



Université d'Ain Témouchent  
Faculté des Lettres, des Langues et des  
Sciences Sociales                      Département des  
Lettres et Langue Anglaise GUAGE

# **An Introduction to Language for Speciality: Third-Year “Licence Level”**

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**An Introduction to Language for Speciality:  
Third-Year “Licence level”**

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The present work is a University handout which is adapted to our third-year EFL learners' needs

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## 1. What is ESP

Since English emerged as an international and worldwide language its use as a tool of communication is increasing and in a total infinite expansion, it is now used as tool to teach and comprehend multiple specialties and it is introduced through ESP. That what makes ESP in general is the teaching of English language for any purposes that could be specified. Since 1960, ESP has been one of the most active branches in applied linguistics in general and in TEFL specifically, mainly like mentioned before because of the emerge of English as the world language.

The origin of LSP (teaching language for specific purposes) can be traced as far as the roman and Greek empire (Dudley-Evans and ST Johns, 1998, 1) and as Strevens stated that the history of it goes back to “At least half a century». So many definitions were given to this new branch, It was defined as “the teaching of English used in Academic studies, or teaching it for vocational or professional purposes” (Anthony, 1997, 10) others defined it as like “it is used to refer to the teaching of English for clearly utilitarian purposes” (Mackay and Montford, 1998 . In another words the role of ESP is to help English language learners to build up the needed abilities in order to use them in a specific field.

- Mackay and Mount ford (1978: 2) “ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose.”
- Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987, p. 19) definition: “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.”
- Johns and Dudley-Evans’ (1991, p. 298) definition: “ESP requires the careful research and design of pedagogical materials and activities for an identifiable group of adult learners within a specific learning context.”

- Anthony (1997: 9-10) argued that “some people described ESP as simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified. Others, however, were more precise describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes”.
- Richards & Rodger (2001, p.107) “a movement that seeks to serve the language needs of learners who need English in order to carry out specific roles (e.g. student, engineer, nurse) and who need to acquire content and real-world skills through the medium of it rather than master the language for its own sake.”
- “language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments” Basturkmen (2006: 18).
- Paltridge & Starfield (2013 p. 2) “English for specific purposes (ESP) refers to the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain.”
- English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the language, skills, discourses, and genres required to address these needs, and assists learners in meeting these needs through general and/or discipline-specific teaching and learning methodologies (Anthony, 2015:2).
- Alsubie, S. (2016) asserts that “English for Specific purposes (ESP) is an approach to English language teaching to which the language is taught for a specific utilitarian purposes.”



## **1.1. Relationship between English for Specific Purposes and English Language Teaching (ELT)**

ESP has been a necessity that arose for the need of English in different fields of study. According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987), ESP emerged as a response to the needs of learners of language for work purposes particularly in the fields of science, technology and business after the Second World War (1937-1946). The new work demands related to a changing global society, the advances in language and linguistic focus, and the emphasis on learning needs of learners were some of the pushing factors behind the introduction of the ESP (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

This brought with it great changes in the teaching of English which shifted its focus from the linguistics focus of language being an object to be described in terms of phonemes, morphemes and words, to language being viewed as a means of communication (Chalikandy, 2013). As a result, language began to be interpreted differently based on the context, the participants and the goals, and inevitably, more focus was placed on the needs of the learners and on the need to generate materials for the learners' particular needs. The definitions of ESP put forward by various researchers have also centered on learners' needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as a language learning approach based on learner needs.

Orr (2001) claims that ESP is an intensive English language instruction intended to address the particular learning needs of a single learner or a group of learners within a defined period, within which basic teaching in general English is not enough. Borah (2016) posits that ESP is a branch of English language Teaching (ELT) and it is referred as 'applied ELT' because its aims and contents basically revolve around the specific needs of the learners. Making reference to Richards and Schmidt (2010), Laborda and Litzler (2015) defined ESP as language used in certain restricted communication styles (e.g. health documents, science-based reading, air traffic controls) that are not commonly used, and have lexical, grammatical and other language characteristics. It is evident that the definition of ESP is always attributed to

the fulfilment of a specific need that aims to focus on the development of specific skills of the learners. These definitions stipulate that ESP is solidly formed based on the needs of learners to learn a language for a specific purpose. Since its emergence in the late 1960s, ESP has undergone a constant process of development: its scope is redefined, its methodology is improved, its objectives and orientations are shaped and reshaped, and the number of course books designed to serve its purposes is enlarged (Fălăuș, 2017). Despite the extensive attention ESP received, challenges associated with ESP teaching and learning remain a subject of scrutiny, judging by the number of publications that could be extracted from the search engine Google Scholar. Interestingly, most of the articles identified by Google Scholar with ‘ESP Challenges’ as the search keyword are research involving non-native ESP-contexts such as Indonesia (Poedjiastutie, 2017; Marwan, 2017), Cambodia (Petraiki, & Khat, 2020), Saudi Arabia (Alsharif & Shukri, 2018), and Uzbekistan (Mustafayeva, 2019), to mention a few.

This suggests two obvious phenomena: one is that ESP continues to expand as an integral part of the English language learning process in various language contexts, and two, the challenges of ESP in the teaching of English are a subject that merits continuous attention. This is the aim to highlight the challenges with regards to the teaching of ESP and the possible solutions on how the challenges have been and could be tackled by ESP practitioners. Nowadays, too much more focus is devoted to the teaching of language and especially to that of English. This could be explained by the fact that nowadays the use of English as a ‘*worldwide language*’ is not restricted to that inner circle but it goes beyond to reach the global scale to better cope with the demands and challenges of globalization as a process and respond positively to the requirements of our language users in both educational and occupational environments, a progressive tendency takes place in universities and academic institutions to the inclusion of *specialized* language. In view of that, this present chapter aims to provide a review of literature covering theoretical framework of some important issues and researches relevant to the current study. These aspects are related

to the role of the EBE teachers, the use of authenticity of tasks and texts in enhancing the learners' knowledge.in enhancing the learners' knowledge.

## **1.2. Characteristics of ESP**

According to ( Richards,2001p, 6) ESP teaching aims are: preparing non-native speaking students for study in the English-medium academic context; preparing those already fluent or who have mastered general English, but now need English for specific usage in employment, such as engineers, scientists, or nurses; responding to the needs of the materials of English for Business Purposes; and teaching immigrants the English needed to deal with their job situations. Hence in ESP, “language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the 15 path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments” Basturkmen (2006,p, 18).

All the above definitions (from 1978 to 2006) can be considered as common core, because they described ESP as teaching specific content and skills of English to specific group of learners aiming at communicating effectively in academic or vocational situations. ESP is a recognizable activity of English Language Teaching (ELT) with some specific characteristics. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns(1998) “ tried to apply a series of characteristics, some absolute and some variable, to outline the major features of ESP. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns” tried (1998) to apply a series of characteristics, some absolute and some variable, to outline the major features of ESP.

### **➤ *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 centered 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. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems, but it can be used with beginners. (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998,p,4)

1. design to meet specific needs of the learners,
2. related to content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations, and activities,
3. centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc and analysis of this discourse.
4. differentiated to General English.

While the two variable characteristics are ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

1. restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only),
2. not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

### **1.3. The Basic Concepts/Principles of ESP**

ESP is the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified, i.e. its aim was to use English language in the process of teaching multiple different branches (to use it for different purposes) In another words it is a learner-centered approach to teaching English as an additional language, which focuses on developing

communicative competence in a specific discipline such as academics, accounting, agrolgy, business, IT, teaching, and engineering. It is generally designed for intermediate and advanced students. “The area of ESP teaching has witnessed differences in the speed of its development in different educational contexts. Each educational context seems to reflect specific needs, problems, challenges, teaching practices, and other specifications. These differences make the area of ESP seem to be a non-universal phenomenon” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

According to Benabdallah(2017,p, 15) As a trend of ELT teaching, ESP has established itself since 1960’s as one of the fundamental educational activities that places a central emphasis on the learners’ language and content-based needs as well as their communicative abilities to function effectively in their specific discipline. ESP teaching is generally meant to impart a specific group of students with scientific, technical, business and social jargon in accordance with their needs and expectations from learning English or what has been expressed in Mackay and Mountford’s (1978) words ‘*a utilitarian purpose*’. A key concept in ESP teaching is to teach those students the bit of English they need related to their field of specialization such as science, engineering and medicine. In this respect, Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 02) write: Given a learner or a group of learner with the specific purpose in learning English, it would seem logical in a learner-centred approach to base a course on that purpose and on the needs of the learners in his situation.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) extend the definition of ESP, categorizing it as an approach to language teaching which is not different in kind from general language courses and teaching methodology. It addresses the following basic questions ‘*why does this learner need to learn a foreign language*’ Where is the learning to take place? And what does the learner need to learn? Basterkmen (2006) believes that ESP is a ‘*goal-directed*’; it aims at providing learners with the linguistic features of subject-specific discipline. Moreover, she adds that it strives to develop the competencies required to help them function effectively in their discourse

communities. To sum up, all the above definitions share the view that ESP is language teaching which is fundamentally based on teaching of English required by the learners to be active participants in their field of study or working environment.

#### **1.4. Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP**

According to (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:9); ESP is not a monolithic universal phenomenon ESP has developed at different speeds in different countries. And went through three different main phases of development, it is now in the 4<sup>th</sup> phase emerging to the 5<sup>th</sup>. The area of activity has been particularly important in the development of ESP. This is the area usually known as EST (English for Science and Technology). Swales (1985) in fact use the development of EST to illustrate the development of ESP in general: ‘With one or two exceptions...English for Science and Technology has always set and continues to set the trend in theoretical discussion, in ways of analyzing language, and in the variety of actual teaching materials.’ We have not restricted our own illustrations to EST in this book, but we still need to acknowledge, as Swales does, the pre-eminent position of EST in the ESP story.

As Hutchinson and waters, 1987, 6) stated that “ESP was not planned r coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of converging trends” Teaching language for specific purposes (LSP) can be traced as far back as the Greek and Roman empires (Dudley-Evans and ST Johns, 1998:1). In the same vein, Strevens (1977) states that the history of LSP goes back to “at least half a century”. Regarding English for Specific Purposes (ESP), it emerged at the end of Second World War and it “was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends” (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 6).

- **Types of ESP**

ESP have functioned and operated in diverse ways around the world, “but we can identify three types . According toCarter (1983) explains types of ESP and clarifies that ESP has been developed before couple of years as there were many new areas immerging also to facilitate the learners and their individual vocabulary needs. ESP received more importance nowadays ESP has become part of the curriculum as see it in different domains such as Engineering; Medical & Coaching has their own registers to overcome the barrier of discourse specific needs should be considered. Even as we considered ESP as a procedure of language teaching in a specific areas and ESP is further divided into branches corresponding to needs of the learners for their academic and communicating needs. ESP is classified into sub section as follows ESP, EOP, EAP David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP: English as a restricted language

- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics

.• The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) clearly illustrate the difference between restricted language and 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 (pp. 4-5). The second type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes.

In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). 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 of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a 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 13 environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job" (p. 16). Perhaps this explains Carter's rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. However, despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed.

The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, I argue that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings. David Carver (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language.
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes.
- English with specific topics

The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language. The second type of ESP identified by Carver (1983) is English for



Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches:

- a) English for Science and Technology (EST).
- b) English for Business and Economics (EBE).
- c) English for Social Studies (ESS).

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 of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'. The third and final type of ESP identified by Carver (1983) is English with specific topics. Carver notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, it may be argued that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings. Hutchinson and Waters' (1987). Prior to them, ESP is split into the following headings:

- English for Social Sciences (ESS);
- English for Business and Economics (EBE);
- English for Science and Technology (EST).

Each of the above sub-branches is broken down into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) in the following figure:

ESP: approach not product

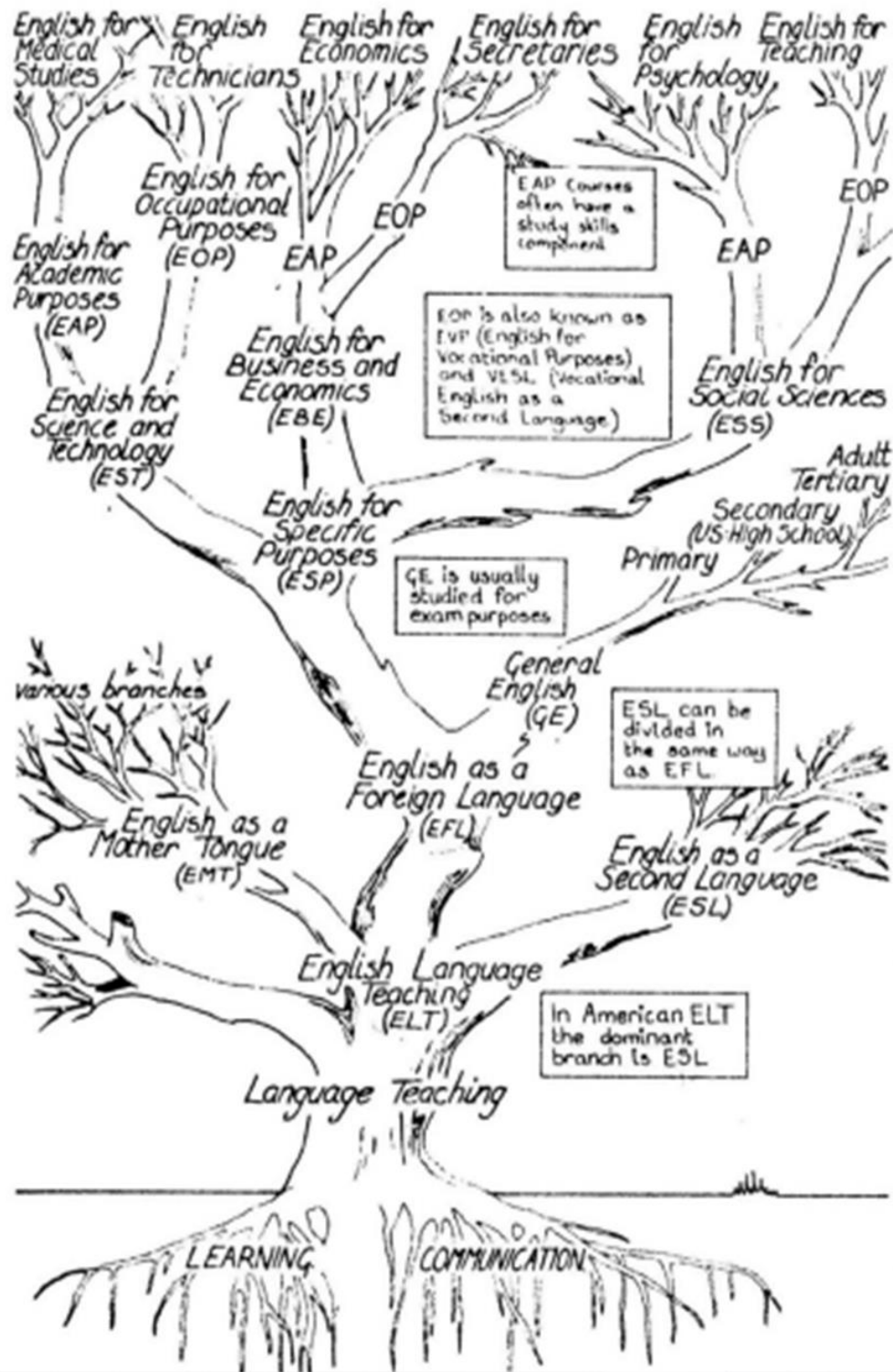


Figure .1. The Tree of ELT (adopted from Hutchinson and Waters (1987:17

#### 4.1. History and Phases in the Development of ESP

The main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP, ( Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 6), the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics and a new focus on the learner.

##### ✓ *The demands of a brave new world*

After 1945, the New World knew an age of massive and unprecedented growth in all the activities especially the economic, technical and scientific ones, inexorably it engenders a demand for an international language to communicate, and this responsibility was accredited to English for various reasons. Consequently“..., it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language...”(Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 6) aiming at fulfilling their daily needs which consisted in the comprehension of the simplest brochure or manuals to most complicated genres of discourses as scientific texts .

##### ✓ *A revolution in linguistics*

Some linguists, being aware of the world changes, began to focus their studies on the ways in which language is used in real situations. Traditional approach in language study centred the attention on the grammatical rules governing the language usage. However, it was found that discourses vary according to contexts. Then, it was necessary to reorganise the teaching and learning methodologies according to the language specificities of each situation. The English needed by engineers, doctors, linguists or officers “could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study. „Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need“ became the guiding principle of ESP”. Hutchison and Waters (1987: 8)

##### ✓ *Focus on the learner*

In the same period learner’s motivation towards acquiring a foreign language was the subject study of the educational psychologists, who noticed the use of different

learning strategies by learners; they have different attitudes, needs and interests. The idea was based on the statement of tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English you need. It was a natural expansion of this philosophy to plan special courses for each range of specific learners. Strevens (1977:152) notes: "...the existence of a major „tide“ in the educational thought, in all countries and affecting all subjects. The movement referred to is the global trend towards „learner-centered education“. Like the world, language study and concepts of education fundamentally changed, the English language teaching changed with it, and knew the birth of teaching English for Specific Purposes which is considered as the direct result of the world evolution.

## **5. EG Versus ESP**

ESP can be viewed as a special and specific edition of EGP that incorporates practical linguistic skills to enable students for the successful performance of professional tasks (Potocar, 2002). However, EGP provides basic knowledge and skills of English language at a school level where the occupational/professional and higher educational orientations of the students are not defined properly. The main goal of introducing ESP in various non-native /international settings is to equip learners with necessary English language skills to face their practical situation communication challenges in their future careers. As Holme (1996 cited in Potocar, 2002) suggests that ESP should help students to acquire necessary language skills to utilise their knowledge by combining work-related skills with personality development and sociocultural knowledge.

According to( Widdowson;1983 cited in Ajideh, 2009), the distinction between ESP and EGP lies in the way we define and implement the learning purpose. While ESP is objective-oriented learning where the specification of objective corresponds to the aim – the training operation – which deals with the development of restricted competence, EGP, on the other hand, is aim-oriented which does not equate the specification of objective to aim – an educational operation – dealing with the

development of general capacity (ibid). While the primary role of an ESP teacher is to design a syllabus based on realistic goals and evaluating students` performance through the evaluation of relevant language skills, the EGP teacher does not necessarily set the goals and objectives of the programme. Therefore, an ESP teacher is basically involved in a `training operation` equipping the learners with a `restricted competence` to cope with defined tasks, an EGP teacher, on the contrary, is involved in an `educational operation` equipping learners with a general capacity `to cope with undefined eventualities in future` (ibid,p.163).

The specificity of ESP courses demands a teacher to adopt a different role and teaching strategy to transfer knowledge to his students. First of all, he/she has to identify learners` needs that will, in fact, determine the Journal of Research (Humanities) 70 method, material and the level of language teaching (Robinson, 1991). `What distinguishes ESP from General English is an awareness of the need` (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.53). So, it can be inferred that an ESP practitioner is almost a teacher of General English unless he understands and focuses upon the special needs of his/her students (Robinson, 1991).However, it is likely that specific linguistic knowledge and skills may be relevant and useful to more than one subject or profession (Holme, 1996). For example, skills required for communicative competence for different occupations may be similar (Potocar, 2002). Widdowson (1983) establishes distinctive features of ESP and EGP. The most important features are:

### ***ESP***

- ❖ ESP focuses on training.
- ❖ ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures.
- ❖ ESP is built on an assessment of purposes or needs and the function for which English is required.
- ❖ ESP needs analysis that determine which language skills are most needed by the students and the syllabus is designed accordingly.

- ❖ ESP is likely designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level in institution or in a professional works situation

### ***EGP***

- ❖ EGP focuses on the English language in primary and secondary school education.
- ❖ EGP is to achieve a high standard of everyday English communication skills.
- ❖ It covers the four main skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.
- ❖ Course content is more difficult to select since the future English needs of the learners are hard to predict.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) *state* that there is no difference between the two in theory; however, there is a great deal of difference in practice. ESP like any other language teaching activity stands on facts about language nature, learning, and teaching; it is, however, often contrasted with General English. ESP teaching approach is known to be learner-centred where learners' needs and goals are of supreme value, whereas General English approach EGP is language centred, and focuses on learning language from a broad perception covering all the language skills and the cultural aspects of the English speaking community. Robinson (1980,p,6) explained that “the general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of General education for life, culture and literature oriented language course in which the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course”.

However, In ESP after the identification and the analysis of specific learning needs, students learn “English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge and set of skills”. Further distinction between General English courses and ESP is that, learners of the latter are mainly adult with a certain degree of awareness concerning their language needs (Hutchinson & Waters 1987). Whereas, General English courses are provided to pupils as compulsory module at schools, their unique purpose is to succeed in the examinations. Basturkmen (2006, p,9): maintains that

General English Language teaching tends to set out from a definite point to an indeterminate one, whereas ESP aims to speed learners and direct them through to a known destination in order to reach specific objectives. “The emphasis in ESP on going from A to B in the most time and energy efficient manner can lead to the view that ESP is an essentially practical endeavor”.

**Table2:** Different between EGP and ESP Basturkmen (2006)

EGP	ESP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The focus on</li> <li>• As the future English needs the students’ are impossible to predict, course content is difficult to select.</li> <li>• Due to the above points, it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on training</li> <li>• As the English is indented to be used in specific vocational contexts;</li> <li>• Selection of appropriate context is easier</li> <li>• EVP syllabus need has only a linguistic content to be most relevant to the vocational context.</li> </ul>

### 2.1. Differences between ESP and GE Programmes

At the ESP Special Interest Group (SIG) meeting at the IA TEFL conference in Brighton this year, there seemed to be some lack of agreement as to whether EAP was a type of ESP. This was shown in several presentations – and committee discussions - when ESP seemed to be contrasted with EAP. People would say and write things such as “In ESP and EAP” and “it is true in ESP, but what about EAP?” Some researchers see EAP as a type of ESP similar to the one below. ESP is categorised into English for work (EOP-English for occupational purposes) and English for research & study (EAP-English for academic purposes). EOP is further divided into EVP (English for vocational purposes) and EPP (English for professional purposes). Each field is then often separated into a general strand (EGVP or EGAP) and a specific strand (ESPP or

ESAP), (Bloor & Bloor, 1986): Here are some examples from seminal publications on ESP: “Perhaps the most influential branch of ESP is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which focuses on ESP in academic settings.” Anthony (2018, p. 13).

whereas audio-lingualism once dominated the profession, we now find situational, notional, functional, or communicative approaches, along with LSP and its variants (language for science and technology, for academic purposes, for occupational purposes, and so on) being considered the “standard model” for FL programs.” Bachman (1981, p. 106). “LSP is generally used to refer to the teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context.” Basturkmen, & Elder (2004, p. 672). “Major divisions in LSP are language for academic purposes, and language for occupational purposes, the latter comprising language for professional purposes and for vocational purposes” Basturkmen, & Elder (2004, p. 672). Areas of ESP teaching: English for academic purposes (EAP), English for professional purposes (EPP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP). Basturkmen (2010, p. 6) “... for those immersed in ESP practice today, engaged with ESP’s growing body of research and theory, and ever-diversifying and expanding range of purposes: from the better known English for academic purposes (EAP) and occupational purposes (EOP), the latter including business medicine law, but also field such as shipbuilding and aviation...”

