals and objectives of an English course for Hotel workers?

(b) What are the two orientations of needs analysis identified in this unit?

(c) Of what use is needs analysis to a course designer?

3.2.3 Course/Syllabus Design

The next step in ESP course design is to translate the information gathered from needs analysis into syllabus design. Munby (1978) calls this to "convert needs to syllabus content." A syllabus normally refers to "what is to be learnt with some indication of the order in which the items should be learnt" and "the interpretations that it is put to" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 81).

In this case, the main orientation of such a syllabus is determined by the needs of the learners as discussed above, with an indication of how the content may be most effectively used to cater for these needs. As mentioned earlier, and in conformity with the interdisciplinary advocated for an ESP program, the syllabus will also incorporate aspects of the students' discipline of study which will reinforce their motivation and the usefulness of the language to be learnt.

The syllabus can take various forms, but according to Swan, cited in Robinson (1991),

> The real issue is not which syllabus is put first. It is how to integrate eight or so syllabuses (functional, notional, situational, topic, phonological, lexical, skills) into a sensible teaching programme (p. 28).

The objective of organizing a syllabus should be to promote learning, and not just to provide a description of the language. Therefore, the content matter should be organized in such a way so as to facilitate teaching and learning. The unit of organization should also suit the particular purpose of learning.

The syllabus may be structured on the basis of a gradual move from the more general to the more particular, a statement of a general rule to a statement of particular rules or exceptions

which incorporates the deductive process. The material can also be organized so that the direction is from the particular to the general which is the inductive process.

The syllabus can also be organized such that the material starts with the learner's home life, moves on to the classroom situation and then moves out of the school into the post office, railway station, grocery shop and so on.

Corder (1973) says that "the ideal syllabus would be one in which the sequencing of items taught logically derives from and presupposes the learning of some previous items." He also put forward the notion of a "natural syllabus" or a "built-in syllabus". He explains that

> the relevance of performance analysis to the designing of a syllabus is based on the notion that there is some 'natural' sequence of elaboration of the approximative system of the second language learner and that when/if this can be well established it would provide a psychological logic to the ordering of material in a syllabus (p. 132).

However, it is quite impractical to allow natural ordering to be the basis of syllabus organization because it is very rare for teaching and language acquisition to go hand in hand.

According to Allen (1984), there are basically three approaches which can be utilized to sequence and organize content:

1. the traditional, structural-analytic approach in which the highest priority is given to formal grammatical criteria;

2. the functional-analytical approach which defines objectives in terms of categories of communicative language use; and

3. a non-analytic, experiential, or "natural growth" approach, which aims to immerse learners in real-life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items.

Some of the syllabus types are: (a) the structural or grammatical or linguistic syllabus; (b) the notional syllabus; (c) the functional syllabus; (d) process and task-based syllabus and so on. The type to be adopted will depend on the students' needs, the objective of the course, the sponsor's or teaching institution's bias as regards their aim for the language course. We shall briefly discuss some of these syllabus types:

 1. Product-Oriented Syllabuses

The product-oriented syllabus is also known as the synthetic approach; these kinds of syllabuses emphasize the product of language learning and are prone to intervention from an authority. They include:

   (a) The Structural Approach

Historically, the most prevalent of syllabus type is perhaps the structural or grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to her grammar collection. As such the focus is on the outcomes or the product The structural syllabus design fosters the generative use of language and allows speakers to form

sentences that have never been uttered previously. This is known as the traditional syllabus which is organized along grammatical lines giving primacy to language form. It specifies structural patterns as the basic units of learning and organizes these according to such criteria as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency. It makes ample use of highly controlled, tightly structured and sequenced pattern practice drills. Historically, it is also known as grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to her grammar collection. As such the focus is on the outcomes or the product.

One problem facing the syllabus designer pursuing a grammatical order to sequencing input is that the ties connecting the structural items may be rather feeble. A more fundamental criticism is that the grammatical syllabus focuses on only one aspect of language, namely grammar, whereas in truth there exist many more aspects to language. Finally, recent corpus based research suggests that there is a divergence between the grammar of the spoken and of the written language; raising implications for the grading of content in grammar based syllabuses.

(b) The Situational Approach

The limitations found in structural approach led to an alternative approach where situational needs are emphasized rather than grammatical units. Here, the principal organizing characteristic is a list of situations which reflects the way language is used in everyday life i.e. outside the classroom. The fundamental unit of organization here is a non-linguistic category, namely the situation. A situational syllabus is a syllabus where language is always presented within a situational context. Functions such as requesting, complaining, apologizing apply across a whole range of situations. The designer of a situational syllabus attempts to predict those situations in which the learner will find himself, and uses these situations, for example, a restaurant, an airplane, or a post office, as a basis for selecting and presenting language content. The underlying assumption here is that language is related to the situational contexts in which it occurs. Thus, by linking structural theory to situations the learner is able to grasp the meaning in relevant context. One advantage of the situational syllabus is that motivation will be heightened since it is "learner- rather than subject-centred" (Wilkins.1976, p. 16). However, a situational syllabus will be limited for students whose needs were not encompassed by the situations in the syllabus. This dissatisfaction led Wilkins to describe notional and communicative categories which had a significant impact on syllabus design.

(c) The Notional/Functional Approach

This is a combination of notion and function in designing a syllabus. The idea was that language should be classified in terms of what people wanted to do with it –function – or in terms of what meaning people wanted to put across – notions- rather than in terms of grammatical items. The notional/functional types of syllabuses stress on communicative properties of language where the central concern is the teaching of meaning and the communicative use of patterns, it emphasizes what speakers communicate through language and derives its content from an analysis of learners' needs to express certain meanings. Furthermore, the language should be categorized by level, starting with the basic level, which would permit the learner to survive when visiting the country in which the language was spoken.

Wilkins' criticism of structural and situational approaches lies in the fact that they answer only the 'how' or 'when' and 'where' of language (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979, p.84). Instead, he enquires "what it is they communicate through language" (p. 18). Thus, the starting point for a syllabus is the communicative purpose and conceptual meaning of language i.e. notions and functions, as opposed to grammatical items and situational elements, which remain but are relegated to a subsidiary role.

In order to establish objectives, the needs of the learners will have to be analyzed by the various types of communication in which the learner has to confront. Consequently, needs analysis has an association with notional-functional syllabuses. Although needs analysis implies a focus on the learner, critics of this approach suggest that a new list has replaced the old one. Where once structural/situational items were used, a new list consisting of notions and functions has become the main focus in a syllabus. White (1988, p. 77) claims that "language functions do not usually occur in isolation" and there are also difficulties of selecting and grading function and form. Clearly, the task of deciding whether a given function (i.e. persuading), is easier or more difficult than another (i.e. approving), makes the task harder to approach.

The above approaches belong to the product-oriented category of syllabuses. An alternative path to curriculum design would be to adopt process oriented principles, which assume that language can be learnt experientially as opposed to the step-by-step procedure of the synthetic approach.

2. Process-Oriented Syllabuses

Process-oriented syllabuses, or the analytical approach, developed as a result of a sense of failure in product-oriented courses to enhance communicative language skills. It is a process rather than a product. That is, focus is not on what the student will have accomplished on completion of the program, but on the specification of learning tasks and activities that s/he will undertake during the course.

The process syllabus was advocated by Breen (1984), whereby a framework would be provided within which either a predesigned content syllabus would be publicly analysed and evaluated by the classroom group, or an emerging content syllabus would be designed in an on-going way. It provides a framework for decisions and alternative procedures, activities and tasks for the classroom group. It openly addresses teaching and learning and particularly the possible interrelationships between subject matter, learning and the potential contributions of a classroom. The actual syllabus is designed as the teaching and learning proceeds.

(a) Procedural/Task-Based Approaches

The procedural syllabus was proposed by Prabhu (1980). Prabhu's 'Bangalore Project' was based on the premise, "that structure can best be learned when attention is focused on meaning." This syllabus proposes to replace the linguistic syllabus with a syllabus of tasks which are graded conceptually and grouped by similarity. The tasks and activities are planned in advance but not the linguistic content. The emphasis here is on meaning rather than form. The emphasis is on the learner who is preoccupied with understanding, working out, relating, or conveying messages, and copes in the process, as well as he can with the language involved. There is no syllabus in terms of vocabulary or structure and no presentation of

language items. Within such a framework the selection, ordering and grading of content is no longer wholly significant for the syllabus designer.

Arranging the program around tasks such as information- and opinion-gap activities, it was hoped that the learner would perceive the language subconsciously whilst consciously concentrating on solving the meaning behind the tasks. There appears to be an indistinct boundary between this approach and that of language teaching methodology, and evaluating the merits of the former remain complicated.

A task-based approach assumes that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through practice and interaction, and uses tasks and activities to encourage learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Task-based teaching provided learners with opportunities for learner-learner interactions that encourage authentic use of language and meaningful communication. The goal of a task is to "exchange meaning rather than to learn the second language" (Ellis, 1999:193).

Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks, enhances learning. According to Ellis (2000), for interactive tasks to be successful, it should contain elements that

- are new or unfamiliar to the participants;

- require learners to exchange information with their partners or group members;

- have a specific outcome;

- involve details;

- centre on a problem, especially an ethical one, such as deciding in a small group who should take the last spot in a lifeboat, a nuclear physicist or a pregnant woman; and

- involve the use of naturally occurring conversation and narrative discourse.

Teachers, using task-based syllabus are expected to use problem-solving tasks to provide learners with opportunities to share ideas, build consensus, and explain decisions about real-life issues important to them.

The components of a task according to Nunan (1988) include

1.   Goals

2.   Input

3.   Activities

4.   Teacher role

5.   Learner role

6.   Settings

The starting point for task design should be the **goals and objectives,** which are set out in the syllabus or curriculum guidelines which underpin the teaching programme.

The next step is selecting or creating **input** for students to work with. The use of authentic input is a central characteristic of communicative tasks. Where possible, it is desirable to build up a **"bank" of data.**

Texts, audio or video recordings can be classified and filed under topics or themes (e.g. Work/Jobs; Holidays; Future Plans; The Media), and provide a ready-made resource to be drawn on when designing tasks.

Nunan (1988) contends that one should work from the data to the teaching/learning objectives, rather than the other way round - i.e. it is better to derive **communicative activities and other exercises** such as grammatical manipulation exercises, from input, rather than say, deciding to teach a particular item, and then creating a text to exemplify the target feature or item.

(b) Learner-led Syllabuses

The notion of basing an approach on how learners learn was proposed by Breen and Candlin (1984). Here the emphasis is on the learner, who it is hoped will be involved in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible. By being fully aware of the course they are studying, it is believed that their interest and motivation will increase, coupled with the positive effect of nurturing the skills required to learn.

However, as suggested earlier, a predetermined syllabus provides support and guidance for the teacher and should not be so easily dismissed. Critics have suggested that a learner-led syllabus seems radical and utopian in that it will be difficult to track as the direction of the syllabus will be largely the responsibility of the learners. Moreover, without the mainstay of a course book, a lack of aims may come about. This leads to the final syllabus design to be examined: the proportional approach as propounded by Yalden (1987).

(c) The Proportional Approach

The proportional syllabus basically attempts to develop an "overall competence" (Yelden 1987:97). It consists of a number of elements with theme playing a linking role through the units. This theme is designated by the learners. It is expected initially that form will be of central value, but later, the focus will veer towards interactional components. According to Yelden, the syllabus is designed to be dynamic, not static, with ample opportunity for feedback and flexibility. This kind of syllabus is also referred to as "Multi-dimensional syllabus". There is no reason why only one of the inventory item types needs to be selected as a unit of organization. It would be possible to develop a syllabus leading to lessons of varying orientation – some covering important functions, others dealing with settings and topics, and yet others with notions and structures. This will allow a syllabus design which is less rigid and more sensitive to the various student language needs. There is flexibility to change the focal point of the teaching material as the course unfolds.

The shift from form to interaction can occur at any time and is not limited to a particular stratum of learner ability. As Yalden (1983) observes, it is important for a syllabus to indicate explicitly what will be taught, "not what will be learned".

This practical approach, with its focus on flexibility and spiral method of language sequencing leading to the recycling of language, seems relevant for learners who lack

exposure to the target language beyond the classroom. But how can an EFL teacher pinpoint the salient features of the approaches discussed above?

"Learner-learning centred", "task-based", "activity-based" and "problem-solving" are all attributes which are generally associated with an effectively communicative-oriented approach. And, as may be deduced from the recent literature on ESP, this orientation is characteristic of special purpose language teaching in general and ESP in particular. Such an approach aims, among other things, at helping learners develop the skills associated with language learning, as well as skills related to their own discipline of study. Examples of such skills are "information", "mental", "social" and "action" skills.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) On what criteria could a course/syllabus be organized?

(b) Name and describe at least three types of syllabus

(c) How can you differentiate between a structural syllabus and a notional/functional syllabus?

(d) All syllabus types are grouped under two headings. What are they?

(e) From what you have so far learnt about ESP, what syllabus design best suits English for Specific Purpose?

3.2.4 Syllabus Implementation/Methodology

The next step in ESP course design is for the teacher to implement the syllabus he/she has designed. This requires increased resources, training, and re-training of the ESP teacher. The process or task-based syllabus, the use of authentic texts, collaboration with content teacher in creating and interpreting the syllabus should be encouraged. No matter how well developed a syllabus is, it would not be able to achieve what it is meant to if serious consideration is not given to its successful implementation.

Various sources have cited a number of factors which need to be given consideration in the successful implementation of a language syllabus. These factors would also affect the choice of an appropriate syllabus for use.

Maley (1984) gives the following factors:

1. cultural

2. educational

3. organizational

4. learner

5. teacher, and

6. material

(i) Cultural factors are cited as the most powerful factors in the implementation of any language programme. It depends on whether a society is outward-looking and welcomes innovation, or inward-looking, seeking inspiration from deeply-rooted traditional values. The attitudes of a given society towards the learning process, towards books, towards teachers are also of key importance.

(ii) Educational factors refer mainly to educational philosophy. Other factors are whether the system is authoritarian or participatory, whether it views learning as acquiring knowledge or acquiring skills, whether learning is considered a product-oriented business or as a life-long process, and whether the system encourages dependence or learner initiative. It is also important that top-level administrators are well-informed about the syllabuses. It is also important to take account of the role of exams in a given educational system.

(iii) Organizational and administrative factors will affect the implementation of a programme, especially if the national educational system is highly centralised or highly decentralised. This will be reflected in the way decisions are arrived at and communicated to others, that is, whether they are by open consensus or by closed decree. It is equally important that there is a clearly defined structure of communication between the administration and those executing a programme. There should be sufficient channels of communication between syllabus designers and classroom teachers. There should also be a clear structure of communication between technical and secretarial staff on the one hand and the teaching staff on the other.

(iv) Learner factors involve the age and background of the learners as being highly significant. It is also significant how learners are selected for the programme because certain syllabuses may not suit the study habits of certain learners.

(v) Teacher factors refer to the training and experience of teachers, which provide an important criterion for successful implementation. The availability of teacher training is a key factor. It is important that the teacher is proficient in the target language. Teachers' language proficiency and training may well favour the choice of one syllabus vs. another. Teachers will have to understand why the syllabus is as it is so that they see the necessity of having to change their teaching procedure if necessary. Teachers, administrators, and educators must be familiar with the objectives of the syllabus. It is also important that teachers are aware from the start about the number of hours they are expected to work, as this will have important consequences for time-tabling and teacher morale.

(vi) Material factors mean that there should be an adequate budgetary provision for all aspects of the programme. The hardware ordered for the programme should be appropriate and not just ordered for prestige reasons. Spares for the hardware should be readily available and they should be serviceable in the vicinity. Software should also be appropriate and available to those who need it. There should also be adequate provision for secretarial assistance.

Other sources have also given class size as a variable or factor to be considered. For example, the sorts of drills associated with structural syllabuses would be difficult to conduct where there are classes of 50 or more.

The economic condition is another important factor, mainly because new materials and retraining of teachers is expensive, it is vital that this factor be kept in mind for all aspects of the implementation process because the whole process actually depends on it.

The successful implementation of a syllabus also depends largely on the extent to which materials, methodology and exams are compatible with it.

These very same factors would also have to be taken into consideration when selecting an appropriate syllabus type to achieve the purpose desired.

3.2.5 Evaluation

Course/syllabus evaluation is the final stage in designing a course. It is the measurement and workability of the syllabus. As a syllabus provides the teacher and students a guarantee that some grounds have been covered, it needs to be evaluated so as to find out how far it has succeeded in achieving anticipated goals

Self Assessment Exercise

    (a) Using the knowledge you have acquired about steps in course design and syllabus types, design a one week course of 5 hours for hotel workers.

    (b) State the disadvantages of language-centred approach to course design.

    (c) What is the difference between target needs and learning needs?

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are many essential points when considering a syllabus to be designed and implemented. The various syllabuses touched upon in this investigation all present valuable insights into creating a language program and course. Syllabuses are frequently combined in more or less integrated ways with one type as the organizing starting point around which the others are arranged and connected. A predetermined and prearranged syllabus provides support and guidance for the instructor and should not be so simply dismissed. Moreover, without the support of a course book, a lack of aims may come about. To put it another way, in arguing about syllabus choice and design, it should be kept in mind that the question is not which type to choose but which types and how to connect them with each other. Finally, and perhaps preferably, a hybrid syllabus needs to be constructed and designed due to pragmatic reasons. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987:51) state "it is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher".

Whether a syllabus is flexible or whether it is binding will depend mainly on the objective which it is to achieve. Most inexperienced teachers prefer a "rigid" syllabus which clearly prescribes everything that has to be done and how. Experienced teachers, on the other hand, prefer both freedom and responsibility and therefore a syllabus which is more flexible. The complex teaching situation today requires that time be set aside and concerted effort be put into designing a syllabus which would be appropriate for the variables involved in the teaching-learning process. The priority in language teaching nowadays is communicative performance among an increased number of learners.

The stages of syllabus design outlined in this paper provide a basis for going about preparing a language programme. The modern trend in language teaching is towards being learner-centred. This brings with it a large number of variables, which have been pointed out under the section called Syllabus Implementation/Methodology, which dictate the choice of a syllabus type. Therefore the emphasis on syllabus design is justified so as to produce appropriate syllabuses for the specific needs of the learners.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have looked at the three basic things the teacher should consider in designing a course. The teacher may strictly adhere to the learner restricted syllabus, which is systematic presentation of the language issues with no input from learners. Though this approach is criticized for being too strict and rigid, it could be seen as a predetermined and prearranged syllabus which provides support and guidance for the instructor and should not be so simply dismissed. Another approach to course design discussed in this unit is the skills and strategies approach whereby the route to the target situation must be considered. This approach is intended to enable learners achieve a purpose of constantly developing proficiency as the learning process goes on. This is for want of time and the fact that all learning cannot be achieved at the target situation. Finally, the learning/learner-centred approach was discussed. In this approach, the teacher only influences the learning process but the learner determines what he or she learns.

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible. There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi exist, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations. The job of a course designer is a complex one that is systematic. This unit has identified the steps a course designer should follow in order to design a successful ESP course. It starts with finding out the language needs of the students that are undergoing the course. The course designer translates the information gathered from needs analysis into syllabus design. The unit also described various syllabus types in language learning, though mention was made of the "learner-learning centred", "task-based", "activity-based" and "problem-solving" are all attributes which are generally associated with an effectively communicative-oriented approach. And, as may be deduced from the recent literature on ESP, this orientation is characteristic of special purpose language teaching in general and ESP in particular. For the implementation stage, necessary factors that should be considered for successful implementation including the organization, learner, teacher, material factors, among others, were described. Finally, course assessment/evaluation as the last stage in course design was also described.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSESSMENT

A well designed course in the hands of a teacher who cannot implement it is nothing. What are the necessary factors to consider in course implementation?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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Module 3: Methods and Strategies

Introduction

Module three will teach you that ESP methodology is a communicative one with its attributes of task-based, problem solving, collaborative and team teaching.

Unit1   ESP Methods and Principles of Communicative Methodology

Unit 2   Some Attributes of ESP Methodology

Unit 3   Principles of Learning

Module 3: Unit1

ESP Methods and Principles of Communicative Methodology

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

So far in the course, we have studies the definition, characteristics of ESP. You have also been told about different ways to design an ESP course. In this module, we shall be looking at methodology in ESP. The emphasis on communicative methodology is to enable the learner use the language he or she has learnt in communication. To achieve this in ESP classroom, the principles underlining learning should be examined which is the thrust of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

    (a) Explain what is meant by communicative methodology

    (b) Explain what is meant by the fact that ESP methodology is a communicative one

    (c) Discuss what makes an activity a communicative one.

    (d) Outline and discuss some principles of communicative methodology

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

  3.1 ESP Methodology – A Communicative One

According to Johns and Duddley-Evans (1991),

> ESP requires methodologies that are specialized or unique."
> They believe that 'an English for academic purposes (EAP)
> class taught collaboratively by a language teacher and a
> subject-area lecturer… sheltered and adjunct EAP classes
> and special English classes for students in the workplace...
> require considerably different approaches to those found in
> general English classes (p. 68).

Of great relevance to ESP methodology is the link of strands of functional syllabus, communicative and learning-centred approaches, and authenticity, relevancy and appropriateness in language and materials (Jordan 1977, p. 109).

Although some ESP advocates agree on the fact that ESP is not restricted to any specific methodology and that the communicative approach is often thought to be closely related to ESP (Strevens, 1988, Hutchinson & Waters, 1984) it can be safely asserted that an effective approach for teaching GE should work for teaching ESP, and the teacher who has sound experience in teaching general English can transfer it successfully to the ESP teaching situation. In other words a new teaching method is not required for this new situation. Although the communicative approach can be effective, the situation for both general English and ESP requires an effective eclectic approach rather than adherence to a specific teaching method. I also believe that, just like GE, "ESP does not have to employ any particular method or technique that already exists, if the requirements do not point in that direction.' It is, however, observed that the communicative methodology has this eclectic nature, no wonder ESP is said to have adopted communicative methodology.

"Communicative" is a word which has dominated discussions of teaching methodology for many years. Although in a monolingual English language classroom, 'real communication' in English is impossible; in 'communicative methodology' we try to be 'more communicative'. That is to say, even though it may be impossible to achieve 'real communication', we should attempt to get close to "real communication" in our classrooms. It is based on the theory that the primary function of language use is communication. Its primary goal is for learners to develop communicative competence (Hymes 1971), or simply put, communicative ability. In other words, its goal is to make use of real-life situations that necessitate communication.

In the past the 'primary aim' of language learning seemed to be mastery of the grammatical system. The only practical task was translation and that was usually translation of 'great literature' rather than letters to the bank manager. The methodology for teaching modern, 'living' languages was identical to the methodology for dead, classical languages like Latin and Ancient Greek.

Today, we see our primary aim as teaching the practical use of English for communication with native speakers and others.

According to Nunan (1994), the aim of communicative language learning is achieving language proficiency based on the development of the four macro skills. It is quite natural that the level of language proficiency will be different for different contingents of learners and will depend on learners' needs. Nunan (1991:279) lists five basic characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT):

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.

4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

The assumptions in CLT are that: (a) learners learn a language through using it to communicate, (b) authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities, (c) fluency is an important dimension of communication, (d) communication involves the integration of different language skills, and (e) learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (http://wikigogy.org/Method_and_approach).

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Write a short note on communicative methodology.

3.2 Communicative Activities

Wesche and Skehan (2002:208) describe as communicative activities:

▪ Activities that require frequent interaction among learners or with other interlocutors to exchange information and solve problems.

▪ Use of authentic (non-pedagogic) texts and communication activities linked to "real-world" contexts, often emphasizing links across written and spoken modes and channels.

▪ Approaches that are learner centered in that they take into account learners' backgrounds, language needs, and goals and generally allow learners some creativity and role in instructional decisions (p. 208)

In its purest form, a communicative activity is an activity in which there is:
▪ a desire to communicate
▪ a communicative purpose
▪ a focus on language content not language forms
▪ a variety of language used
▪ no teacher intervention
▪ no control or simplification of the material

Let us examine each characteristic in turn.

1. **A Desire to Communicate:** In a communicative activity there must be a reason to communicate. When someone asks a question, the person must wish to get some information or some other form of result. There must be either an 'information gap' or an 'opinion gap' or some other reason to communicate.

2. **A Communicative Purpose:** When we ask students to describe their bedroom furniture to their partners, we are creating an artificial 'communicative purpose' and making the activity more artificial by asking them to do it in English. We also create artificial 'information gaps' by giving different information to pairs of students so that they can have a reason to exchange information.

3. **A Focus on Language Content not Language Forms:** In real life, we do not ask about our friend's family in order to practise 'have got' forms. We ask the question because we are interested in the information. That is to say, we are interested in the language content and not in the language forms.

4. **A Variety of Language is used:** In normal communication, we do not repeatedly use the same language forms. In fact, we usually try to avoid repetition. In many classroom activities we often try to create situations in which students will repeatedly use a limited number of language patterns. This is also artificial.

5. **No Teacher Intervention:** When you are on a queue in filling stations, in a supermarket or at a film theatre, your teacher is not usually beside you to 'help' or 'correct' your English. Teacher intervention in classroom communicative activities adds to the artificiality.

6. **No Control or Simplification of the Material:** In the classroom, we often use graded or simplified materials as prompts for communicative activities. These will not be available in the real world.

Communicative activities are usually learner-directed and often involve pair and small group work. For Coffey (1984), all ESP exercises

> must be that of authenticity. All ESP work is in essence a simulation of a real-life task …Serendipity is therefore one of the main virtues required (of the ESP writer): the ability to find authentic text that will fit pedagogic needs (p.5).

Coffey also attaches importance to role-play, self-directed learning, and team- teaching.

According to Littlewood (1981), the contributions of communicative activities to language learning include the following:

- They provide 'whole task practice', i.e. the total skill;
- They improve motivation;
- They allow natural learning;
- They can create context which supports learning.

Self Assessed Exercise

(b) What are communicative activities?

(c) Name and explain at least four characteristics of a communicative activity

3.3 Principles of Communicative Methodology

Communicative methodology includes a number of different (and perhaps interconnecting) principles. Morrow (1981) gave about five principles that might help us to see that our students can use the language they learn in order to communicate. They include:

1. Know what you are doing: Every lesson should end with the learner being able to see clearly that he can do something which he could not do at the beginning – and that the 'something' is communicatively useful.

2. The whole is more than the sum of the parts: Every communicative method should operate with stretches of language above the sentence level and should also operate with real language in real situation. It also suggests that the processes are as important as the forms: the aim is to replicate as far as possible the processes of communication which include:

3. Information gap: the purpose of communication in real life is to bridge this gap. The concept of information gap seems to be one of the most fundamental in the whole area of communicative teaching. To the process of 'information gap' Hutchinson and Waters (1987) add media, reasoning, memory, jigsaw, opinion and certainty as other types of gap.

4. Choice is another crucial characteristic of communication. It means that the participants have choice, both in terms of what they will say and, more particularly, how they will say it. Deciding on these under the severe time pressure which language use involves is one of the main problems which foreign users of a language face.

5. To learn it, do it: Although the teacher can help, advise and teach, only the learners can learn: they must, therefore, become involved in the activities and learn by doing;

Added to Morrow's (1981) principle are the following:

6. Mistakes are not always a mistake: With the aim of developing the communicative ability of the students, it may be necessary to be flexible enough to treat different things as 'mistakes' at different stages in the learning process; in other words, not every error should be corrected. Learners errors are tolerated as they are asset in the development of communicative skills: errors are used as a base for language teaching.

7. Communicative Syllabus Design: A syllabus pattern peculiar to the communicative approach is one which takes the learner into account before its design. It is the learner's needs that determine the syllabus pattern to be adopted. It is recommended that an eclectic approach be adopted in drawing up syllabus in ESP. Such a syllabus should incorporate structures as well as functions, notions, and context in its design. Simulation, role play and games are used for language teaching and learning.

8. There is negotiation of meaning and two-way communication exists in class. Learners get progressive feedback from both fellow learners and the teacher.

9. Teacher's Role: The teachers step out of their traditional didactic and domineering role. There is a co-operative relationship between them and the students. The teacher plays the role of a facilitator or guide and no longer controls class activities. A teacher that already has experience in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) can

exploit his or her background in language teaching. S/he should recognize the ways in which his/her teaching skills can be adapted for the teaching of English for Specific Purposes. Moreover, he/she will need to look for content specialists for help in designing appropriate lessons in the subject matter field she is teaching.

10. Learners' Role: Learners have opportunity to express their own individuality and contribute their personality to the learning process. They also have opportunities for co-operative relationship to emerge among them. It could be said that communicative language teaching is learner-centred, that is, the learners are active participants in the learning and teaching process; they do something with the language in order to learn it; learners lead class activities; learners initiative is encouraged and their language needs determine the content and face of the lesson. What is the role of the learner and what is the task he/she faces? The learners come to the ESP class with a specific interest for learning, subject matter knowledge, and well-built adult learning strategies. They are in charge of developing English language skills to reflect their native-language knowledge and skills.

11. Class Management: The communicative classroom allows for joint interpretation and co-operative negotiation. Class work is organized in group and in pairs. Also, peer supervision and co-operation are encouraged.

4.0 CONCLUSION

CLT methodologies embrace an eclectic approach to teaching, which means they borrow teaching practices from a wide array of methods that have been found effective and that are in accordance with principles of learning as suggested by research findings in research in SLA and cognitive psychology. Its open-ended or principle-based approach allows for a great deal of flexibility, which makes it adaptable to many individual programmatic and learner needs and goals.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have described methodological principles that facilitate the language learning process. CLT furthermore takes a pragmatic or performance-based approach to learning. Its goal is to promote the development of real-life language skills by engaging the learner in contextualized, meaningful, and communicative-oriented learning tasks. It was noted that as far as theories of learning and effective strategies in teaching are concerned, CLT does not adhere to one particular theory or method. It draws its theories about learning and teaching from a wide range of areas such as cognitive science, educational psychology, and second language acquisition (SLA). In this way, it embraces and reconciles many different approaches and points of view about language learning and teaching, which allows it to meet a wide range of proficiency-oriented goals and also accommodate different learner needs and preferences.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

ESP methodology is a communicative one. Discuss

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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Module 3: Unit 2

Some Attributes of ESP Methodology

Contents

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Problem Solving

3.2   Task-based approach

        Self Assessment Exercise

3.3   Collaborative/Cooperative Teaching and Learning

        Self-Assessment Exercises

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

"Learner-learning centred", "task-based", "activity-based" and "problem-solving" are all attributes which are generally associated with an effectively communicative-oriented approach. And, as may be deduced from the recent literature on ESP, this orientation is characteristic of special purpose language teaching in general and ESP in particular. Such an approach aims, among other things, at helping learners develop the skills associated with language learning, as well as skills related to their own discipline of study. Achieving these skills requires special methodology such as problem solving, task based, content based integrated learning and collaborative teaching. These are the truce of this unit. This unit will also discuss the advantages of using each communicative approach.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

    (a) discuss problem solving and task-based as attributes of ESP approach

    (b) state the reasons why a teacher should do 'whole class' problem solving first in the class

    (c) give some examples of problem solving activities

    (d) explain the nature of problems in an ESP classroom

    (e) outline the factors that should make interactive tasks successful

(f) distinguish the meanings of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content-based Instruction) and TBL (Task-based Learning), giving at least two advantages of each

(g) explain how ESP lecturer could establish contact with the content lecturer

(h) state some problems of collaborative teaching

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Problem Solving

Because of the interactive nature of ESP, learners engage in a lot of communicative activities. One of such is problem solving. This is a process that must be included in every educational practice as life is not devoid of problems. Problem solving can be seen as a way into new work, an opportunity to apply acquired knowledge and a rationale for gaining new skills and knowledge using an already acquired knowledge. We should remember that ESP prepares learners to function effectively in target situation. It is also a range of activities which require the learners to find solutions to problems of different kinds. A learner may not always solve all problems presented by the teacher but different strategies may be tried at achieving success. What learners do need is knowledge of strategies and processes which can be used to try and solve problem. This is why we say that ESP is learning-centred and process oriented. Some of problem solving activities include teaching learners how to get started, sorting of data, seeking patterns, linking to what you know, trying out theories, testing theories, etc.

A good teacher should first of all do 'whole class' problem solving to demonstrate the thinking processes the pupils need to use. It should also be used to consolidate work and to assess whether the children have acquired a piece of learning. Problem solving requires learners to bring to fore their prior knowledge and generic strategies for what to do next. A problem could be used to introduce a topic and get pupils interested in what you want them do.

Kinds of Problems

a) Problems that have a single step and one solution, e.g. what two colours do you combine to create an orange?

b) Problems that have many steps and a solution

c) Open ended problems – also known as investigations. They offer opportunities for learners to make decisions and pose questions, decide which line of action to pursue. They can arrive at different solutions and discover more questions

3.2 Task-based Activities

In Communicative approach, the classroom activities are task-based. Learners are continuously presented with problems to solve, using the target language. For instance, learners could be asked to reorder jumbled letters or words; to listen to a speaker and report all the main points mentioned, to underline or list out all the nouns, verbs, etc. in a passage. Arranging the program around tasks such as information- and opinion-gap activities, it is hoped that the learner would perceive the language subconsciously whilst consciously concentrating on solving the meaning behind the tasks. There appears to be an indistinct

boundary between this approach and that of language teaching methodology, and evaluating the merits of the former remain complicated.

A task-based approach assumes that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through practice and interaction, and uses tasks and activities to encourage learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks enhances learning.

Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks, enhances learning. According to Ellis (2000), for interactive tasks to be successful, it should contain elements that:

- are new or unfamiliar to the participants;
- require learners to exchange information with their partners or group members;
- have a specific outcome;
- involve details;
- centre on a problem, especially an ethical one, such as deciding in a small group who should take the last spot in a lifeboat, a nuclear physicist or a pregnant woman; and
- involve the use of naturally occurring conversation and narrative discourse.

Teachers, using task-based syllabus are expected to use problem-solving tasks to provide learners with opportunities to share ideas, build consensus, and explain decisions about real-life issues important to them.

Self Assessment Exercise

(b) Write short notes on problem-solving and task-based activities in ESP methodology

(c) Give at least four examples of problem solving activities

(d) How can you describe the nature of problems to be used in ESP teach-learn process

(e) What are the elements of interactive tasks in communicative methodology

3.3 Collaborative/Integrated Teaching and Learning

The field of English for Specific/Academic Purposes has developed rapidly over the past 40 years and become a major force in English language teaching and research. The idea of including content of a subject under study into a language classroom was first introduced in the 1970s by Hutchinson and Waters. They stated that the content of a subject, for example economics or management, should be used for teaching a foreign language. The emphasis of ELT has always been on practical outcomes on the language. It has always focused on the needs of learners and it has been preparing them to communicate effectively in the tasks required by their field of study or profession (Bojovi, 2006). The idea of "natural" language acquisition promoted by Krashen (1981) supported this approach as both claim that the best way to learn a language is to use it for "meaningful" purposes. These meaningful purposes change greatly so various applications of ESP have arisen in terms of the field or the

approach of teaching specific English; i.e. EAP (English for Academic Purposes), CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content-based Instruction) and TBL (Task-based Learning).

CLIL, for instance, refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language in which this content is encoded (Marsh, et al, 2001). It is widely seen as an excellent means of learning a language, and of introducing international events into the teaching of content subjects. Advocators of CLIL claim that it is a very effective way of learning a language as it provides the learners with meaningful input and authentic situations as suggested by Comprehensible Input Theory of Krashen. According to Krashen (1981), the mistake of language teaching is that we first teach the skills and only later use them, while the most effective way should be learning something and using it at the same time.

Naves (2002) summarizes successful CLIL programme teaching strategies; teachers exhibit active teaching behaviours such as clearly giving instructions, accurately describing tasks, maintaining learners' engagement in instructional tasks by maintaining task focus, pacing instruction appropriately, and communicating their expectations for students' success. In presenting new information, they use appropriate strategies such as demonstrating, outlining, using visuals, building redundancy, rephrasing, scaffolding, linking new information to learners' previous knowledge, etc. to make input comprehensible and context-embedded. All these and above mentioned roles entail a good command of academic English and field-specific knowledge.

Collaborative/Team Teaching refers to teaching performed by a group of two or more persons assigned to the same students at the same time for instructional purposes in a particular subject or combination of subjects; the difference between the two, if any, may be that collaborative teaching places more focus on shared power than team teaching. The ESP teachers need to hear the content lecturers' concern about the students' ability to communicate effectively in English in their academic and professional work, and they need to be open to their suggestions. By focusing on the particular needs for communication skills, rather than on ESP at a more general level, the ESP lecturer is able to provide the necessary and appropriate support to the content lecturers for the education of the students in specific disciplines.

One disturbing issue to new ESP practitioners is making sure that what they do in the English class is relevant and appropriate for students in their content areas. Students in higher education are learning, not only the particular concepts and vocabulary/rhetoric of their field of study, but are also being gradually initiated into what 'being a professional' in their own field involves. In settings where English is a medium of instruction, they will be doing this in English.

The content lecturer's job is to educate the students in the content and culture of the discipline/profession. They can help informally in setting priorities in an English syllabus by indicating what it is that most bothers them about their students' English. These priorities should be based on what affects the most frequent 'consumer' of the students' English. This relives the ESP lecturer of much of the worry that the English class might not be appropriate for the students' needs. Savas (2009), supporting this view, states:

> ESP teaching should be carried on by the collaboration of an EFL teacher with a content teacher. They can carry out ESP teaching scaffolding each other; the former provides the latter with methodology of language teaching while the latter makes the content meaningful, helping the EFL teacher learn content knowledge (p. 399).

The ESP lecturer needs be able to support this training process. The ESP lecturer realizes the student may ultimately need an English proficiency level high enough to be able to interact with fellow professionals and to be sensitive to how language is used in that profession. They should be able to translate the priorities into appropriate communication objectives and activities.

Brennan and van Naerssen (1998), while explaining the job of ESP lecturer in collaborative teaching, state that the ESP lecturer generally has a good knowledge and command of how language is used in different situations, and may well have experience in various academic/professional fields, but is not an expert in students' fields in such a way as the content teacher. Therefore, as the ESP lecturer defines his or her role, care must be taken not to move into areas of expertise and responsibility that rightly belong to content lecturer. This, as they say, will not be fair to any of the three people involved in the educational experience: the student, the content teacher or the ESP lecturer. A good coordination must exist among them. In academic settings, with the help of ESP instructor, cooperative or collaborative ESP teaching provides the learners with formal schemas of academic language through academic content they are already familiar with

Content-based ESP: Another application of ESP is the Content-Based Instruction (CBI), which focuses on the teaching of academic English through content knowledge. Language learning and content of subject matter could be brought together because a foreign language is most successfully acquired when learners are engaged in its meaningful and purposeful use. The integration of language and content involves the incorporation of content material into language classes. Content can provide a motivational and cognitive basis for language learning since it is interesting and of some value to the learner (Brewster, 1999).

Kasper (1997) has greatly strengthened the evidence for the effectiveness of content-based courses. She has reported both improved language and content performance among students exposed to content-based English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs and they have higher scores in reading proficiency and higher pass rates on ESL (English as a Second Language) courses. She has also supplied quantitative evidence that such students gain a performance advantage over students who are exposed to non-content based ESP training and that they maintain it in the following years.

3.3.2 How does the ESP lecturer establish contact with the content lecturer?

This could be done by seeking the support of the head of the content department and/or by surveying lecturers. In their introductory meeting, it is their duty to discuss the feasibility of developing various communication channels such as appointing a liaison person, observing classes, team teaching, attending departmental meetings, and participating in student selection interviews.

They can also distribute a questionnaire at this time to content lecturer to find out their views on the particular strengths and weaknesses of the students, and ways in which the English lecturer might be able to help. These channels, if opened, will enable the ESP lecturer to gain important information about the standards and status of English with the particular departments.

Apart from the formal contact, ESP lecturer may often have to establish contact informally in order to gain important information on the attitudes and perceptions of the content lecturers concerning the role of English in their teaching work. Content lecturer at times responds by saying something like "their grammar is weak"

3.3.3 Advantages of Collaborative Teaching

The reason why Cooperative Learning (CL) is the most widely used approach to ESP teaching is that it is potentially beneficial for second language learners in a number of ways, especially when performed through content. First of all, CL can provide more opportunities for L2 interaction and improve L2 proficiency (Swain, 2001). It can also help students draw on their first language (L1) while developing L2 skills (Cohen, 1986). It can also include opportunities for the integration of language and content learning. Content-based, collaborative and interactive ESP teaching, therefore, helps both the teacher and students scaffold each other.

ELT teachers from functioning well when they are appointed as ESP teachers

3.3.4 Problems of Collaborative Teaching:

- Collaborative teaching, while rewarding, does have its challenges. Teachers often feel uncomfortable embracing a collaborative teaching model because they do not feel they have been prepared for organizing and delivering instruction when teaching roles and responsibilities are not defined.

- It requires a great deal of time and effort from teachers

- can become inefficient due to differing personalities, different cultures, different teaching styles

- there may be unwillingness on the part of some departments to collaborate, thereby making it difficult for the ESP lecturer to establish contact;

- ESP lecturer may face the frustrating issue of allocation of hours and formal scheduling of the English language classes. This is because the departmental priorities take precedence over the logic of scheduling English classes to coincide with immediate needs. One of the hardest tasks of the ESP lecturer is dealing with a lack of formal schedule coordination (Brennan & van Naerssen, 1998).

Bailey, Dale, and Squire (1992) suggest:

- teachers should focus on goals rather than personalities to minimize power struggles

- recognizing one another's contributions and setting aside time for planning on a regular basis are two important factors related to the success of collaborative teaching

- collaborative teaching may be more useful for interactive courses that require dialogues and discussions than for courses that are receptive and discrete ☐ skill based.

Self Assessment Exercise

(c) Write short notes on any three of the following: (i) Cooperative learning (CL) (ii) Content based Instruction (CBI), collaborative teaching and learning

(d) How can ESP teacher establish contact with content lecturer?

(e) Mention some problems of collaborative teaching

4.0 CONCLUSION

The aim of ESP is to help learners achieve communicative competence in the target situation. In doing this, language and content-area learners construct their own knowledge on the basis of interaction with their environment. Effective teaching/learning enables learners to be in dialogue, to collaborate in the composition of knowledge and to share results of their inquiry. In academic settings, with the help of ESP instructor, cooperative or collaborative ESP teaching provides the learners with formal schemas of academic language through academic content they are already familiar with. They are like two sides of a coin in ESP teaching, and one cannot be favoured over the other. Teaching language structures is possible only when it is meaningful for the learners, and teaching content through L2 is useful only when learners can give feedback in L2, too.

5.0 SUMMARY

ESP programs are content-based, task-based, interactive programs which provide cooperative learning. In this unit, it has been established that Cooperative Learning (CL) is the most widely used approach to ESP teaching is that it is potentially beneficial for second language learners in a number of ways especially when performed through content. First of all, CL can provide more opportunities for L2 interaction and improve L2 proficiency (Swain, 2001). It can also help students draw on their first language (L1) while developing L2 skills (Cohen, 1986). It can also include opportunities for the integration of language and content learning. Content-based, collaborative and interactive ESP teaching, therefore, help both the teacher and students understand each other in the process of language learning.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

ESP teaching/methodology is said to be problem solving, task based, integrated and collaborative. Discuss.