Belcher (2006, p. 134) “There are, and no doubt will be, as many types of ESP as there are specific learner needs and target communities that learners wish to thrive in. Perhaps the best known of these (especially among language educators who are themselves most often situated in academia) is EAP, or English for academic purposes, tailored to the needs of 21 learners at various, usually higher, educational levels. Less well known (to many academics) and potentially more diversified, given the breadth and variety of the worlds of work, is EOP, or English for occupational purposes. The fastest growing branches of EOP are those associated with professions that are themselves constantly expanding and generating offshoots, such as EBP, English for



business purposes; ELP, English for legal purposes; and EMP, English for medical purposes.

There are also numerous other less well known but equally intriguing varieties of EOP, such as English for air traffic controllers, English for tourist guides, English for horse breeders, and English for brewers. The ESP picture is further complicated by numerous hybrid permutations of EOP and EAP, combining elements of both, such as EAMP, English for academic medical purposes (for health science students); EABP, English for academic business purposes (for students majoring in business), and EALP, English for academic legal purposes (for law students). EAP, EOP, and still further combinations of both are not the whole story either, as socially conscious ESP specialists have begun to consider highly specialized sociocultural purposes too (hence, English for socio-cultural purposes, or ESCP) by addressing such needs as those of language and literacy learners who are incarcerated, coping with physical disabilities, or seeking citizenship. What Hyland (2006) has recently observed of EAP is arguably also an apt descriptor of ESP in general: its motivation to help those especially disadvantaged by their lack of language needed for the situations they find themselves in, hope to enter, or eventually rise above.”. Belcher (2010, pp. 2-3). “As knowledge of English has become the gateway to education and employment in many contexts, different types of ESP programs have arisen to address adults’ 22 associated learning needs.

In academic settings, English for academic purposes (EAP) programs employ different models, including intensive English programs (IEPs), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), and programs that prepare learners for “the spread of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) within communities where English is not the primary language of communication”.... In workplace and professional contexts, ESP programs may focus on English for occupational purposes (EOP, also referred to as workplace language training), where adults are seeking to develop the English language skills they need for their jobs, or English for professional purposes (EPP), where adults are pursuing greater proficiency in the language of their fields of

expertise, such as business, law, government, medicine, and other professions.” Blok, Lockwood & Frenco (2020, p. vii7). “Books and articles on the topic of ESP often roughly subdivide those purposes or needs into English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP)” Brown (2016, p. 7). “EAP has grown out of, and is a branch of, a slightly older field of study- that of English for Specific Purposes.” Bruce (2011, p. 4): “Teaching languages for special purposes, or for specific purposes, as some specialists prefer to say, is an important sub-branch of language teaching about which we should add a few words.

Though not an entirely new idea, it is only in recent years that it has taken on an identity of its own. In relation to English, it is usually referred to as ‘ESP’, and further sub-categories within it usually come to be designated by a similar type of 23 acronym, for example ‘EAP’ English for Academic Purposes. One of its most important branches is ‘EST’ English for Science and Technology.” Brumfit & Roberts (1983, p.88) “EAP is part of a larger area of applied linguistics called English for Specific Purposes (ESP).” Charles & Pecorari (2016, p. 7). “Jordan (1997, p. 1) suggests that the term English for academic purposes (EAP) was first used as the title for the published proceedings of the *SELMOUS* conference held at the University of Birmingham in 1975, and a focus on the development of study skills became central to defining this separate branch of ESP.”

Ding & Bruce (2017. p. 57). “Thus EAP emerged as a variety of ESP and, in its early stages, did not appear to position itself as significantly different from its ‘parent’ discipline.” (p. 58) Ding & Bruce (2017. p. 57). “Typically, LSP tests have been construed as those involving language for academic purposes and for occupational or vocational purposes.” Douglas (2000, p. 2) “As with most branches of TESOL and applied linguistics, ESP is often divided up into various categories with mysterious acronyms. It is usually classified into two main categories: English for academic purpose (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP).” Dudley-Evans (2001, p. 132). 24 “ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purpose (EOP).”

Dudley-Evans & St John (1998, p. 5). "ETIC makes a distinction between English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP) as the two main branches of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)." ETIC (1975, p. 1). "EAP is normally considered to be one of the two main branches of English for specific purposes (ESP), the other being English for occupational purposes (EOP)." Flowerdew & Peacock (2001, p. 11). "When people speak of Languages for specific purposes, they generally think about English for specific purposes, a subject that is usually broken down into English for academic purposes and English for occupational, vocational or professional purposes, as well as many other finer categories, such as English for business, English for engineers or even English for museum guides." Gollin-Kies, Hall & Moore (2015, p. 11). "In an industry that loves its acronyms, ESP has spawned more than most: EAP, EBP, EMP, EOP, EPP, EST, EVP to name just a few. We will only use the term ESP in this book.

ESP is a comprehensive term and it includes English for business and English for academic purposes..." Harding (2007, p. 6). "The tree represents some of the common divisions that are made in ELT. The topmost branches of the tree show the level at which individual ESP courses occur. The branches just below this level indicate that these may conveniently be divided into two main types of ESP differentiated according to whether the learner requires English for academic study (EAP: English for academic purposes) or for work/training (EOP/EVP/VESL: English for occupational purposes/English for vocational purposes/vocational English as a second language)." Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p. 16). "Right from the start it was recognized that a distinction had to be drawn between general-purpose learners whose aims were widely shared by others and those whose needs were specific to a particular, often tightly defined group.

So far as the former were concerned, the main task for the teacher was to make the needs explicit and ensure that the language which was taught actually helped learners to cope with them. Specific-purpose students, however, presented a more complex pedagogical task which ELT had never tackled in detail before. The good old days of

‘commercial English’ or ‘technical English’, with their flavouring of specialist lexis, were long gone; students wanted their purposes to be more specifically reflected in the courses they were being asked to take (the language learning motivation of specific-purpose students can be difficult to sustain) and the demand grew for increasingly well-defined programmes as English for Special Purposes (Specific Purposes from the late 1970s) diversified into English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Occupational Purposes (EOP), Science and Technology (EST), and so on.” Howatt (2004, p. 251). “English for academic purposes (EAP) has evolved rapidly over the past twenty years or so.

From humble beginnings as a relatively fringe branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the early 1980s, it is today a major force in English language teaching and research around the world.” Hyland (2006, p, 1). “The main interests of the ESP movement can be categorized in a number of ways. For the purposes of this discussion, we have created a set of categories. Because of their current importance, a few of these categories will be highlighted in this chapter: English for occupational purposes, particularly VESL and English for business purposes (EBP), and English for academic purposes (EAP). It is important to note, however, that this chart is far from exhaustive; there is a remarkable array of ESP courses offered throughout the world. In various cities in Italy, for example, there are project-oriented curricula for white-collar workers in the tourist industry (English for tourism).

According to Hyland (2006, p, 1). “ESP has two strands: English for occupational / vocational / professional purposes (EOP/EVP/EPP), which we shall only touch on, and English for academic purposes (EAP), which we shall consider in depth.” Jordan (2002, p. 4) “There are two main divisions which help to distinguish ESP situations: English for occupational purposes (EOP) and English for academic purposes (EAP).” Kennedy & Bolitho (1984, p. 3). “And so the common categorisation, ESP and general English, is replaced by a more useful classification: English for social purposes, English for academic purposes and English for occupational purposes.” Kerr (1977, p. 11). “English for academic purposes (EAP)

shares many common elements with English language teaching that occurs in other settings and in its parent field, English for specific purposes (ESP.” Kostka & Olmstead-Wang (2014, p. 2). “English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a movement based on the proposition that all language teaching should be tailored to the specific learning and language use needs of identified groups of students-and also sensitive to the sociocultural contexts in which these students will be using English.

Most of the movement’s practitioners are teachers of adults, those students whose needs are more readily identified within academic, occupational, or professional settings.” Johns (2001, p. 43). The ESP Journal is dedicated to the dissemination of information concerning all aspects of ESP – vocational, occupational and academic. Mancil (1980, p. 7) “Our solution was to include in the ESP volume those submissions that were specifically linked to an acknowledged subdivision of of ESP; such as English for academic purposes (EAP), English for science and technology (EST), and English for vocational purposes (EVP).” Master & Brinton, 1998, p. viii). “This simply states that English for specific purposes has two main branches: English for academic purposes and English for occupational purposes.”

### **5.1. Differences between ESP Practitioner and GE Teacher**

According Hutchinson et al. (1987:53) answer this quite simply, "in theory nothing, in practise a great deal". In 1987, of course, the last statement was quite true. At the time, teachers of 'General English' courses, while acknowledging that students had a specific purpose for studying English, would rarely conduct a needs analysis to find out what was necessary to actually achieve it. Teachers nowadays, however, are much more aware of the importance of needs analysis, and published textbooks have improved dramatically allowing the teacher to select materials which closely match the goals of the learner. Perhaps this demonstrates the influence that the ESP approach has had on English teaching in general.

Nevertheless, the line between where 'General English' courses stop and ESP courses start has become very vague indeed. Ironically, although many 'General

English' 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, many so-called ESP teachers are using an approach furthest from that described above. 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 describes the true ESP teacher or ESP Practitioner (Swales, 1988) as needing to perform five different roles. These are 1) Teacher, 2) Collaborator, 3) Course designer and materials provider, 4) Researcher and 5) Evaluator. The first role as 'teacher' is synonymous with that of the 'General English' teacher.

It is in the performing of the other four roles that differences between the two emerge. 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. One example of the important results that can emerge from such a collaboration is reported by Orr (1995). This collaboration, however, does not have to end at the development stage and can extend as far as teach 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 him or herself. Both 'General English' 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. (1987:165) 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. The final role as 'evaluator' 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. (1986:158) is that despite carrying no credits, "students continue to attend despite rival pressures of a heavy programme of credit courses". On the other hand, recent work such as that of Jenkins et al. (1993) suggests an increasing interest in this area of research

Benabdallah(2007,p,51) though it has been usually argued that the ESP teaching methodologies are not different in kind from other form of language teaching, the ESP literature has clearly reported that the ESP teacher plays many roles depending on number of parameters, the syllabus is among them. To design, for instance, task-based syllabus, the ESP teacher, in general, performs clearly different functions from skill based syllabus. This idea has been viewed by Jordan (1997:122) who states: "The role of the teacher will vary according to the type of the syllabus and the course." As the present study focuses on the ESP teaching in general and EBE in particular, the review of the stages used by the ESP teacher is first reported in this section. In this respect, specialists widely insist on the idea that planning these courses requires taking into account the appropriate role to be performed.

For Benabdallah(2007,p,52),the teacher has first to conduct a NAI to focus only on those sub-skills needed by the learners. If they require, for example, to skim the text for specific information, the focus on this micro-skill is to be made. In this sense, Robinson (1991,p,81) writes: “the teacher will (...) act as a consultant. This involves diagnosing each student’s language and communication needs.” According to Frydenberg (1982), the draw up of lists of skills of the course is needed; the rationale behind this is that different specialities have different focuses such as interpreting graphics, describing and classifying. In this sense, he states: “...study skills were a necessary component as well as direct reading skills.”(Frydenberg, 1982,p,157) Once the learners’ needs are analyzed, the next step according to Dudley-Evans and John (1998) is to cooperate and collaborate with the subject-specialists. They point out that the former refers to the stage where the ESP teacher seeks to gather general information about the students’ content courses.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,53), the latter is related to the integration the subject knowledge within language practice. Specialists believe that these two phases provide useful information about what the students need to read. Additionally, they argue that this information offers the carrier content of the course which is associated to the conceptual level of the students’ subject-matters. The role of the language teacher is to base his reading course on the real content. It is necessary to establish a balance between needs and motivational factors besides course objectives. In this respect, Frydenberg (1982,p,157) writes: the aim of the ESP course is not to teach the content of (...) that course, but to teach high-transfer skills that are only incidentally being developed through texts that are the same as or similar to those used on their content courses. This means that the ESP themes are to be selected in accordance with the students’ content courses and the purpose of developing their learning skills needed to understand a given text.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,53) , ESP specialists (Hutchinson and Waters; 1987; Robison, 1991; Jordan, 1997) agree on the fact that the next step is to select materials or texts in accordance with the students’ levels. Thus, they are

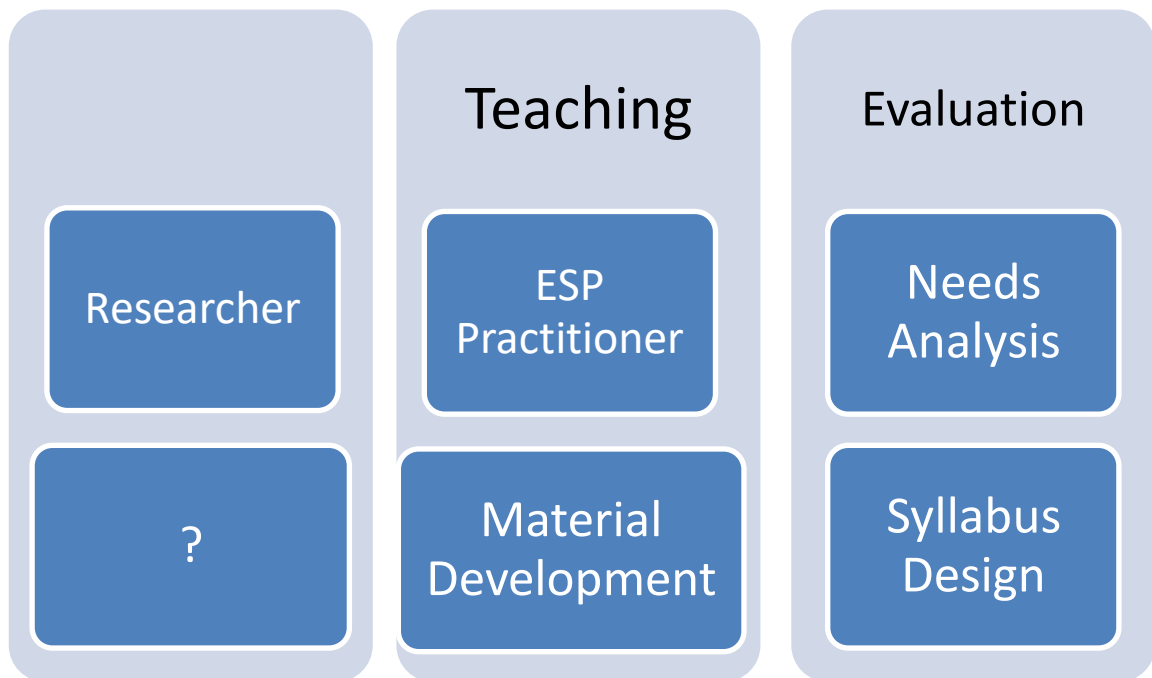


required to include tasks relevant to the needs of the learners. Mackay and Mountford (1978) cite two types of tasks that felt to be necessary for ESP courses, namely comprehension questions and comprehension exercises. The former includes questions about the texts such as Wh, yes/ no questions and true/false statements as well. The latter requires language production. The focus, at this level, according to them, is on the teaching of two types of vocabulary that are; common core and specialized terminology, relying on linguistic aspects of the text such as cohesion.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,54), in addition to the above mentioned role of the ESP teacher, Dudley-Evans and John (1998) add other responsibilities including knowledge, skills and experience. They believe that since the EBE teacher is usually trained in general English and finds himself teaching in business context, this therefore requires:

- a knowledge of the communicative functioning of English in business context;
- an understanding of the business people's expectations and learning strategies;
- an understanding of the psychology of personal and interpersonal interactions in cross-cultural setting;
- some knowledge of the management theories and practice;
- first-class training skills.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,54) Dudley-Evans and John (1998,p,60-61) Knowledge of the communicative functioning of English used in this environment, according to them, should cover the discourse, the business genre, the communicative events, the grammar and lexis needed by the participants. Yet, these latter entail conformity and adaptability on the part of the EBE teacher which may be achieved only through reading, attending conferences, listening to business negotiations (Dudley-Evans and John, 1998). Most authors agree that the ESP teachers' works involve much more than teaching. DudleyEvans and St. John (1998) prefer the term ESP Practitioner as this definition seems to be more detailed and complete. They distinguish the following roles of ESP practitioners.



**Figure.12:** The Role of ESP Teacher

As a Teacher ESP is a practical discipline with the most important objective of helping students to learn. However, the teacher is not the primary knower of the carrier content of the material. The students, especially where the course is specifically oriented towards the subject content or work the students are engaged in, may know more about the content than the teacher. The teacher has the opportunity to draw on students' knowledge of the content in order to generate communication in the classroom.

When the teaching is a specific course on, for example, how to write a business report, it is vital that the teacher adopts the position of the consultant who has the knowledge of communication practices but needs to “negotiate” with the students on how best to explore these practices to meet the objective they have. The relationship is much more of a partnership. In some situations the role of ESP teacher extends to giving one-to-one advice to students (e.g., in non-English speaking countries students will have to publish in international journals and need advice in both language and discourse issues). ESP teachers need to have considerable flexibility, be willing to

listen to learners, take interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in, and to take some risks in their teaching. (Cited in Bojović 2006) 3.4.2. As Course Designer and Material Provider Since it is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material – sometimes no really suitable published material exists for identified needs - ESP practitioners often have to provide the material for the course. This involves selection of published material, adapting material if it is not suitable, or writing it.

ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used whether it is published or selfproduced. However, since the teachers are encouraged by their employees to write new material there is a danger of constant re-invention of the wheel; advantages of published materials are ignored even when they are suitable for a given situation. (Cited in Bojović 2006) Due to the lack of materials for ESP courses, the ESP practitioner is expected to plan his course well as per his need and accordingly provide the materials to his pupils. The teacher's task also includes adapting materials when published materials are unsuitable, or his/her own materials lack the proper authenticity. With reference to a particular class room experience, the Design of the course shall be prepared. The levels of attainment are described for each of the skills areas (listening, speaking, reading and writing) as follows:

1. Survival Level – The person can use language for basic purposes in extremely limited way.
2. The way stage level – The person can communicate very simply in limited range of topics.
3. The Threshold level - The person can use the language for most everyday situations and topics at simple level.
4. The Adequacy Level-The person can use the language for range of situations and topics and can show awareness of appropriate style and variety.

5. Proficiency Level- The person can respond flexibly to complex ideas and expressions.
6. The mastery Level- The person has no problem in using the language.
7. The Ambi-lingual Level- The person's use of language is indistinguishable from that of any educated native speaker.

As Researcher: Research has been particularly strong in the area of EAP (genre analysis). Regarding the research into English for Business Purposes, there is a growing interest in investigating the genres, the language and the skills involved in business communication. ESP teachers need to be in touch with the research. Teachers carrying out a needs analysis, designing a course, or writing teaching materials need to be capable of incorporating the findings of the research, and those working in specific ESP situations need to be confident that they know what is involved in skills such as written communication (Cited in Bojović 2006).

As Collaborator It is believed that subject-specific work is often best approached through collaboration with subject specialist. This may involve cooperation in which ESP teacher finds out about the subject syllabus in an academic context or the tasks that students have to carry out in a work or business situation. Or it may involve specific collaboration so that there is some integration between specialist studies or activities and the language. It might involve the language teacher specifically preparing learners for the language of subject lectures or business presentations. Another possibility is that a specialist checks and comments on the content of teaching materials that the ESP teacher has prepared. The fullest collaboration is where a subject expert and a language teacher team-teach classes; in EAP such lessons might help with the understanding of subject lectures or the writing of examination answers, essays or theses, while in EOP they might involve the language teacher and a business trainer working together to teach both the skills and the language related to business communication (Cited in Bojović 2006).

As Evaluator The ESP practitioner is often involved in various types of evaluation - testing of students, evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Tests are conducted 1) to assess whether students have the necessary language and skills to undertake a particular academic course or career which is important in countries such as the UK, USA, Australia where large numbers of international students do postgraduate course or research and need internationally required tests, e.g. International English Language Test Service (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and 2) to assess the level of their achievement – how much learners have gained from a course. Evaluation of course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being taught, at the end of the course and after the course has finished, in order assessing whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for. Evaluation through discussion and on-going needs analysis can be used to adapt the syllabus (Cited in Bojović 2006).

Cultural Understanding as a Role of ESP Teacher An ESP practitioner similar to an EGP teacher must understand and respect the cultural sensitivities of his students especially while teaching in a non-native setting. Moreover, an ESP teacher should also be aware of the differences between various academic or professional cultures where he/she works (ibid). He/she must keep in mind this kind of cultural awareness while designing courses, preparing materials and instructing the class. William (1981) suggests that an ESP teacher should have the ‘knowledge of students’ world’ (p.91). Robinson (1991) finds the term ‘knowledge of students’ world’ vague and specifies it. He argues that it may include ‘culture and personal concerns as well as their specialism’ (p.80). It will be interesting to note that the specific culture of ESP classrooms stipulates students’ respect as they might know more about subject content than their language teachers (Smith, 1983).

besides the normal role of the ESP teacher that required an analysis of the needs of his learners and, then, designing appropriate courses and materials accordingly, the EBE teacher should act as a mediator between the theory and practice. To this end, it is

to be pointed out that he is not supposed to be the knower of knowledge but rather understanding “...the interface between business principles and language” (Dudley-Evans and John, 1998,p,70).

It is not easy to ascertain a teacher’s role in a general or particular context because it is not static. It keeps on changing owing to the differences in syllabi, courses and teaching contexts (Jordan, 1997). This very fact guides us to understand various roles of EGP and ESP teachers. If an ESP and an EGP teacher are not the same, then the question is what are the differences between them. Hutchinson and Waters (1987),while referring to ESP and EGP, answer this question very briefly that theoretically speaking there is no distinction; however, there are many differences in practice.‘There is no single, ideal role description’ (Robinson,1991, p.79) for an ESP teacher because there is a huge variety of ESP courses and contexts. However, Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) have identified some specific roles of an ESP practitioner as a teacher, course designer and material provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator. These special roles make an ESP practitioner less similar to the teacher of General English.Flexibility is assumed to be a secret of success for an ESP teacher. It is, in fact,a personal quality which transforms an EGP teacher into an ESP practitioner and helps him/her to instruct successfully various groups of students, even at a very short notice (Robinson, 1991, p.80).