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Module 3: Unit 3

Principles of Learning

Contents

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

 3.1 Principles of Learning

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assessment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

ESP materials are relevant to learning needs, but it depends on how the teacher put them into action. They are not just effective in representing language use but are also effective instrument of language learning. Needs analysis can tell us a lot about the nature and content of the learners' target language needs, but it is difficult to find out how to attend that target competencies. To find out the learning needs, it is important to look at the theoretical models of learning. This unit will, therefore, examine some basic principles of learning which can provide a reasoned basis for the interpretation of ESP language need into an effective ESP methodology.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to

      (a)   Mention some items in Philips' learning principles

      (b)   State some principles of learning as given by Hutchinson (1988).

      (c)   Discuss the implications of some of the principles to the teacher

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Principles of Learning

According to Philips (1981), Language for Special/Specific Purpose (LSP) course must set the student various tasks, and that these tasks 'must reflect the structural characteristics of the learner's special purpose and must be as integrated as possible and not be divided into minute, discrete elements. This notion led to his adoption of four principles of learning:

(a) Reality Control: 'control of the difficulty of the task demanded of the LSP student is exercised by means of the procedures of simplification appropriate to the field of activity constituting his or her special purpose',

(b) Nontriviality: 'the learning tasks required of the student must be … perceived by the student as meaningfully generated by his or her special purpose';

(c) Authenticity: 'the language that the student acquires through following LSP course … must be the language naturally generated by his or her special purpose';

(d) Tolerance of error: 'errors of content and of formal adequacy are to be judged as unacceptable only to the extent that they entail errors of communicative adequacy'.

To Philips' four methodological principles may be added Hutchinson's (1988) nine fundamental principles of learning. They are:

Learning is developmental

The learner is seen not as an empty vessel waiting to be filled with knowledge. Learning is a developmental process in which learners use their existing knowledge to make sense of the flow of new information. In essence, learning can only take place if the learner has an existing knowledge. The teacher should first of all determine the knowledge the learners have so that it can be activated in the learning of the new knowledge. This makes for an efficient teaching and effective learning.

Learning is a thinking process

The learners, apart from having background knowledge, should be able to make use of them. This carries two implications for materials and methodology:

1. The teacher should help learners to become aware of what they know and how it can be used.

2. Tasks and activities should oblige learners to think – to use their cognitive capacities and their knowledge of the world to make sense of the flow of the new information.

Learning is an active process

The learner is seen not as passive receiver of information, but as active participant in the learning process. Hutchinson describes two kinds of activity to explain the term 'active'. They are:

1. Psycho-motor Activity ☐ involving the movement of hand, eye or mouth to produce or receive communication signals.

2. Processing Activity – that is, the activity involving the use of the brain to make meaningful what is heard, read, spoken or written.

Learning involves making decisions

Since learning is an active developmental process, it follows that it is an active thinking process in which learners use existing knowledge to make new information meaningful. The learners in the process make decisions that are meaningful and decide what knowledge will be useful in solving problems. Tasks and activities should therefore give learners the opportunity to make decisions which may be right or wrong.

Learning a language is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge

The second language learner brings to the classroom a complex mass of conceptual and factual knowledge. It therefore shows that it is not just the knowledge of language that enables us to learn a language. Language teaching must respect the learners' cognitive and conceptual capacities. A great deal of language are learnt accidentally while working on problems of non-linguistic nature, therefore, full use should be made of the ESP learner's subject and general knowledge as a vehicle for language learning.

Second language learners are already communicatively competent

The second language learners already know that language serves different purposes, that it takes different forms in different situations, that some words are appropriate in some situations but not in others. The learners' knowledge of communication should be respected and exploited through simple techniques such as prediction.

Learning is an emotional experience

The learners are thinking beings who also have feelings. Apart from engaging the learners' cognitive capacities, their affective qualities should also be harnessed. The good teacher will try to minimize the negative effects of the learners' emotional reactions to learning and will instead try to boost the positive emotions. This should involve:

-   using pair and group work to minimize the stress of speaking in front of the whole class;

-   structuring tasks so as to enable learners to show what they do know rather than what they do not;

-   giving learners time to think and work out answers;

-   putting more emphasis on the process of getting the answer rather than the product of the right answer;

-   making interest, fun and variety primary considerations in the design of tasks and activities, not just an added bonus.

Learning is not systematic

 A good syllabus will acknowledge that setting out knowledge in a systematic way will in no way produce systematic learning. The learners must create their own internal system. Learners will learn only when they are ready to do so.

Learning needs should be considered at every stage of the learning process

Learning needs should be built into the whole course design process from needs analysis to the actual lesson. It should not be a matter of designing materials according to views about language and grafting a methodology on it for them. Methodological considerations should be a determining factor throughout the whole learning process.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) list a number of techniques that can be applied to lessons in order to put into practice Hutchinson's nine fundamental principles. They are gaps, variety, prediction, enjoyment, an integrated methodology, preparation, involvement, creativity and atmosphere in the classroom.

With these principles in mind, the teacher in planning his lessons should emphasize only the positive effects of learner emotional reactions. Task oriented teaching which includes problem solving, discussion, simulation, role play, project, case study, oral presentation; report, etc should be encouraged. This is in recognition of the principles that see the learner as a thinking being that thinks and solves problems and also be in active participation in what is happening in his environment.

ESP methodology should provide whole task practice; it should improve motivation and create contexts that support learning. Because learning is developmental, there should be evaluation and re-evaluation at the end of the course to determine if the learner could communicate in the target language.

ESP teachers should also be involved in team teaching with the subject specialist who acts as informant on what goes on in the subject discipline. Language for specific purposes must set the learners, which must reflect the characteristics of the learners' special purpose. It must be integrated, real, seen as important by the learners, authentic and show tolerance to errors.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) How can the principles of authenticity and tolerance to errors affect the ESP teacher's methodology?

(b) How can a teacher through his or her methodology minimize the negative effects of the learners' emotional reactions

(c) What can you say are the contributions of Philips' principles to ESP methodology?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The concern of ESP teacher and learner is not language use but with language learning. Needs analysis may have given us the language need at the target situation but it has failed to tell us how learners learner the language. As ESP teachers, we should be guided in our

material and methodology by these principles of learning so as to achieve communicative competence in the learners of English.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has exposed you to what methodology in ESP should look like. The learner having been seen as an active processor of knowledge is involved in every stage of learning activity. The teacher's knowledge of fundamental learning principles leads him or her into adopting communicative activities in the ESP classroom.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the implication of the principles that see learning as thinking and an active process?

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Module 4

ESP Materials Design and Evaluation

Introduction

In Module 4, you will learn about getting materials and resources for teaching ESP. These materials should be authentic. The ESP teacher has the choice of producing fresh materials, or adapting the existing ones to suit his/her purpose. Materials and methodology are significant in the ESP context where they are used as a source of language, motivation and stimulation and reference (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Materials evaluation and development are complementary. We can get ideas and techniques for our writing from evaluating existing materials. Similarly, writing materials makes us aware of what to look for in the published materials (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The principles underlying EAP methodology are the same as those underlying sound ELT methodology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Therefore, functional syllabus, communicative and learning-centred approaches, and authenticity in language and materials are all relevant to EAP (Jordan, 1997).

Unit 1   Material Design and Selection

Unit 2   Using Authentic Materials

Unit 3   Material Evaluation

Module 4: Unit 1

Material Design and Selection

Content

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The role of instructional material in language learning cannot be over-emphasised. These materials include cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks or photocopied exercises. The ESP practitioner is faced with the problem of whether to use an already designed material in his/her area, to design a new one or to adapt the existing material to suit his purpose. These are what we shall be looking at in this unit. This unit will examine the criteria for producing ESP materials, selecting materials and types of text activities, elements of material design and principles of materials. A detailed discussion of the main characteristics of effective materials is taken up in this unit. The discussion focuses on attracting and sustaining your motivation as learners so as to make you use language for a real purpose confidently and without much anxiety.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

    (a) discuss what materials are;

    (b) list the criteria to be considered in the activities of material production;

    (c) list the criteria for material selection;

    (d) state the criteria for selecting appropriate text;

    (e) give some principles of material production.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Material Design/Writing

Materials refer to anything that is used to facilitate the learning of a language and increase the learners' knowledge and experience of the language. "Materials could obviously be cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks or photocopied exercises. They could also be newspapers, food packages, photographs, and live talks by invited native speakers, instructions given by a teacher, tasks written on cards or discussions between learners. In other words, they can be anything which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and/or experience of the language." Brian Tomlinson (1998). One of the most important characteristics of ESP is material writing. Material should be intrinsically interesting, should contain enjoyable activities, opportunities to learn, content which both the learner and the teacher can cope with and therefore motivating. Ideally a good textbook should reflect life, not just language. A course should, one would hope, be interesting in its own right — its content stimulating and informative.

A syllabus, as we have discusses before, "is a document which says what will be learnt" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 38). But there are several steps between an evaluation syllabus which states what the successful learner will know by the end of the course and a materials syllabus to which the materials writer adds assumptions about the nature of language, language learning and language use. In a sense the main purpose of a materials syllabus is to break down the mass of knowledge to be learnt specified in an evaluation syllabus into manageable units. There are eight criteria for a materials syllabus design, namely, topic syllabus, structural/situational syllabus, functional/notional syllabus, skills syllabus, situational syllabus, functional/task-based syllabus, discourse/skills syllabus and skills and strategies syllabus (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 85). In some syllabuses such as topic syllabus and skills syllabus, a single criterion is at work, while other syllabuses blend two criteria together, such as structural/situational syllabus. This blending of criteria is extended into a multi-layered syllabus concept by McDonough (McDonough, 1998, p.48).

It then seems that the multi-layered syllabus extended from the national skills-oriented syllabus could be the optimal solution to many ways of language and specialty knowledge a SBE course has to handle. So, in addition to those conventional principles for language materials design, special attention should be paid to the following points in selecting texts and designing exercises.

    1. Materials should be both content-based and skill-focused.

    2. Materials should have their exercises similar to activities at target situations.

3. Materials should provide a stimulus to learning, containing interesting contexts and enjoyable activities.

4. Materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teachers and learners through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning.

5. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

6. Materials should provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

Materials grading is a seemingly easy yet controversial issue. McDonough (1984, p. 81) classifies the sequencing criteria into two main groups: sequencing according to linguistic criteria subdivided into 'difficulty' or 'complexity', 'frequency', 'length' and 'degree of control'; and ordering according to learning criteria, including 'receptive-productive', 'recognition-organization'.

For most materials, usually an integration of several criteria instead of a single criterion is at work. Possibly, any of the two or more criteria would be combined in a textbook. A frequently occurring feature of ESP materials is that many of them claim every unit can stand alone, so teachers have great freedom to choose those interesting and motivating topics. The progression between units often does not exist to retain a certain degree of flexibility of the material. However, the picture of materials home is somewhat monotonous as exercise types remain the same throughout the book and no criteria have been stated overtly about the selection of the reading passages.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What are materials?

(b) List about five criteria for material selection

3.2   Criteria/Principles for Material Production

There are several reasons why an author should choose to write a material instead of making do with the existing ones. It is either because it was not available commercially because such a textbook was very specific in a particular area or that the existing materials could not satisfy the learners' special needs, nor could they offer either language or content in depth. An existing textbook should only be selected if it satisfies the learner's needs. In doing the selection, the following should be considered as qualities of a good material:

➤ Good materials should be designed to help towards the achievement of set objectives characteristic of ESP. Effective materials should make the learners to put in the maximum effort but at the same time make them feel comfortable and confident that they can learn. It has been identified that the following characteristics help in making the learners feel more at ease and develop confidence in themselves as language learners:

➤ Materials with lots of white space are better than crammed pages with a number of activities.

➤ Materials, both texts and illustrations, related to the learners' culture is better.

> ➢ Materials which appear to teach them in a relaxed and supportive tone is better than those which only tests them.

> ➢ Materials which stimulate and challenge the learner and at the same time make the goal achievable is likely to improve learner confidence.

> ➢ Materials which engage the learners in learner-centred discovery activities and require their self-investment make them feel confident and firmly in control.

> ➢ Materials which offer feedback about the progress and help the learners check their own understanding make the learners take up the responsibility for their own learning with confidence and personal involvement.

> ➢ Materials could also make the learners feel at ease by not compelling them to produce in the target language before they are ready to do so. It should be possible to devise activities where the learners listen to a chunk of language and respond to it, either physically by doing some actions or by drawing sketches. Materials which involve both right and left brain activities and which gets the learners involved emotionally, intellectually and aesthetically would be more effective than the ones which rely too much on controlled practice.

> ➢ Materials need to take into account that the learning process, like the growth of a limb, is gradual and not sudden. So instead of expecting the learners to get it right the first time, materials should provide opportunities for gradual understanding of specific aspects of the target language by recycling items introduced.

To these criteria, Willis (1998b) also adds three principles for materials designers, which are:

Principle 1: Learning is a meaning system:

Halliday (1975) emphasizes that learning a second language involves the acquisition of a new system for realizing familiar meanings. Language does not exist in a vacuum, and it does not develop in a vacuum. It follows that materials we offer learners should allow them to focus on meanings in contexts and then go on to look at the wordings that realize the meanings. This is a major principle behind a task-based approach to course design. In setting tasks for the learners to achieve, the emphasis is first on learners' exchanging meanings to complete the task, using whatever language they can recall. Then they examine the language that fluent speakers or writers used to do the same task and focus on typical words, phrases and patterns (i.e., wordings) that occurred (Willis, 1998a).

Principle 2: Exposure to the target language in use is vital.

To acquire a new language system, learners need exposure to the kinds of language that they will need (Krashen, 1985). It follows then that whatever learners hear and read as part of their course needs to reflect, as far as possible, the typical features of the language of the learners' target discourse communities. The implication for a material designer is that if learners do not know why they are learning English, they need exposure to a broad and varied selection of materials that will encourage them to go on using English. The choice of language data, both recording of spoken language and written texts, is of vital pedagogical importance. Course designers should aim to choose a representative set of target types from accessible real life sources ⬜ samples that reflect the typical language features of the genre from the learners' present or future discourse communities. This is a major principle behind corpus-based approaches to language syllabus design and data-driven learning.

Principle 3: Some focus on language form is desirable

Although many people acquire a new language with no formal tuition (through exposure to the target language and opportunities to use it to express their own meanings), there is now some evidence that learners do better if, at some point, their attention is drawn to typical features of the language form (Skehan, 1994). This could be done through consciousness-raising exercises highlighting frequently used items to help learners perceive patterns and by challenging learners to communicate in circumstances where accuracy matters such as in making public presentation.

The question is, why design a material for teaching language? What are materials supposed to do? This brings us to some of the important contents of a good material or the principles which will guide us in the actual writing of materials. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 107), a good material should contain the following:

(a) Materials provide a stimulus to learning. As said before, good materials should be interesting and should contain enjoyable activities. This will engage the learners' thinking capacities and help them to use their existing knowledge.

(b) The function of material is to organize the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to the learner. It should provide a clear, and coherent structures, guiding the teacher and the learner through various learning activities.

(c) The structures should not be monotonous. The units should differ, with varying illustrations, texts, and exercises to arouse the interest of the learners. It should be clear and systematic, but also flexible to allow for creativity and variety.

(d) Your material should contain your view about the nature of language and learning. A good material should reflect what you think and feel about the learning process. What you think is the learning style of a particular learner will reflect what material you will give him or her. Don't develop or provide texts that are of no interest to anybody.

(e) Materials should reflect the nature of learning task. If language learning is a complex process, materials should try to create a balance outlook which should reflect this complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

(f) Good materials should broaden the teacher's training and introduce him/her to new techniques.

(g) Materials should provide correct and appropriate language use

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What are the principles that should guide you while writing a material for teaching?

(b) How can they facilitate language learning?

(c) What are the main characteristics of effective materials?

(d) How can materials be made suitable for different types of learners?

(e) What are some of the factors of language acquisition that materials producers should keep in mind while producing materials?

3.3 Elements of ESP Materials

In writing ESP material, there is need to provide a model for the integration of the various aspects of learning and at the same time make room for creativity and variety. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 108), the model consists of four elements: input, content focus, language focus and task.

Fig. 8: A Material Design Model

```
              ┌──────────────┐
              │    INPUT     │
              └──────────────┘
               ↙            ↘
  ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
  │   CONTENT    │      │  LANGUAGE    │
  └──────────────┘      └──────────────┘
               ↘            ↙
              ┌──────────────┐
              │    TASK      │
              └──────────────┘
```
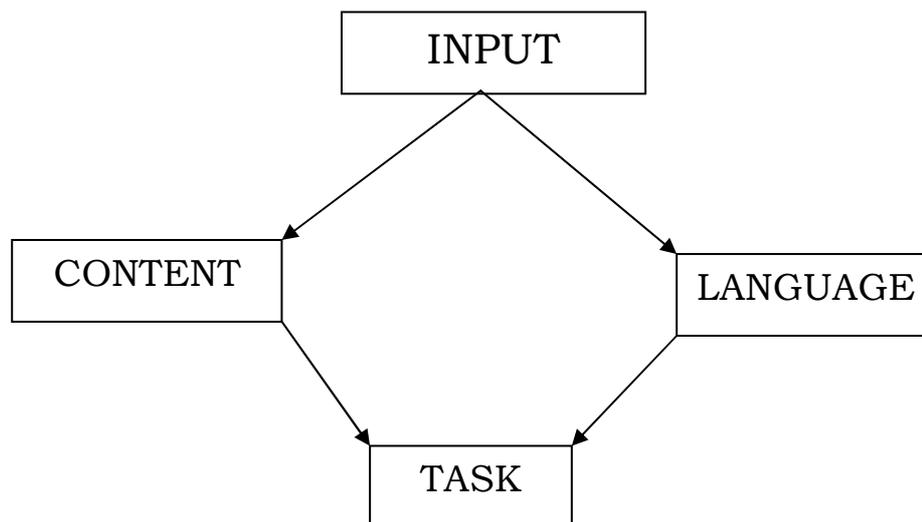
3.3.1   Input

The text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication forms the input. The input is necessary because it acts as a stimulus for material activities; it provides a new language item; it also provides correct models of language use and a topic for communication. Input also provides opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills and their existing knowledge, both of the language and the subject matter. As Brian Tomlinson (1998) asserts, "the input should vary in style, mode, medium and purpose and should be rich in features which are characteristic of authentic discourse in the target language. And if the learners want to be able to use the language for general communication, it is important that they are exposed to planned, semi-planned and unplanned discourse (e.g. a formal lecture, an informal radio interview, and a spontaneous conversation)."

3.3.2 Content Focus

Because language is not an end in itself, the linguistic and non-linguistic content should be exploited for meaningful communication orally or in written form in genuine work settings. Teachers could learn some content knowledge while learners are expected to learn both skills and language. Therefore, teachers and learners could help each other and learn from each other through the implementation of the course-book.

3.3.3 Language Focus

Materials that should be provided to learners should be that which they have enough knowledge of. Good materials are those that provide the learners with opportunities for

analysis and synthesis, that is, learners should be able to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practice putting it back together again.

3.3.4 Task

The concept of 'task' has become an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching and learner assessment (Nunan, 2006). Nunan defines a task as a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. He also emphasizes that the task-based language teaching has strengthened the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation. Ellis (2006) designs the task-based lesson into three phases: pre-task, during-task and post-task.

Materials can be made suitable to learners with different learning styles and affective attitudes by providing variety through different types of texts and activities to suit different learners, providing extra activities for highly motivated learners and providing activities to sensitize the learners to their own attitudes, feelings and learning styles.

Materials should also provide opportunities for interaction through a variety of tasks like information gap activities and creative writing or speaking activities. Good materials should lead to communicative tasks.

It should offer learners the opportunity to use the content and language knowledge they have acquired. The ultimate purpose of language learning is language use.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) Of the four elements in material writing, which is more important? Give reasons for your answer.

(b) Write briefly on a material design model

3.4 Design of Text Activities/Exercises

Text is a stretch of language that is organized in some way to form a coherent whole (Morrow, 1977). He went further to define an authentic text as "a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort." In other words, it is not a made up text produced by an imaginary speaker or writer for an imaginary audience and designed to practice specific language points rather than to convey real information. In ESP materials, for instance, it is possible to find authentic texts which have originally been produced for some purpose other than language teaching. For example, they may be extracts from 'real' articles or books or stretches of spontaneous and unprepared conversation.

Text as a learning material can be used for learning and practising wide range of skills. In ESP course it can be source for new vocabulary, communicative or reading skills. To work with a text as much effectively as possible, it is necessary to involve all students´ skills. It is preferred to combine working with printed text with listening to audio-cassette or video-cassette, that means, receptive with productive activities.

According to Huang and Xu (2005), to enable students to simulate the real world of work, the following features must be paid enough attention so as to develop skills in creative design.

1) Each activity is made up of two or more similar items, arranged to present a more demanding challenge as the activity progresses.

2) Activities are combined in a program focusing on the more basic skills, then, on the higher level ones.

3) Within a given activity, any particular type of experience is quickly repeated, so that familiarization can be followed by learning and consolidation.

4) Reflection on process is encouraged, as a means of improving performance and ability.

5) The carrier content must be specialty knowledge, for the progress is regarded as a means to an end, and the product in every activity must be immediately relevant and obviously useful.

6) The teaching method is "inter-disciplinary" or content-skill compatibility being concerned with both skills training and the mastery of specialty knowledge.

7) Authentic input should be adopted. Content-technical knowledge serves as a context which learners find appealing while the content should not override the teaching of communicative skills in that the ultimate goal is the skills rather than the content, which should mainly be dealt with in subject courses.

Concerning the ESP activities, it is necessary to keep in mind the context that should be consistent with studying subject matter. They include:

- Warming-up activities ☐ pre-teaching and activation of new vocabulary or grammar structures, discussing questions concerning the topic. We can use various types of plays, puzzles, collocation grids, questionnaires etc. to increase students´ interests in given topic and lead them into further problems. It is a kind of preparing step. For example, Wallace (1982) considers pre-reading activity very important for students motivation; topic or genre of the text is introduced e.g. with collective discussion or some pictures to be fully motivated (Wallace, 1982, p. 62). I see warming-up activities as a very important and necessary phase on which the next working process depends.

- Receptive activities ☐ work with a text itself, reading, listening. We can realize various reading strategies e.g. aloud, quietly, skimming, scanning, with or without translation, informative. They should lead to encouragement of students. We can distinguish language-based approaches (e.g. jigsaw reading, gap-filling) or approaches relating to content of the text. Both of them should aim students to be as much active and reflexive as possible.

- Productive activities ☐ practising of acquired knowledge. Work in pairs, in groups or individual with the help of the teacher, who takes notice of using target language. Summarization of lesson that should be done by students; it shows how students understand given topic.

- Follow-up activities – next is improving, developing, appropriate using of what has been learnt. We can practise it in a form of creative homework, exercises. Harmer (2001) states that large scale of skills and activities can be developed e.g. drawing characters, making discussion, creating some pictures, dramatic activities etc.

Thus, the principle of skills integration can be explained as the teaching of the language skills of reading, writing, listening, speaking and writing in conjunction with each other instead of separately when a lesson involves activities that relate listening and speaking to reading, writing and translating. Therefore, five skills all covered do not necessarily guarantee skills integration whose essential lies in the combination of several skills at a time like what is demanded in real-life. Moreover, other principles of exercises design also apply to material design; referring to exercises, design of vocabulary and design of translation exercises.

Self Assessment Exercise

(f)   What are the importance of text as a learning material in ESP?

(g)   Describe the four ways of deploying ESP text activities?

(h)   Name about five features that must be paid enough attention so as to develop skills in creative design.

3.5 Selecting Material

Choosing ESP materials determines the running of the course and underlines content of the lesson. Good material should help the teacher in organizing the course, or what is more, it can function as an introduction into the new learning techniques, and support teachers and learners in the process of learning. Materials are also a kind of teacher reflection, "they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 107). They went on to state that the criteria for selecting ESP material should be based on "…How well and how far it develops the competence of the learner, rather than on the basis of the extent to which it mirrors the performance data of the target situation."

Good material should be based on various interesting texts and activities providing a wide range of skills. Teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on but one piece of material can serve for developing more than one skill, e.g. reading, listening, vocabulary etc. "Teaching materials are tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course" (Graves, 1996: 27).

Since learner involvement is the key to language acquisition, materials should attract the attention of the learners by novelty and attractive presentation. They can arouse the curiosity and interest of the learners by an appealing content and variety. To understand what type of materials would be suitable for a particular group of learners, it is necessary to understand the learners' background and the culture of the country they belong to, their level, interest, and learning style.

Concerning the selection of 'General English' material and 'ESP' material some criteria must be matched as well. The language teacher is responsible for selecting an appropriate text that contributes to students´ effectiveness, which means that he or she should pay attention to suitable criteria for its choice. Wallace (1982, p. 91) suggests those main criteria:

- Adequacy - should be at the appropriate language, age level.

- Motivation - should present content which is interesting and motivating for students work. It good for students' effectiveness, interest, and pleasure of work.

- Sequence - it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, topics not to miss the sense of a lesson.

- Diversity - should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.

- Acceptability - it should accept different cultural customs or taboos.

Selecting an appropriate material regarding the main criteria is an essential phase in organizing each course. It may happen that learners´ needs and expectations are not met due to wrong a choice of material. "Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.107). Materials can be made suitable to learners with different learning styles and affective attitudes by providing variety through different types of texts and activities to suit different learners, providing extra activities for highly motivated learners and providing activities to sensitize the learners to their own attitudes, feelings and learning styles.

Learners' motivation can also be sustained by making the materials serve some real life purpose. Materials of this type, by being personally significant to the learners, add value to the whole learning process.

According to Huang and Xu (2005),in addition to those conventional principles for language materials design, special attention should be paid to the following points in selecting texts and designing exercises.

1) Materials should be both content-based and skill-focused.

2) Materials should have their exercises similar to activities at target situations.

3) Materials should provide a stimulus to learning, containing interesting contexts and enjoyable activities.

4) Materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teachers and learners through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning.

5) Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

6) Materials should provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

Thus, the principle of skills integration can be explained as the teaching of the language skills of reading,

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What are the criteria for selecting suitable ESP material?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Writing materials for ESP is a complex activity. It requires a great deal of time, effort and money. Whatever be the case, materials should be as relevant as possible to the learners' needs, ascertained through needs analysis. It should be interesting and thought provoking and should lead to a communicative task. As Tomlinson (1998) aptly points out, "……. in order to facilitate the gradual process of acquisition, it is important for materials to recycle

instruction and to provide frequent and ample exposure to the instructed language features in communicative use." ESP material writing, like any EFL material writing involves inputs of content, languages and tasks designing as described by Hutchinson & Waters (1987).

5.0 SUMMARY

A well written material has been discussed to have input, content focus, language focus and task. While the language and content are drawn from the input and are selected according to what the learners will need to do with the task, the task is the primary focus. The entire model or elements act as a vehicle which leads the learners to the point where they are able to carry out the task. The unit has also discussed the principles of a good material and what a teacher should bear in mind in selecting a material to be used in the classroom. Materials that do not meet the set objectives is a useless one We have also said that to acquire the target language effectively, learners need to engage actively in processing the meaning of whatever they hear and read. A variety of communication tasks can be designed, which will motivate and give learners a purpose for doing this. These tasks should also give learners practice in skills they will need. Thus materials designers have three distinct responsibilities: (a) providing language data for the course, (b) designing meaning-focused communication tasks arising out of those data that engage learners in meaning and that encourage genuine use of language, (c) designing form-focused language study exercises that raise learners' awareness of typical and useful formal features of language.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

   (a) Explain the qualities of a good material in ESP course design.

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Module 4: Unit 2

Using Authentic Materials

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The use of authentic materials in an EFL classroom is what many teachers involved in foreign language teaching have discussed in recent years. We have heard persuasive voices insisting that the English presented in the classroom should be authentic, not produced for instructional purposes. Generally, what this means is materials which involve language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use, or rather those selected contexts where standard English is the norm: real newspaper reports, for example, real magazine articles, real advertisements, cooking recipes, horoscopes, etc. Most of the teachers throughout the world agree that authentic texts or materials are beneficial to the language learning process, but what is less agreed is when authentic materials should be introduced and how they should be used in an EFL classroom. Caution should also be applied in the use of authentic materials

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

  (a) Define authentic text/material

  (b) Give some advantages of using authentic materials

  (c) Give some disadvantages of using authentic materials

  (d) Explain what a teacher should consider before using an authentic material

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Authentic Text/Material?

One of the important principles of communicative language teaching is that authentic language should be used in instruction whenever possible (Omaggio-Hadley, 1993). But some of the problems are determining what authentic materials are, why it is important to use authentic material in the classroom, and what are the sources for authentic materials?

The definitions of authentic materials are slightly different in literature. What is common in these definitions is 'exposure to real language and its use in its own community'. Harmer (1991) defines authentic texts as materials which are designed for native speakers; they are real text; designed, not for language students, but for the speakers of the language. Jordan (1997:113) refers to authentic texts as texts that are not written for language teaching purposes. Nunan and Miller (1995) define authentic materials as those which were not created or edited expressly for language learners. This means that most everyday objects in the target language qualify as authentic materials.

According to Robinson (1991:56-58), in-house produced materials are more specific for unique learning situation, "have greater face validity in terms of the language dealt with and the contexts it is presented in". Authentic materials differ from teacher-written textbooks in organization of vocabulary choices and grammatical structures. They appear to have no difficulty sequence, but they are used in the way of real profession situation. They are superior in relevance to learners' lives and jobs as well as in display of easy but realistic, ready-to-use language (Hwang, 2005).

Authentic materials is significant since it increases students' motivation for learning, makes the learner to be exposed to the 'real' language as discussed by Guariento & Morley (2001:347). For example, a radio news report brought into the class so students discuss the report on pollution in the city where learners live. They are Materials used in the target culture for actual communicative needs. They should enable the learner to hear, read, and produce language as it is used in the target culture. They are closely related to learner's needs and provide exposure to real language.

Many Second Language Acquisition researches have proved that when the learners felt a need to learn a language and were exposed to natural language in real life contexts and had enough opportunities for interaction with native speakers, they acquire the language easily. Even in formal learning situations it should be possible to help learners acquire the language by using effective materials.

Materials should engage the learners in meaningful interactions and provide a real purpose for the language learning activity.

Materials should provide exposure to authentic texts and expect the learners to respond to them mentally or physically.

Authentic texts are, however, hard to come by but what is important in ESP is that texts selected should satisfactorily answer the following questions:

- What is my material about?
- Why was it produced? and

- How was the material produced?

3.2 Advantages of Authentic Materials

Using authentic material in the classroom, even when not done in an authentic situation, and provided it is appropriately exploited, is significant for many reasons. Martinez (2002) summarized several benefits of using authentic materials.

- The first one is that by using authentic material, students are exposed to real discourse, as in videos of interview with famous people.

- Secondly, authentic materials keep students informed about what is happening in the world, so they have an intrinsic educational value.

- Thirdly, language change is reflected in the materials so that students and teachers can keep abreast of such changes.

- Fourthly, reading texts are ideal to teach/practise mini-skills such as scanning, e.g. students are given a news article and asked to look for specific information. Also, teachers can have students practice some of the micro-skills of listening, e.g. basically, students listen to news reports and they are asked to identify the names of countries, famous people, etc.

- Fifthly, different authentic materials such as books, articles, newspapers, and so on contain a wide variety of text types, and language styles not easily found in conventional teaching materials. Thus, it can help student extend their vocabulary and help them memorize such words in a number of meaningful recycling.

- Lastly, authentic materials can encourage reading for pleasure because they are likely to contain topics of interest to learners, especially if students are given the chance to have a say on the topics of kinds of authentic materials to be used in class. As a result, learners will keep high motivation and interest in language teaching through these meaningful interactions with the materials. Nunan (1999:212) also asserts that the use of authentic sources leads to greater interest and variety in the materials that learners deal with in the classroom. This authentic material helps bring the contact to life, and ultimately makes learning and using language more meaningful and, easy for students.

3.3 Disadvantages of Authentic Materials

However, there are drawbacks to using authentic materials in their raw form without adaptation or support. Gardener and Miller (1999) mention several disadvantages.

- The first disadvantage is the complexity of the language. Authentic materials may be too culturally biased or too difficult to understand outside the language community thereby making them inaccessible to beginners or elementary learners.

- The second disadvantage is the learning burden. Authentic materials may contain items, particularly vocabulary, which are of low frequency and of peripheral use to the learner and may never be encountered again.

184

- The third disadvantage is that in learning contexts, where authentic target-language materials are not readily available, obtaining them can be time consuming and frustrating.

Martinez (2002) also mentions two other weaknesses of using authentic materials:

- One is that some authentic listening materials have so many different accents that it is very hard for the learner to understand.

- The other is that the materials can become outdated easily, such as news in newspapers or magazines. Due to these reasons, some teachers may be frustrated by selecting and preparing these authentic materials for their learners.

Regardless of the drawbacks above of using authentic materials, if our teachers are enthusiastic and take advantage of the benefits and use them properly and in sufficient quantities, we may motivate our learners (Gardner & Miller, 1999). There are many sources of authentic materials (Gardner & Miller, 1999), such as newspapers, magazines, user manuals, leaflets and brochures, TV and radio programmes, videos, literature, songs, etc.

3.4 Sources of Authentic Materials

In today's globalized world, examples abound, but the most commonly used perhaps are: newspapers, TV programs, menus, magazines, the internet, movies, songs, brochures, comics, literature (novels, poems and short stories), and so forth. I would like to look at some authentic materials in a bit more detail and then move on to a variety of sample tasks.

Literature

In using literature, the focus should be on teaching language, not literature. In other words, the idea should be using literary texts as one kind among other texts. With that in mind, the tasks should aim at meaning and not form, especially literary form or stylistics.

Computer Software

Software that has been specially designed for English instruction has received some criticisms particularly from teachers who back up a humanistic approach to language teaching. They state that they see no reason why exercises that can be done with a textbook should be carried out with a computer. This idea stems from software such as *Gapkit*, *Grammar mastery II* and others that are really computer-guided drills. This position is quite understandable. However, together with *Tense Buster*, and others that drills are not all computers have to offer to EFL teaching.

There are other examples of adventure games where learners need to discover clues and unravel mysteries. These games usually involve a good amount of reading and with the use of multimedia, they involve a good range of sounds, speakers of different ages and accents, and excellent images. Students can play in pairs or threes and discuss what to do next, so that the interaction that takes place is also a part of the learning process. Another advantage these games have is that they promote computer literacy, a badly needed skill in the modern world.

The Internet

With the advent of the World Wide Web, teachers have at their disposal large amounts of texts, visual stimuli, newspapers, magazines, live radio and T.V., video clips and much more. There are endless lists of useful materials for the language classroom. I should like to focus mainly on newspapers and radio stations. As with other media, there is no point in asking students to just go to the web and read some text or other. There needs to be a task, preferably one in which meaning is central and has some connection to the real world. Treasure hunts and other information searching activities are probably the most useful. More and more sites have interactive sections. For example: http://www.bbc.co.uk/communicate/ which contains message boards and where students can chat with native speakers.

3.5 Authentic Tasks

The task, or what students are supposed to do with the given material, is what often makes all the difference. There is material that can be used for beginners, intermediate or advanced students, provided the task that comes with it is suitable. This task should relate to the student's own life as much as possible, as proposed by Clarke (1990). According to Martinez (2002), some of the tasks include:

   (a) **Want Adverts**

A series of 4-5 want adverts can be used with adults in the following way: beginners are asked to say which of the jobs they could qualify for, intermediate students can write an application letter or write a Curriculum Vitae, and advanced students may discuss who in the class could qualify for the job and why, re-write the adverts or role-play job interviews.

   (b) **Treasure Hunt**

Students get a news or magazine article and a sheet of paper with a series of questions so that they look for certain items: dates, events, people involved, etc.

   (c) **Menus**

Students willingly get involved in a role-play where one is a waiter/tress and 2-3 students are the customers, provided they have been supplied with the necessary functions and structures to carry out such task, i.e. sentences such as:

   "What would you like?", "I'll have...", "Anything else?", and so on

The menus have great potential as authentic material.

   (d) **Adverts in Magazines**

Guessing the Product: In this task, the teacher cuts out advertisements from magazines, hides the products being advertised and shows them to learners one by one to see if they can guess what product is being advertised. To practice specific vocabulary, the teacher gives learners three or four options per advert.

A second example involving magazine advertisements is the following: Students are set in groups of 3-4 and get some 4 adverts. They are to imagine they are working for an advertising agency and compare the adverts taking into account the texts and the

photographs. Students are to decide which the best is and which the worst is. Then they re-design the worst ad, including the text. Ads with short texts are used with basic students, whereas those containing more complex texts are for intermediate or advanced students.

(e) **The Agony Column**

Four or five letters to the agony column are cut in half and pasted onto cards. Students work in pairs or groups of three and match the beginnings with the corresponding endings of the letters, and they match the corresponding answer to each letter.

Travel Brochures

An example of how to use travel brochures is the following:

Students sit in groups of 4-5. They are given travel brochures of interesting places. They are to design a "phoney" brochure of an invented place. In it they include a mixture of characteristics of that place. E.g. rice is the typical food; you can visit a theme park, drink cocacola, etc.

On the level of day to day teaching, authentic materials can make individual lessons more interesting or salient. Teaching commands is a common part of language instruction and can be done straight from a grammar text. However, a more motivating, rich source of commands is also found in advertisements and instruction manuals. Using these authentic materials to teach the same point may help students remember the grammatical construction better and give them a sense of how the construct can be used in various contexts. Similarly, language classes often begin with greetings, but it may be difficult for students to grasp or remember how to greet whom as the social norms dictate. A video clip may be a helpful means of presenting these concepts and forms.

On a broader level, consistent use of authentic materials in the classroom keeps students grounded in the reality of the language, helping them to recognize that there is a community of users who live out their lives in this other language. Exposing students to authentic materials can also help them better understand the target culture and envision how they might participate in this community. For example, instead of introducing food vocabulary in the target language by providing equivalent translations in the students' native language, the teacher can instead introduce students to food vocabulary via an authentic menu, asking students to deduce the meanings of unfamiliar food items from context. Once meaning has been established, the vocabulary words can become part of a communicative exercise where students describe what is in a dish or role play a restaurant scene, requesting certain items. In this way, not only do students acquire new vocabulary but they are also exposed to typical ethnic foods found on menus.

Word of Caution

Morrow (1992) however warns that before we rush off to use authentic materials collected by us, we must check if they are appropriate for the learning experience we want to achieve through their use. We shall use the four questions checklist which includes:

(d) What is the material about? - Will my students want to deal with language on this subject?

(e) Why was my material designed? – will my students want to deal with language intended to do the same thing? (E.g. to entertain; to advise; to give instruction.)

(f) Who was my material produced for? – are my students in this category?

(g) How was my material produced? – was it written or spoken? Will my students have to deal with language like this in this mode?

If we can provide satisfactory answers to these questions, then I think we can safely incorporate the material into our teaching.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What do you understand by authentic materials?

(b) List five advantages of using authentic materials

(c) What are the disadvantages of using authentic materials

(d) The use of authentic texts must be done with caution. Explain

4.0   CONCLUSION

Authentic text is that which is normally used in then students' specialist area, written by specialists for specialists. For materials in ESP, authenticity should be the watchword. It demands that the learners should have positive perceptions about the materials they are using. They should be originally produced for some purposes rather than for language teaching. The learners should find them relevant to their target situation in terms of topic, function, channel and audience.

5.0   SUMMARY

It has been discussed that ESP texts and materials should be authentic. In the first part, the definition of authentic materials was given. Then advantages and disadvantages of the use of authentic materials were discussed. The unit has examined the sources of authentic materials in language learning. The overall aim is to use materials that are real and that should motivate the learners in getting to the target situation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) Mention at least four sources of authentic materials and describe how they can be used.

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Module 4: Unit 3

Material Evaluation

Contents

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Definition and Importance

3.2   Criteria for Material Evaluation

3.3   Types of Material Evaluation

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor Marked Test

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Having completed your needs analysis, the next thing is to turn the course design into actual teaching material. This involves material evaluation, material selection and material adaptation. This unit will examine these three terms with particular reference to material evaluation. The criteria for evaluating material will be examined and the different types of material evaluation discussed.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

You are expected, at the end of this unit, to be able to:

  (a) state the difference between material evaluation, material development and material adaptation.

  (b) give reasons why we evaluate material

  (c) suggest criteria for evaluating material and

  (d) describe the different types of material evaluation

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Differences between Material Development, Material Adaptation and Material Evaluation; Importance of Material Evaluation

There are three possible ways of material application: existing materials, materials writing and materials adaptation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 96).

Materials development/Design means writing or designing ones' own materials. Writing from scratch requires considerable experience, and time, and is usually inferior to what is already published. It involves the process of providing input to the learners in various forms and providing opportunities to exploit the materials for language acquisition and learning. Nearly all teachers of ESP find themselves involved in materials writing sooner or later, because textbooks are seldom written with a particular group in mind. ESP materials focus on aspects of English specific to the subject area. While producing our own materials, we should check that ESP materials meet target needs and that the language taught matches the language that the students will use. Besides, we should put emphasis on the development of specific skills and strategies for operating in the ESP context.

Project work approach fits comfortably within Teaching ESP since it responds to the learners' specific purposes, the students operate in the target language, it is activity and research based, multi-skilled (develops linguistic & research skills), involves learners in both individual and group work, uses authentic material, is set up in collaboration with subject teachers. It provides an opportunity for real world and classroom experience to overlap, gives learners a feeling of achievement. Besides project can also encourage positive classroom behaviours such as co-operation, enjoyment, motivation and interest. It can be an elegant culmination of the ESP course.

Material Adaptation is the process of modifying the existing materials to suit ones purpose. New materials are probably added, new exercises, new units, new topics

Material Evaluation involves a look at existing materials and selecting what you need from them. A Material writer judges the fitness of an existing material for the particular purpose he has in mind. It is common enough in ESP that teachers will have to choose their own textbook. All teachers can benefit - even the more experienced ones - by taking explicit steps to compare and evaluate the textbooks objectively, so that the textbook and the use of the textbook is the best match to the needs of the students. Subjective feelings should only be a guide - by establishing a list of criteria these feelings can be confirmed or shown to be wrong. In addition, I am assuming that normally the decision to use a textbook will involve discussion with other colleagues. It is far easier to discuss materials selection when objective criteria are established and agreed.

Evaluating materials for ESP is a vital skill which as Anthony (1997a) states "is perhaps the role that ESP practitioners have neglected most to date."(p. 3). Zhang (2007) set out a series of steps to evaluate materials used in class. Brunton (2009) evaluated a modern ESP course book designed for Hotel workers using these criteria. Ironically it is the very success of ESP that has given rise to this debate, and perhaps failure of recent ESP courses. Bookshelves are filled with a large amount of books designed for ESP students; this plethora of material thus reduces individual instructor's motivation to construct their own course content with a focus on the immediate learners' context and particular needs. Anthony (1997b) argues that "materials writers think very carefully about the goals of learners at all stages of materials production (p. 3). Clearly, this will not happen when designing or using a generic assigned course book. Gatehouse (2001) believes that there is a value in all texts, but goes on to say that "curricular materials will unavoidably be pieced together, some borrowed and others specially designed" (p. 10).