The comparative roles of an ESP and EGP teachers highlighted through the above literature makes it amply clear that though there are some common grounds for both the teachers in their respective classes, still the ESP teachers have a number of responsibilities which make their job more demanding. The ESP teacher or practitioner while performing the traditional role like an EGP teacher has to become a material designer, an organiser, a councillor, a facilitator and researcher at the same time. The diversity of their roles needs to be highly reflected in the practices carried out in their classes for the attainment of their teaching objectives. As compared to EGP teachers, ESP practitioners have to show more flexibility in their approaches because of ever-

changing teaching situations and autonomous students in ESP contexts. Both EGP and ESP teachers should be skilful and trained to produce fruitful results in their fields. But it can safely be assumed that ESP teachers must be given special training in the required skills like need analysis and material designing to enable them to meet the specific needs and high expectations of their students.

Selecting material Materials used in presenting ESP courses determine the running of the course and underlines content of the lesson. Choosing the appropriate material is helpful for both teachers and learners by organizing the course, introducing the new learning techniques, and achieving the learning process. Hutchinson and Waters (1992,p,107) described materials as the teacher's reflection; "they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process". Good material should be based on various interesting texts and activities providing a wide range of skills. Teachers determines 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. Materials should also function as a link between already learnt (existing knowledge) and new information. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992).

Text activities In ESP course, text as a learning material is a practical activity that provides learners with new vocabulary, communicative or reading skills. It is important to involve all the students' skills to make working with a text as much effective as possible. Also it is preferred to combine working with printed text with listening to audiocassette or video cassette that means receptive with productive activities. These texts activities should be related to the context of the subject matter being studied. Creating a learning environment – motivation Creating a positive learning atmosphere is an important criterion that should be applied during the classroom in order to achieve the courses setting objectives and goals. It makes teaching and learning more pleasant for both teachers and learners, as it supports students in their work. Learning in a positive atmosphere is closely linked with motivation which is a kind of inner motor that encourages us to do our best to achieve

a satisfactory goal in our activity. Harmer defines motivation as “some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action“(Harmer, 1991,p,14).

The role of motivation during each activity is inevitable. Students should be motivated as much as possible to enjoy the activity and achieve its real aim. 3. Requirement of Teaching ESP Many researchers have spoken about the demands of teaching ESP especially that ESP is continually developing and changing from one profession to another. Basturkmen (2010,p,7) points out that teacher can feel lost when he deals with content of particular domain that they don't know much about or when he works alone in an on-site environment so it is a challenging task to be an ESP teacher because he would feel inexperienced or unqualified to teach. Most of ESP teachers did not receive a special training as the formal TESOL wish has been very largely concerned with general ELT. Despite the existence of some differences between teaching ELT and ESP, both of them share a common goal – to develop students' communicative competence. Ellis (1996,p,74) defines language pedagogy as “concerned with the ability to use language in communicative situations.” The main principle of ELT courses is that language course content should be related to the purposes for which students are expected to use language after all. 19 There are two types of goals for language teaching shared between ELT and ESP: external and internal (Cook, 2002). External goals concern the uses of language outside the classroom for example being able to communicate in the real world, such as being able to buy groceries or chatting on the internet.

Internal goals are associated to the educational aims of the classroom by enhancing the learners' skills such as speaking, analyzing, memorizing and social goals. ESP teaching is generally understood to be very largely concerned with external goals. In ESP the learner is seen as a language learner engaged either in academic, professional or occupational pursuits and who uses English as a means to carry out those pursuits. External goals suggest an instrumental view of language learning and language being learnt for non-linguistic goals. ESP focuses on when, where and why learners need the language either in study or workplace contexts. Decisions about what



to teach, and sometimes how to teach are informed by descriptions of how language is used in the particular contexts the learners will work or study in. There is thus a strong focus in ESP on language as ‘situated language use’ (Basturkmen). Tudor (1997:91) points out that an important distinguishing feature of ESP is that it deals with ‘domains of knowledge which the average educated native speaker could not reasonably be expected to be familiar with’. In other words, what is focused on in ESP courses is not part and parcel of the communicative repertoire of all educated native speakers as in the case of general English teaching. So, for example, in teaching English to a group of nurses, course content might involve items such as medical terminology, patterns of nurse–patient interaction, written genres such as patient records, items that are not in the communicative realm of those outside nursing fields. In this case we need ESP teachers who know how to design courses in a conceptual area that one has not mastered and develop the ability to analyze and describe specific texts (Basturkmen 2010,p, 9)

#### ✓ *Tasks and objectives of ESP Teachers*

the roles played by ESP teachers, they are concerned with some tasks that help them to achieve their objectives which consist mainly of increasing the spoken and the written competence of ESP learners by concentrating on the four skills, the acquisition of linguistics and cultural information of the learners’ fields and to create a positive attitude in them toward the English language. The tasks include developing curriculum, designing ESP courses, analyzing the learners’ needs and assessing their improvements. In order to clarify the entire notions and concepts mentioned in the literature review part, at the end of this section, we will describe briefly our practical case in accordance with the previous sections. 2. Developing Curriculum Basturkmen (2010,p, 53) stated that ESP courses can be developed for groups of learners with very similar needs or with only somewhat similar needs.

Some ESP courses are developed for disciplines or occupations as broad fields and some for specialties within them. Therefore ESP teacher must distinguish between

courses that are “wide angled” (designed for a more general group of learners) and those that are “narrow angled” (designed for a very specific group of learners). For example courses titled EGAP and Business English can be considered ‘wide angled’ since they are designed for classes focused on broad academic skills or a register (Business English) which encompasses many subfields including marketing, accounting and management. Whereas courses titled English for Nursing Studies and English for Accountants can be considered relatively ‘narrow angled’ since they refer to courses that are more specific, as they have been designed for learners we might assume have largely homogeneous needs and who have a particular type of academic or work environment in mind.

Basturkmen (2010,p,55) suggests that the terms ‘wide- and narrow-angled’ course designs might follow a two-way divide. However, courses can be more or less narrow or wide and can be seen as existing on a continuum of specificity. At one end of this continuum are the most general ESP courses, courses that focus on a register, such as Business English or Academic English and courses that focus on a generic set of skills in an area, such as Business English Skills or EGAP. Towards the other end of the continuum are courses focusing on specific needs and language use of a particular area of work or study, for example, English for Accountants (and the narrower option, English for Financial Accountants), or English for Social Science Studies (and the narrower option, English for Sociology Studies). Some ESP courses are devised for a very specific group of learners, for instance, English for Auditors (auditing is a branch of financial accounting) and an even narrower option, a course organized at the behest of a particular workplace or division within a workplace, for example, a course for the financial accountants in the auditing division of a particular accountancy firm. See the representation of courses that range from low to high specificity The wide- and narrow-angled continuum (Basturkmen, 2010,p,55). Designing ESP Courses According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point of view the most important work done by ESP teachers is designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners. So, they (1987,p,21) argued that “whereas course design

plays a relatively minor part in the life of the General English teacher - course here usually being determined either by tradition, choice of textbook or ministerial decree - for ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important part of the workload”, and they added that ESP course designing is “fundamentally a matter of asking questioning order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent processes of syllabus design, material writing, classroom teaching and evaluation”. According to them questions should be asked by the ESP teacher are the following:

1. Why does the student need to learn?
2. Who is going to be involved in the process?
3. Where is the learning to take place?
4. What potential does the place provide?
5. What limitation does the place impose?
6. When is the learning to take place?
7. How much time is available? How will it be distributed?
8. What does the student need to learn? What aspects of language will be needed and how will they be described?
9. What level of proficiency must be achieved?
10. What topics areas will need to be covered?
11. How will learning be achieved?
12. What learning theory will underlie the course?
13. What kind of methodology will be employed?

(Hutchinson and Waters 1987,p, 21-22) They classified theses fundamental questions under three categories: Language Descriptions, Theories of Learning and

Needs Analysis. Even though these three items look like separate entity, their interdependence in the syllabus design process is of greatest importance.

✓ *Implication for Practice*

ESP teachers have to take multidimensional responsibilities to fulfill short-term and long-term learners' needs in either academic or occupational domains. In fact, ESP programs are tailored to the needs of specific groups of learners throughout a small duration. In spite of small duration of the courses, the expectations of different ESP figures such as sponsors, curriculum planners, academic departments, executive authorities, learners, and evaluators are rather unreasonable. Unfortunately, ESP teachers are often blamed for the deficiencies of the programs unfairly. In other words, the inability of many learners to fulfill the occupational and academic expected needs is mostly related to the teachers' inappropriate approach instead of inefficient curriculum planning and limited time devoted to the instructional program. Such negative feelings toward English teachers inevitably enhance the feeling of inferiority and lack of self-confidence in front of members of academic or occupational boards, which ESP teachers work for. Therefore, they are unable to cooperate with them effectively to get useful insights about the specific needs of the learners and the academic content, they have to teach. However, as it was mentioned, the close collaboration between teachers and learners and team-teaching activities in ESP programs are of essential importance.

Therefore, in such difficult situations, English teachers have to work as action-based practitioners and theoreticians, who have to put many assumptions into practice and theorize them, if prove successful. However, due to higher sensitivity and expectation of ESP learners and sponsors, their specificity of needs, limited time, complicated syllabuses, complexity of specific academic content, and many other reasons, English teachers cannot act by themselves. Therefore, the essence of teacher-training programs is more strongly felt in ESP settings in comparison with other educational programs. In such teacher-training programs, many teaching tips, strategies, and techniques, contributing to the teachers' effective instruction, should be

expanded. In addition, due to the importance of adulthood-oriented approach in ESP courses, the adults' psychological and educational needs should be investigated, and skillful counseling teachers should be trained. Moreover, due to the importance of teacher-training for ESP courses, particular workshops should be administered to enable ESP teachers to share their knowledge and experiences with each other. Such programs can be administered in online way to enable many ESP teachers to take part in them even at home. In such programs, it is recommended to provide teachers with some specialized fundamental knowledge about the academic content, which they have to teach in ESP classes. Besides, due to the variety of genres in different disciplines, ESP teachers should be able to analyze the moves and steps of the particular genre, which they have to teach.

### **3.1. Why Train ESP Teachers?**

English plays a prominent role in higher education all over the world. There has been a worldwide growth in demand for English for Academics courses (Jordan, 1997). English, the lingua franca of all sciences, has come out in non-English speaking countries as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Ghanbari, 2010). ESP is a developing branch of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in Iran (Moslemi, Moinzadeh & Dabaghi, 2011). It is learning English for a given purpose, with the specific aims of getting to know specialized vocabulary, increasing one's knowledge about the subject matter by reading in English, and being able to use the language in the prospective profession or study area by becoming prepared for some common situations such as carrying out higher level studies, going for an interview or conducting professional communication (Varnosfardani, 2009).

Many English language courses in academic settings are based on the principle that language should be related to the purpose for which students are expected to use language after their studies. After the Islamic Revolution in Iran (1978), there has been an inflexible move supervised by the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (MSRT) to set up identical discipline-based EAP programs for academies (Eslami, 2010). Problems of English for Specific Purpose courses in Iran are: they are being

offered without advanced planning in course design, systematic needs analysis, teacher education, time, textbooks, and systematic research on the effectiveness of these programs (Eslami, 2010; Karimkhanlouei, 2012, Hayati, 2008). Basturkmen (2006) summarized the issues in ESP as follows: It can be argued that language varieties are based in and extend from a common core of language. Or it can be argued that language varieties are self-contained identities. Needs analysis can be seen as an entirely pragmatic and objective endeavor to help course developers identify course content that is truly relevant to the learners, or it can be argued to have a bias in favor of the situations and may overemphasize objective needs at the cost of subjective needs. It can be argued that syllabus should specify method (how language is to be taught). Some argue that the (ESP) courses should be narrow-angled as possible. As an ESP practitioner for years in Sudan and Saudi Arabia, I faced a lot of problems and challenges that may affect teaching practice. These problems may influence other ESP practitioners:

- 1) Lack of orthodoxy;
- 2) Lack of specialist knowledge;
- 3) Lack of materials;
- 4) Lack of learners' motivation.

#### ✓ *Lack of Orthodoxy*

This problem started since the emergence of ESP in its early years (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). It is about the “authentic materials”, which lack their harmony with course intended for teaching and learning. Upon some debates, the majority of researchers believe that the authentic texts are genuine and should only be planned for native speakers. Therefore, many researchers brought different concepts about this issue. Here, I mention three scientists as an example: David Nunan (1989: p. 54) quotes “a rule of thumb for authentic here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of the language teaching”. According to Wilkins (1976: p. 79), believes that the authentic materials are focussed on the English speaking countries. As for Morrow (cited in Taylor 1994), thinks that authentic text is

generated by those who are native speakers and used to be addressed to the same type of addressees.

✓ ***Lack of Specialist Knowledge***

Since delivering ESP courses, this matter lacks the specialists' knowledge in the area which I teach and it caused as a problematic issue that enable me to whom contact and cooperate with. For me, it is considered as time consuming to find or contact such specialists because they are either busy or never desire to help. So, I find the use of Internet is of great benefits which enable me a lot to look for different views and new discoveries in this important area of study.

✓ ***Lack of Materials***

It gets me a challenge to produce handmade materials or use the published ones that suit the learners' needs and interests. But I could manage to design ones of mine and use the published ones as well. The best way to teach ESP courses is through using authentic materials if available because they are helpful and save time.

✓ ***Lack of Learners' Motivation***

Teaching ESP courses should grab learners' attention and build up their motivation. Unlikely, I noticed that most of learners take ESP courses just for either obtaining the certificates or for promotion to a higher position. Therefore, teaching learners such a dynamic subject matter should be of great desire to learn and qualify them for better learning background

One of the crucial factors in achieving the teaching-learning English process is the awareness of teachers about her/his own role. This why they should fulfill their tasks actively toward the course by design it appropriately, and toward the learners by analyzing their needs. The effectiveness of the ESP courses can be increased if the ESP teachers start to learn new things that will help them make their teaching better and more effective. These include learning: How to respond to learners' needs, How

to teach non-linguistic skills (pragmatic and sociolinguistic skills), -what to prioritize in an ESP course (high-frequency lists), How to select and incorporate authentic materials into the course, – how to evaluate teaching materials using quantitative methods, How to make use of online materials and social networks, What new teaching techniques to implement, How to teach for ESP certificate exams, How to teach effective writing for professional purposes. ESP teachers are required to invest more time and energy to improve their professional performers which can be achieved by either self-education, by collaborating with and learning from subject matter specialists, by taking special training in how to teach ESP of any subject matter.

Course design one of the greatest challenges of teaching any subject is the course design. Due to the fact that the ESP students have their objectives well-defined from the very beginning, these being directly related to their practical, job-related or professionally oriented needs, the choices the teachers have to make in order to design a course should not, theoretically, be so complicated. The reality, however, is different. According to David Carver an ESP course should be based on three elements; first, it has to offer authentic materials, then it requires a purpose-related orientation, which means that a reasonable simulacrum of reality in which practitioners have the possibility to get involved into communicative tasks that replicate real situations is mandatory.

last but not least, it should be defined by self-direction, i.e. learners are to become active users. In order to cover all the areas that might play an essential role in the process of course elaboration, the ESP teacher should be ready to ask some questions and gather information in the field so as to create an important database for further developments. The inquiries to be made are: Why do the students need to learn? Who is going to take part in the process (teachers, students, sponsors, experts in the field etc)? Where is the learning process going to take place? Does the location provide any potential or impose limitations? When is it set to take place? Is there a time limit to be taken into consideration? What does the student need to learn? What aspects of the language would be more appropriate under the given circumstances?



How will the learning be achieved, i.e., what theoretical background will be chosen to fuel the methodology that is meant to be used?

Factors affecting ESP course design if we are to take these elements apart in order to analyse them, we might reach the conclusion that the challenges and difficulties posed by the ESP teaching process nowadays are not to be ignored. In what concerns the syllabus design, teachers presently have to face the prospect of being bombarded with a great number of ready-made course books which, however, have been designed with the purpose of easing the teachers of their worries of searching for authentic materials.

They offer trainers the possibility to select activities that meet the needs of the learners, but at the same time force them into becoming “slaves” of the published textbooks, this plethora of resources reducing “individual instructors” motivation to construct their own course content with a focus on the immediate learners’ context and particular needs”. The implication of the above quoted points of view is that ESP practitioners should use textbooks as an alternative option, the suggested procedure being that of teachers collecting “empirical needs-assessment data” in order to create and adapt materials to meet the specific needs identified, these materials being selected so as to be able to “equip the students to deal with authentic examples of specialist discourse”. The four main elements that should be taken into account when teachers start writing or designing their own materials are: the input, content focus, language focus and the task

The content presents the information, the subject matter that both teacher and students are dealing with; language is the one that facilitates the transmission of the information and has to be appropriate for the students’ level of knowledge and expertise in handling a foreign language, while the task should be designed in such a way to offer the possibility of putting into practice the content meant to be transmitted. In order to create a more comprehensive picture, Hutchinson and Waters [2] expand the above mentioned model with two other elements, namely the student’s own

knowledge and abilities (the basis on which he/she adds new layers of information and the pace at which it is internalized), and any additional input that the teacher is ready to provide in order to facilitate a better understanding and practice. Another challenge closely related to the problem of language is the one referring to the grammatical structures and functions that are likely to be identified as specific to certain subject matters. Indeed, when designing an ESP course one usually focuses on specialized vocabulary and on those grammatical structures that seem to have a certain frequency of occurrence.

However, one cannot exclusively focus on these categories. For example, in order to have a conversation on a certain technical process, a person should, first and foremost have or gain the ability to get engaged in a general conversation activity. Specialized vocabulary, exclusively related to particular subjects (for example: Biology, Chemistry, Engineering, Business, etc) is of paramount importance, but it cannot be introduced and presented as a list of words that needs to be learnt by heart. They have to be slowly ingested and digested so as to be used without any difficulty, in normal conversational contexts. In what concerns grammar and the grammatical structures to be used, one can easily reckon that certain forms are predominant in ESP, such as Present Simple (used to express general truths or laws of nature), passive constructions, If-clauses (types zero and one) and nominal/adjectival compounds, but in order to create authentic materials teachers cannot design tasks that are solely based on these structures.

The proper handling of Passive Voice, for example, requires the ability to use Active Voice and active constructions, as well. The same idea is rendered by Kristen Gatehouse, the author claiming that there are three abilities necessary for successful communication in a professional target setting, namely: the ability to use the specialized jargon of a particular professional circle, the ability to employ a set of academic skills appropriate for the occupational setting under discussion and the ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to get engaged in effective communicational activities such as chatting over coffee with a colleague or responding

to an informal e-mail message. Needs analysis is not unique to ESP but it is essential in helping the teacher to define “the specific sets of skills, texts, linguistic forms, and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire”. The students’ level of language knowledge is essential as teachers nowadays face the challenge of working with multilevel classrooms, or, if we are to use Ur’s terminology, “mixed-ability” classes. Students arrive in ESP learning environments with a varied background of linguistic knowledge and this leads to a new hardship, teachers getting engaged in a differential teaching process, so as to satisfy students’ needs and necessities. Penny Ur identifies a set of problems that are generally defining for large heterogeneous classes. Teaching problems in large heterogeneous classes the age of the students is also important, classes being presently made up of adults ranging in age from 18 to 50 or more. This fact can bring about serious consequences upon the way teachers organize their instructional process, due to the fact that “people of different ages have different needs, competences and cognitive skills”.

### **3. Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching**

#### **3.1. How to Train ESP Teachers**

For those that have just graduated from high school or secondary school and choose to continue their studies at an academic level, the process of learning would not be a huge challenge. The difficulty appears for the other categories of learners who might have lost the initial ability to study, in time. According to Jeremy Harmer. Adult learners can exhibit some traits that can easily make learning and teaching problematic. Thus, they might be critical of teaching methods, being sometimes reluctant to engage in role-playing activities, or scenarios that might put them in an uncomfortable position; they may feel anxious or under-confident about learning a language and sometimes worry about their intellectual capacities. All these elements must be thought over carefully when engaging in the process of course elaboration, always keeping in mind the fact that ESP focuses upon learning strategies rather than teaching techniques. Therefore? It should be a guidance for their ESP teachers. The latters will aim to ensure a good quality of both ESP teaching and learning.

- Facilitate collaboration between subject specialist and language teachers. The aim behind the collaboration is to ensure that the language teachers can cope with the ESP situation, in addition to defeat the fact that the learners are more professional in the given discipline. Collaboration can be done by scheduling continuous meetings between the two teachers through the whole academic year to ensure the continuity of the progress.
  
- Make sure the ICT facilities are available for both teachers and learners. In other words providing them with the needed logistics. The motive behind the use of information and communication technology in ESP classrooms is to develop more student-centred learning settings. Consequently, create a motivating atmosphere to learn and to teach.
  
- Ensure the presence of a technician to help teachers or students when facing a technical problem with the ICT tools, ensuring functionality with the help of technicians is important because technology is not 100% reliable which can cause a delay in the course.

### **3.3. Ways of Equipping ESP Teachers**

It is obvious that the role of an ESP practitioner is more than teaching; Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) use the word "practitioner" instead of "teacher" to demonstrate that ESP involves much more than teaching. The ESP teacher has a multifaceted role to play and that is based on the needs of the learners. It is the practitioners' duty to first analyse the needs of the learners, then come up with appropriate materials and methods to teach the learners of ESP (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). Chalikandy (2013) further posits that every ESP practitioner at least, among other things, needs some level of competence in developing materials and also needs to have a creative imagination on how to make do with the materials available and should also possess the ability to become 'a supplier' of suitable materials for lessons.

Other than that, every ESP practitioner should be able to adapt the materials in accordance to the needs of the learners and supplement classroom teaching and learning activities with extra materials (Novita, Mustafha, & Sundayana, 2019). In terms of the language barrier, Marwan (2017) points out that the ideal solution to this problem is that institutions should have certain requirements on the English language proficiency level of the students prior to enrolment into the university. In other words, students should have proof of the required English language proficiency, such as results in TOEFL or IELTS examinations before admittance. This means that students who want to learn ESP courses should already have some level of proficiency in English. While this move seems logical, it poses another challenge as it would limit the number of student enrolment and at the same time deny any consideration for ESP in general. Marwan (2017) suggests that students with poor English skills should perhaps be given a basic background of English training before moving to an ESP class. Similarly, Poedjiastutie (2017) suggests that General English still can be included in students' curriculum to support ESP teaching. Méndez & Pavón (2012) however recommends native speaker communication assistants and ESP practitioners collaboration to tackle this issue.