Anthony (1997b) has a very negative view of teaching from ESP course books believing that teachers are often slaves to the book or worse teach from textbooks which are unsuitable. Wright (1992), arguing against textbook courses, asserts that "The scope of existing materials

is often not appropriate to the needs of a particular group of trainees. Textbook courses are too broad or too narrow, too long or too short" (p. 9). However, he acknowledges that the reason for ESP courses often using textbooks is that teachers do not get paid to design their own specific materials for a specific class of students. Toms (2004, p.3) strongly argues, especially, against using a General English course book for learners with specific needs, stating that the '*course book has an ancillary, if any, role to play in the ESAP syllabus.*' Clearly, though, he is taking the narrow focus approach, which I do not agree with. Surely, we would want students to be able to talk about themselves and their lives along with an ability to read and summarize academic texts. A further argument for the use of General English in conjunction with specific English is put forward by Spack (1988) who discovers that academic students frequently have a problem with General English words. Finally, Skehan (1998) argues that using course books go against all notions of learning centredness with regard to the individual noting that "the scope to adapt material to learner differences is severely constrained" (p. 260). In my opinion though, if a proper needs analysis has been carried out and students are given the chance to negotiate the curriculum with the instructor, then a good ESP instructor can indeed adapt written materials and make informed choices as to what material to include and what to leave out.

In an ideal world, the instructor would have one to two hours of preparation time for every hour of teaching, this frequently does not happen, therefore textbooks are frequently a 'starting point' but not the end point when making decisions on what to teach in class.

The aims of evaluating materials are:

- To identify how successful the materials used in the classroom are. Firstly, we examine whether the materials are interesting and motivating for students. Secondly, whether students have enough input and practice and finally, whether there were enough different types of tasks in the material.

- To examine whether the materials fulfil the prescribed course objectives: We examine at the end of the lesson whether students are able to perform the required tasks successfully and whether teachers' perceptions of material and course objectives are clear.

- To examine the extent to which materials permit students to achieve the learning objectives: We look at whether the difficulty of the tasks is of the required level and observe how well students performed.

- To identify whether the designs of the materials are suitable for a task-based syllabus: Writing material makes you aware of what to look for in other people's written materials. You make a systematic check of the materials before taking a decision to purchase an already published work, to develop entirely new one or to adapt an existing one.

3.2 Importance of Material Evaluation

- Evaluating existing materials provides one with a good theoretical base for writing another material, which is an improvement on the former.

- It makes for the avoidance of reduplication of material.

- Good material is a stimulus to learning so it should be identified for effective teaching and learning;

- It provides a clear and coherent unit structures that guide the teacher and teacher and the learner.

- It makes for an improved and appropriate methodology.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is material evaluation?

(b) How can you distinguish material evaluation, material development and material adaptation?

(c) Why do we evaluate materials for language teaching?

3.3 Evaluation Process

Hutchinson and Waters gave the following as the processes of evaluation:

(a) Defining Criteria

(b) Subjective analysis

(c) Objective analysis

(d) Matching

3.3.1   Defining Criteria

The first in evaluation is to define criteria one should use for judging the material. It is a checklist of criteria for objective and subjective analysis. This should be considered and stated properly. Criteria are defined by asking oneself the following questions: 'On what bases will I judge materials? Which criteria will be more important?' The subsequent analysis is two-fold – both subjective and objective and focuses on several main criteria: audience, aims, content, and methodology.

3.3.2   Subjective Analysis

Subjective analysis takes into consideration what criteria teachers want in their course. It deals with your feelings about the material – what attracts us first to a published work such as an attractive cover, the persuasive publisher's blurb, a list of content that seems to cover everything, a clearly set out text. You may also like a text because a friend recommended it, the size or price is convenient. Subjective analysis also includes what the aims should be, the language description, learning theories, methodology, price range, etc.

3.3.3   Objective Analysis

The objective analysis will tackle the question 'How does the material being evaluated realize the criteria?' It deals with everything actual about the material. The evaluator seeks to find out what was actually done in the text or material in terms of language description, work on

language skill, micro skills needed, text type, number of chapters and pages. There is no room for assumption in objective analysis.

3.3.4 Matching

The final matching stage is the one in which we try to assess to what extent the material meets our needs. The question now is 'Will the materials I have chosen help me in actualizing the identified target and learning needs?' If the answer is no, there is need to develop an entirely new material or make some adaptations to suit your purpose.

    i) Evaluation is basically a matching process: matching needs to available solutions. Ultimately the decision is subjective.

    ii) It helps to know what you are looking for, and your priorities

    iii) It helps to have a checklist : it lists the features and gives priority ratings to the features

    iv) It helps if two or more people do the work.

    v) Actively compare how two or more books deal with a language point/skill/topic.

    vi) Distinguish between:

        (a) global appraisal.. overall approach and content

        (b) detailed evaluation, of one unit of a book.

Self Assessment Exercise

    (a)   Write short note on each of the processes of material evaluation.

    (b)   Which of the processes is more important in ESP and why?

3.4 Types of Material Evaluation

There are three main types of material evaluation. They are preliminary evaluation, performance or summative evaluation, and revision or formative evaluation.

3.4.1   Preliminary Evaluation: This takes place before the commencement of an ESP course. It involves selecting the most appropriate from the publications that are available. It presupposes the existence of a checklist of features which one wants the textbook to have, written down in order of priority.

3.4.2   Performance or Summative Evaluation: Referred to as ultimate evaluation, this kind of evaluation takes place at the end of a course and it is aimed at finding out whether the material was effective. According to Alderson (1979), "it makes use of tests administered before and after the programme". It also ascertains the effectiveness of the ESP course in preparing students for the subsequent work or study experience. Other instruments to be used apart from test are checklist and questionnaire.

3.4.5   Revision or Formative Evaluation: Alderson (Ibid) went further to state that revision evaluation is conducted while the course is ongoing so as to make modifications to the materials. The main techniques used are tests, questionnaires and interviews. The purpose of the test is to examine the material not the students. The test should be administered frequently, may be, after every unit. 60% error shows that the material is

difficult or that there is something wrong with the instructor's procedure. Because it is carried out in the life of a course, the result is often used to modify what is being done. Alderson suggested the inclusion of "discussion and observation" as methods of revision evaluation.

Self Assessment Exercise

      (a) Mention and explain the three types of material evaluation

      (b) Material evaluation includes the following:

           (i) _____

           (ii) _____

           (iii) _____

           (iv) _____

      (c) What is the difference between preliminary evaluation and summative material evaluation?

3.5 Course-book Evaluation

An already existing course-book can be evaluated using the following criteria:

Name of Book   : _____

Author(s)   : _____

Publisher   : _____

Year of Publication : _____

3.5.1 Logistical Factors

1. *Is the cost of the book within the institute's budget?*

2. *What additional investment is required?*

    Think about cassettes, video, CALL, etc.

3. *How easily can the book be bought both now and later?*

    Will the delay in receiving the book be acceptable?

    Is it likely to remain in print?

4. *Does the book fit local schedule requirements?*

3.5.2 Pedagogical Factors

5. How is the rationale of the book realized?

    Does the material reflect the stated rationale of the authors and publishers?

    If not, why not?

6. *Does the rationale of the book fit that of the local curriculum?*

7. *How do the different components tie together?*

    Think about exercises, units, and books.

8.   *What language is covered?*

> Does the book give the students adequate practice in the language they are required to master?

9.   *Does the book recycle language frequently enough?*

10. *What skills are covered?*

> Does the book give the students adequate practice in the skills they are required to master?

11. *What tasks are covered?*

> Does the book give the students adequate practice in the tasks demanded by the curriculum?

12. *What topics are covered?*

> Does the book cover topics included in the curriculum?

> Does the book avoid topics which are culturally unacceptable?

13. *How authentic is the material?*

> Does the material give students realistic exposure to the language?

14. *What is the book's approach to testing?*

> Does the book meet local testing requirements?

> Is the rationale of the tests in keeping with that of the book?

15. *What is missing from the book?*

> Draw up a list of the book's shortcomings based on the above analyses.

> Do its advantages outweigh its disadvantages?

3.5.3 Human Factors

16. *What teachers are expected to use the book?*

> Is the book aimed at teachers similar to those employed?

17. *What is the teachers' role?*

> Does the book require teachers to adopt unfamiliar roles?

18. *What guidance does the book give to teachers?*

> Does the teachers' book *help* teachers?

19. *How easily can the book be adapted?*

> Look at the list of the book's shortcomings.

> Take a unit at random.

> How many exercises would you omit, adapt or supplement?

> Is an inordinate amount of work involved in supplementing and adapting the book?

20. *How frequently do teachers need to prepare tests?*

> Is an inordinate amount of work involved in supplementing and adapting the book's tests?

21. Will the book appeal to and motivate our students?

22. How easily can students find their way around the book?

Is the book "*user-friendly*?"

23. Will our teachers use the book in the way envisaged?

4.0   CONCLUSION

The process of elaborating and adapting the materials used in the ESP classroom is a very complex one, entailing close co-operation between all stakeholders, teachers and students alike and at the same time an imperatively dynamic one, requiring permanent reviewing and supervision. As it has been previously asserted, the processes of curriculum development include needs analysis, setting objectives, development of syllabus, selection, adaptation, production of materials (resources), methodology and evaluation. Once the needs analysis and course design processes are completed, we must focus on the next stage, i.e. the implementation part. The possibilities at hand are the following: either to resort to existing materials, such as different textbooks by different authors or to modify existent materials and to adapt them to the specific learning situations, or to compile one's own teaching materials.

Most of the times, nevertheless, the solution is a middle way, that is achieving some sort of complementarities between selection and production, adaptation in itself being a combination of the previous two. In effect, writing materials may prove a very rewarding experience, if disheartening. Materials writers can understand better the shortcomings of other materials by looking at them critically and at the same time sympathetically. It is essential for teachers to be able to evaluate correctly the materials they use and thus devise the best methods to improve them and to put them to their best use.

5.0   SUMMARY

A material is not just used for using sake. It should be evaluated at the beginning, as the course is going on and at the end of the course. The unit has looked into the process of material evaluation, why we evaluate materials and the different types of material evaluation. The overall aim of evaluation is to enable the course designer to know what to select, when to develop a new material and when to adapt the existing material to meet the learner's specific needs identified in the needs analysis.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSESSMENT

Why and how are ESP Materials evaluated?

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Module 5

Testing and Evaluation

Introduction

The fifth Module talks about evaluation and assessment in ESP. Evaluation is a process, which begins with determining what information to gather and which ends with learners and courses. It makes use of quantitative methods (e.g. tests) and qualitative methods (e.g. interview and questionnaire). It can be formative (on-going) or summative (end-of-course).

Unit 1 Evaluation and Testing: Meaning, Effects and Purpose

Unit 2 Types of Evaluation

Module 5: Unit 1

Evaluation and Testing: Meaning, Effects and Purpose

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

As we have tried to establish in the whole course work, ESP is of utilitarian value to the learners who are undergoing a course for a purpose; the course sponsors, who also know why they are sponsoring the course. As much is expected of ESP programme, there must be a way of ascertaining when the learners have learnt and whether the course is effective, achieving its goal. In the words of Hutchinson and Waters (1987)

> ESP is accountable teaching. ESP learners and sponsors are investors in ESP course and they want to see a return on their investment of time and/or money. The managers of the ESP course are accountable to these investors. This accountability has produced a demand for more and better evaluation procedures (p. 144)

This unit will examine the terms evaluation/assessment/test (often used interchangeably). You should however know they don't exactly mean the same thing. The benefits of testing to whoever that is concerned will also be examined.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to

       (a) define and explain the terms evaluation and testing;

       (b) state some of the benefits of testing

       (c) state some of the effects of testing and assessment

       (d) describe communicative testing, stating some of the features

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Testing/Evaluation/Assessment?

Evaluation is a process, which begins with determining what information to gather and which ends with bringing about changes in current activities or future ones (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). It applies to both learners and courses. It makes use of quantitative methods (e.g. tests) and qualitative methods (e.g. interview and questionnaire). It can be formative (on-going) or summative (end-of-course). Evaluating students' work, teachers' work or course evaluation are the necessary parts of each learning and teaching process. Evaluation is not only a motivating factor but also shows students' progress or effectiveness in the course, or on the other hand it can disclose possible inadequacies that are not successfully covered. It helps teacher to provide information whether he or she does a good job or not. There exist many types of tests, questionnaires, tasks or the evaluation can be done in form of talk (discussions, interviews). The test is perhaps the best way for learner assessment. Teacher finds if the content of course meets learner´s expectation and whether the learner is able to dispose with the new information and employs learnt skills in a particular situation. "This assessment takes on a greater importance in ESP, because ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992:144).

Testing could be defined as a pause at reasonable intervals to look back at how well the students are performing. It is a kind of assessment. Other methods of assessing a child's work are by asking the child some questions or taking a look at certain works performed by the child at his extra time. Testing or assessment is a useful working instrument at the teacher's tool box.

Language testing is a complex activity tasking the teaching's ingenuity. It is the duty of the teacher to know the appropriate test materials for different language skills.

The technique for assessing speech work and the type of assessment instrument may not be identical with the technique and type of assessment instrument you will require for assessing reading comprehension. In testing, the teachers should not rely on only the questions set by the textbook writers. You need to draw up your own questions and it must be well framed. You should utilize different questioning techniques and make your instructions as clear and unambiguous as possible.

Hughes (1989:1) refers to the effect of testing on teaching and learning as "backwash". Backwash is something which can be harmful or beneficial depending on the handling. It is harmful if the preparation dominates all teaching and learning activities and if the "test content and testing techniques are at variance with the objectives of the course". A test should test the language skill it is intended to test. Multiple choice items should not be used to test

writing skill. Situations like this result to "harmful backwash". Where the design of a test brings about beneficial changes in the syllabus and higher standard in English for students, it is a "beneficial backwash".

For Davis (1968:5), "the good test is an obedient servant since it follows and apes the teaching". Hughes (1989:2) disagrees. He sees the relationship between teaching and testing as that of 'partnership'. Testing is not always a servant to teaching because there are occasions where teaching is good and appropriate and testing is not; and equally, there may be occasions when teaching is poor or inappropriate and testing is able to exert a beneficial influence. Testing should not always follow teaching rather it should be supportive of good teaching and where necessary exert a corrective influence on bad teaching.

There are many effects which testing can have on teaching and learning. It has significant influence on how a teacher works with the learners and also influences how learners learn.

Self Assessment Exercise

Testing or assessment is a useful working instrument at the teacher's tool box. Discuss.

3.2 Purpose of Testing

Information about people's language ability is often very useful and sometimes necessary. The type of test determines why it is needed (Proficiency test, placement test, etc.). In the teaching systems test measures the students' achievement in the second or foreign language. Tests also provide information about the achievement of groups of learners without which it is difficult to see how rational educational decisions can be made.

Language testers should first of all be clear about the purpose of testing in a particular situation. This is because different purposes will usually require different kinds of tests. Hughes (1989, p.7) identifies the following as the different purposes of testing:

- To measure language proficiency, regardless of any language courses that candidates may have followed

- To discover how far students have achieved the objectives of a course of study

- To diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses, to identify what they have learnt and what they have not learnt.

- To assist placement of students by identifying the stage or part of a teaching programme most appropriate to their ability

It could be summarized that tests and testing are of great benefit to the child or learner, the teacher and to educational practices.

3.2.1 Benefits to the Learner:

It is a source of help and encouragement in his/her work, which may help him/her to progress in his/her work/learning. The child sees at a glance where s/he stands and decides on his/her own the amount of effort to put in future.

Secondly, when the assessment is done in a loving, honest manner, the students can assess their works themselves. The teacher can tell the students what to look for in the assessment in advance. This enables them to mark each other's work, though subject to the teacher's cross-checking. A child who could assess another's work could assess himself.

In addition, an assessment in which the teachers visit the student at home gives the child the feeling that the teachers care about his/her progress. To achieve all these, the teacher should be fair and honest in his assessment, he should avoid being an extreme assessor, that is, one who says 'very good' or 'excellent' to one student and to another 'very poor'. The teacher should operate an open door policy and win the confidence of the children. Finally, the teacher must not show preference or dislike for some students, either in attitude or in the way their scripts are marked.

3.2.2 Benefits to the Teacher

Testing is the best way of ensuring maximum effectiveness in the teaching programme. A teacher will be able to adapt the teaching process to the needs of the students.

It enables the teacher to identify the areas of weaknesses, either of an individual or members of the entire class. The teacher does this by writing down all the errors the students can possibly make and ticking against each time the error is committed. It is diagnostic in nature.

Testing enables the teacher to determine the pupils' readiness for the learning task that has been set for them. It also helps in determining the sequence of programme tasks to be followed. After assessment, one may have to re-arrange what one intended teaching after realizing through the administered test that the class needs more practice in the previous lesson.

In addition, test helps the teacher to evaluate himself/herself. Mass failure of the students is an indication that the lesson was not well taught. A teacher should always take a critical look at his/her role as a teacher.

Finally, testing helps the teacher to place the child well. Positioning, promotion, admissions into certain schools and jobs are all dependent on test scores and analysis of results.

3.2.3 Benefits to Educational Practices

The Nigerian National Policy on education advocates continuous assessment and summative examination for certification. Assessment is important for record keeping. The students should be tested severally and the aggregate recorded before the final assessment. It is a device for clarifying objectives. It discovers strengths and weaknesses of pupils and programmes.

Self Assessment Exercise

  (a) What is evaluation?
  (b) Of what benefit is ESP testing?

3.3 Communicative Language Testing

You should note that if ESP involves communicative methodology, the testing should also be communicative in nature. This is measuring students' ability to take part in acts of communication. A communicative language testing is bound to concern itself with 'capacity' (Widdowson, 1983) or 'communicative ability' (Bachman, 1990). It tests communicative performance or students' language ability in one isolated situation or specific context of use. Alderson and Hughes (1981) accept that to follow the communicative paradigm one needs to

define what it is that students have to do with language in a specific situation or series of situations and recognize that by specifying performance in this manner, "one might end up describing an impossible variety of situations which one cannot encompass for testing purposes" (p.59).

Weir (1990) identifies the following as some of the distinguishing features of communicative tests:

- Test constructions must closely identify those skills and performance conditions that are the most important components of language use in particular context and incorporate them where appropriate. This will indicate the degree to which the test task reflects the attributes of the activity in real life that it is meant to replicate.

- The sample of communicative language ability in our tests should be as representative as possible. Tests should meet the performance conditions of the context as fully as possible.

- Integrative approach to assessment is strongly recommended as against a decontextualised approach. Language devoid of context (linguistic, discoursal and socio-cultural) is meaningless.

- Authenticity of tasks and the genuiness of texts in tests should be pursued. Different tests need to be constructed to match different purposes.

- Test of oral interaction should reflect the interactive nature of normal spoken discourse, conducted under normal time constraint, paying attention to the element of unpredictability in oral interaction.

- In the area of marking, the holistic and qualitative assessment of productive skills and the implications of this for test reliability need to be taken on board. There is this demand for criterion-referenced approach to testing communicative language ability.

- Testers under communicative paradigm have the greater pressure to validate tests because of an expressed desire to make the tests as direct as possible, both in terms of tasks and criteria.

- Communicative testing requires a high degree of explicitness both at the test design stage, where one is concerned with the required result and at the evaluation stage where one is estimating the acquired result. It should have a beneficial backwash effect in encouraging the development of communicative capacity in the classroom (p. 10).

3.4 Authenticity in Language Testing

If you remember that ESP supports the use of authentic materials, you will now also understand that there should also be authenticity in language testing. Bachman (1990), defines authenticity as a quality of the relationship between features of the test and those of the non-test target-use context. There are two approaches on authenticity; the real-life approach and the interactional ability approach. 'Real-life (RL) approach' tries to develop tests that mirror the 'reality' of non-test language use. This approach has been considered as naive because the test setting itself does not exactly resemble its real-life setting, also, "this approach does not distinguish between language ability and the context in which this ability is observed since non-test language performance constitutes the criterion for authenticity and the definition of proficiency" (p.302).

In the second approach, the authenticity of language tests arises from their 'situational' and their 'interactional' authenticity. 'Situational authenticity' refers to the relationship of features of the test method to particular features of the target-use situation. 'Interactional authenticity' mentions the extent to which an examinee's language ability is engaged in the test task. Thus, the emphasis in this model shifts from "attempting to sample actual instances of non-test language use to that of determining what combination of test method facets is likely to promote an appropriate interaction of a particular group of test takers with the testing context" (Bachman, 1990, p. 317).

Assessment can be used to improve instruction and help students take control of their learning (Bostwick & Gakuen, 1995). Accordingly, it is also necessary to briefly examine 'backwash effect' as a concept.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Evaluation or testing is a wrap up of teach-learn activity. The benefits cannot be over-emphasized. Evaluation of the learners reflects not just the learners' performance but to some extent the effectiveness or otherwise of the course too. A successful ESP course is the one that has enabled particular learners to do particular things with language. Where this is not so, it is an indication of the fact that something is wrong with the course design or that the objectives are ambiguous.

5.0   SUMMARY

It is the role of evaluation to give feedback for the onerous job of teaching and learning. In this unit, we have examined what is meant by evaluation and testing. Because ESP is a communicative language teaching, we have also looked at communicative testing and the features that make it so. The benefits of testing were also highlighted.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What do you understand by communicative testing?

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Module 5: Unit 2

Types and Functions of Evaluation and Testing

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Now that you have learnt the meaning of evaluation and its great importance to ESP, this unit will examine further the types and functions of evaluation. The aim of ESP is helping learners achieve communicative competence in the target language, that is, satisfying the learners target and learning needs. Evaluation performs many functions in ESP. The learners as well as the course are assessed to find out if the goals and objectives of the course have been achieved. The classification of evaluation in ESP is dependent on the purpose it is meant to achieve. This unit will look into these classifications.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

   (a) define and explain each of the types of ESP evaluation and when they are used.

   (b) state some of the functions of Evaluation

   (c) distinguish between formative and summative evaluation

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Evaluation

Evaluation usually deals with the learners' performance in terms of mastery or non-mastery of language programme objectives, when current performance is measured versus desired performance by means of testing, using both quantitative and qualitative criteria. There exist different approaches to evaluation; it can be product-oriented (summative evaluation) and/or process–oriented (formative evaluation) (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Robinson, 1991). It can be quantitative (based on quantitative criteria) and/or qualitative (based on qualitative criteria). All these types of evaluation are complementary and not mutually exclusive, their interdependence being of great importance to obtain valid findings.