The issue of collaboration for ESP practitioners is actually one that needs to be researched more on as there is no clear cut way of handling the issues that arise from the lack of it. However, Chamberlain (1980) points out that it is important for the ESP practitioners and the subject practitioners to realize what their position and attitude are in learning and working from each other (cited in Ahmed, 2014, p. 20), not only about the interest of the learners, but also what they can both gain by working with each other. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) also propose that collaboration between an ESP teacher and a content teacher be distinctly defined so as each of them can focus on their specialty. While the ESP practitioner focuses on English skills, the content teacher can focus on professional skills of the learners; in this way, both can make out time on how to work on achieving a common goal. 6 Lisa Vangohol Jande & Noor Mala Ibrahim Any effort of collaboration, however, could pose technical challenges.

Esteban & Martos (2002) agree that the issue of collaboration with subject practitioners is difficult to put into action and suggest that students themselves should be considered as collaborators. ESP practitioners can work with students based on the students' knowledge of their specialization. Nonetheless, clearly in this effort students must have certain levels of competency and proficiency in English to be able to share their knowledge in their given fields with the ESP practitioners.

In fact, in Alemi and Pazoki's (2020) research, it was the students that urged more cooperation between applied linguists and content specialists to eliminate the problem of ESP contents in ESP classrooms. Ahmed (2014) suggests that ESP practitioners undergo training that can provide them with the knowledge and skills needed to deal with the specializations of their own students, and so there will be less requirement for collaboration. Rajabi, Kiani, and Maftoon (2012) investigated the underlying effects of an ESP in-service teacher training program on the beliefs and instructional practices of Iranian ESP teachers as well as students' achievements. They concluded that there was a significant difference between the achievements of students who enjoyed trained ESP instructors in comparison to those who received untrained ESP instructors, underlining the merits of continuous attention on training ESP practitioners (Nezakatgoo, & Behzadpoor, 2017).

As Hutchinson & Waters (1987) put it, if ESP practitioners do not need to learn specialist knowledge, they are required to have three things: "a positive attitude towards the ESP content; knowledge of fundamental principles of the subject area; an awareness of how much they probably already know" (p. 163). ESP makes use of other content subjects' methodology and according to Chalikandy (2013) this is the strength of ESP methodology as it integrates approaches to language learning and thematic approaches to learning. With experience in material development, ESP practitioners can also be able to know when to improvise, especially where learners' lack of proficiency comes into play. ESP is therefore content-based and task-based and making use of content-based and task-based instruction is quite useful (Chalikandy, 2013). Video disk, CD-ROM, Internet, e-mails and machine aided language learning

are used in a typical ESP class and also role play, playing a real game simulation in an ESP classroom can make it easy for learners to learn. Therefore, ESP teachers should also learn many ESP and semi-ESP terminologies and their applications in different academic fields. In fact, semi-ESP vocabularies are much more troublesome as they are interpreted in different ways in different academic fields. Unfortunately, in spite of the great importance of ESP courses, in many situations, very inexperienced and untrained teachers are sometimes sent to teach ESP learners. They can be either English teachers or content teachers, who have limited familiarity with English or academic content. Unfortunately, due to the great prejudice of many academic faculties against English faculties, team-teaching activities are totally taken for granted and considered useless. The result in such situations is clear.

Therefore, administrating teacher-training programs and workshops for the content teachers, who want to teach ESP courses is of crucial importance. In general, as ESP teachers should follow interdisciplinary approach instead of traditional linguistic delivering roles, their responsibilities are much more serious than the responsibilities of EGP teachers. In fact, ESP teachers not only should have enough linguistic competence to teach necessary language components and skills to the learners but also should have enough content competence to communicate English content more effectively. This is possible if ESP teachers can act as active practitioners and collaborate with their students or related academic faculties frequently. In addition, since most ESP learners are primarily workers and secondarily learners, their psychological barriers to learning should be discovered and removed with experienced counseling teachers, who know the most fundamental psychotropic issues. Therefore, regarding such problems and many others, the necessity of administrating useful teacher-training programs and workshops is crucially felt. Administrating such programs may seem expensive and time consuming at first. However, regarding the benefits, administrating such programs should be considered as the most essential priority in any ESP policy-making programs.

## **4. ESP Course and Syllabus Design**

### **4.1. Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design**

Benabdallah(2007,p,33) ESP course design refers to the process of selecting and sequencing content that fits the teaching/ learning objectives. It consists of those language items, ideas and strategies that meet the learners' needs. It is widely acknowledged among specialists (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Bolitho and Kennedy, 1984; Basterkmen, 2006) that the design of ESP course is determined by the learners' needs that may vary for instance, reading materials, and writing reports. Hutchinson and waters (1987) believe that the process of ESP course design starts with analysing the learners' needs, the learning situation, deriving competence and translating these needs into pedagogical items. The following diagram offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1984:110) attempts to explain the various steps for the design of an ESP course.

Benabdallah(2007,p,33) ,Hutchinson and Waters,(1984,p,110), Similarly, Jordan (1997) insists on the view that the learning situation cannot be isolated from the process of Needs Analysis and Identification. This includes some important parameters. The cases in point are the number of students, their nationalities, motivation and interests, the available resources and the length of the ESP course. Robinson (1991) rightly agrees on these parameters, however, she adds two other factors namely the teachers' approaches to syllabus and course design and the teaching methodology. In this respect, she (1991,p,34) writes "ESP course design is the product between a number of elements: the results of needs analysis, the course designers' approach to syllabus and methodology, and the existing materials (if any)." Dudley-Evans and John (1998) mention other important parameters that should be taken into account for an adequate ESP course design. These are summarized in the following headings:



- Extensive or intensive course; Determine Pedagogic approach; Design course and materials Analysis of the learning situation; Derive competence Needs analysis
- Assessment or non- assessment of the learners' performance;
- meeting the immediate or delayed needs;
- narrow or focus course;
- common core or specific materials;
- homogeneous or heterogeneous group of learners.

Benabdallah(2007,p,35), Nation and Macalisher (2010) describe ESP courses as a 'how to do activity' as it depends on several factors. First and foremost, it is based on needs analysis. This, according to them, involves *target* and *learning needs*. They add that needs analysis makes the course content more relevant and useful to learn. Second, they believe that the course designer should take into account the teaching and learning experiences. That is to say, it includes explicit and implicit ideas about the nature of language and theories of language acquisition. Additionally, for planning, designing and developing courses. Richards (2001:145) cites some other steps which are:

- Developing a course rationale;
- describing entry;
- choosing course content;
- planning the course content.

The first step used for designing the courses is to develop the course rationale. He believes that it aims at describing the beliefs; values and the goals. He also adds that the second step is to identify the learners' levels of proficiency. At this stage, it is necessary to conduct a needs analysis to have a clear idea about the current level of

The students Next, it is necessary to choose the course content. This stage is considered as the most important issue. It is developed around grammar, functions, topics, skills, processes, etc. Once the content is determined, a key question that needs to be addressed is how to sequence the course content? Richards (2001) answers that it

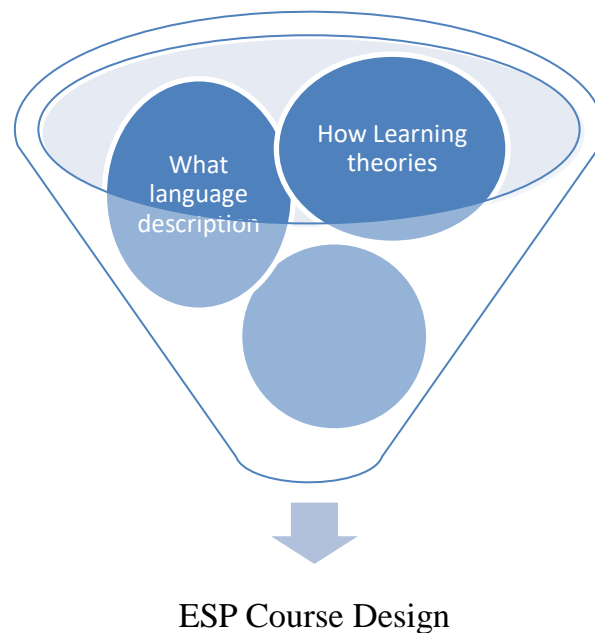
should be chronologically sequenced from simple to complex. The above mentioned definitions, apparently, share the view that there are certain matters to be considered before designing an ESP course. The first element is Needs Analysis and Identification. It is assumed to be an obligatory step for identifying the learners' purposes, wants and lacks. The other issues to be addressed include the determination of realistic goals and objectives.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) are of the view that much of the work done by ESP teachers is concerned with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners. So, they (1987) argue that “whereas course design plays a relatively minor part in the life of the General English teacher – course here usually being determined either by tradition, choice of textbook or ministerial decree – for ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important part of the workload” (p. 21). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider ESP course designing is “fundamentally a matter of asking questioning order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent processes of syllabus design, material writing, classroom teaching and evaluation (p. 21). The ESP teacher needs to have the knowledge about:

1. Why does the student need to learn?
2. Who is going to be involved in the process?
3. Where is the learning to take place?
4. What potential does the place provide?
5. What limitation does the place impose?
6. When is the learning
7. What does the student need to learn?
8. What aspects of language will be needed and how will they be described?
9. What level of proficiency must be achieved?

10. What topics areas will need to be covered?
11. How will learning be achieved?
12. What learning theory will underlie the course?
13. What kind of methodology will be employed?

(Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 21-22) Investigating these fundamental questions thoroughly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) summarize them under three categories: Language Descriptions, Theories of Learning and Needs Analysis. Even though these three items look like separate entity, their interdependence in the syllabus design process is of greatest importance. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) show their relationship in the following manner:



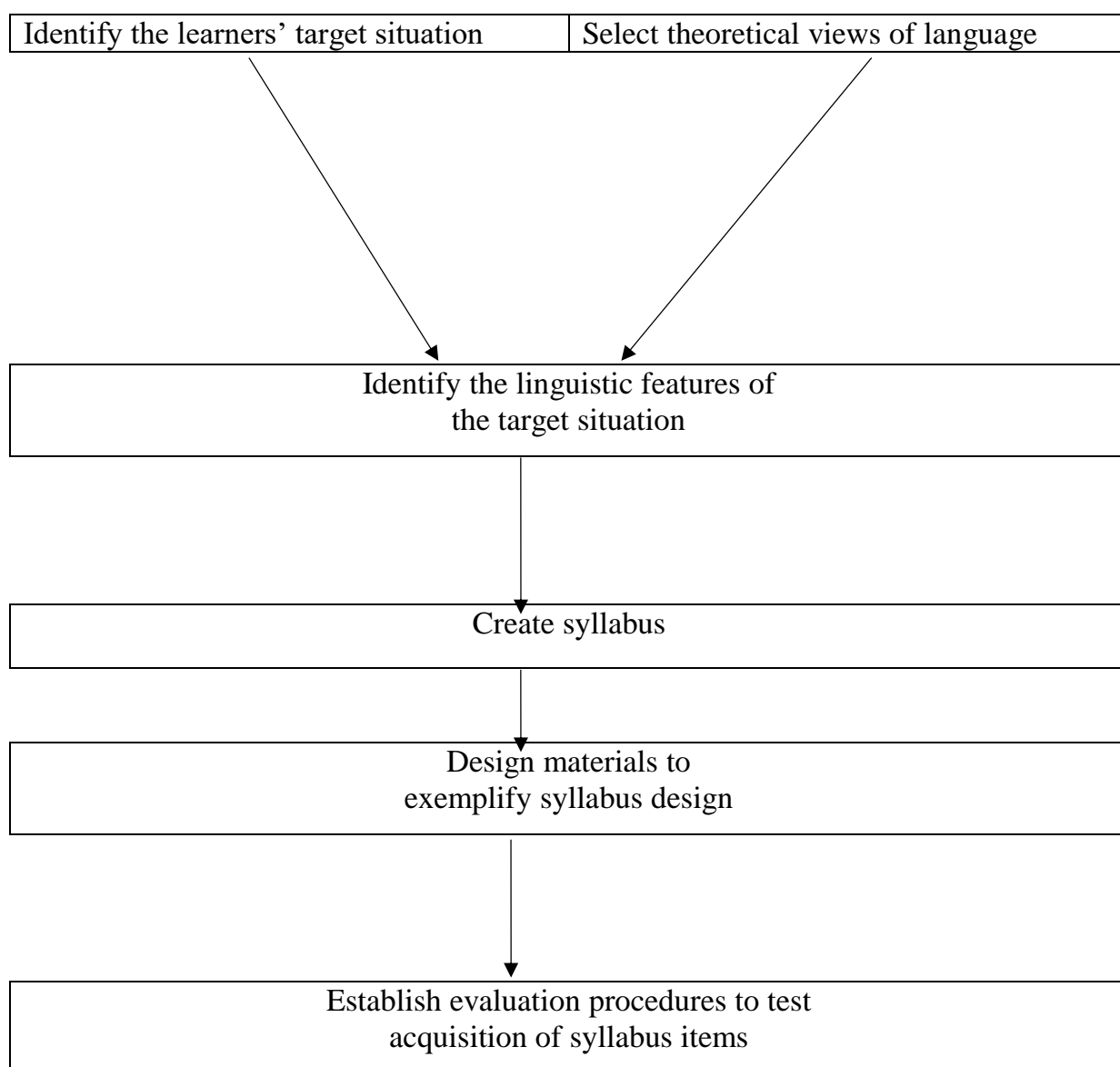
**Figure 9:** Factors affecting ESP course design (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 22)

#### **4.1. Definitions of Course, Syllabus, ESP Curriculum and ESP Course/Syllabus Design**

Benabdallah(2007,p,36) The ESP literature (McDonough, 1984; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Nunan, 2004; Basterkmen, 2006) has reported several approaches to course design namely language- based approach, skillbased approach, learner-based approach, and content- based approach.

##### **✓ Language-Based Approach**

Benabdallah(2007,p,36) each academic environment contains certain language features that occur more frequently than others such as technical, sub-technical terms and some grammatical structures, and the fact that ESP teaching is subject to time restriction, ESP educationalists (McDonough, 1984; Basterkmen, 2006) agree on the importance of imparting the ESP learners with the appropriate language items. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe that this approach should cover the most needed language structures by the learners as opposed to general language teaching where the learners are used only for the identification of their language needs and are totally neglected in the other stages of course design. The following figure endeavors to sum up this approach:



**Figure .10.** A Language- Centred Approach to Course Design cited in Benabdallah(2007,p,37)

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987,p,66) Identify the learners' target situation Select theoretical views of language Identify the linguistic features of the target situation Create syllabus Design materials to exemplify syllabus design Establish evaluation procedures to test acquisition of syllabus items. This approach has been widely used in the early beginning of ESP teaching namely the first phase of its development where the main objective was, as stated by scholars such as Swales, (1985); Hutchinson and Waters, (1987); Basterkmen, (2006) to provide learners with linguistic knowledge of

specific area of research. Ewer and Latorre (1969) provide an example of this model: Quoted in Hutchinson and Waters (1987,p,26):

1. Present Simple Active
2. Present Simple Passive
3. Present Simple Active and Passive
4. – ing form
5. Present Perfect; Simple Continuous
6. Infinitives
7. Anomalous Finites

Benabdallah(2007,p,38) However, this approach to course design has been widely criticized as being too systematic and inflexible and has failed to consider important psychological and cognitive factors of the learners and does not necessary guarantee the systematic learning of the language (Hutchinson and Waters,1987).

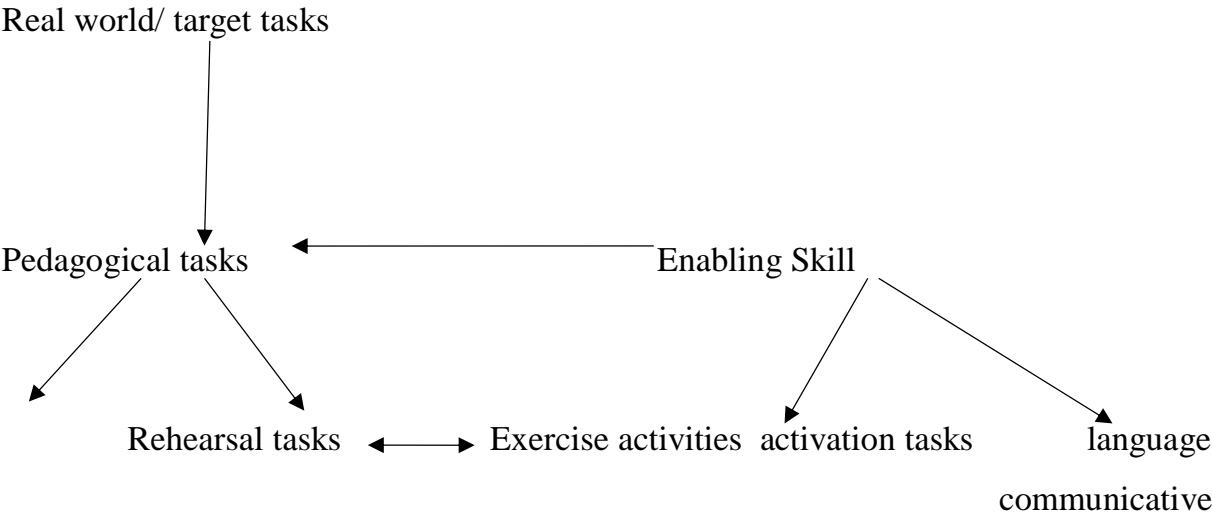
- **Skill-Based Approach**

Benabdallah(2007,p,38), the second approach focuses on the teaching of the underlying skills and strategies required by the learners in their field of study or working environment. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe that the ESP course design goes through some stages starting from the identification of the target situation, the analysis of the skills and strategies, the designers' views of language, the type of a syllabus, and the choice of the teaching materials. Being aware of the interactive nature of the four skills namely reading, writing, speaking and listening, it should be pointed out that the process of teaching involves more than interpreting and evaluating information from spoken or written language. To focus on the students' learning (sub-skills and strategies) rather than a given skill as a separate process is considered as a must. Starting from the idea that the majority of the articles and textbooks are published in English, then, whatever language of instruction in the academic context being French, Spanish, Russian; students are required to be able to read in the English

language. As a result, reading for specific or academic purposes is often considered as an important skill among the other four skills (speaking, writing and listening) as viewed by Robinson (1991,p,102) who assumes that it is “probably the most generally needed skill in EAPworldwide”.

- **Task-Based Approach**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,39), this approach is considered as a motivational context for learning. It stands from the view that students will be able to play an active role in the teaching/learning process by involving them in meaningful tasks and problem solving activities to develop their reflective thinking. The course, therefore, should be organized around two types of tasks as proposed by Nunan (2004) rehearsal an activation tasks. He believes that the language course should create opportunities for learning. The focus has also to be put on activating the learners’ language functions such as greeting, negotiating, agreeing and asking for permission. Real world/ target tasks Pedagogical tasks enabling skills Rehearsal tasks activation tasks language communicative exercises activities.



**Figure.11:** a Framework for Task-Based Language Teaching (adopted from Nunan, 2004p,p,25) cited inBenabdallah(2007,p,39)

To sum up, this approach is believed to enhance autonomous learning. The teacher's role includes the introduction of the tasks, provision of learning model, teach the linguistic items. The focus is devoted for the four skills through the use of different types of teaching materials.

- **Learner-Based Approach**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,40), According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), from the early development stages of ESP teaching, little attention has been paid to learners' involvement in course design. This learner- centred approach, however, is widely agreed to be crucial in ESP teaching for its total consideration of the learners in all the different stages of course design. Moreover, this type of course is believed to be a negotiated process between the ESP teacher and the learners. It is a flexible and dynamic which means that people from different discourse communities do not have the same needs of learning the language Hutchinson and Waters (1987).

- **Content-Based Approach**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,40) Content-based approach is defined as an instructional approach in which language courses use content from other disciplines such as Sociology, Psychology and Medicine to provide the context of language acquisition (Mohan, 1986). The aim of this approach is to create meaningful context for language learning. The advocators of this approach (Brinton *et al.*, 1989) believe that it has some features that differ from those of traditional curricula. They insist on the fact that learners are subjects to 'two for one', that is to say, the incorporation of content along with language learning. It aims at creating opportunities for them to put the language within its meaningful context. This means that it aims at matching the activities of the language class to the subject matter being taught. In the same vein, Jordan (1997) argues that CBA has a dual function. The first duty is to impart the students with the academic content. The second duty is to teach the language skills associated with it. As a reaction against traditional curricula which are built on



grammatical points, content-based approach makes use of content as a driving force of classroom activities. The content then dictates the selection and the sequence of the course (Richards 2001; Brown,2001).

Benabdallah(2007,p,41), Murphy and Stoller (2001) argue that CBA focuses on two different orientations. At first, the stress is on the teaching of content which aims at teaching the subject matter through the use of English as a language of instruction. The second, however, deals with language teaching and learning with much emphasis on language teaching through the use of content themes. Therefore, the courses are either content or language driven. Though these two models have different emphasis, Davidson and Williams (2001) assume that they have some common features. They state: Heuristic label for a diverse group of curriculum approaches which share a concern for facilitating language learning broadly defined through varied, but systematic linking of subject matter and language in the context of language acquisition. Quoted in Mohan (1986:57) In sum, it should be noted that content-based instruction seems to be an approach that has a dual function, the learning of content is completed only through the teaching of related language items and skills.

#### **4.2. Issue of Definitions: Courses, Syllabus versus Curriculum**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,42) ESP courses in general and EBE in particular have some characteristics that differ from that of general language courses. These courses stand on the fact that the syllabus and the materials used are based on the learners' needs. In this respect, Mundy (1978:2) defines them as “those where the syllabus and the materials are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learners.” Carver (1983) summarizes characteristics of ESP course as follows:

- Purpose –related orientation.
- Self- direction.
- Authentic materials.

According to him, ESP courses are almost purposeful, aiming at helping learners to become communicatively competent in their target settings. The objectives can be either the preparation for papers, writing reviews, or making oral presentations. The second characteristic of ESP courses is that they are practically self-directed. This includes "...turning learners into users" (Carver, 1983). This means that these courses are based on the learners' needs; then much more freedom to decide what, how and when to study is left to learners. The final characteristic, according to Carver (1983) is the use of authentic materials. The integration of such materials being, modified or unmodified in form, are indeed a feature of ESP, and are acknowledged in an ESP context. Moving further one should tackle the importance of NA. In this regard, the role of Needs Analysis and Identification (NAI) in designing ESP courses is interpreted differently among educationalists. Strevens (1977) clearly states that this process enables the course designer to have different levels of restrictions. The first level refers to the restriction of the basic skills which are reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Benabdallah(2007,p,42) The second level includes the selection of vocabulary, patterns of grammar, themes, and topics that are most appropriate to the learners' needs. Coffey (1984:4), largely extends Strevens' definition, believing that there is no special language in ESP, as the learners' needs are the only factor that dictate the principle of selection. He writes: Before a course can be designed, in any of its parameters, the process that Strevens calls 'restriction' must take place: the selection of items and features from the corpus of the language that are relevant to the designer's intention and the student's needs. Another main criterion that characterizes the ESP course is authenticity, in this vein, Robinson (1991,p,54) argues: "A key concept (...) felt to be particularly relevant for ESP, is that of authenticity." In addition to this idea, she (1991) maintains two other criteria of ESP courses. First, she believes that they are goal-directed. This means that the ESP learners have a clearly utilitarian purpose in learning the language (Mackay and Mountford, 1978).

These purposes are related to the learners' reasons for learning English. The second criterion is that the ESP courses are needs-driven, that is to say they are developed from the learners' needs. In this view, Robinson (1991,p,3) argues that "An ESP course is based on a needs analysis which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English". Furthermore, a clear distinction between criteria and characteristics of ESP courses is finally drawn. She believes that the latter refers to the features which are not always present in an ESP context. These include the notion of time and the ESP learners. According to Robinson (1991), the majority of ESP learners are in general adults who have been already appointed in different positions or they are about to accomplish their studies namely at the tertiary education. This feature differentiates ESP from general language courses. As far as the second characteristic is concerned, she believes that these learners have a very restricted period of time. As a result, they should be taught only the bit of English adequate for their studies. In the same vein, West (1994) writes: "Most ESP courses are subject to time constraints and time must be effectively utilized."(Quoted in Basterkmen 2006: 18).

This means that the notion of time plays a significant role in the design and management of an ESP course. All the decisions about language items, study skills should be adjusted to that factor. Later on, Dudley-Evans and Johns (1997) point out other characteristics; they argue first that ESP courses are purposeful and aimed at successful performance in academic and professional contexts. They are based on an analysis of the learners' needs; related mainly to those skills, themes, topics, situations, and functions appropriate to their needs. Joining this idea, Basterkmen (2006) highlights the importance of needs analysis and considers it as a key feature of ESP course design. She believes that the ESP learners do not learn the language for its own sake but for the purpose of communicating efficiently in their target environments. The ESP course is known for its particular characteristics; their content is closely related to the learners' needs. In addition to this, they are based on authentic materials to engage learners in real life tasks.

### 4.3. Course/Syllabus Design

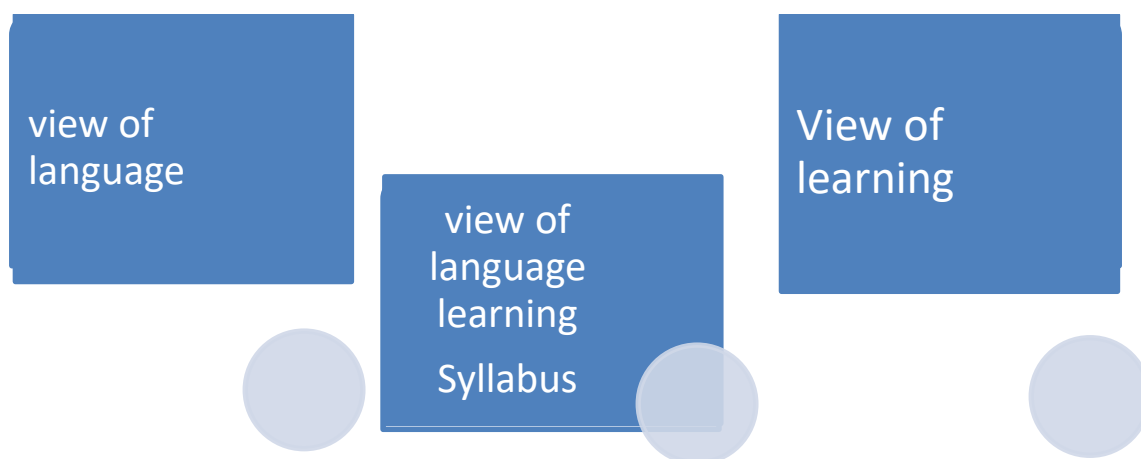
According to Benabdallah(2007,p,27) The process of syllabus and curriculum design is widely seen as a challenging task for the ESP practitioners as it entails having both theoretical and practical knowledge of how they are defined and devised based on the learners' Needs Analysis and Identification, the time allotted to the course and the available teaching materials. The term syllabus is used by Hutchinson & Waters (1987,p, 80) to refer to "... a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt". Similarly, Robinson (1991,p,34) mentions that it is "... a plan of work and is thus essentially for the teacher as a guideline and context for class content" the above mentioned definitions share the view that the syllabus is a written document that describes the content of the course. The term syllabus has been previously used by British educationalists while curriculum by North Americans to have the same meaning.

However, it has been agreed among specialists (Graves, 1996; Basturkmen, 2006; Nation and Macalister, 2010) that some nuances may exist between the two concepts. While syllabus is believed to be the final result of what should be taught in language classroom, curriculum, on the other hand, refers to the process of analyzing the needs of the learners, planning goals and objectives, sequencing the content, choosing the appropriate approach to curriculum design (Nation and Macalister, 2010). In this regard, Graves (1996) quotes in Basturkmen (2006,p,2) that a curriculum is "...a broad statement of the philosophy, purpose, design, and implementation of the entire language teaching program and the syllabus as a specification and ordering of content of the course" Similarly, Richards (2001) makes the following distinction between namely syllabus design and curriculum development. He believes that the former tends to focus on the indication of what will be taught and how will be assessed while the latter is 'a comprehensive process', it is an umbrella term that covers an ongoing activity of identifying and analyzing both the learners' and environmental

needs, setting the objectives, meeting their requirements, deciding on the type of the syllabus, and finally the evaluation of the language program.

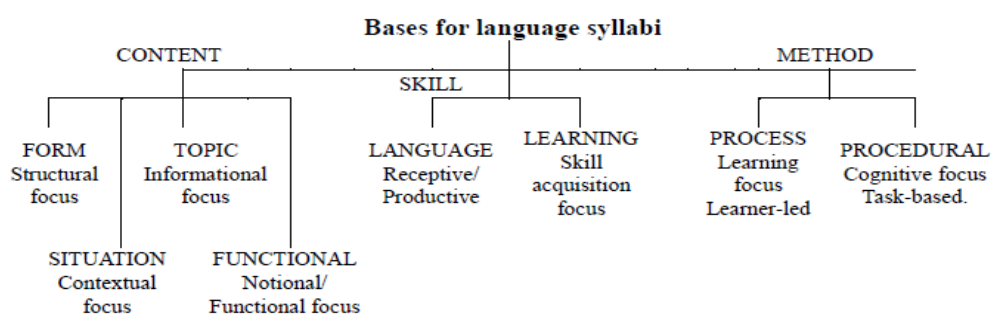
## 5. Types and Importance of Syllabus

According Benabdallah (2007,p,30) the available ESP literature on syllabus design has used the ELT syllabus as the starting point. It is generally believed that making a final decision upon a specific type is almost a difficult task, it should be based on a number of parameters including: the practitioner's view of language and learning, the time allotted the objectives of the course and the learners' needs. This idea has been in (2006) in the following figure: view of language view of learning.



**Figure 7:** Views of learning and course content (adopted from Basterkmen 2006,p,23).

View of language learning Syllabus Sharing the same idea, Richards (2001) adds other fundamental factors that affect the choice of the syllabus. He argues that the decision depends heavily not only on the designers' view of language and learning but also knowledge and beliefs about the subject area (why English is needed), and approaches to syllabus design. The diagram below endeavors to summarize the types of the language syllabus:



**Figure 8:** Bases for Language Syllabus Design (white,1988:46)cited in Benabdallah(2007,p,32)

## 5.1. Types of Syllabus

Several types of syllabus may exist depending on specialists' level of analysis. Wilkins (1976), for instance, was the first who identified two types namely the synthetic and analytic syllabuses. Synthetic designers believe that the syllabus should be organized around language items which should be broken down into distinct elements. It endeavors to cover the identification of grammatical structures that help learners in promoting their communicative skills. Wilkins (1976,p, 2) defines it as "... one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up." The advocators of the second approach .i.e.; the analytical one argue that the language course should be built up around the communicative purpose. Its primary function is to develop the learners'

communicative competence rather than the linguistic competence (Wilkins, 1976; Nunan, 1993; Richards, 2001). Wilkins (1975,p, 13) believes that they refer to those syllabuses which “...are organised in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes.” Based on other layer of analysis, white (1988:44) makes a major distinction between type A and B. In this respect, he draws a comparison between what is learned and how to be learned. According to him, type A is governed by the authority rather than the learners, the teacher is also believed to be the decision maker and the provider of knowledge. Type B, however, gives a prominent role to the learners while enabling them to negotiate their content. The following table attempts to sum up both types:

**Table 4.** Type A and Type B (adopted from White 1988:44) cited in Benabdallah(2007,p,33)

Type A “what is to be leaned?”	Type B “how is it to be leaned?”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Interventionalists</li> <li>- External to the learner</li> <li>other directed</li> <li>- Determined by authority</li> <li>- Teacher as decision maker</li> <li>- Content: what the subject</li> <li>- Content: what the subject is to the expert.</li> <li>- Content: gift to the learner from the teacher or knower</li> <li>Objectives defined in advance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Internal to the learner</li> <li>- Inner directed or selffulfilling.</li> <li>- Negotiated between learners and teachers</li> <li>- Learners and teachers as joint decision makers.</li> <li>- is to the learner.</li> <li>- Content: what the learner brings and wants.</li> <li>- Objectives described afterwards.</li> </ul>

As a conclusion, one may say that the ESP teacher has to understand the characteristics of each approach to syllabus design and select what is mostly needed by his learners as supported by Robinson (1991) who insists on the fact that we “should treat all approaches as being simultaneously available and try to find what is mostly suitable for a particular situation.” (quoted in Jordan 1997,p,59)

## **5.2. Importance of Syllabus**

Needs analysis and language for specific purposes (LSP) courses are inextricably intertwined. LSP courses aim to help learners function linguistically within a particular academic, professional, or workplace environment, and the course syllabus is based on analysis of the needs of the learners in relation to such environments. The analysis of learners' needs is thus a key process in the design and ongoing revision of the LSP syllabus. Such is the importance of needs analysis that it is generally seen as the defining characteristic of LSP. This entry discusses the importance of needs analysis in LSP, identifies trends in the practices and methodologies used, and examines how the results of needs analysis can be used to inform the design of the LSP syllabus. Although needs analysis is often viewed as essentially procedural, it is not without theory, nor is it devoid of controversy and debate.

The final sections discuss the role of theory and issues in needs analysis. for the development of English language teaching at higher education level, the English learning model should not only be conducted with the GE learning approach but also using the ESP approach. The English learning Syllabus should be done in accordance with the needs of the learner in their respective fields. The importance of designing ESP course aims to make the language specifically taught fulfill the language needed in the field to be studied by the learners. Therefore, implementation of ESP syllabus is crucial in order to equip students with appropriate language skill. Nevertheless, the implementation may present challenges for the teachers as designing ESP courses require profound research and significant amount of time.



## **6. Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Language Description**

There are three factors affecting ESP course design: *Language descriptions*, *Learning theories*, *Needs analysis*. The interdependence of these factors in the course design process is very important. The course design must bring the learner into play at all stages of the design process. a number of ways of describing language available to us. Therefore important to understand the main features of each of these descriptions in order to consider how they can be used most appropriately in ESP courses. We can identify six main stages of development.

### **6.1. Classical or Traditional Grammar**

Descriptions of English and other languages were based on the grammars of the classical languages, Greek and Latin. These descriptions were based on an analysis of the role played by each word in the sentence. Languages were describe in this way because the classical language were case based language where the grammatical function of each word in the sentence was made apparent by the use of appropriate inflections. The prestige of the old classical languages ensured the survival of this form of description even after English had lost most of its case markers and become a largely word order based language. It can also be argued that although cases may no longer be apparent in modern English, the concepts they represent underlie any language (Fillmore,1968). Thus a knowledge of the classical description can still deepen on our knowledge of how languages operate.

### **6.2. Structural Linguistics**

The structural or “Slot” and “filler” form Language description will be familiar to most Language teachers as result of the enormous influence it has had on L teaching since the Second World War. In a structural description the grammar of the language is described in terms of syntagmatic structures which carry the fundamental propositions (statement, interrogative, negative, imperative, etc) and notions (time,

number, gender etc). by varying the words within these structural frameworks, sentence with different meanings can be generated. This method of linguistic analysis led in English language teaching to the development of the substitution table as a typical means of explain in grammatical patterns. The very simplicity of the structural language description entails that there are large areas of language use that it cannot explain. In particular it may fail to provide the learner with an understanding of the communicative use of the structures. Later developments in language teaching and linguistics have attempted to remedy this weakness. There are still widely used today as this example from the Nucleus series:

Diabetes mellitus			Unconsciousness
Inadequate heat		Cause	Shock
loss			Bad teeth
Some foods			Death
A dog bite	Can	Result in	Heat stroke
An electric shock	May		Blisters
Insufficient			Allergies
calcium		Lead to	Asphyxia
Severe shock			Rabies
Burns			
A haemorrhage			

This table explains the grammatical patterns which can be made by combining words in that table. In this table we can make sentences, the first sentence is “a dog bite can cause bad teeth.” It is the correct grammatical but in meaning is still not correct. The seconds is “a dog bite can cause rabies,” this sentence also correct in grammatical and correct in meaning.

### 6.3. Transformational Generative (TG) Grammar

For ESP the most important lesson to be drawn from Chomsky's work was the distinction he made between performance (i.e surface structures) and competence ( i.e the deep level rules). Chomsky's own definition of performance and competence was narrowly based, being concerned only with syntax. A simple way of seeing the distinction between performance and competence is in our capacity to understand the meanings of words we have never met before. In the early stages of its Development, ESP put most emphasis on describing the performance needed for communication in the target situation and paid little attention to the Competence underlying it.

#### **6.4. Language Variation and Register Analysis**

The language varies based on context it is used. Sometimes it can be formal or informal and written or spoken. The text bellow shows two different styles with same purpose. The first text is a transcript of a demonstration in using the lathe while the second text is the instructions from the manual.

Text 1

Now I have to change the final size drill I require, which is three quarters of an inch diameter and this is called a morse-taper sleeve.

A slower speed for a larger drill.

Nice even feed should give a reasonable finish to the hole.

Applying the coolant periodically. This is mainly for lubrication rather than cooling.

Almost to depth now.

Right. Withdrawing the drill.

That's fine.

Text 2

1. Select required drill.
2. Mount drill in tailstock. Use taper sleeves as necessary.
3. Set speed and start machine spindle.
4. Position tailstock to work piece.
5. Apply firm even pressure to tailstock hand wheel to feed drill into work piece
6. Apply coolant frequently.

7. Drill hole to depth.
8. Withdraw drill.
9. Stop machine.

Even though those texts are different in styles but both convey the same message and purpose. The first text seems less formal and contains the expressions, feelings, and comments from the doer and also it is spoken which indicates the situation of the doer in doing the demonstration while the second one is more formal and it is written. If language varies according to context, it should be possible to identify the kind of language associated with a specific context, such as an area of knowledge (legal English; social English; medical English; business English; scientific English etc), or an area of use (technical manuals, academic texts, business meetings, advertisements, doctor-patient communication etc) which means register analysis. This will affect ESP.

### **6.5. Functional/Notional Grammar**

Functional deals with social behavior and represent the intention of the speaker/writer like advising, warning, threatening, describing, etc while notional deals with the reflection of the way of human mind thinks (the mind and thereby language divide reality) like time, number, gender, location, etc. It appears in 1970s when the equivalence for learning various languages in formal grounds was difficult to do because the formal structures of language shows considerable variation. These variations make a difficulty in dividing up the learning task into units of equivalent value across the various languages on the basis of formal grammar (structural). But in notional and functional grounds, some approximate equivalence can be achieved since both represent the categories of human thinking and social behavior, which do not vary across language. So in 1970s there was a move from structural ground to functional and notional grounds which means there is a move from basic grammar study in school to how to use language that students already have. This influences the development of ESP.

### **6.6. Discourse/ Rhetorical Analysis**

This stage deals with how the meaning between sentences is generated. The important thing is the context of the language.

I think I will go out for a walk.

It is raining

It is raining

I think I will go out for walk.

Both of the texts have context. The first sentences show that the second speaker remind the speaker not to go outside because of rain while in the second sentences, the second speaker wants to go out because of the rain. Different replacement makes different meaning. Because of this discourse analysis, the effects to ESP.

1. Learners are made aware of the stages in certain set-piece transaction associated with particular specialist fields. The aim of such an approach is to make the learners into more efficient readers, by making them aware of the underlying structure of a text and the way in which language has been organized to create this structure

2. The second use of discourse analysis in ESP has been through materials which aim to explain how meaning is created by the relative positions of the sentences in written text. This has become the central feature of a large number of ESP textbook aimed at developing knowledge of how sentences are combined in text in order to produce a particular meaning.

## **7. Factors Affecting ESP Course Design: Learning Theories and Needs Analysis**

### **7.1. Learning Theories**

According to Tom Hutchinson & Alan Waters Lancaster (1986), “English for Specific Purposes is teaching which has specified objectives”. Developments in learning theory have followed a similar pattern to those in language descriptions, and each has had some effect on the other. But, if we are to see the importance of each for language teaching, it is best to consider the theories relating to language and learning separately. However, until psychology was established as a credible area of scientific inquiry in the early twentieth century, no unified theory of learning arose. Since then,

there have been five major stages of growth that are relevant to modern language teachers.

## **7.2. Cognitive Theory**

Learning as a thinking process; the learner is an active processor of information; Problem-solving tasks, learning strategies. According to the cognitive theory, learning is a process in which the learner actively tries to make sense of data. The basic technique associated with a cognitive theory of language learning is the problem-solving task... 3 main aspects of learning:

- ❖ how knowledge is established.
- ❖ how knowledge becomes automatic.
- ❖ how new knowledge is integrated into the learner's existing cognitive system

## **7.3. Behaviorism**

Recent work has shown that the method can be extended to human behavior without serious modifications (Skinner, 1957 cited in Ellis, 1994). Behaviorism was the prevailing psychological theory of the 1950s and 1960s. This theory said that learning is a mechanical process of habit formation and process by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus – response sequence. the method, which will be familiar to many language teachers, laid down a set of guiding methodological principles;

- a)Never translate.
- b)New language should always be dealt with in the sequences: hear, speak, read, write.
- c)Frequent repetition is essential to effective learning.
- d)All errors must be immediately corrected.

## **7.3. Mentalist**

Chomsky' thinking is rule governed, it is not habits, but rules that need acquiring according to him, language is not a form of behavior, rather it is an intricate rule-based system and a large part of language acquisition is the learning of this system. Learning consists not of forming habits but of acquiring rules, this mentalist view of the mind led naturally to the next important stage, the cognitive theory of learning Behaviorism unable to account for creativity of language learning:

- novel utterances.
- system-building.
- Learning as rule-governed activity (Chomsky).
- habit formation vs. acquiring rules.
- stimulus triggers search for underlying pattern.
- hypothesis-testing.

#### **7.4. The Constructivism**

Constructivism is the theory that says learners construct knowledge rather than just passively take in information. As people experience the world and reflect upon those experiences, they build their own representations and incorporate new information into their pre-existing knowledge (schemas).

As educators we are well aware of the many delays in bringing theory to practice. Whether it is through delayed pedagogical recommendations in adjusting campus learning spaces, conceptual challenges encountered in effectively leveraging distance and remote learning opportunities, or in identifying creative ways of providing students with the course experiences sufficient to actively construct and add meaning to their own learning, we are constantly dealing with the overarching problem of delayed practical application of theory. Consequences of constructivist theory are that:

- Students learn best when engaged in learning experiences rather passively receiving information.

- Learning is inherently a social process because it is embedded within a social context as students and teachers work together to build knowledge.
- Because knowledge cannot be directly imparted to students, the goal of teaching is to provide experiences that facilitate the construction of knowledge.

This last point is worth repeating. Traditional Approach to teaching focuses on delivering information to students, yet constructivism argues that you cannot directly impart this information. Only an experience can facilitate students to construct their own knowledge. Therefore, the goal of teaching is to design these experiences.

### **7.6. Humanism and Affective Factor**

People think, but they also have feelings. Particularly the learning of language, is an emotional experience and the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of the learning (Stevick 1976). The emotional reaction to the learning experience is the essential foundation for the initiation of cognitive process. How the learning is perceived by the learner will affect what learning, if any, will take place.

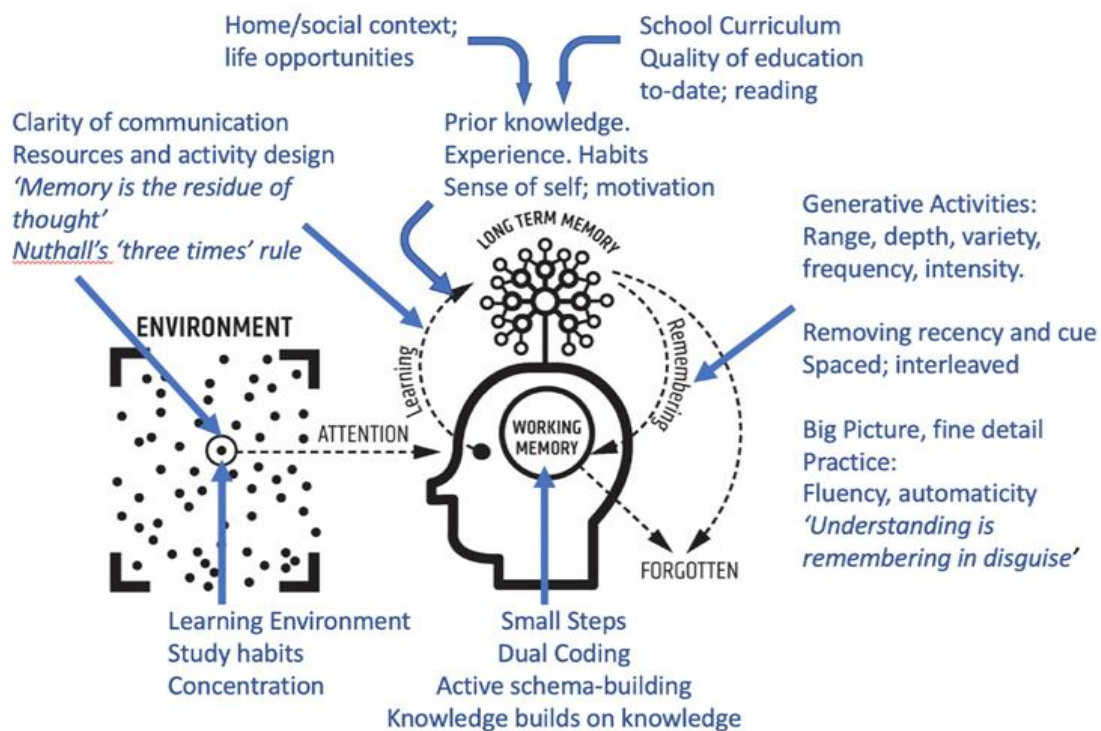
### **7.7. Learning and Acquisition**

According to (Stephen Krashen, 1987) "Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill." (Stephen Krashen, 1987) "Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding." Stephen Krashen. Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses:

- the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis; According to Krashen there are two independent systems of second language performance: 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'.