Evaluation may serve two, complementary functions. In one context, the aim is prospective, or *formative* -- to improve, to understand strengths in order to amplify them, or to isolate weaknesses to mend. The other context is retrospective, or *summative* -- to assess concrete achievement, perhaps as part of a process of acknowledgement or giving awards. Here are some ways to think about the distinction further:

3.1.1 Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation (sometimes referred to as internal) is typically conducted during the development or improvement of a program or product (or person, and so on) and it is conducted, often more than once, for in-house staff of the program with the intent to improve. The reports normally remain in-house; but serious formative evaluation may be done by an internal or an external evaluator or preferably, a combination; of course, many program staff are, in an informal sense, constantly doing formative evaluation. Formative evaluation is conducted to provide program staff evaluative information useful in improving the program.

The purpose of formative evaluation is to validate or ensure that the goals of the instruction are being achieved and to improve the instruction, if necessary, by means of identification and subsequent remediation of problematic aspects.

Formative assessment helps teachers determine next steps during the learning process as the instruction approaches the summative assessment of student learning. A good analogy for this is the road test that is required to receive a driver's license. What if, before getting your driver's license, you received a grade every time you sat behind the wheel to practice driving? What if your final grade for the driving test was the average of all of the grades you received while practicing? Because of the initial low grades you received during the process of learning to drive, your final grade would not accurately reflect your ability to drive a car. In the beginning of learning to drive, how confident or motivated to learn would you feel? Would any of the grades you received provide you with guidance on what you needed to do next to improve your driving skills? Your final driving test, or summative assessment, would be the accountability measure that establishes whether or not you have the driving skills necessary for a driver's license—not a reflection of all the driving practice that leads to it. The same holds true for classroom instruction, learning, and assessment.

Another distinction that underpins formative assessment is student involvement. If students are not involved in the assessment process, formative assessment is not practiced or implemented to its full effectiveness. Students need to be involved both as assessors of their own learning and as resources to other students. There are numerous strategies teachers can

implement to engage students. In fact, research shows that the involvement in and ownership of their work increases students' motivation to learn. This does not mean the absence of teacher involvement. To the contrary, teachers are critical in identifying learning goals, setting clear criteria for success, and designing assessment tasks that provide evidence of student learning.

One of the key components of engaging students in the assessment of their own learning is providing them with descriptive feedback as they learn. In fact, research shows descriptive feedback to be the most significant instructional strategy to move students forward in their learning. Descriptive feedback provides students with an understanding of what they are doing well, links to classroom learning, and gives specific input on how to reach the next step in the learning progression. In other words, descriptive feedback is not a grade, a sticker, or "good job!" A significant body of research indicates that such limited feedback does not lead to improved student learning.

There are many classroom instructional strategies that are part of the repertoire of good teaching. When teachers use sound instructional practice for the purpose of gathering information on student learning, they are applying this information in a formative way. In this sense, formative assessment is pedagogy and clearly cannot be separated from the instruction. It is what good teachers do. The distinction lies in what teachers actually do with the information they gather. How is it being used to inform instruction? How is it being shared with and engaging students? It's not teachers just collecting information/data on student learning; it's what they do with the information they collect.

Some of the instructional strategies that can be used formatively include the following:

- **Criteria and goal setting** with students engages them in instruction and the learning process by creating clear expectations. In order to be successful, students need to understand and know the learning target/goal and the criteria for reaching it. Establishing and defining quality work together, asking students to participate in establishing norm behaviours for classroom culture, and determining what should be included in criteria for success are all examples of this strategy. Using student work, classroom tests, or exemplars of what is expected helps students understand where they are, where they need to be, and an effective process for getting there.

- **Observations** go beyond walking around the room to see if students are on task or need clarification. Observations assist teachers in gathering evidence of student learning to inform instructional planning. This evidence can be recorded and used as feedback for students about their learning or as anecdotal data shared with them during conferences.

- **Questioning strategies** should be embedded in lesson/unit planning. Asking better questions allows an opportunity for deeper thinking and provides teachers with significant insight into the degree and depth of understanding. Questions of this nature engage students in classroom dialogue that both uncovers and expands learning. An "exit slip" at the end of a class period to determine students' understanding of the day's lesson or quick checks during instruction such as "thumbs up/down" or "red/green" (stop/go) cards are also examples of questioning strategies that elicit immediate information about student learning. Helping students ask better questions is another aspect of this formative assessment strategy.

- **Self and peer assessment** helps to create a learning community within a classroom. Students who can reflect while engaged in metacognitive thinking are involved in their learning. When students have been involved in criteria and goal setting, self-evaluation is a logical step in the learning process. With peer evaluation, students see each other as resources for understanding and checking for quality work against previously established criteria.

- **Student record keeping** helps students better understand their own learning as evidenced by their classroom work. This process of students keeping ongoing records of their work not only engages students, it also helps them, beyond a "grade," to see where they started and the progress they are making toward the learning goal.

All of these strategies are integral to the formative assessment process, and they have been suggested by models of effective middle school instruction.

3.1.2 Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation (sometime referred to as external) is popularly called "assessment", "grading", "marking", or "testing". The purpose, according to Hamp-Lyons and Heasley is "to inform the teacher, the learner and, often, others, as precisely as possible, how far the learner has progressed towards control over the written language." Summative evaluation provides information on the product's efficacy (its ability to do what it was designed to do). For example, did the learners learn what they were supposed to learn after using the instructional module? In a sense, it lets the learner know "how they did," but more importantly, by looking at how the learner's did, it helps you know whether the product teaches what it is supposed to teach.

Summative assessment at the classroom level is an accountability measure that is generally used as part of the grading process. The list is long, but here are some examples of summative assessments:

- State assessments

- interim assessments

- End-of-unit or chapter tests

- End-of-term or semester exams

- Scores that are used for accountability for schools (AYP) and students (report card grades) (Saddler, 1998).

The key is to think of summative assessment as a means to gauge, at a particular point in time, student learning relative to content standards. Although the information that is gleaned from this type of assessment is important, it can only help in evaluating certain aspects of the learning process. Because they are spread out and occur *after* instruction every few weeks, months, or once a year, summative assessments are tools to help evaluate the effectiveness of programs, school improvement goals, alignment of curriculum, or student placement in specific programs. Summative assessments happen too far down the learning path to provide information at the classroom level and to make instructional adjustments and interventions *during* the learning process. It takes formative assessment to accomplish this.

The judgment is recorded for consultation by the learner's parents, head teacher, for admission purposes or by other authorities. Once recorded, the learner cannot do anything to improve on that. Summative evaluation is typically quantitative, using numeric scores or letter grades to assess learner achievement, such as 8/10, 12/20, 65/100 or grades such as A-; C+; F.

We can also distinguish between formative and summative evaluation. This is as seen in the table below:

Formative Vs Summative Evaluation

Formative	Summative
Primarily prospective	Primarily retrospective
Analyzes strengths and weaknesses towards improving	Documents achievement
Develops habits	Documents habits
Shape direction of professional development	Show results of such forays
Opportunity to reflect on meaning of past achievements.	Evidence of regular formative evaluation
Feedback	Evidence

Source: CETaL: http://sunconference.utep.edu/CETaL/resources/portfolios/form-sum.htm

Ideally, the two modes are complementary. Also, as noted in the table above, the *process* of formative evaluation may be an important component in summative evaluation.

What questions do you hope to answer? You may wish to turn the programme components that you have identified into questions assessing:

- Was the component completed as indicated?

- What were the strengths in implementation?

- What were the barriers or challenges in implementation?

- What were the apparent strengths and weaknesses of each step of the intervention?

- Did the recipient understand the intervention?

- Were resources available to sustain project activities?

- What were staff perceptions?

- What were community perceptions?

- What was the nature of the interaction between staff and clients? What questions do you hope to answer? You may wish to turn the program components that you have just identified into questions assessing:

- Was the component completed as indicated?

- What were the strengths in implementation?

- What were the barriers or challenges in implementation?

210

- What were the apparent strengths and weaknesses of each step of the intervention?
- Did the recipient understand the intervention?
- Were resources available to sustain project activities?
- What were staff perceptions?
- What were community perceptions?
- What was the nature of the interaction between staff and clients?

3.1.3 Process Evaluation

Process evaluation addresses how a project was conducted, in terms of consistency with the stated plan of action and the effectiveness of the various activities within the plan.

Why is Process Evaluation Important?

(1) To determine the extent to which the program is being implemented according to plan

(2) To assess and document the degree of fidelity and variability in program implementation, expected or unexpected, planned or unplanned

(3) To compare multiple sites with respect to fidelity

(4) To provide validity for the relationship between the intervention and the outcomes

(5) To provide information on what components of the intervention are responsible for outcomes

(6) To understand the relationship between program context (i.e., setting characteristics) and program processes (i.e., levels of implementation).

(7) To provide managers feedback on the quality of implementation

(8) To refine delivery components

(9) To provide program accountability to sponsors, the public, clients, and funders

10. To improve the quality of the program, as the act of evaluating is an intervention.

3.1.4   Product evaluation

This is the evaluation of the outcome of the program to decide to accept, amend, or terminate the program, using criteria directly related to the goals and objectives (i.e. put desired student outcomes into question form and survey pre- and post-). Judging training outcome and the costs incurred for a program offering. This also involves relating the outcomes to pre-specified objectives and considering both positive and unintended outcomes.

3.2 Functions of Evaluation

Evaluation can perform two functions: assessment and feedback. The two can provide important input to the content and methods for future work. Hutchinson and Waters (1992:144) stress two prominent levels of evaluation based on assessment and feedback: 'learner assessment' and 'course evaluation'.

3.2.1 Learner Assessment

This is the assessment of students performance at strategic points in the course, e.g., at the beginning or at the end of the course. In ESP, what is tested is the communicative competence of the learners as ESP is concerned with the learners' abilities to perform communicative tasks. This forms a basis for decisions to be made by sponsors, teachers and learners. A number of tests are available in EAP/EOP for evaluating learner performance. Placement tests, achievement tests and proficiency tests are three basic types of assessment. Although tests are here to stay, there is a pervasive prejudice against testing (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). As a matter of fact, tests play an important role in the teaching-learning process. Tests provide feedback to inform teachers and learners about what and how they might improve their future work. Therefore, we need to develop a positive attitude to tests (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Learner assessment is made up of the following:

(a) Placement Tests

These are tests given to learners at the beginning of a new course. This is to determine what the learners know in the second language. The teacher uses the result to place them into suitable classes or groups. Placement tests are constructed for particular situations. No one placement test will work for every institution. The key features at different levels of teaching in institutions must be identified before the construction of the test. If well constructed, it makes for accurate placement. This kind of test can serve as needs assessment instrument.

(b) Achievement Tests

Achievement tests are directly related to language courses. They are given to learners at the end of the course to determine how successful individual students, group of students or the courses themselves have been able to achieve the objectives. What are the learners able to do at the end of the course which they could not do at the beginning? For example, being able to pronounce the dental sound 'th', make simple requests; write good essay introduction, etc.

Hughes (1989, p. 10) divides achievement tests into two:

- Final achievement tests and
- Progress achievement tests

Final achievement tests are those administered by Ministries of Education (Junior Secondary Exam in Nigeria); official examining boards like West African Examination Council that organizes Senior Secondary School Certificate exams and G. C. E. Ordinary Level. The test is based on detailed course syllabus or on books and materials used during the course of study. The advantage is that students are tested on what they have studied. Success in the exam indicates successful achievement of the course objectives.

Progress Achievement tests measure the progress the students are making. It is given during a course to see how far their language ability has developed. It enables the teacher to assess himself to see how far he is achieving his objectives, what needs to be re-taught and what to do next. It makes for progression towards the final achievement test based on course objectives. For Hughes (1989),

> if the syllabus and teaching are appropriate to these objectives, progress tests based on short-term objectives will fit well with what has been taught. If

> not, there will be pressure to create a better fit. If it is the syllabus that is at fault, it is the tester's responsibility to make clear that it is *there* that change is needed not in the tests (p. 12).

It should be recalled that evaluation in ESP is an on-going activity.

(c) Proficiency Tests

Proficiency tests are designed to measure people's ability in a language regardless of training they may have had in the language (Hughes 1989, p. 9). He defines 'proficient' as 'having sufficient command of the language for a particular purpose.' For example, the new aptitude tests by Nigerian Universities for those in the faculties of Arts and Social sciences is a proficiency test designed to determine whether a student's English is good enough to follow a course of study in the universities in those faculties. The content of the test does not follow the content or objectives of the language courses which people taking the test may have studied.

Lindsay and Knight (2006) identify a sub-category of proficiency test known as "external proficiency examinations" (p. 122). They describe it to mean that which "may be produced by the Ministry of Education in a particular country, or by an organization which sets language examination internationally." Learners from diverse institutions and countries may take the examination. The result from the test may be used for job placement or for admission purposes. Examples are TOFEL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), IELTS (International English Language Testing System) and ESOL offered by Cambridge.

3.2.2 Course Evaluation

The course evaluation, the same as learner evaluation, helps to assess whether the characteristic features of designing the course were met. "In course evaluation we need to involve all those who share the learning process in making the ESP course as satisfying to the parties as possible" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1992, p.156). In course evaluation, factors such as materials, classroom activities, out-of-class support, course design, methodology and assessment should be evaluated. However, to evaluate everything relevant is unrealistic. Priorities should be set and the type and timing of data collection should be planned (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). In assessing a course, questions as to what, how, who, when and how often of your evaluation should be asked.

  ➢ What should be evaluated? This involves the teacher's ability to collect information and use them; ability to satisfy the learners' needs as language learners and language users. The idea of what should be evaluated, according to Rea (1983), is that "different areas of evaluation are important to different people at different times and for different reasons" (p. 90).

  ➢ How can it be evaluated? It could be through tests, questionnaires, discussions, interview, comments, etc.

  ➢ Who should evaluate? The ESP teacher, learners, sponsors or course designers? It depends on who mounted the course and why it was mounted.

  ➢ When and how often it could be done? This should not be too often because it is time consuming, complex and at times frustrating.

That is, after prioritizing what should be evaluated, techniques such as tests, questionnaire, discussion and interview will be used to collect data. Then, the information is discussed and conclusions drawn.

3.3 Difference between a Summative Evaluation and Learner Assessment?

Although both might look at the same data, a Learner Assessment generally looks at how an individual learner performed on a learning task. It **assesses** a student's learning -- hence the name Learner Assessment. For example, you may assess an entire class of students, but you are assessing them individually to see how each performs.

A Summative Evaluation, on the other hand, looks at more than one learner's performance to see how well a group did on a learning task that utilized specific learning materials and methods. By looking at the group, the instructional designer can **evaluate the learning materials and learning process** -- hence the name Summative Evaluation. For example, here you may find that, as a group, all of the students did well on Section A of some instructional materials, but didn't do so well on Section B. That would indicate that the designer should go back and look at the design or delivery of Section B.

3.4 Advantages of Evaluation and Testing

- Evaluation is the process of examining a program or process to determine what's working, what's not, and why.

- Evaluation determines the value of programs and acts as blueprints for judgment and improvement (Rossett & Sheldon, 2001).

- It provides data as an input to possible change.

- As a result of evaluation, programmes may be changed for the better, thus it is used as part of quality control.

- Evaluation is a source of information and experience. From information obtained, the teacher assesses himself, the students and the material.

- It ensures that money invested into the programme is not wasted.

- It highlights real problems and areas of success in classroom teaching;

- Summative evaluation may bring about a systematic programme of in-service teacher training as the programme being evaluated will have already been completed (Robinson, 1991).

- Testing is a tool for needs analysis (Umera-Okeke, 2005, p. 80)

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is the difference between process and product evaluation?

(b) What is the difference between formative and summative evaluation

4.0   CONCLUSION

A final consideration in ESP concerns the role of formative and summative evaluation in developing the programme. Systematic formative and summative tests of the students' achievements on the parts and the whole of the EFL/ESL programme (ESP and GE components) help not only in making decisions concerning the continuation and/or discontinuation of the programme and the placement of students, but they can also

"…indicate weaknesses in specific components of the programme as a whole, and therefore provide information for making decisions about revising the programme itself" (Mackay & Palmer (Ed.), 1981).

5.0   SUMMARY

Evaluation has been said to deal with the learners' performance in terms of mastery or non-mastery of language programme objectives, when current performance is measured versus desired performance by means of testing, using both quantitative and qualitative criteria. It can be summative or formative; product or process. Learners can be assessed through tests which include placement, achievement or proficiency tests; each is used depending on the function you would want the evaluation to achieve. Finally, the ESP course we have designed can also be evaluated.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is learner assessment? Briefly define about three tests you can use to assess a learner.

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MODULE 6

Genre Analyses

Introduction

Finally, Module 6 will look into the meaning of genre, how to analyse genres and analysis of some sample genres in order to help you understand the specialized nature of ESP and what to expect at different target situations. You will be exposed to features of legal language, language of journalism and English for science and technology.

Unit 1   Analysing Genre

Unit 2   Legal Language

Unit 3   Language of Journalism

Unit 4   Language of Science and Technology

Module 6: Unit 1

Meaning of Genre Analysis

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

If you remember that ESP concentrates on language in context, it will be worthwhile if we look at some of these contexts. In the words of Lorenzo (2005), ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (p.1). It is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English; not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists; not different from any other kind of language teaching but concerns what people do with the language and the range of knowledge and abilities that enables them to do it (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981). The development of ESP moved from register analysis (choice of words used in the target situation), through rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills and strategies to learning-centred approach. The deficiencies of register and discourse analysis were corrected by genre analysis. This unit introduces you to the meaning of genre and genre analysis with the intention of analyzing different genres in subsequent units.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

(a) define and explain what is meant by a genre

(b) define and explain genre analysis

(c) state the advantages of analyzing genre

(d) explain the methods of analysing genre

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is a Genre?

The word "genre" came from French and originally from Latin meaning "kind" or "class". The term is widely used in rhetoric, literary theory, media theory, and more recently linguistics, to refer to a distinctive *type* of 'text'. Robert Allen notes that 'for most of its 2,000 years, genre study has been primarily nominological and typological in function. That is to say, it has taken as its principal task the division of the world of literature into types and the naming of those types - much as the botanist divides the realm of flora into varieties of plants' (Allen 1989:44).

According to Swales (1990), "A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style". He goes on to say that genre is a recognisable communicative event in which language plays a significant role in terms of its dominance and frequency. The purposes of a particular communicative event are not always easy to identify.

3.2 Genre Analysis in ESP

The concept of text - the genre analysis approach - came to make up for the shortcomings of register and discourse analysis. The approach considers text as a total entity, rather than a collection of unrelated units. Dudley-Evans (1987) conveys the idea in the following way: "If we are to teach the writing of certain very specific texts such as … the business or technical report, we need a system analysis that shows how each type of text differs from other types." This, as Johnson (1993) says, can be achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of text through a series of phases or moves.

Swales (1990:7) introduced the term Genre Analysis and related it to ESP, which consequently influenced both branches of ESP. He explained the term Genre Analysis as 'a system of analysis that is able to reveal something of the patterns of organisation of a "genre" and the language used to express those patterns.'

Genre analysis, however, focuses on the distinguishing regularities of structure of different text types. It can help learners build a repertoire of the organization and the relevant language forms of different genres. It can also make learners aware of the socio-linguistic role that texts play in particular discourse communities (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). It is language use in professional settings.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reasons for learning. Learners already possessed reasonably adequate competence in the use of the language for general every day functions; they will still need to develop:

(a) Understanding of the special code;

(b) Familiarity with the dynamics of specialist genres, which include rhetorical forms and content;

(c) Specific context they respond to and the conventions they tend to use in their responses;

(d) Proficiency in the manipulation of specialist genres to respond to the exigencies of unfamiliar and novel situations.

Genre analysis and material design seeks to clarify rather than prescribe. Once learned and adequately understood, the conventions and procedures can be exploited creatively to achieve private ends with the socially recognized communicative purpose (Bhatia, 1993)

The advantage of genre analysis in teaching and learning of specialist English or ESP is that learners do not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts. It also makes a relevant connection between the use of the language on one hand and the purpose of communication on the other.

It helps to develop an explicit desire to participate consciously in the professional community and not just be able to read and write. On the language teaching side, this may also be seen to represent a conscious effort to integrate the product, process and communicative purpose in a meaningful context.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is a genre?

(b) what is genre analysis

(c) Why should learners learn about specific genres

(d) Of what use is genre analysis to ESP

3.2   Steps in Analysing Genre

Address the following areas, and use evidence from the genres to support your discussion, and maintain third person voice throughout:

(a) Introduction:

- Start with a brief discussion of the subject/topic that the two genres are focusing on. Include the title of each piece, the genre type, and the author or company name of each in the introduction.

- State the thesis, either implied or stated, in each genre. Your thesis, which goes in the last paragraph, is the synthesis of the two genres.

(b) Audience and Purpose Questions:

- Who is the intended audience for each genre?

- What discourse community (or communities) is this audience in?

- What is the audience likely to know? Want to know? Why?

- How much time will this audience want to spend with the information presented in the genres?

- What is the purpose of the information presented in the genres? (inform, persuade, entertain)

(c) **Rhetorical Issues: Ethos, Pathos and Logos:**

- How does each genre help to establish the information's credibility? Is it effective?
- How does each genre help to evoke an emotional response from the audience? Which emotions? Why?
- What types of evidence are used to support the claims of the information in the genres? Is it appropriate? Why or why not?

(d) **Structure:**

- How is the information shaped by the genre (s)? (Consider the limitations/freedoms of space, time, layout, audience, and so on.)
- How are the genres organized to convey its message?
- How does the structure facilitate the purpose of the information in the genre(s)?

(e) **Style/Language:**

- How formal/informal is the language?
- What specialized vocabulary is used?
- What other language features do you notice?

(f) **Conclusion/Synthesis:**

- Which genre was more effective in conveying its message? Why?
- Offer a final comment on the impact of genres on discourse.