- The 'acquired system,' often known as 'acquisition,' is the result of a subconscious process comparable to how children learn their first language.
- The 'learned system,' often known as 'learning,' is the result of formal instruction and consists of a conscious process that produces conscious information 'about' the language, such as grammatical rules. Learning, according to Krashen, is less significant than acquisition.
- the Monitor hypothesis; explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former.
- the Natural Order hypothesis; based on research findings (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino, 1980 cited in Krashen, 1987) which suggested that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable.
- the Input hypothesis; attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language. In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen's explanation of how second language acquisition takes place.
- and the Affective Filter hypothesis; embodies Krashen's view that a number of 'affective variables' play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety.



**Figure5:** Krashen's explanation (Krashen,1987)

## 8. Needs Analysis

### 8.1. Definition and Development

Dudley - Evans and St John (1998: 125) offer a 'current concept of needs analysis':

- Professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for- target situation analysis and objective needs.
- 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 and subjective needs.
- English language information about the learners: What their current skills and language use are – present situation analysis – which allows us to assess (D).
- The learners 'lacks: The gap between (C) and (A) -lacks.
- Language learning information: Effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) -learning needs.
- 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 how the course will be run – means analysis. The process of needs analysis involves: Target situation analysis: Identification of tasks, activities and skills learners are/will be using English for; what the learners should ideally know and be able to do.

Discourse analysis: Descriptions of the language used in the above. Present situation analysis: Identification of what the learners do and do not know and can or cannot do in relation to the demands of the target situation. Learner factor analysis: Identification of learner factors such as their motivation, how they learn and their perceptions of their needs. Teaching context analysis: Identification of factors related to the environment in which the course will run. Consideration of what realistically the ESP course and teacher can offer. Assessment ESP teachers' task of assessment is similar to any other areas of language assessment. First of all, language assessment practitioners must take account of test purpose, test taker characteristics, and the target language use situation. Also, they should accept principles of measurement, including providing evidence for test reliability, validity, and impact. Finally, professional language testers are bound by international standards of ethics which require, among other considerations, respect for the humanity and dignity of test takers, not knowingly allowing the misuse of test scores, and considering the effects of their tests on test takers, teachers, score users, and society in general (ILTA 2000).

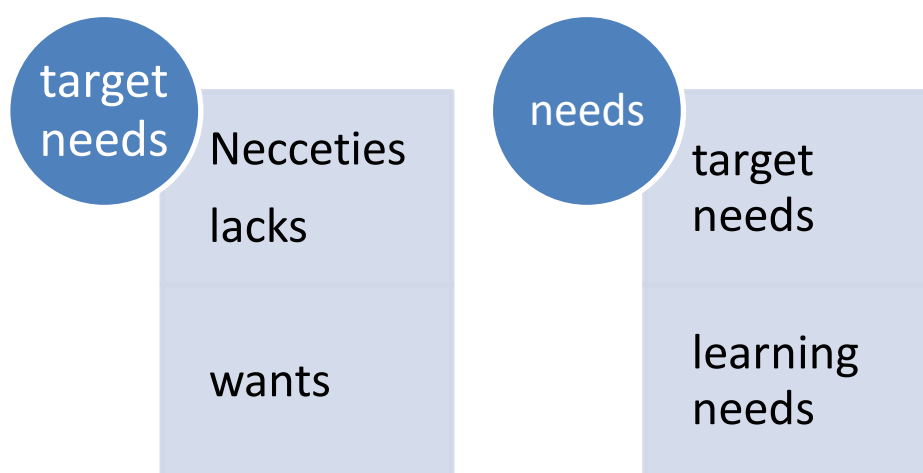
The first one was a pretest that includes grammar and vocabulary exercises to analyze their level in English before starting the lectures of technical English, than another test was passed to assess their new level after learning. ESP tests are based on our understanding of three qualities of specific purpose language: first, that language use varies with context, second, that specific purpose language is precise, and third that there is an interaction between specific purpose language and specific purpose background knowledge. With regard to contextual variation, a doctor uses language differently from air traffic controllers. Furthermore, physicians use English differently when talking with other medical practitioners than when talking with patients, though

both contexts would be categorized under the heading of Medical English. 6. Objectives of ESP Teaching There are four types of ESP teaching objectives:

Proficiency objectives concern mastery of skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. 2. Knowledge objectives concern the acquisition of linguistic and cultural information: Linguistic knowledge objectives include language analysis and awareness of the systematic aspects of language. Cultural knowledge objectives include control of socio-cultural rules (mastery of the norms of society, values, and orientations) and also the ability to recognize culturally significant facts, knowing what is acceptable and what is not. Affective objectives concern the development of positive feelings toward the subject of study. They include attitudes toward attaining second language competence, sociocultural competence, and language learning. 4. Transfer objectives concern the ability to generalize from what has been learnt in one situation to other situations (Stern, 1989, 1992). In other words, Needs are interpreted differently, starting from Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who group them into two main types namely the *target and the learning needs*. The former is broadened to include what skills, knowledge and abilities desired by the learners to communicate effectively in their target discourse communities.

Whereas, learning needs, are related to how these learners learn. According Benabdallah(2007,p,28) target needs are articulated around necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities refer to what the learners demand to learn to become communicatively competent. Thus, this type of needs depends closely on the students' requirements. For instance, Businessmen, students preparing for university entrance, psychologists, nurses and doctors have totally different needs. Starting from the idea that students in an ESP context are aware of their needs as a result, this gives another dimension to an ESP course design by which the learners tend to be active participants expressing what they expect and *want* to learn. Lacks, on the other hand, are defined as the learners' deficiency. This can be used to bridge the gap between what they already know and what necessities they most require (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

According to Benabdallah (2007, p. 28), Brindley (1989) proposes another category of needs namely *objective and subjective needs* which corresponds to that of Berwick (1989), perceived and felt needs. The former, that is to say, objective or perceived needs are found out by the teachers or course designers through analysing, for instance, the learners' essays, identifying their language proficiency and the choice of specialised terminology. These latter are used as a guiding principle in the teaching process. *Subjective needs and felt needs* (Berwick, 1989) are identified by the learners themselves or as Dudley-Evans and John (1998) tend to call them *insiders*. The ESP learners should, accordingly, undertake an active role in which they are required to outline their wants, requirements and expectations of their ESP course. To put in a nutshell, needs are widely believed to be the result of the process of needs analysis. This latter, however, requires a systematic planning of how needs are analysed, interpreted and identified, where elicitation tools are used.



**Figure.6.** Types of Needs (Hutchinson and Waters 1987)

## 8.2. Conducting Needs Analysis?(Sources And Procedures)

In ESP, identifying what a course should contain and how it should be run is determined by the use of different sources and methods to gather data about the situation. The table below illustrates the main sources and methods for needs analysis

**Table 3: Conducting Analysis**

Sources for NAs	Methods of NA
Published & unpublished literature Participating or administrative stuffs (materials) Former students Learners Teachers Domain experts (ESP researchers, linguists, subject specialists) Triangulated sources	Interviews Participant observation non participant observation Questionnaires Triangulated methods

### 8.3. The Purpose of Needs Analysis

An objective is a description of a desired pattern of behavior for the learner to demonstrate. To formulate objectives for ESP teaching, the assumption should be considered is that ESP teaching as a benign and neutral operation that simply set out to help non-native speakers of English cope with language demand in their target environments that of which leads to such questions not only related to objectives formulated for the teaching, but the critical approach to ESP teaching as well. Stern in Basturkmen (2006) distinguished language education objectives into four categorizations, namely proficiency objectives, knowledge objectives, affective objectives, and transfer objectives. Proficiency objectives concern mastery of skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Knowledge objectives concern the acquisition of linguistic and cultural information. Linguistic knowledge objectives include language analysis and awareness of the systematic aspects of language. Cultural knowledge objectives cover control of sociocultural rules (mastery of the norms of society, values, and orientations) and also the ability to recognize culturally significant facts, knowing what is acceptable and what is not. Affective objectives

concern the development of positive feelings toward the subject study. They include attitudes toward attaining second language competencies, sociocultural competencies and language learning. Transfer objectives concern the ability to generalize from what has been learnt in one situation to other situations. The four types of objectives represent four different orientations to teaching ESP, orientation that aim to more that reveal subject-specific language use. Competency-based occupational education can be described as an approach focused on developing the ability to perform the activities of an occupational and function to the standards expected of those employed in that occupation. In language education, teaching oriented toward this objective presents language operationally in terms of what people do with language and the skills they need to do it. Courses are organized around core skills and competencies that also subdivided into microskills and more specific competencies.

This orientation can be categorized as a proficiency objective, according to Stern's classification (1992). The term underlying competencies in ESP was used by Hutchinson and Waters refer to disciplinary concepts from the student' field of study. They argued that ESP should focus on developing student knowledge of the disciplinary concepts as well as their language skills. They, further, propose that the ESP classroom is the appropriate place to introduce students to concepts from disciplines in addition to the language the student would need to express those concepts. In such cases, they argue ESP teaching needs to play a role in providing students with background knowledge, termed underlying competency. This means teaching general conceptual subject content alongside language, for example, teaching engineering students about pump system while teaching language use for describing systems and processes. To this, Douglas (2000) proposes a three-part model of specific purpose language ability comprising language knowledge (grammatical, textual, functional, and sociolinguistic), background knowledge, and strategic competence. He then argue that strategic competence acts as a mediator between the external situation context and the internal language and background knowledge that is needed to response situation or it can be defined as the means that enables language knowledge

and content knowledge to be used in communication. Teaching ESP to students who have workplace and professional experience or who have experience in study in their disciplines may aim to develop the students' strategic competencies. In line with what Hutchinson and Waters argue, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), further, maintain that ESP learners bring to language learning knowledge of their own specialist field and communication in it. In the case, the learners may not be able to control the use of language as the content knowledge of their field may be latent (implicit or tacit knowledge) then the role of the teacher is to develop a more conscious awareness so that control is gained. Teaching ESP with this focus can be categorized as having a linguistic knowledge objective, according to Stern's classification (1992).

#### **8.4. Approaches and Techniques for Needs Analysis: Principles for Analysing Learners Needs**

Richards (2001, p,33) mentions "different types of learners have different language needs, and what they are taught should be restricted to what they need. These needs are fairly specific; they can be identified" ESP subject specialists (Robinson, 1980, 1991; Hutchinson and Waters,1987; Hyland, 2006; Basterkmen,2008) agreed upon the idea that the term needs refers to what learners or workers need to learn in order to perform a specific task effectively in their field of study or working environment. Joining the same idea, Berwick (1989:52) defines it as "...a gap or measurable, discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state".

From the early 1960's, the process of NAI has been acknowledged in language teaching and considered as a major area of interest within the field of ESP as much more emphasis has been oriented towards matching the course to the students' requirements. The rationales behind it as reported by Richards (2001) are:

9. to identify which language skills are most needed by the learners;
10. to find out whether the ESP course meet the learners' needs;
11. to bridge the gap between the learners' lacks and wants.



It is considered as an ongoing process of collecting data, analysing the learners' needs, matching them to the objectives of the course and at the end evaluating and assessing them. In this line of thought, Porcher (1977) believes that needs are the outcome of needs analysis arguing that they are not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready made on the street. It is thing that is constructed, the center of conceptual network, and the product of a number of epistemological choices”(ptd in Richards 2001:54). From another layer of analysis, the burgeoning ESP literature (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Clark, 1998; Richards, 2001) widely reported that NAI seeks to provide suitable answers to significant questions which are:

*Who* question refers to both the users of needs analysis and the target population. The former might fundamentally include the curriculum developers, the ESP practioners or/ and the institution's staff. In this sense, Connelly and Clandinin (1988:24) describe it as ... a person or a group of persons whith the right to commend on, and have input into, the curriculum offered in school. The sample population, on the other hand, is about the learners. It might cover not only present learners or workers in both EAP/ EOP context, but additionally, the ESP teacher and former learners who are also believed to be a source of information. To meet this end, a clear profile should be drawn. Another underlying question is *what* tasks and subject matter the course should be organized around. The answer of this latter encompasses the pedagogical materials, the availability of teaching aids, the teachers' knowledge and competence of the field of study he is actually involved in. The where question is for the educational setting .i.e.; where the ESP course is taught either a ( university, a school, an institution or a company ...etc).

## **9. Approaches to and Steps in ESP Course Design**

It is also about some external factors that may affect the teaching/learning process such as the weather and, the cleanliness of the classroom.The when question, on the

other hand, refers to when the ESP is offered ( morning or afternoon) and time allotted. Needs Analysis is believed to be a starting point and the cornerstone of any ESP course design, however it is generally seen as a challenging task for curriculum providers or/ and teachers. This latter should be subject to a systematic knowledge and strategic planning of the process of NAI which entails making the exact decision as how and when to admister and analyse it. Because ESP focuses on teaching specific language and communication skills, ESP course design usually includes a stage in which the course developers identify what specific language and skills the group of language learners will need. The identification of language and skills is used in determining and refining the content for the ESP course. It can also be used to assess learners and learning at the end of the course.

This process is termed “needs analysis”. A broad, multi - faceted definition of needs analysis is provided by Hyland ( 2006,p 73): Needs analysis refers to the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means of establishing the how and what of a course. It is a continuous process, since we modify our teaching as we come to learn more about our students, and in this way it actually shades into evaluation – the means of establishing the effectiveness of a course. Needs is actually an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners ’ goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in. Needs can involve what learners know, don’t know or want to know, and can be collected and analyzed in a variety of ways. (qtd in Flowerdew, 2013, p,325)

### **9.1. Approaches to Course Design**

According to Hutchinson and Waters, course design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experience, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular sate of knowledge. This entails the use of the theoretical and empirical information

available to produce a syllabus, to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured. Three main approaches to course design can be identified: language-centred, skills-centred, and learning centred.

1. Language-Centred Approach: (Performance) Language- centred approach is the simplest and more familiar kind to English teachers. It is an approach that focuses on the linguistic performance of the learner in the target situation (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 65). This approach aims to draw direct connection between target situation and the content of ESP course.. It might be considered a learner-centred approach. The learner is simply used as a means of identifying the target situation. 2. It is a static and inflexible procedure, which can take little account of the conflicts and contradictions that are inherent in any human endeavor. 3. It appears to be systematic. The fact that knowledge has been systematically analysed and systematically presented does not in any way imply that it will be systematically learnt. Learners have to make the system meaningful to themselves. And unfortunately we have to admit that we do not know enough about how the mind actually goes about creating its internal system of knowledge. 4. It gives no acknowledgement to factors which must inevitably play a part in the creation of any course. Data is not important in itself. 5. The lg-centred analysis of target situation data is only at the surface level. It reveals very little about the competence that underlies the performance. This course design fails to recognise the fact that, learners being people, learning is not a straightforward, logical process.

A lg-centred approach says: „This is the nature of the target situation performance and that will determine the ESP course.“

2. Skills-Centred Approach (Competence) This approach aims at helping learners to develop skills and strategies which will continue after the ESP course. Its aim is not only to provide language knowledge but to make the learners into better processors of information. The figure below presents this model. Figure.2: Skills Centred- Approach to an ESP Course Design Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that the role needs

analysis in this approach is to help the ESP practitioner discover the potential knowledge and competences of the learner, and their perspectives of the target situation. Skills centred model view language in terms of how the mind of the learner processes it rather than as an entity in itself. In addition, it tries to build on the positive factors that the learners bring to the course, rather than just on the negative idea of „lacks“. Finally, it frames its objectives in open-ended terms, so enabling learners to achieve at least something. Yet, in spite of its concern for the learner, the skills-centred approach still approaches the learner as a user of language rather as a learner of language.

3. A Learning-Centred Approach (Competence) A learning-centred course differs from a traditional teaching-centred (language /skills centred) course in several ways (Weimer, 2002). First, the balance of control in a learning-centred class will change. What does this mean? A common belief is that in a teaching,-centred environment, where teachers are seen to be the only source of information and are likely authoritative, the feeling of responsibility for learning is higher. This is why, in case some students“ fail to learn, teachers blame themselves because they believe that good learning depends entirely on good teaching.

Consequently, teaching-centred courses designers ensure control over many aspects of the course. In contrast, in a learning-centred situation, students are ultimately responsible for their own learning using different strategies. For example they have to engage in assigned learning activities and exert the effort required to learn. So if students are supposed to take responsibility for their own learning, it is time to give them more control over the way learning experiences are structured. In addition to this, teachers delivering a learning-centred need to control aspects of the course to ensure that they meet their professional responsibility to create a course that addresses certain learning outcomes. In the same line, students need to control aspects of the learning environment to meet individual learning goals and maintain motivation. The idea behind this approach is that the learner is the main actor in the learning process for this to happen it takes the following principles: Learning is totally

determined by the learner who uses his knowledge and skills to make sense of new information. Learning is not just a mental process; it is a process of negotiation between individuals and society. Course design is negotiation process in which both the target situation influences the features of the syllabus and also it's a dynamic process in which means and recourses vary from time to time. Despite the fact of being: a language, learning, or skills- centred approach; making the ESP course as dynamic and flexible as much as possible is the most important thing. Hence, a clear understanding of students' needs and the demands of the target situation will serve in developing the appropriate materials and methodologies needed to function effectively in a given domain.

## **9.2. Steps in Course Design**

Needs analysis, carried out to establish the “what” and the “how” of a course, is the first stage in ESP course development, followed by curriculum design, materials selection, methodology, assessment, and evaluation. However, these stages should not be seen as separate, proceeding in a linear fashion. Rather, as noted by Dudley - Evans and St John (1998), they are interdependent overlapping activities in a cyclical process. This conceptual distinction is neatly encapsulated by the following diagrams from Dudley - Evans and St John (1998, p.121) showing how needs analysis is often ongoing, feeding back into various stages. Figure 8: Linear vs. cyclical processes of needs analysis (Dudley - Evans and St John 1998: 121) Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) offer a ‘current concept of needs analysis’ (p. 125) These analyses aimed to determine priorities, such as, which skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking), and which situations or tasks, such as speaking on the telephone or writing minutes from meetings, were more or less important in the target situation. Later the concept of needs analysis was expanded to include ‘deficiency analysis’ (lacks or the gap between what the learner needs to know to operate in the target situation and the learner’s present language proficiency). This analysis represented the point of departure for the language-learning journey. In time ‘strategy analysis’ (the preferred approaches and methods in teaching and learning) was also included in needs analysis. This

represented the means of travel. And later ‘means analysis’ (identification of the constraints and opportunities in the teaching situation) was added. This analysis included gathering information on the classroom culture, learner factors, teacher profiles and the status of language teaching in the organization. Means analysis represented the ESP journey. Amalgamating the ideas described above, the definition of needs analysis that will be used in this book is given below.

### **9.3. Methods and Strategies**

Needs analysis in ESP refers to a course development process. In this process the language and skills that the learners will use in their target professional or vocational workplace or in their study areas are identified and considered in relation to the present state of knowledge of the learners, their perceptions of their needs and the practical possibilities and constraints of the teaching context. The information obtained from this process is used in determining and refining the content and method of the ESP course. The needs analysis process involves: Target situation analysis: Identification of tasks, activities and skills learners

- are/will be using English for; what the learners should ideally know and be able to do. Discourse analysis: Descriptions of the language used in the above.
- Present situation analysis: Identification of what the learners do and do not know and
- can or cannot do in relation to the demands of the target situation. Learner factor analysis: Identification of learner factors such as their motivation,
- how they learn and their perceptions of their needs. Teaching context analysis: Identification of factors related to the environment in
- which the course will run. Consideration of what realistically the ESP course and teacher can offer. Needs analysis should not be seen as an entirely objective

procedure. Hyland (2008, p. 113) reminds us, 'Needs analysis is like any other classroom practice in that it involves decisions based on teachers' interests, values, and beliefs about teaching, learning and language.'

## **10. ESP Methods and Principles of Communicative Methodology**

ESP (English for specific purposes) and the communicative approach are often thought to be closely related. However, the reality is somewhat different. Many of the principles and practices on which much current ESP is based are educationally unsound. In needs analysis, for example, the real views of the learners are seldom given due consideration. Traditional ESP course design has two major drawbacks: firstly, the development in the learner of a capacity to communicate is neglected, and secondly, there is a failure to analyse and take into account the realities of the ESP learning situation. A typical consequence of this is that ESP teachers are often put in the untenable position of having to teach from texts whose subject-matter they do not understand. Furthermore, in most ESP materials, the learner is presented with uninspiring content and language exercises which lack any clear communication focus. As a result, ESP is, at present, a rather un-communicative form of language teaching. In this paper, therefore, we will present our ideas for making ESP more learning-centred, and, thereby, more communicative.

### **10.1. ESP Methodology – A Communicative One**

Though needs analysis, as we know it today, has gone through many stages, with the publication of Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* in 1978, situations and functions were set within the frame of needs analysis. In his book, Munby introduced 'communication needs processor' which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis. Based on Munby's work, Chambers (1980) introduced the term *Target Situation Analysis*. From that time several other terms have also been introduced: *Present Situation Analysis*, *Pedagogic Needs Analysis*, *Deficiency Analysis*, *Strategy Analysis* or *Learning Needs Analysis*, *Means Analysis*, *Register analysis*, *Discourse*

analysis, and Genre Analysis. As it is apparent from the name, this type of needs analysis has to do with the strategies that learners employ in order to learn another language. This tries to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn (West, 1998). All the above-mentioned approaches to needs analysis, TSA, PSA, and to some extent deficiency analysis, have not been concerned with the learners' views of learning. Allwright who was a pioneer in the field of strategy analysis (West, 1994) started from the students' perceptions of their needs in their own terms (Jordan, 1997). It is Allwright who makes a distinction between needs (the skills which a student sees as being relevant to himself or herself), wants (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time), and lacks (the difference between the student's present competence and the desired competence).