In conducting a genre analysis, one needs to be very careful when attributing a single set of communicative purposes to texts, writers or readers because of the complex nature of purposes of communicative events.

Self Assessment Exercise

Part of the job of the genre analyst is to consider the rhetorical issues of the texts. What does this mean?

4.0 CONCLUSION

One must acquaint oneself with the communication goal-oriented purposes associated with specific appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community that they are aspiring to join. The intent is to help learners to use language more effectively in academic and professional settings and to bring much needed psychological reality and relevance to the learning task. In other words, learners need to develop the understanding of code, the acquisition of genre knowledge associated with the specialist culture, sensitivity, then, and only then, can they hope to exploit generic knowledge of a repertoire of specialist genres by becoming informed users of the discourse of their chosen field.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has examined genre as a distinctive text and a class of recognizable communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. Language is considered in terms of its dominance and frequency. The purposes of a particular communicative event are not always easy to identify. The unit also examined what it means to analyse genre and the benefits. Attempt was made at suggesting some methods one should adopt in trying to analyse any genre.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

    (a) In one sentence only, define genre analysis.

    (b) State and explain the advantages of genre analysis to ESP.

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Module 6: Unit 2

Legal Language

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Legal English is the style of English used by lawyers and other legal professionals in the course of their work. It has particular relevance when applied to legal writing and the drafting of written material, including:

- legal documents: contracts, licences etc
- court pleadings: summons, briefs, judgments etc
- laws: Acts of parliament and subordinate legislation, case reports
- legal correspondence

This unit is an attempt to x-ray the meaning, style and the characteristic features of legal English.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, you are expected to be able to:

(a) describe what is meant by Legal English

(b) state the uses of legal English

(c) describe the source of vocabulary for Legal English

(d) mention some of the key features of Legal English

(e) sate the two other languages that influenced Legal English

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Legal English?

Legal English has traditionally been the preserve of lawyers from native speakers of English (especially the U.S., the UK, Canada, Australia, and the New Zealand) which have shared common law traditions. However, due to the spread of English as the predominant language of international business, as well as its role as a legal language within the European Union, legal English is now a global phenomenon. It is also referred to casually as **lawspeak**.

Modern legal English is based on Standard English. However, it contains a number of unusual features. These largely relate to terminology, linguistic structure, linguistic conventions, and punctuation, and have their roots in the history of the development of English as a legal language. The influence of Latin can be seen in a number of words and phrases such as *ad hoc, de facto, bona fide, inter alia,* and *ultra vires,* which remain in current use in legal writing – see Legal Latin.

3.2 Style of Legal English

David Crystal (1969) explains a stylistic influence upon English legal language. During the Medieval period, lawyers used a mixture of Latin, French and English. To avoid ambiguity lawyers often offered pairs of words from different languages. Sometimes, there was little ambiguity to resolve and the pairs merely gave greater emphasis, becoming a stylistic habit. This is a feature of legal style that continues to the present day. Examples of mixed language doublets are: "breaking and entering" (English/French), "fit and proper" (English/French), "lands and tenements" (English/French), "will and testament" (English/Latin). Examples of English only doublets are: "let and hindrance", "have and hold."

Modern English vocabulary draws significantly from French and Latin, the latter often by way of French, and by some estimates, Modern English vocabulary is approximately 1/4 Germanic, 1/4 French, and 1/4 Latin (the balance being from other languages). These vocabularies are used preferentially in different registers, with words of French origin being more formal than those of Germanic origin, and words of Latin origin being more formal than those of French origin. Thus, the extensive use of French and Latin words in Legal English results in a relatively formal style.

Furthermore, Legal English is useful for its dramatic effect: for example, a subpoena compelling a witness to appear in court often ends with the archaic threat "Fail not, at your peril"–what the "peril" is isn't described (being arrested and held in contempt of court) but the formality of the language tends to better put a chill down the spine of the recipient of the subpoena than a simple statement like "We can arrest you if you don't show up."

Self Assessment Exercise

   (a) At the initial stage, what is another name for legal English?

   (b) What two languages influenced the development of legal English?

   (c) What gave legal English its formal style?

   (d) Why can we say that legal English is useful?

3.3 Features of Legal English

Legal language is a distinct language, easy to some extent to those familiar with it, but to others is of certain difficulty. In other words, Legal language is characterised by a specific language and therefore a specific terminology. Some of the features are:

1) **Terms of Latin and French origin:**

One of many noticeable features of English legal lexicon is the existence of Latinisms (Latin terms) in its terminology. Alcaraz and Brian (2002) link the presence of such terms to certain reasons; we briefly consider them. In the first place, it was inevitable for English law to escape the influence of Latin which was supported by the power of the Roman church over Europe at that time, and also to its widespread use throughout this place of earth as a language of learning and literature. In addition to the incredible power of the Roman law which was a coherent written system, and had strength of an institution over a considerable area of Europe. Here are some Latin phrases and words in common use:

- Bona fide (good faith or in good faith)

- Res judicata (an issue adjucated)

- Bes nova (a new thing; an undecided question of law)

- Actus reus (guilty act)

- Alibi (elsewhere; the fact or state of having been elsewhere when an offence was committed) (Garner, 2001, p. 20).

Like Latinisms, the existence of legal French terms within English legal language is also apparent. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the language of the invaders gained an undeniable position in the legal sphere of England, bringing with it a wealth of legal French terminology (Crystal & Davy 1986, p. 208). As a case of illustration, the following terms were originally French:

- Contract, proposal, schedule, terms, conditions, policy, alias, quash and so on.

- The parties *hereto* agree as follow.

- *Hereinafter* referred to as wife.

- The total rent for the term *hereof* is the sum of**....**

- *Profits à prendre*, also known as the right of common, where one has the right to take the fruits of the property of another.

- *Acquis communautaire*: A French expression used in contemporary legal English which refers to the entire body of EU law.

2) **Archaic diction of legal English**

Legal English lexicon is considerably made of archaic legal terms. However, this touch of Archaism is not in vain, it is done on purpose. There are reasons behind this tendency towards archaic words. Tiersma (1999, p. 95) states that "*legal language often strives toward great formality, it naturally gravitates towards archaic language*"

According to this quotation, archaisms give a flavour of formality to the language to which they belong. Some lawyers prefer to use antique terms instead of new ones. For example,

they use 'imbibe' as an alternative of 'drink', 'inquire' rather than 'ask', 'peruse' instead of 'read', 'forthwith' as a substitution of 'right away' or 'at once' and so on. Another convenient example is the use of the verb 'witnesseth' with the preservation of an 'eth' ending for the third person singular present tense morpheme as an alternative of the current morpheme 'es' 'witnesses'.

There exist also some archaic adverbs, they are actually a mixture of deictic elements: 'here' 'there' and 'where' with certain prepositions: of, after, by, under etc.

Later, Tiersma (1999, p. 96) mentions another two reasons for legal language:

Conservatism, which is for safety and convenience, accordingly, the more conservative legal terms are, the safer a legal document will be. In other words, this use of antiquated terminology is driven by the need to avoid troublesome changes as far as legal lexical meaning is concerned. The principle, according to Crystal and Davy (1986) is that "*what has been tested and found adequate is best not altered*" (p. 213).

Certain archaic words have actually acquired an authoritative interpretation over the years. So, altering them is an absolute risk. Also, this ongoing use of old-fashioned diction is, on the other hand, a matter of convenience. That is, what was workable before can be workable again.

Despite the so called usefulness of the archaic touch within legal language, its functionality is still debatable. It is quite apparent from the examples given previously that certain outdated terms and constructions are truly a handicap for better understanding; they make legal language inaccessible for public readers and are meant specifically for those who are mainly concerned with legal matters, and noticeably such terms render comprehension difficult.

3) Archaic use of the modal "shall" in legal English:

The modal *shall* pose a level of difficulty in both interpretation of clauses containing it and in the translation of such clauses. Traditionally, the modal *shall*, in legal texts, carries an obligation or a duty as opposed to its common function: expressing futurity (Tiersma: 1999, p.105). Examples include:

- All such payments shall be made to Landlord at Landlord's address as set forth in the preamble to this Agreement on or before the due date and without demand.

- Tenant shall make no alterations to the buildings or improvements on the Premises or construct any building or make any other improvements on the Premises without the prior written consent of Landlord.

- Husband shall pay to Wife spousal support in the sum of _____.

- Tenant shall comply with any and all laws, ordinances, rules and orders of any and all governmental or quasi-governmental authorities affecting the cleanliness, use, occupancy and preservation of the Premises.

As already stated the modal *shall* is used basically to demonstrate that the legal subject of a given sentence has a duty to do or not to do something. However, certain sentences in which the modal *shall* carries a meaning different from that intended in legal writing can be found. *Shall* is sometimes used in a way that is truly confusing and causes a dilemma for

readers of legal documents - to assume definitively whether the modal *shall* is being used for an obligation, futurity or a false imperative. Consider the following examples:

- Wife shall have the right to retain her married name or shall also have the right to return to her maiden or former name: _____.

- Husband shall have the following rights of title and ownership in the family residence: _____.

The use of *shall*, in the two sentences above, bears no consequences on behalf of the legal subject neither *wife* nor *husband*. Obviously, The use of *shall* in legal texts is widely frequent; and therefore may pose certain difficulty for many.

4) Lexical repetition or redundancy:

In legal writing, draftsmen avoid the use of anaphoric devices or referential pronouns. Such as: the personal pronouns (he, she, it etc) or the demonstrative ones (this, that, etc), in addition to the verb 'to do' that may substitute a whole clause as in the following example, *He rents a car and so does his brother* (Sabra: 1995). Actually, legal language is highly concerned with the exactness of reference; hence its tendency toward lexical repetition, and therefore to functional redundancy.

- *The Lessee shall pay to the Lessor <u>at the office of the Lessor.</u>*

Here, if we opt for the possessive pronoun 'his' instead of the word 'Lessor' in the phrase 'at the office of the Lessor' would certainly create confusion and ambiguity. For example:

- *The Lessee shall pay to the Lessor at <u>his office.</u>*

In this case, it would be confusing whether the intended office is the one of Lessee or that of the Lessor. Consequently, such substitutes may, in many cases, refer to a lexical item other than that intended by the writer. However, using anaphoric devises or referential pronouns would definitely increase ambiguity and confusion.

5) Unusual use of the words 'the same', 'such' and 'said':

Using such words in legal language is quite different from using them in ordinary one. The word 'the same' usually implies comparison to a similar object or person, but in legal use it refers to sameness of reference. (Tiersma, 1999:88) For example:

- *The tenant shall pay all the taxes regularly levied and assessed against Premises and keep <u>the same</u> in repair.*

In this example, 'the same' refers to the word 'Premises'. Correspondingly, Tiersma suggests that the pronoun 'it' can conveniently substitute the phrase 'the same' (p. 91) Also, word like 'such' means normally 'that sort' or 'this sort'. Now, observe its use in a legal context:

- *We conclude that the trial court's order constituted an abuse of discretion in the procedural posture of this case which compels us to set aside <u>such</u> order.*

Apparently, the phrase 'such order' signifies 'this order'. So, here, *Such* acts in the same way as the demonstrative pronoun 'this'.

Concerning the function of the word *said* in legal drafting, it is used as an article or a demonstrative pronoun (Sabra, 1995:43). To illustrate this, let us look at the following example:

- *Lessee promises to pay a deposit. <u>Said</u> deposit shall accrue interest at a rate of five percent per annum.*

Here, the word 'said' could be substituted by the article 'the' or the demonstrative pronoun 'this' with no loss of meaning. By the way the examples mentioned in this section are originally used by (Tiersma, 1999),

6) Frequent use of doublets

Actually, there is a common use of such collocations in which synonyms or near- synonyms are combined in pair "doublets" (Alcaraz & Brian (2002, p. 9). Such words can be either nouns, verbs, adjectives or even prepositions. For example:

made and enter	fit and proper
by and between	perform and discharge
lying and situated	dispute, controversy or claim
terms and conditions	promise, agree and covenant.
covenants and obligations	null and void
in good order and repair	represents and warrants
any and all	

Such constructions must be treated with caution, since sometimes the words used mean, for practical purposes, exactly the same thing (*null and void*); but sometimes they do not quite do so (*dispute, controversy or claim*).

7) Legal English as a technical language

We have seen so far that a considerable part of legal English vocabulary is a mixture of archaic terms and terms of Latin and French origin. Another noticeable feature of legal English is its technical terminology. According to Tiersma (1999)

> if a word or a phrase is used exclusively by a particular trade or profession or if that profession uses it in a way that differs from its normal meaning and the term has a relatively well-defined sense, it should be considered a technical term (p. 108).

This reveals that a technical term is an unshared term used exclusively by a specific trade or profession. In other words, specialists in the legal sphere are actually equipped by a distinct language peculiar to ordinary people and highly characterized by a vocabulary of technical nature. Accordingly, Alcaraz and Brian (2002:17) present a classification of technical vocabulary: purely technical terms and semi-technical terms.

(a) Purely technical terms: are those that are only applicable in the legal sphere but nowhere else. For example,

decree (n)	waiver

mortgage (n)	restraint of trade
sub-letting	restrictive covenant
deem (v)	promissory estoppel
permises	tenant
lease (n)	hereinafter
landlord	

Actually, the understanding of such kind of terms is of great importance in grasping any given legal text in which they occur.

(b) Semi-technical terms: words and phrases of this group belong to everyday lexicon which has gained extra-meanings in the legal context. So, terms of this type are polysemic, tougher to recognize their precise meaning without resorting to the context in which they occur. The following examples are terms of this type: the familiar term *consideration* refers in legal English, to contracts, and means, *an act, forbearance or promise by one party to a contract that constitutes the price for which the promise of the other party is bought.*

Other words often used in peculiar contexts in legal English include *construction, prefer redemption, furnish, hold,* and *find.*

Actually, purely technical terms are monosemic; that is, having one legal meaning and so have no difficulty for the translator. The latter can simply consult a bilingual dictionary, of course, not a standard dictionary but a specialized legal one. Semi-technical vocabulary is a more complex type of terms; they have one meaning or more than one in everyday language and another in the field of law.

The main conclusion is that legal English lexicon differs to a great extent from ordinary one. No doubt that such vocabulary does not render legal language clearer, but unfortunately tougher, hard to understand, without a considerable familiarity with the legal sphere.

8) Lack of punctuation

One aspect of archaic legal drafting – particularly in conveyances and deeds – is the conspicuous absence of punctuation. This arose from a widespread idea among those in the legal profession that punctuation is ambiguous and unimportant, and that people should gather the meaning of legal documents only from the words used and the context in which they are used. In modern legal drafting, punctuation is used to give clarification about meaning.

9) Unusual word order

At times, the word order used in legal documents appears distinctly strange. For example, *the provisions for termination hereinafter appearing* or *will at the cost of the borrower forthwith comply with the same.* There is no single clear reason explaining this phenomenon, although the influence of French grammatical structures is certainly a contributing factor.

10) Use of unfamiliar pro-forms

For example, *the same, the said, the aforementioned* etc. The use of such terms in legal texts is interesting since very frequently they do not replace the noun – which is the whole purpose of pro-forms – but are used as adjectives to modify the noun, for example, *the said John Smith*.

11) Use of pronominal adverbs

Words like *hereof, thereof,* and *whereof* (and further derivatives, including *-at, -in, -after, - before, -with, -by, -above, -on, -upon* etc) are not often used in ordinary English. They are used in legal English primarily as a way of avoiding the repetition of names of things in the document – very often, the document itself. For example,

> *the parties hereto* instead of *the parties to this contract*.

12) *-er, -or,* and *-ee* name endings

Legal English contains a large number of names and titles, such as employer and employee, or lessor and lessee, in which the reciprocal and opposite nature of the relationship is indicated by the use of alternative endings. This practice derives from Latin.

13) Use of phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs play a large role in legal English, and are often used in a quasi-technical sense. For example, *parties **enter into** contracts, **put down** deposits, **serve** [documents] **upon** other parties, **write off** debts*, and so on.

14) Long, complex sentences, with intricate patterns of coordination and subordination

Even today prescriptive legal documents in English tend to use punctuation sparingly. Some earlier statutes were formulated as one sentence without any punctuation except for a final full stop. Nonetheless Crystal and Davy (1969) observe that

> It is not true that legal English was always entirely punctuationless, and in fact the occasional specimens which were intended for oral presentation – proclamations, for instance – were quite fully punctuated. The idea of totally unpunctuated legal English is a later development […] (p. 200-201).

Although reforms in punctuation have been slowly introduced through the centuries, even today, sentences may run to hundreds of words, especially in preambles, with complex patterns of coordination and subordination.

15) A Highly impersonal style of writing (Maley 1985, p. 25)

Using passive forms is one of the most common methods of emphasizing the impersonal in a language (Sˇarcˇevicˇ 2000: 177). The generalized use of the third person (singular and plural) in legislative texts helps to reinforce the idea of impartiality and authoritativeness.

Where, for example, a provision applies to everybody, the sentence either begins with *every person*, *everyone* etc., when expressing an obligation or authorization, or *no person*, *no one* etc., when expressing a prohibition.

- *No one* may be subjected to slavery, servitude or forced labour

- *Everyone* has the right of access to – (a) any information held by the state; and (b) any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights.

Self Assessment Exercise

Mention and describe at least five features of Legal English

4.0 CONCLUSION

Legal language is made up of several genres, each with its own specific, if often related, characteristics. It ranges from the spoken exchanges in a court between, say, lawyers and witnesses in a cross-examination, to the relatively standardized instructions given to jury members who are required to express a verdict in a court case, to the jargon employed by members of the legal profession in interpersonal communication, to the written language in case law, law reports and prescriptive legal texts. It has been discovered that certain types of written legal language may contain features that mark it as being so highly idiosyncratic as to be at times incomprehensible to anyone except legal experts. This is because it is not only one of the least communicative of all uses of language but also about as far removed as possible from informal spontaneous conversation

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have described some of the main characteristics of written legal English such as sentence length and the complexity of its sentence structures, repetitiveness, the high concentration of Latinisms and archaic or rarely used lexical items etc., (Bhatia 1993). Such features have been widely held for centuries as having an exclusionary function, entrenching the privileges of the legal profession

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Legal English employ technical terms. Discuss

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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Module 6: Unit 3

English for Journalism

Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Journalism has been defined by *Encyclopaedia Britannica* as collection, preparation, and distribution of news and related commentary and feature materials through media such as pamphlets, newsletters, newspapers, magazines, radio, film, television, and books. The term was originally applied to the reportage of current events in printed form, specifically newspapers, but in the late 20th century it came to include electronic media as well. It is sometimes used to refer to writing characterized by a direct presentation of facts or description of events without an attempt at interpretation. Colleges and universities confer degrees in journalism and sponsor research in related fields such as media studies and journalism ethics. This unit examines the term journalism. It also looks at the headline and lead as aspects of written journalism, and the features of each are outlined.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

  (a) define journalism

  (b) state the functions of a newspaper headline

(c) name and explain the different types of headlines

(d) list and explain some grammatical features of headlines

(e) list and explain the wording features of headlines

(f) explain what a lead means

(g) state the function and characteristics of newspaper lead

(h) list and explain the different types of lead

(i) Extract these features from local newspapers

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Journalism?

Journalism is the investigation and reporting of events, issues, and trends to a broad audience. Although there is much variation within journalism, the ideal is to inform the citizenry. Besides covering organizations and institutions such as government and business, journalism also covers cultural aspects of society such as arts and entertainment. The field includes jobs such as editing, photojournalism, and electronic documentary or features in print.

Journalism instructors often state that broadcast newswriting is supposed to sound just like everyday speech. In essence, however, writing broadcast news is more akin to writing song lyrics. Both tasks involve constructing language in a *visual* form (writing) for communication in an *oral* form (speaking or singing). Like song lyrics, broadcast newswriting adheres to patterns of language use (such as appropriate vocabulary and formulaic sentence-structure) that the audience expects to hear and will use in interpreting the communication. It includes simple sentences and ways of writing other features such as headlines, leads, use of abbreviations, journalistic coinages and others.

3.3   Headlines: Functions and Types

You can be a better reader if you know what to expect in a newspaper. For example, when you read a newspaper you usually look quickly at the headlines first. Newspaper headlines have a language of their own and it is necessary to learn about it.

3.2.1   Functions of Headlines :

(a) Outlining the News: Essence of the News: A newspaper usually has dozens of pages. It is unimaginable that a common reader should read the newspaper word by word from the very beginning to the end. Readers read the paper to their taste. Thus, headlines are a "guide" for them, for headlines are the essence of the news to read.

(b) Beautifying the Format of the Newspaper Pages: Headlines help to clarify news articles respectively in the paper to make the pages attractive for readers.

3.2.2 Types of Headlines

Newspaper headlines can be classified into several types:

(a) **Straight headlines** give you the main topic of the story. They are the most common type of headline and are the easiest to understand.

> *INEC gets parties' nod to shift polls till April*
> *Ribadu: PDP will go*

(b) **Headlines that ask a question** report a future possibility or offer some doubt about the truth or accuracy of the story.

> *Can technology fix ballot woes?*
> *EFCC: Forcing governors to play ball?*

(c) **Headlines that contain a quotation** which is important or which shows that a statement is not proven.

> *Oni is to blame for Ekiti's woes*
> *We won't quit*

(d) **Double headlines** are two-part headlines for the same story and are often used for major events.

> *How Express broke diplomatic silence*
> *HUSH-UP ON "SPY" ENVOYS*

(e) **Feature headlines** are used for stories that are either highly unusual or amusing. Headlines for such stories try to be as clever as possible to catch the reader's interest.

> *Dead student fell under the crush during clashes*

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is journalism

(b) Name two functions of a headline

(c) What do you understand by straight and double headlines? Give two examples of each from your local Newspaper

(d) Write short notes on any other three types of headlines you know

3.3 Features of Headlines

Please read the following headlines:

> *Moscow official wounded by gunmen*
> *Earthquake rocks Turkey*
> *Husband to sue wife*
> *Boy on cliff rescued*

Young Sudanese refugees endured famine, separations from family

From the above, we can see two prominent features of English newspaper headlines:

(a) Headlines are almost always in the present tense and even future events are put in the present tense.
(b) Headlines generally omit unnecessary words, especially articles and the verb to be, and is often replaced by a comma.

3.3.1 Grammatical Features of Headlines

i. Omission: Omission of grammatical words or functional words, such as articles, conjunction of 'and', link verb of 'to be', etc. Examples:

➢ Top Indian Hotel Angry at BBC *instead of A* top Indian hotel *is* angry at *the* BBC.

➢ NBC's President Seeks Big Acquisitions, Ventures for Network = *The* NBC's president seeks big acquisitions *and* ventures for *the* network.

➢ Mother, Daughter Share Fulbright Year = *A* mother *and her* daughter share *a* Fulbright Year.)

➢ Three Dead After Inhaling Over Gas

➢ Financier Killed by Burglars

➢ Move to Ban Tobacco Advertising

➢ TB on the Rise Again in China

➢ Four Killed and Five Hurt In a House Fire

ii. Tenses: The frequent tenses used in the headline are the simple present, the simple future and the present progressive, whether it is of the past event, in order to add to its freshness and immediacy. Examples:

➢ Longevity Star *Dies* at 110

➢ Largest Chinese Trade Delegation *to Visit* US in Nov.

➢ Deposits, Loans *Rising* in HK

➢ Sun *Faces* Charge Over 'Racist' Cartoon

➢ Voices: Passive voice in the headline is often represented without the auxiliary verb 'be' or 'by' phrase. Only the bare past participle will do. Example:

➢ Two Workmen Injured in Electrical Accident

iii. Punctuations

➢ Comma often functions as the conjunction 'and'. Example:

   China, Japan Seek More Ways

➢ Dash is often functioned as quotes, introducing the speaker or the source. Example:

   Economy Grows Slowly as Unemployment, Inflation Rise —Economists

> ➤ Colon is often functioned as 'saying' or the conjunction of link verb 'be'. Example:

> *Bush: US Vows to Combat Terrorists*

> *Chinese Acrobats: Masters of Stunts*

Other features include the combination of direct and indirect speech in news reporting. You get passive sentences like:

> *It is alleged that ….*

> *there has been some speculation ...*

> *an eye-witness reported that ...*

> *a spokesman for the family claimed ...*

> *is currently under investigation ...*

> *several previous convictions ...*

3.3.2 Wording Features of the Headlines

(i) Short and Simple, But Not Lengthy: Short, simple and concrete words are often applied in the headlines to create vividness and accuracy. Examples:

(a)	US Refuses to Back Environment Fund
(b)	Europe Hold Talks to End Tension in Yugoslavia
(c)	World Eyes Mid-East Peace Talk
(d)	Allowance to Be Cut in 200,000 Families

Below are some words used in journalism and their meanings:

Words for Your Reference (1): Verbs

Words	Meaning	Words	Meaning	Words	Meaning
aid	help / assist	alter	change	ask	inquire
assail	denounce	axe	dismiss / reduce	back	support
ban	prohibit / forbid	bar	prevent	bare	expose / reveal / disclose
blast	explode	begin	commence	bid	attempt
bilk	cheat	bolt	desert / abandon	boost	increase
buy	purchase	check	examine	claim	cause the death of
clash	disagree strongly	curb	control / restrict	cut	reduce
dip	decline / decrease	due	schedule	ease	reduce / lessen
edict	decree / proclamation	end	terminate	eye	watch with interest
face	confront	fire	dismiss	flay	criticize
flout	insult	foil	prevent from	grab	acquire
grib	seize	grill	investigate	gut	destroy
head	direct	hit	criticize	hold	retain / arrest
hurt	injure	kick	abandon	kill	murder
laud	praise	launch	begin / commence	loom	happen
lop	diminish	map	work out	mar	damage

mark	celebrate	moot	discuss	mull	study / consider
nab	arrest	name	appoint/elect/ nominate	net	capture
nip	defeat	nix	deny / disapprove	nod	approve
opt	choose	oust	expel	peril	endanger
pledge	promise	plot	conspire	plunge	plummet
poise	ready for action	probe	investigate	prod	instigate
prompt	trigger off	quit	resign / step down	raid	attack / search
rap	criticize	rage	become violent	raze	destroy
rebuke	criticize	rock	shake violently / shock	rout	defeat completely
sack	dismiss	shift	transfer	shun	abandon
slay	murder	snub	neglect	soar	skyrocket
spark	encourage	spur	encourage	stall	make no progress
stem	check	study	investigate	swap	exchange
sway	influence	thwart	obstruct	toe	criticize
top	exceed	trade	exchange	trim	reduce
try	endeavor / attempt	urge	promote / advocate	use	utilize
vie	compete	void	invalidate	voice	express
vow	promise / determine	wed	marry	weigh	consider
woo	seek to win				

Words referring to Nouns

Words	Noun referred to	Words	Noun referred to	Words	Noun referred to
ace	champion	aid	assistance	arms	weapons
blast	explosion	blow	injury / disappointment suffered	body	committee
clash	controversy	cool	uninterested	cop	policeman
crash	collision	deal	agreement / transaction	dems	democrats
down	decrease	envoy	ambassador	fake	counterfeit
fete	celebration	feud	strong dispute	firm	company
flop	failure	freeze	stabilization	gem	jewel
glut	oversupply	GOP	Grand Old Party	jobless	unemployment
key	essential	link	connection	loot	money stolen
man	representative	mart	market	nod	approval
output	production	pact	agreement / treaty	pay	wage / salary
pit	coal mine	plea	request for help	poll	election / public opinion
post	position	probe	investigation	pullout	withdrawal
Reds	communists	riddle	mystery	rift	separation
row	quarrel	set	ready	snag	unexpected difficulty
stance	attitude	statement	dispute that cannot	step	progress

			be settle		
strife	conflict	talk	conference	ties	(diplomatic) relations

3.4 Initials or Acronyms

Another feature of journalistic English includes the use of initials and acronyms. We have different types and they include:

(a) For organizations and Proper Names:

EEC	European Economic Community
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
CPPCC	Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference
IMF	International Monetary Fund
APGA	All Progressive Grand Alliance

Others are: ASEAN, CIA, CPC, FBI, GATT, IOC, NASA, NATO, NPC, OAU, OPEC,

PLO, WHO

(b) For common things: ABM, EST, GMT, ICBM, PR, SALT, SDI, DJI, UFO

(c) For professions: MP, PM, VIP, TP, MNI, OON, OFR

Initials in the headlines may not be familiar to the readers. Nonetheless, the complete forms of the initials can usually be found in the lead or understood through the context. Examples:

- US Refuses **ME** Talks Date Change

  WASHINGTON - The US administration on Thursday turned down Arab requests for setting a new starting time for the *Middle East* peace talks.

- Alumnus Donates 1 Billion Naira to ASUU.

- A Nigerian-American doctor donated N1 billion to UCH Ibadan as a special gift to mark the 60th anniversary of the founding of his alma mater.

3.4.1 Shortened Words or Abbreviations

Some commonly used nouns; adjectives are often shortened by clipping to save letters in the headlines, which could be easily detected through the context. Examples:

Overseas	co-ops,	hi-tech research	pc (percent),
grad (graduate)	hosp (hospital)	bn (billion)	cig (cigarette)

Abbreviations and their full forms

Abbreviations	Full forms	Abbreviations	Full forms	Abbreviations	Full forms
ad	advertisement	auto	automobile	bach	bachelor
biz	business	celeb	celebrity	champ	champion
con	convict	deli	delicatessen	divi	diviend
disco	discotheque	doc	doctor	dorm	dormitory
exam	examination	expo	exposition	frat	fraternity
gas	gasoline	gym	gymnasium	homo	homosexual
Japs	Japanese	lab	laboratory	lav	lavatory
mag	magazine	lib	liberation	memo	memorandum
mod	modern	pic	picture	pix	pictures
pro	professional	rail	railway	rep	representative
Russ	Russia	sec	secretary	sub	Subway / submarine
van	vanguard	vet	veteran	uni	university
cello	violoncello	chute	parachute	coon	racoon
copter	helicopter	dozer	bulldozer	gator	alligator
quake	earthquake	wig	periwig	flu	influenza
fridge	refrigerator	tec	detective	vic	Convict
Nat'l	national	nat	nationalist	heliport	Helicopter airport
motel	motor hotel	Int'l	international	dept	department
Com'l	commercial	C'tee	committee	cric	Critic
C'wealth	Common Wealth	bike	bicycle	mike	microphone
pram	perambulator	Co-ed	Female college student	Aussie	Australian
bookie	bookmaker	hanky	handkerchief	telly	television

3.5 Journalistic Coinages

Journalistic coinages are often made up of a phrase by saving some syllables in order to make a compound. Examples:

Smog   smoke fog;

newscast   news broadcast;

Atobomb   atom bomb;

blacketeer   black marketer;

Fruice   fruit juice;

slanguage   slang language;

Politburo   polical bureau;

teleceiver   television receiver;

Euromart   European Common Market;

Stagflation   stagnation and inflation;

Euromissiles   European-based missiles

Cinemanufacturer   cinema manufacturer;

Notes: Witticism or pun is often seen in the headlines, example,

> Chinese Climbers Hold Summit Talks

3.6 Lead

3.6.1 Functions and Characteristics of the Lead

Lead distinguishes news from other forms of literature. Usually lead refers to the first paragraph or first few paragraphs including the latest, foremost intriguing facts. It is either to summarize, or to outline, or to brief the news in order to lead the readers to the depth of the story. Western journalists regard the lead as the cream of the news as well as a show window of their writing style. It states the who, where, how and when of an event or item of news.

   (a) **Succinct:** Being brief, simple, plain, and concise, a lead is usually of about 25 words or at most 35 words by one sentence.

   (b) **Informative:** A lead should tell us of the essence of the news within the fewest words.

   (c) **Intriguing:** Try to attract the readers' interest through its wording. Now try to compare the following examples.

1) Police Chief I. W. Ringim announced today two children were killed outside Eagle Square, at Tafawa Belewa Ave., when a "heartless terrorists" left bomb in an abandoned vehicle near the square at about 11: 30 am.

2) Two children were killed and 12 others injured today at Abuja bomb blast

3) Two children at play were killed and 12 others injured today when a speeding sports car jumped the curb outside Prospect Park and ran them down.

3.6.2 Types and Features of the Lead

   (a) Summary lead or roundup lead

▪   Parties yesterday endorsed the proposal by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) to shift the general election from January to April, 2011.

   (d) Main fact lead

▪   Sixteen-year-old Li Hongmei has become China's most successful heart transplant patient.

(e) Descriptive lead

- Old women sit stoically on cots, and portly men sweat in the heat, oblivious to the youngsters at play around them. This camp for Bosnian refugees is in Vienna, but it could be almost anywhere in central Europe.

(f) Direct address lead or personal lead

- This is my first dispatch from China in 22 years. The news I have to report would have been incredible only a few weeks ago——Americans are welcome in the People's Republic.

- If you live another 50 years, you will probably be a millionaire. However, a loaf of bread will cost #1000, a car #10,000,000 and a home #50,000,000 million.

(g) Quotation lead

- "These people tried to loot and burn our city and we intend to make them pay for it," said Lang, the tough-talking governor of Plateau State.

(h) **Suspense lead**

- Two weeks ago, the senator bought a stack of guidebooks to Obudu Ranch, planning a cross-country trip she and her husband were to begin today. Senator Funke, days later, she bought a coffin.

(i) Delayed lead or multi-paragraph lead

- **Lagos** — When the match was over the couch, the Super Eagles, just did not want to return to Lagos.

- She stayed on long after the dishes were cleared off, admiring the blue tablecloth, the fresh yellow tulip on it and marvelling about the food she had just eaten: Nigerian returnee from Libyan War.

- "We had three courses today," said the poverty-stricken pensioner, one of the first to partake of the Nigerian humanitarian aid that began arriving here Monday by the planeload. "We've never had that much before."

(j) Contrast lead

- While nine survivors of the Sosoliso plane crash last Friday have recovered sufficiently to be out of danger, six others who survived initially died to raise the death to 106.

(k) Question lead

- How long could communication magnet resist the pull of the rag trade?

- There were no plans when the former queen of the local boutique scene won the franchise for the Body Shops in Silverbird Mall last year.

(l) Anecdotal lead

- At 14, Kent Conrad figured he'd be ready for the Senate in 1986 or 1988. twenty-four years later, Conrad laughs at the memory. At 38, about to become North Dakota's new senator, he says "I guess I was a serious kid."

(m) Combined lead or multiple element lead

- Riot police were involved in further clashes with a crowd of about 300 early today as "bread riots" in the Ely district of Cardiff broke out again for the third night running.

(n) Label lead or empty lead

- The president of the United States, Barack Obama will meet the Nigeria president, Goodluck Jonathan during a visit to Africa next week, Nigerian Television Authority said Tuesday. The report could not be confirmed.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Journalistic English is apt, simple and catchy. The aim has always been to attract attention. The importance of journalism in modern society has been testified to by the establishment of schools of journalism at most of the world's leading universities.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has examined the meaning and features of journalistic English as a genre. Prominent and important to all news writing are the headlines and the lead. The unit has examined the types and features of the headline and the lead. It is expected that as an ESP practitioner, you will be able to design a course for would-be journalists, giving them what to expect at the target situation

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the grammatical features of a newspaper headline

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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Module 6: Unit 4

English for Science and Technology (EST)

Contents

1.0   INTRODUCTION

EST is a style of writing as a result of the development of science and technology. It is characterized by soundness in logic and accuracy in thinking. This kind of writing is usually formal in style and serious in tone. It does not take artistic beauty of language as its goal. Instead, it tries to achieve clarity in logic and accuracy in meaning. Thus, it has its own stylistic features, which are different from the literary English and other English styles. There are many prominent stylistic features on different levels of language as we can see from the following analysis.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

(a) explain the graphological, lexical and syntactic nature/features of English for Science and Technology (EST);

(b) explain what is meant by context;

(c) list the contextual factors and explain each of them;

(d) analyse a chosen EST passage linguistically;

(e) analyse another passage contextually.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Features of English for Science and Technology (EST)

3.1.1 At the Graphological Level

In EST, the writing form varies a little. It is used as a convenient and communicative medium to convey the latest information in science and technology and exchange academic achievements concerning this field. As a result, this kind of writing is formal in style. Only so, it can clearly communicate the information to the people who are interested in it.

A. Punctuation

The punctuations can help the readers to have a better understanding of the sentence structures and the whole meanings the passages are going to convey. So the punctuations in EST are very beneficial to the readers when they are reading such texts.

In the following passage we can find that the punctuation mark comma is used more frequently than in other types of writings. Yet, the question mark is never used. Thus, it shows that the sentences in this kind of English style are quite long. Also, the sentences are not interrogative sentences but totally declarative sentences. As a result of these, the structures in EST are tightly organized and its subject matters are quite single. As we all know, it is used to convey scientific information, but not to exchange feelings, which the interrogative sentences, the exclamatory sentences and the imperative sentences are quite easily used to convey.

B. Paragraphing

In EST, the sentences are quite long, and in each sentence, there are a lot of words. This is because this kind of style aims to describe the scientific facts, explain the scientific phenomena, and conclude the scientific conceptions. It needs a certain number of words and sentences to communicate the information to the users. So, it has formed such sort of long sentences and a great many paragraphs.

3.1.2 At the lexical level

A. Use of Long and Big Words

In EST passages, long words are quite frequently used, such as investigation, determination, assumption, and so on. These words are very suitable for the English for science and technology, because they can express the meaning in a more accurate way. These words are in accordance with the requirements of the scientific English that it tries to avoid the ambiguity in words or expressions.

B. Use of Prepositional Phrases

EST passages also have quite a lot of prepositional phrases, especially the preposition "of". The prepositional phrases can make the sentences organized more closely and the structures understood easily.

C. Use of Nominal Words

Nominal words such as "motion, investigation, and separation" are used many times. Such kinds of words indicate the formality of the text, and make much information combined together closely coherently and logically.

Science and technology is a formal and objective subject, which cannot use the ambiguous words. In other styles, verbs, adjectives, and some other words act as the grammatical components, while in EST, it is often the nominal words that are quite often used instead of the verbs and adjectives.

D. Frequent Use of Technical Terms

Technical terms are frequently used; among which are many words which come from words commonly used in the ordinary English style. However, in the domain of science and technology, they are used differently in meaning and have special meaning different from what we usually see and understand. So they could make the information and the content more scientific and well-knit. Here, these words "branch, rigid, force, body, parts, flexible, etc" are such examples to be used in a different manner in meaning from that in the other types of English writing.

Self Assessment Exercise

> (f) What can you say about punctuation and paragraphing in EST?
> (g) Describe the use of words in EST

3.1. 3 At the Syntactical/Grammatical Level

A. Frequent use of the passive voice

In EST passages, the passive voices are frequently used. In physics, chemistry, and engineering textbooks, one third of all finite verbs are passive voice. In EST, passive voice not only occurs quiet frequently but also becomes one of the important devices to make the text objective and standard. Since the scientific style attaches more importance to facts, phenomena, or processes, and also it is not interested in the doers of the action but in results achieved, passive voice, is therefore employed to stress the objects and the contents of the sentences.

B. Frequent use of declarative sentences

Coherence in logic, clarity and fluency in expression are typical of the scientific English, therefore, the declarative sentences have a high proportion in EST. The author of EST does not express his own feelings, because EST tries to avoid subjective opinions or evaluations. The agents of the actions could be anybody in many cases. Besides, the focus of the text is not on the people or the agents but on the objective phenomena and the information itself.

C. Frequent use of the present tense

The scientific disciplines and phenomena are not restricted by time. For this reason, the present tense appears almost throughout EST passages. The word "will" is used for judging or guessing but not for the future tense.

D. Frequent Use of Long Sentences

According to the statistic research conducted by QIAN Yuan (1991), the average simple sentence in all English styles includes 17.8 words but in most EST passages, the average word in each sentence is 24.4. This indicates that the sentence length in EST is longer by far than that in other types of English styles. EST is a functional style. It is used to express the complicated thoughts and logical relationships. As a result of these, the long sentences are frequently put into use.

E. Frequent Use of Complex Sentences

The majority of the sentences found in EST passages are complex sentences. The sentences are usually long and complete. There is no need to go bother unduly with the consideration of stylistic elegance. Therefore, the sentence patterns vary a little. The relative pronouns "which" and "that" appear numerously in the scientific and technical passages. In order to enhance the objectivity and the accuracy of the information, such sentences are frequently used in the passage.

3.2 Contextual Factors Analysis

Context refers to all elements of a communicative situation: the verbal and nonverbal context, the context of a given speech situation, and the social context of the relationship between the speaker and the hearer, their knowledge and their attitude. So as to have a detailed understanding of the stylistic features the EST passages have, it is not sufficient to just describe the passage linguistically. Because any kind of styles could be understood clearly and correctly on the basis of a certain situation or setting in which the passage takes place, it is necessary to analyze the passage's style in a contextual situation. According to functional stylistics, contextual factors include the following aspects:

3.2.1 Field of Discourse

Field of discourse exerts great influence on the vocabulary and sentence patterns of the language used. Further studies have discovered two aspects embraced in "field of discourse". One is the subject matter; the other is the nature of the activity. These two factors have great impact on the stylistic features.

EST passages can be seen as scientific discourse in English. Science cannot make many mistakes. The subject matter is concerned with the scientific information which is objective. It is no doubt that the nature of the scientific activity is objective. The objectivity plays a critical part in choosing the vocabulary and the grammar the language uses. This linguistic function makes the EST unique and distinctive from other types of writing in style. For example, the technical terms and the passive voice are used frequently in such passages, which rightly fulfil the requirements of the objectivity the EST needs.

3.2.2 Tenor of Discourse

Tenor of discourse refers to the relations among the participants in a discourse (Halliday, 1964). It chiefly concerns the degree of formality of the language in use. The scientific professionals and the people in this field play an important role in the scientific activities or conferences. They use the EST as a convenient media to convey the latest scientific information and exchange the scientific achievements with each other. In addition to the

professionals, there are other groups of people who are interested in this subject or have received higher education.

EST is characterized by declarative sentences and the use of present tense. The participants in the scientific field could not express their own feelings in a subjective way. Otherwise, they would not be able to convey the scientific information to the public. It is not like the literary English, which includes so many parts of speech to show the author's subjective opinions and evaluations.

3.2.3 Mode of Discourse

Mode of discourse "refers to the medium or mode of the language activity, and it is this that determines or rather correlates with, the role played by the language activity in the situation" (Halliday, 1964:91). To be more explicit, language style varies with different communicative channels. EST is written English and informative English in style. The two parties in the communicative process communicate their information through the visual medium. Its communication could be limited by the communicative channels. Therefore, any passage of EST, the long and complex sentences and the declarative sentences are used frequently to indicate clarity and accuracy in contents and avoid the ambiguity in words or expressions.

Self Assessment Exercise

(a) What is context?

(b) List and explain three contextual factors you have studied.

4. 0 CONCLUSION

EST is to account, exchange, and communicate the scientific information as its main aim. So, as an informative style, EST is characterized by its accuracy and logic. It is a matter of fact English devoid of the feelings and biases of the author. We must analyze its stylistic features deeply and in detail, then we could make an effective achievement with little efforts when we study or use the English for science and technology.

5.0 SUMMARY

EST is analyzed from the two perspectives: linguistic descriptions and contextual factors. While the linguistic features talk about the form, words and sentence structure, the contextual features discuss the social context of the relationship between the speaker and the hearer, their knowledge and their attitude. So as to have a detailed understanding of the stylistic features the EST passages have. The features listed above are quite representative in the English for science and technology.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(a) From what you have learnt so far, choose any passage from any scientific textbook and give a detailed linguistic analysis of it.

(b) Using another passage, make a contextual analysis of EST.

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