His ideas were adopted later by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who advocate a learning-centered approach in which learners' learning needs play a vital role. If the analyst, by means of target situation analysis, tries to find out what learners do with language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) learning needs analysis will tell us "what the learner needs to do in order to learn" (ibid: 54). Obviously, they advocate a process-oriented approach, not a product- or goal-oriented one. For them ESP is not "a product but an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 16). What learners should be taught are skills that enable them to reach the target, the process of learning and motivation should be considered as well as the fact that different learners learn in different ways (Dudley-Evans and St.

## **10.2. Communicative Activities**

In presenting the concepts and skills of curriculum development and showing how to apply them to actual course planning, an attempt is made to bridge theory and practice in curriculum development. By developing a greater awareness of the important decisions to be made and the alternative courses of action available at each decision point, teachers are assisted in becoming flexible and systematic curriculum



planners. Intended to be used as: (1) a textbook for graduate and undergraduate courses in curriculum development and instructional design or as a supplement to a "methods" course; (2) the basis for in-service workshops for classroom teachers; (3) material for individual teachers desiring to increase their professional competence; and (4) a self-instructional "lab" portion of courses in curriculum development or instructional design. The text begins with a set of guidelines for course development, and outlines the procedure for designing for an actual course. The planning process is explained by the provision of relevant design theory, frequent exercises, representative examples, a glossary of terms, and sample course designs completed by students.

### **10.3. Principles of Communicative Methodology**

In Munby's CNP, the target needs and target level performance are established by investigating the target situation, and his overall model clearly establishes the place of needs analysis as central to ESP, indeed the necessary starting point in materials or course design (West, 1998). In the CNP, account is taken of "the variables that affect communication to Needs Analysis. needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other" (Munby, 1978: 32). Munby's overall model is made up of the following elements:

1. Participants: information about the identity and language of the learners: age, sex, nationality, present command of target language, other languages known and extent of command;
2. Communication Needs Processor: investigates the particular communication needs according to sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs;
3. Profile of Needs: is established through the processing of data in the CNP;
4. In the Meaning Processor "parts of the socioculturally determined profile of communication needs are converted into semantic subcategories of a predominantly pragmatic kind, and marked with attitudinal tone" (Munby, 1978: 42);
5. The Language Skills Selector: identifies "the specific language skills that are required to realize the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP" (Munby, 1978: 40);
6. The Linguistic Encoder: considers

“the dimension of contextual appropriacy” (Munby, 1978: 49), one the encoding stage has been reached; English for Specific Purposes world, Issue 4, 2008, [www.esp-world.info](http://www.esp-world.info) Introduction to Needs Analysis. Mehdi Haseli Songhori 6 7. The Communicative Competence Specification: indicates the target communicative competence of the participant and is the translated profile of needs. From the above-mentioned elements of the Munby model, the predominant one or at least the one that has been referred to by other researchers of needs analysis is the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) which is the basis of Munby’s approach to needs analysis and establishes the profile of needs through the processing of eight parameters the processing of which gives us a detailed description of particular communication needs (Munby, 1978).

The parameters specified by Munby (1987) are:

- Purposive domain: this category establishes the type of ESP, and then the purpose which the target language will be used for at the end of the course.
- Setting: the physical setting specifying the spatial and temporal aspects of the situation where English will be used, and the psychological setting specifying the different environment in which English will be used.
- Interaction: identifies the learner’s interlocutors and predicts relationship between them.
- Instrumentality: specifies the medium, i.e., whether the language to be used is written, spoken, or both; mode, i.e., whether the language to be used is in the form of monologue, dialogue or any other; and channel of communication, i.e., whether it is face to face, radio, or any other.

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- Dialect: dialects learners will have to understand or produce in terms of their spatial, temporal, or social aspect.
- Communicative event: states what the participants will have to do productively or receptively.
- Communicative key: the manner in which the participants will have to do the activities comprising an event, e.g. politely or impolitely.
- Target level: level of linguistic proficiency at the end of the ESP course which might be different for different skills.

## **11. Some Attributes of ESP Methodology**

### **11.1. Problem Solving**

ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre. Variable characteristics: ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;• ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;• ESP is likely to be designed for intermediate or advanced students;• Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.• Robinson (1991) believes that ESP is a major activity around the world today. Hutchinson and Waters (1993), make the point clear: ESP is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English, nor is just matter of science words and grammar for scientists. It is also not different in kind from any other form of language teaching as far as principles of effective and efficient learning are concerned (p. 18).

### 3.3 Vocabulary

Richards and Renandya (2002) assume that "vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write" (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 255).

In terms of teaching technical vocabulary in ESP, it is most important to make a distinction between two types of vocabulary: technical and semi-technical. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 83) suggest two broad areas related to technical vocabulary.

1. Vocabulary that is used in general language but has a higher frequency of occurrence in specific and technical description and discussion.
2. Vocabulary that has specialized and restricted meanings in certain disciplines and which may vary in meaning across disciplines.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP should be seen as an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning. Their specific and apparent reason for learning English is for academic purposes and their academic study will involve specialized areas across different discipline in physical sciences as well as in social sciences. The aim of their vocabulary acquisition is surely academic vocabulary. A rationale behind this is that learners will do academic study in English must focus on academic vocabulary which

is variously known as a general useful scientific vocabulary and semi-technical vocabulary because they need to exhibit a wide range of academic skills like reading about research papers in their own fields, listening to teachers speak about their work, writing academic papers and presenting oral or written evaluations of methods or results in many cases (Barber, 1962 & Farrel, 1990).

## **11.2. Task Based Approach**

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), "task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the [www.ccsenet.org/elt](http://www.ccsenet.org/elt) English Language Teaching Vol. 5, No. 10; 2012 119 use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching" (p. 223). Nunan (2004) believes that "task is an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching and learner assessment" (p. 1). Ellis (2003) maintains that "tasks hold a central place in current second language acquisition (SLA) research and language pedagogy" (p. 1). According to Willis (1996), tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communication purpose in order to achieve an outcome (p. 23). Richards and Rodgers (2001) offer some assumptions which are believed to underlie TBLT.

As far as the theory of language is concerned, "language is primarily a means of making meaning" that is, what is important in language use is meaning. In fact, Skehan (1998), in his definition referred to this point too. "Multiple models of language inform task-based learning". Richards and Rodgers (2001) believe that TBLT draws on functional, interactional and, in some cases, structural models of language. Skehan (1998) believes that when we deal with task complexity, we have to consider the structural model too. "Lexical units are central in language use and language learning", and "conversation" is the central focus of language and the keystone of language acquisition". When it comes to the theory of learning, Richards and Rodgers (2001), propose that "tasks provide both the input and the output processing necessary for language acquisition". "Task activity and achievement are motivational" (p. 228). Motivation is a need for language learning. Brown (2000) argues that "it is easy in

second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation" (p. 160). Lots of procedures and stages have been devised so far, but Ellis (2003) believes that they all have in common three principal phases: pre-task, during task, and post-task. In pre-task phase the overall purpose of this phase is to prepare the learners for the next phase, that is, students should get prepared for completing the task. In fact, the pre-task phase has two basic functions: 1) to introduce and create interest in doing a task on the chosen topic, and 2) to activate topic-related words, phrases and target sentences that will be useful in carrying out the task and in the real world communication. A third, optional function is the inclusion of an enabling task to help students communicate as smoothly as possible during the task cycle (Rooney, 2000). In the "during task" phase students work in pairs or groups although this is dependent on the type of activity, and they use whatever linguistic resources they possess to achieve the goals of the task. The post-task phase in the framework, the language focus, provides an opportunity for form-focused work. Having completed the task, the students prepare either a written or oral report to present to the class. In this phase, some of the specific features of the language, which occurred naturally during the task, are identified and analyzed (Rooney, 2000).

### **11.3. Collaborative/Team Teaching**

Team teaching, parallel teaching, supportive or complementary teaching, collaborative teaching, co-teaching, these are just several names for one and the same strategy where two or more teachers work together with the same aim for the same group of students. Additionally, Buckley supplements this definition with determiners such as "purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively" (2000). There are two categories differentiated by whether the teaching team shares the physical space (the classroom) or not. True team teaching involves ESP teacher and subject specialist co-operating fully throughout the course, delivering instruction simultaneously in the same classroom (Barron, 1992; Dinitz et al., 1997). In similar fashion, Conderman and McCarty define it as a strategy where a "group of teachers work together, plan,

conduct, and evaluate the learning activities for the same group of students” (2003). For the purpose of this paper, we adopt the term team teaching as defined by Buckley who describes two teachers who bring to the table their “distinct and complementary sets of skills, combine roles and share resources and responsibilities in a sustained effort while working towards the common goal of academic success” (2000). There are many considerations to be made to ensure the success of this strategy. Little and Hoel emphasize the importance of careful selection of the teaching partner. Furthermore, they warn the teachers to manage their expectations as well as to ask themselves whether they can “remain open-minded, share control, and not become easily offended” (2011). Stewart and Perry recommend committing to the practice of reflective teaching and being open to share and accept what others offer (2005). Finally, Leavitt reports a mock Decalogue of two Stanford University professors who summed up the rules for a successful teaching team (2006): 1. Thou shalt plan everything with thy neighbor. 2. Thou shalt attend thy neighbor’s lectures. 3. Thou shalt refer to thy neighbor’s ideas. 4. Thou shalt model debate with thy neighbor. 5. Thou shalt have something to say, even when thou art not in charge. 6. Thou shalt apply common grading standards. 7. Thou shalt ask open questions. 8. Thou shalt let thy students speak. 9. Thou shalt attend all staff meetings. 10. Thou shalt be willing to be surprised. Research literature indicates that once the conditions are right, team teaching has numerous student, teacher, and professional benefits. The most general and far-fetching benefit of the presence of the interdisciplinary faculty member is that it “reinforces the importance of alternative viewpoints and perspectives” (Little &Hoel, 2011).

Similarly, Fenollera et al. state that team teaching provides multiple learning perspectives and promotes teamwork and communication between teachers and students (2012). In addition, Leavitt points out that it provides instructors with “a useful way of modeling thinking within or across disciplines” (2006). Conderman and McCarty believe that by pooling the resources, materials, experiences, and strengths, the classroom experience is richer than if the course had been taught independently;

teachers benefit from “the spirit of parity” where both sides are equally valued and have executive power (2003). Buckley reinforces this notion by suggesting that teachers express parity by playing “the dual roles of teacher and learner, expert and novice, giver and recipient of knowledge or skills” (2000). Finally, professional benefits spring from the concept of teacher knowledge (Górska-Poręcka, 2013) where the fourth dimension is added, and it refers to cognition of one’s own behaviour and habits. As previously mentioned, Barron devised three types of interaction in team teaching (1992). They range from the least involvement of the specialist to the full integration of the disciplines. The first is the consultative method where the subject specialist is brought into advice in certain stages of the course delivery. Secondly, there is the collaborative method in which the teaching team works together on all course aspects except for the shares the classroom. Finally, the intervention method implies teaching in a shared physical space. In view of our proposed model course, we opted for the combination of the second and the third method as our teaching team does not share the brick-and-mortar classroom, but they do deliver the joint instruction in the virtual learning environment.

## **7. Principales of Learning**

According to Tom Hutchinson & Alan Waters Lancaster (1986), “English for Specific Purposes is teaching which has specified objectives”. English Language world got a long well enough without it for many years, so why has ESP become such an important part of English Language Teaching? In ESP students hope by learning ESP can serve as a guide to all present and future and inhabitant of ESP, revealing both the challenges and pleasures to be enjoyed there and the pitfalls to be avoided. The writer make this book in order we will not only explain our reason for writing it but will also be able to presents a plan of the itinerary we shall follow, the ESP is related to learning central approach because in development ESP has paid scant attention to the questions of how people learn, focusing instead on the question of what people learn. Besides, ESP divided into several focuses there are ESP for Science and Technology (EST) divided into two English Academic Purposes (EAP) English

for Occupational Purposes (EAP). In English Academic Purposes (EAP) there is English for Medical Studies, and English for Occupational Purposes (EAP) there is English for Technicians. English for Business and Economics (EBE) divided into two are EAP there is English for Economics and EOP English for Secretaries. In English for Social Sciences (ESS) divided into two EAP there is English for Psychology and EOP (English for Teaching). However, in ESP will discuss into several chapters such as the origin ESP, The Development of ESP, ESP: Approach not Product, Language Description, Theories of Learning, Needs Analysis, Approaches to Course Design, The Syllabus, Materials Evaluation, Materials Design, Methodology, Evaluation and Orientation.

### **12.1. Material Design and Evaluation**

We can start by asking ourselves the question: What are materials supposed to do? In defining the purpose of the materials, we can identify some principles that will guide us to the actual writing of the materials.

- a. Materials provide a stimulus to learning process. Good materials don't teach but rather encourage learners to learn. Good materials contain:
  - ✓ Interesting text
  - ✓ Enjoyable activities
  - ✓ Opportunities for learners to use their knowledge and skills
  - ✓ Content which both learners as well as teacher can overcome
- b. Materials help to organize the teaching-learning process. By providing a way through the complex mass of the language to be learnt. Good materials should provide a clear and understandable unit structure that will guide teacher and learners.
- c. Materials contain a view of the nature of language learning.

Good materials should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process.



- d. Materials reflect the nature of the learning task.

Materials should try to create a balance outlook that both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

- e. Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training. By introducing teachers to new techniques.

- f. Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

This is a necessary function of materials, but it is all too often taken as the only purpose, which the result is the materials become simply a statement of language use rather than a vehicle for language learning.

### *Evaluative.*

This kind of model acts as feedback device to tell you whether you have done what you intended. The syllabus/unit interface model (Figure 31) is of this kind. Typically it is used as a checklist. Materials are written with only outline reference to the S/UI. Then when enough material is available, the S/UI can be used to check coverage and appropriacy.

- If the models are used inappropriately, the materials writers will almost certainly be so swamped with factors to consider that they will probably achieve little of worth.

## **12.2. Material Design and Selection**

There was a model of learning which has been presented before. In this section, this will show how to use that kind of model. But here, we found some difficulties, such as:

## **12.3. Material Design/Writing**

- a. The text is mostly descriptive so that nothing students can do except reading and writing only.
- b. The text contains specific vocabularies that only can be explained by realia. However it is not available in the ESP classroom.
- c. Students don't have general language that is used to connect to the specific vocabularies.

The further need analysis is conducted to fix the difficulties of the model. The results are:

- a. The general technical topic should be explained to students in order to make students become able to connect to the specific subject.
- b. The assumption of teacher if students know nothing or little about a specific matters, but they only know some general words about that specific matter.
- c. Connecting the specific subject to another is useful. Teacher can connect the topic of a specific subject to another subject that is more general to make it easier to understand and to teach a new and specific knowledge.

After having the new results, for the revision of need analysis there're some guidelines to use the model of learning well. The guidelines are:

- a. Stage 1

Stage 1 is a stage to find the text. Here a good text to be a model is required to be occurred naturally, suit to the students' need and interests, ad it generates some exercises and activities.

- b. Stage 2

Stage 2 is a stage to assess the text. The purpose is to assess the potential of the text to be a classroom activity.

c. Stage 3

In stage 3 we have to go back to the syllabus and think about the match of the task. Is it a kind of activity that will be useful for the learners?

d. Stage 4

Decide the language structure, vocabulary, and functions that are appropriate to the task and useful for the learners. Here we identify the name of parts, present active, etc.

e. Stage 5

Think about the exercises to practice the items you have identified. We should consider three things: transfer activity, reconstruction activity, and write other description.

f. Stage 6

In this stage, we should go back to the input. If possible, try what we have made to the students then ask to ourselves, can it be revised?

g. Stage 7

In this stage, we should go back from stage 1 until 6 with the revision we have. Analyze again from stage 1. The revision can bring good improvements, such as: having new task, the original task is useful too, having a number of exercises, having a good realistic setting to practice the material.

h. Stage 8

We need to check new material against syllabus and amend accordingly.

i. Stage 9

Here we try the material in the classroom.

j. Stage 10

In using the material in the classroom, we can revise it for the further development. There's no such thing as a perfect material, a revision is always needed.

#### **12.4. Criteria/Principles for Material Production**

Although one feature might be used as the organizing principle of syllabus, there are in fact several syllabuses operating in any course. We have argued that the course design process should be much more dynamic and interactive. We noted also when dealing with needs analysis in chapter 5 that we must take account not just of the visible features of the target situation, but also of intangible factors that relate to the learning situation, for example learner involvement, variety, use of existing knowledge, etc. A model must be able to ensure adequate coverage through the syllabus of all the features identified as playing a role in the development of learning. In addition to having an internal coherence, therefore, each unit must also relate effectively to the other units in the course. There needs to be coherence between the unit structure and the syllabus structure to ensure that the course provides adequate and appropriate coverage of syllabus items.

Figure 31 illustrates in a simplified form how the unit model relates to the various syllabus underlying the course design. Note, however, that identifying features of the model with syllabus features does not mean that they only play a role in that position, nor that other factors are not involved in that position. The diagram aims to show the main focus of each element in the materials.

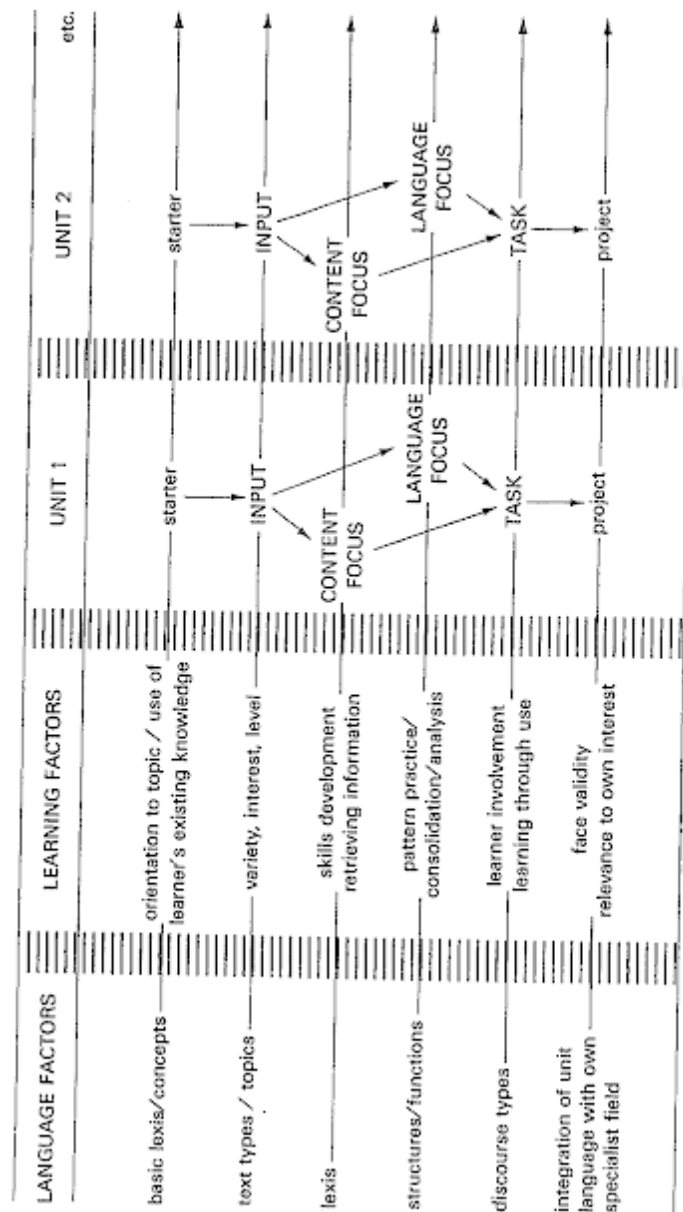
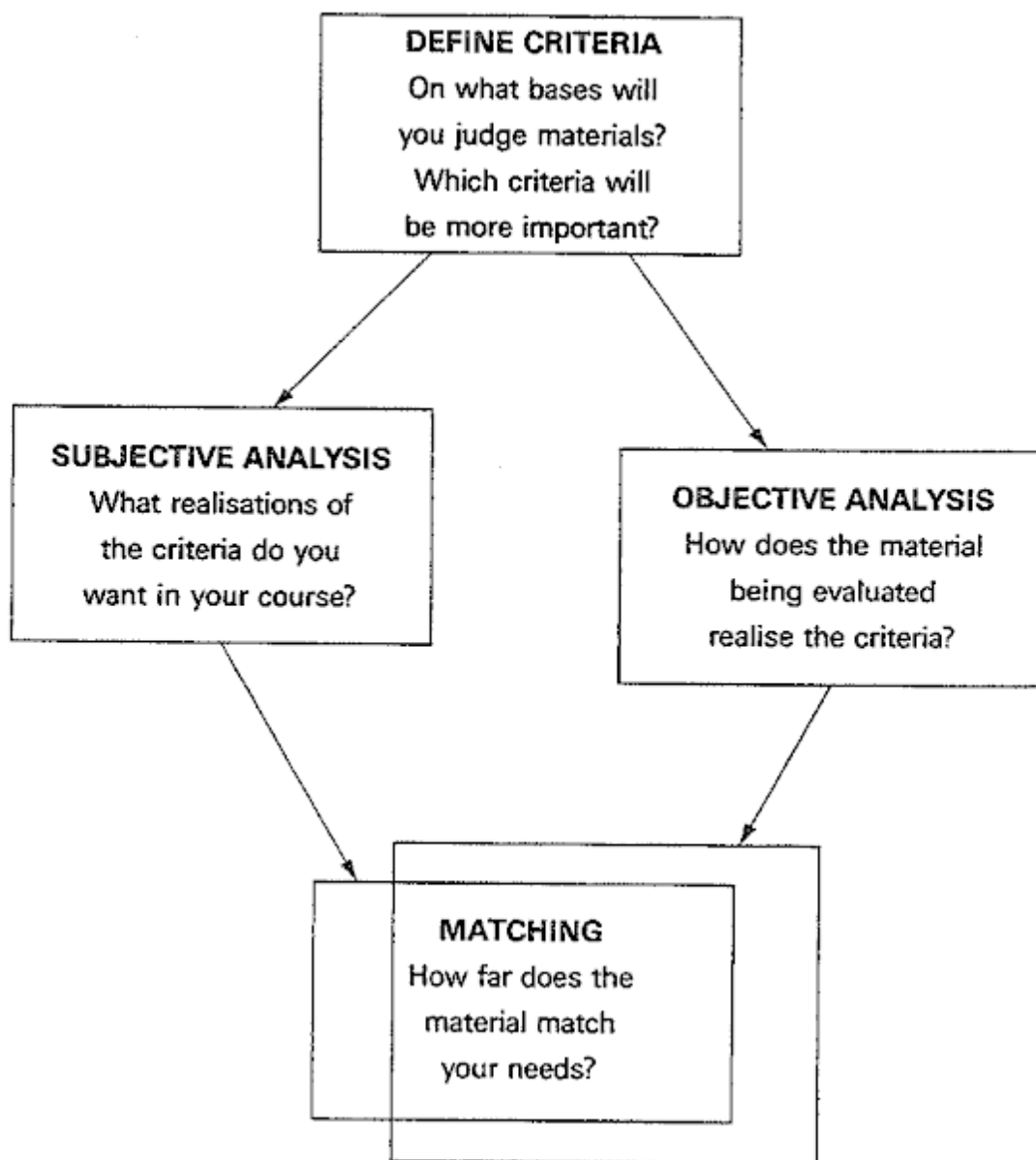


Figure 31: The syllabus/unit interface (S/UI)

wide use of models throughout this chapter. At this point it is useful to make a cautionary distinction between two types of model, since both are used in the materials design process:

- a) *Predictive.* This kind of model provides the generative framework within which creativity can operate. The unit model is of this kind. It is a model that enables the operator to select, organize and present data.



*Figure 26: The materials evaluation process*

- a) *Evaluative*. This kind of model acts as feedback device to tell you whether you have done what you intended. The syllabus/unit interface model (Figure 31) is of this kind. Typically it is used as a checklist. Materials are written with only outline reference to

the S/UI. Then when enough material is available, the S/UI can be used to check coverage and appropriacy.

If the models are used inappropriately, the materials writers will almost certainly be so swamped with factors to consider that they will probably achieve little of worth.

### **12.5. Elements of ESP Materials**

An important characteristic of ESP materials, which is of great significance within communicative approach, and which seems of particular relevance for ESP, is that of authenticity. According to Gilmore (2004), interest in authentic materials is associated with the name of Henry Sweet (1899) and its contemporary reappearance goes back to the discussion on the issue of communicative competence that was initiated by Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1966). Authentic materials are used to create indispensable communication context in the classroom and to simulate as much as possible the communication observable in the real world outside (Richards, 2001b). Another key feature of ESP materials is that of specificity.

Since ESP focuses on specific, purposeful uses of language, it is common practice that materials designed for teaching ESP are directly targeted at a particular learner group and/or related to their reality. For that reason, it is necessary that the materials developer determine particular features of the target language that should be taught to a particular learner or learner group. Alongside the course specialization, there are also some additional factors that need to be taken into consideration as they are likely to influence the design and use of ESP materials. They include the following variables: type of institution, e.g. enterprise or university;• context, e.g. ESL or EFL educational context;• classroom setting, e.g. traditional classroom or conference room;• the use of information technology (IT);• learner qualities, e.g. proficiency level;• group make-up, e.g. heterogeneous/homogeneous proficiency levels• teacher qualities, e.g. experience, expertise in the specific content area (Barnard and• Zemach, 2003). All of these factors need to be considered as part of needs analysis before needs-specific materials are selected, designed and used. Accordingly, the course

designer has to take into account whether the target group has enough time for regular classes or whether particular learners will have to rely on a mix of traditional classes, self-study and reference materials.

There are also other questions that need to be answered such as those related to the most appropriate teaching approach, incorporation of IT into the course, optimal teaching strategies to cope with the heterogeneous group make-up, etc. The resultant ESP materials – designed and/or selected – reflect the teaching practitioner's view on the nature of language and learning for it goes without saying that developing or choosing a set of materials for an ESP class, teachers make conscious or sub-conscious statements related to what according to them language learning is and how they feel about the learning process. Thus the conviction that organizing language teaching around such categories as language functions serves learners best will result in an approach that underscores the matching of selected language functions to various communicative purposes. Likewise, a strong belief that language instruction is to focus on discourse and genre structures will lead to having students analyze discourse structure (e.g. contrasting relationships, transition words, collocations) and genre structures (e.g. discourse moves) and making them see how these structures are used to create a coherent stretch of language with a specific function (Upton, 2011). The past twenty-five years have witnessed a range of teaching methodologies employed in the foreign/second language classroom.

The same approaches have been adopted in teaching ESP since ESP does not appear to have a distinctive methodology (Basturkmen, 2006). If we consider methodological options offered in ESP, it becomes obvious that there is very little difference between teaching ESP and EGP, and it is not possible to say whether general English Language Teaching (ELT) has borrowed methodological ideas from ESP or whether ESP has appropriated ideas from general ELT (Robinson, 1991). According to Robinson (1991), there are two characteristic features of ESP methodology. First, ESP can base activities on learners' specialism, but need not do so. Second, ESP activities can (but may not) have a truly authentic purpose connected



with learners' target needs. It follows that both the objective of an ESP course and its content are adjusted to the needs of the target audience. However, since both methodologies are based on the communicative approach to ELT, teaching English either for general or specific purposes is oriented at the development of linguistic, communicative, cultural and intercultural competences allowing learners to naturally function in English in various professional and/or academic settings (Gajewska i Sowa, 2014). Accordingly, methods and tools available to the ESP teacher are the ones that are used in general ELT and draw on the following approaches:

activity-oriented approach, which stresses the interdependence of language and context; skill-oriented approach, the objective of which is the development of receptive and/or productive skills; genre-oriented approach, where language learning focuses on texts representing different genres; task-oriented approach, in which learners perform tasks inspired by real-life communicative activities in professional settings (Gajewska i Sowa, 2014). Referring to these approaches, ESP teachers can construct their own individual, context-specific frameworks that allow them to select and combine compatible procedures and materials in systematic ways for a given local context. These general methodological frameworks may be affected by specialized knowledge that ESP students bring to the classroom as well as learning processes from their specific content areas (Hyland, 2006). Drawing on these, teachers attempt to develop learners' needs-specific competences harnessing – as they go along – such concepts as awareness raising, socioliteracy, concordancing, task-based or problem-based learning etc.

## **12.6. Design of Text Activities**

Input for ESP courses if we choose generic commercially available materials that do not respond to the specific target needs of our learners. What is needed are needs-responsive instructional materials collected at the stage of needs analysis, adapted and/or developed from the specific target situation by the ESP teacher, i.e. the person who has expertise in language learning materials design, language instruction as well as in the specific content area.

### 6. Specificity of ESP materials

The question how specific

the course should be in terms of the target audience is one of the key issues pertaining to the choice of ESP materials and course development. It has been discussed in relation to second language writing instruction and the debate over the purposes of EAP classes is considered to be one of the most persistent and controversial questions (Ferris, 2001). On the continuum that stretches from teaching EGAP at one end to the most focused and targeted language instruction towards the other, it is possible to draw a distinction between 'wide angled' and 'narrow angled' courses (Basturkmen, 2010). The former are designed for more general groups of learners and focus on a set of generic skills in an area, e.g. Business English skills. The latter are meant for very specific learner groups, i.e. learners who appear to be homogeneous in terms of their needs and/or who study English having a particular type of academic and/or work environment in mind, e.g. English for Logistics, English for Accountants.

Developing more focused courses, it is possible to design courses for sub-areas within the broad fields of work or study, e.g. English for Financial Accountancy or English for Logistics Management. In practical terms, the focus of the course is determined by the findings from needs analysis. From a theoretical point of view, however, ESP course development is to be preceded by careful consideration of two additional issues (Basturkmen, 2010) – one that pertains to the notion of general varieties of language and the other that relates to the notion of generic skills. When it comes to the former, one has to agree with Hyland (2008: 113) questioning the assumption of “a single core vocabulary for academic study irrespective of discipline”. As for the latter, it does not seem justifiable to assume the existence of a set of generic the needs of students in a wide range of disciplines. As pointed out by Hyland (2004: 151), different disciplines have their own ways of “crafting arguments, reflecting ideas of what is of value and how it can be communicated”. Adopting a different perspective on the issues leads to the development of wide-angled EGAP courses, which reflects the unwillingness of many universities to fund the design of highly specific narrow-angled courses (Hyland, 2002). Commenting on the issue, Belcher (2006: 139) argues that the two-way divide suggested by 'wide- and narrow-angled' course designs is a

‘nonissue’ for many teaching practitioners since “instructional decisions should have more to do with the learners themselves than within instructor preference or beliefs”. Undergraduate students without majors or low-proficiency adults are more likely to benefit from a wide-angled approach, whereas postgraduate students – doctors or nurses – may prefer a narrow-angled approach. Also, as suggested by research findings, teachers are not always the best judges of what will motivate their learners (Murray and McPherson, 2004). It thus goes without saying that learners should be allowed a voice in the selection of the course content as well.

### **12.7. Selecting Material**

Materials one of the characteristic features of ESP is that teachers and course developers pay particular attention to the use of authentic texts and tasks (Basturkmen, 2010). Authenticity of teaching materials has been emphasized within the communicative approach, its concept – widely discussed and a number of definitions of authenticity suggested (Robinson, 1991). Thus in the literature of the subject, the term ‘authentic’ has been employed to describe language samples – oral or written – reflecting naturally used language forms that are appropriately based on the cultural and situational context (Rogers and Medley, 1988). When the issue of purpose is focused on, the term ‘authentic’ denotes texts that have not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching (Robinson, 1991; Harmer, 1991; Lee, 1995; Jordan, 1997; Basturkmen, 2010), but for a real communicative purpose (Lee, 1995).

Though the use of authentic materials is emphasized in ESP teaching, it is also argued that the presence of authentic materials in the classroom is no guarantee of authenticity. It has even been suggested that the essence of authenticity does not reside in the texts themselves since once authentic materials are removed from the context in which they naturally function, they are anything but that (Widdowson, 1979). Distinguishing between authenticity and genuineness, Widdowson (1998) contends that another important aspect of authenticity pertains to the recipient of the text and his/her reaction to it. It follows that authenticity cannot be reached if learners do not

respond to the texts provided as native speakers do in real contexts or if authentic tasks are not used in keeping with the field specificity. Consequently, as suggested by Velazquez and Redmond (2007), it is important that teachers focus on the authentic uses of materials and what can be done with them rather than on authentic materials themselves. The above discussion shows that the issue of authenticity not only manifests itself in text authenticity (cf. Guariento and Morley, 2001), but also encompasses other facets. These –as cited by MacDonald et al. (2006) – include authenticity of competence (cf. Canale and Swain, 1980), learner authenticity (cf. Widdowson, 1979) and authenticity of classroom (cf. Breen, 1985).

MacDonald et al. (2006) consider texts used as input to be authentic if there is a correspondence between the materials used in the classroom and the types of texts used outside the classroom. Referring to Canale and Swain's (1980) classification of competence, they contend that authenticity of competence involves the learner's performance that closely corresponds to the performance of native speakers. As observed by Breen (1985), these two kinds of authenticity are targeted at learners who – being provided with suitable materials and help in text interpretation – are given a chance to share their knowledge with native speakers. Learner authenticity refers to the interaction between the language user, his/her purpose, the communicative situation in which the text is being used and the text sample itself (Lee, 1995). It is defined as the learner's positive reaction towards the text and pedagogical intention inherent in it (Lee, 1995), which is not solely generated by the text authenticity, but rather by its communicative potential.

Classroom authenticity is the last category proposed by MacDonald et al. (2006). It pertains to enhancing authenticity in the classroom by creating conditions in which “the participants can publicly share the problems, achievements and overall process of learning a language together as socially motivated and socially situated activity” (Breen, 1985: 68). There are several possible approaches to enhancing authenticity in the ESP classroom (Belcher, 2012). One of them is the use of tasks inspired by real-life

communicative activities, e.g. after watching video, students in an EMP course engage in role plays as patients and doctors (cf. Hussin, 2002; Boshier and Smalkoski, 2002). Another approach involves problem-based learning (PBL) activities which are meant to engage learners in. These activities prepare learners for functioning in their target communities since they equip them with individual strategies of language learning and problem-solving (Belcher, 2012). Authentic texts used as input can range from anything that is available to the ESP teacher, but not produced for the purpose of language teaching to materials normally used in the learners' workplace or study situations (Robinson, 1991). Accordingly, developing an ESP course – English for Logistics – for example, one might make use of the texts written by journalists for the purpose of presenting logistics concepts and information.

One might as well select texts written by logistics specialists and/or related to the logistics sector (such as quotation forms, shipping instructions, documents used in foreign trade, etc.). The exploitation of these materials might be based on tasks replicating assignments performed in the workplace (such as completing the quotation form, dealing with urgent delivery problems, etc.) or tasks logistics students might be expected to perform during their studies. Authentic texts play an important role in demonstrating 'real' language use and their selection usually follows the stage of needs analysis which has to take account of various factors such as the content of the materials, which must be appropriate to learners' age, interests, needs and goals, proficiency level, etc. (cf. Karpova, 1999). It is, however, not always easy to find suitable authentic texts since as Graves (2000: 156) points out, they are not "constructed to contain the aspects of language the learner has encountered or learned until that point and so they may not be entirely accessible to the learner".

It follows that authentic materials are not always necessary or even realistic, and in some cases – are areal "burden for teachers" (Richards, 2001a). Although Swales (2009) argues that authentic texts are generally the preferred option, he is well aware of various problems that might arise during the process of materials selection in EAP, e.g. the materials might be too complex, either linguistically or in terms of content. In

such cases, editing the text and/or its certain ‘skeletonization’ are possibilities that are available to the teaching practitioner. When a suitable authentic text cannot be found, teachers are recommended to make occasional use of instructor-written materials. Discussing the issue of authenticity, Belcher (2012) points out that published materials are not always the best choice. She contends that it makes little sense to conduct needs analysis.

### **13. Using Authentic Materials**

One of the myths concerning teaching ESP is the conviction that every ESP practitioner is also a good designer of course materials. Dudley-Evans and St. John (2009) unanimously contend that the task of the majority of ESP teachers consists in providing good materials, not creating them. This implies appropriate selection from the materials accessible on the market, their creative use, adjusting exercises and tasks to the needs of target learners as well as supplying additional exercises and language input. When selecting ESP materials, most teachers – after having identified the context, learners’ needs and language expectations for the course, first turn to published textbooks and other materials (e.g. Internet resources) in the attempt at finding something that would address the identified needs of the group. The materials selection process is greatly facilitated by the use of systematic evaluation procedures that help to determine whether selected materials are consistent with the needs of learners they are to serve, as well as with the official views on the nature of language and language learning (Nunan, 1998).

It starts with the evaluation of the appropriateness of individual textbook units, texts or activities against some simple criteria that help decide whether the content and genre are relevant for a particular purpose. However, the more specific and focused the needs are, the less likely it is that there are any published materials appropriate for the ESP group, especially compiled into a textbook. As pointed out by Jones (1990), materials highly targeted at learners’ specific needs in a range of ESP contexts would not be marketable to more general and broader audiences. When it comes to supplying

learners with needs-specific texts, exercises and tasks, ESP teachers can adapt materials originally designed for other purposes and/or edit published materials for their particular teaching contexts. The range of options suggested for the purpose is enormous and includes such adapting strategies as deleting irrelevant material, simplifying materials or activities, modifying materials or activities to make them either more demanding or more accessible to the learners, to name but a few (for more details see Hyland, 2006; Bocanegra-Valle, 2010) Designing tailor-made

### **13.1. What is Authentic Material?**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,45) the use of authenticity throughout the history of language teaching has been the subject of heated debates. Mishan (2005) lists down three main significant precedents of its application. They are the communicative approaches, materials-focused approaches, and humanistic approaches. The first is related to the fact that the need for English all over the world has created a strong demand for using the communicative aspects of language. Communicative approaches to language teaching, therefore, have been fundamentally based on the premise that instruction should be focused on the communicative purposes, rather than on the linguistic competence (that is to say, communicative competence vs. linguistic competence, Hymes, (1971).

It is also believed that communication is not only the objective of language learning, but also should be the way through which language is acquired (Mishan, 2005). Language course, accordingly, should be designed to help learners bridging their language gaps through the use of authentic texts. As for the second, scholars (Pugh, 1996; Pulverness, 1999; Mishan, 2005) believe that the use of materials-based approaches is not a new phenomenon in language teaching, it has been traced back to the teaching of Latin language in the 9th century. The following table endeavors to sum up the aim, the activities, and the method of learning and provides a number of examples for implementing authentic materials in language courses:

Period Teaching activities Aim The method of teaching 9<sup>th</sup> century Reading ‘To acquire a wider competence in reading’ Clanchy, 1984 qtd in ‘holistic, reading for meaning’ Pugh,(1996,p,163) Pugh,(1996,p,162). Medieval times Learning alphabet; Reading; Memorizing ‘To express the elements of Christian teaching’(Clanchy, 1984 qtd in Pugh, (1996:162). Scholastic method Mid 16<sup>th</sup> century, Translation from the native to the target language and vice versa To Raise awareness of both cultural and linguistic choices (Pulverness, 1999) Double translation method 20<sup>th</sup> century Reading; Learning new vocabulary and grammatical points in a progressive way To learn the language through the introduction of new lexical and grammatical materials Lexical description principle.

**Table.5:** An Outlook on the Use of Authentic Materials in Language Teaching (adapted from Mishan , 2005)cited in Benabdallah(2007,p,47)

Period	Teaching activities	Aim	The method of teaching
9th century	Reading	‘To acquire a wider competence in reading’ Clanchy, 1984 qtd in	‘holistic, reading for meaning’ Pugh,(1996:163
Medieval times	Learning alphabet; Reading; Memorizing	To express the elements of Christian teaching’(Clanchy, 1984 qtd in Pugh, (1996: 162).	Scholastic method
Mid 16th century	Translation from the native to the target language and vice versa	To Raise awareness of both cultural and linguistic choices (Pulverness, 1999)	Double translation method



20th century	Reading; Learning new vocabulary and grammatical points in a progressive way	To learn the language through the introduction of new lexical and grammatical materials	Lexical description principle
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Benabdallah(2007,p,47) The third precedent, according to Mishan (2005), refers to Humanistic approaches to language teaching (such as Suggestopedia, total Physical Response, the Silent Way, and Neuro-Linguistic programming). They are fundamentally based on the idea that teaching the language should take into account the cognitive psychology of the learner. They are therefore “intended to exploit the potential of the human brain for learning more fully than conventional methods” (Mishan, 2005:6). These approaches are, in fact, based on a shift of direction from passive to active learning. Therefore, the goal of teaching is to enhance autonomous learning and raise students’ sensory awareness through the use of problem-solving activities. Authentic texts are, thus, believed to “...play a key role in enhancing positive attitudes to learning, in promoting the development of a wide range of skills, and in enabling students to work independently of the teacher. In other words, they can play a key role in the promotion of learner autonomy (McGarry 1995,p, 3).

### **13.2. Advantages of Authentic of Materials**

Benabdallah(2007,p,50) Materials play a vital role in foreign language teaching in general and ESP in particular. Moreover, it is worth noticing that the teacher finds himself in a dilemma of using either real-life; adapting available; or rather writing his own materials. This selection requires taking into consideration some important key-parameters such as the time constraint, the availability of materials, the objective the course, the learners’ needs and their language proficiency. Starting from the view that the language which is no more used by its native speakers is no longer taught

(Wajnryb, 1988), too much attention is given to provide learners with real-life materials. They are generally known as the use of language in its natural setting by native speakers for non-educational purposes. Morrow (1977: 13) defines it 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.” The use of these materials has been increasingly acknowledged in language teaching for their presentation of:

- Original communicative and socio-cultural purpose of the text.
- Original context (e. g. its source, socio-cultural context) of the text
- Learning activity engendered by the text.
- Learners’ perceptions of and attitudes to, the text and the activity pertaining to it (Mishan , 2005p,p,18)

Additionally, some scholars (Miller, 2003; Lee, 1995) seem to agree on the fact that providing learners with real representation, specialized terminology, discourse, semantic, syntax and culture of a particular discourse community enable them to feel confident and motivated to learn the language as it is used in its natural context. Benabdallah (2007,p,51), these materials are believed to be useful for improving the communicative aspects of the language. This idea is supported by Shrum and Glisan (2000: 133) who insist on the idea that “authentic materials provide an effective means for presenting real language, integrating culture, and heightening comprehension.” Authentic materials have been proved to be of great benefit to the learners yet; they have been also criticized for being suitable for only advanced students as they have language terms which may go beyond their levels of language proficiency and understanding.

### **13.3. Disadvantages of Authentic materials**

On the other hand, there are some significant disadvantages of using authentic materials in comparison with textbooks. Guariento and Morley (2001) remind us that the use of authentic materials makes especially lower level students confused and demotivated by the complexity of language and performance conditions unless the simplest authentic texts are carefully selected by the teachers. Hence, the selected material should maintain sense of learner’s response and it should engage the learner’s

interest. As mentioned by both authors, it appears to be hard while simplification of any text is justified (p: 348, 351). It is also believed that while some texts lend themselves to competence training, all textual inputs need to be successfully done by teachers because it may reduce opportunities for students' comprehensible input and cause frustration between lower level learners (p: 349). So, the preparation stage often demand time consumption for instructors (Martinez, A.). Ruddock (2000) gives an example about when to use authentic texts in teaching the grammatical structure of Japanese. The author says authentic texts are only used when students reach intermediate level in the teaching of grammar. Because it is considered that authentic texts are difficult for beginners (p: 1, 2).

#### **13.4. Sources of Authentic Materials**

The sources of authentic materials that can be used in the classroom are infinite, but the most common are newspapers, magazines, TV programs, movies, songs and literature. One of the most useful is the Internet

#### **13.5. Authentic Tasks**

For Benabdallah(2007,p,52),the teacher has first to conduct a NAI to focus only on those sub-skills needed by the learners. If they require, for example, to skim the text for specific information, the focus on this micro-skill is to be made. In this sense, Robinson (1991,p,81) writes: "the teacher will (...) act as a consultant. This involves diagnosing each student's language and communication needs." According to Frydenberg (1982), the draw up of lists of skills of the course is needed; the rationale behind this is that different specialities have different focuses such as interpreting graphics, describing and classifying. In this sense, he states: "...study skills were a necessary component as well as direct reading skills."(Frydenberg, 1982,p,157) Once the learners' needs are analyzed, the next step according to Dudley-Evans and John (1998) is to cooperate and collaborate with the subject-specialists. They point out that the former refers to the stage where the ESP teacher seeks to gather general information about the students' content courses.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,53), the latter is related to the integration the subject knowledge within language practice. Specialists believe that these two phases provide useful information about what the students need to read. Additionally, they argue that this information offers the carrier content of the course which is associated to the conceptual level of the students' subject-matters. The role of the language teacher is to base his reading course on the real content. It is necessary to establish a balance between needs and motivational factors besides course objectives. In this respect, Frydenberg (1982,p,157) writes: the aim of the ESP course is not to teach the content of (...) that course, but to teach high-transfer skills that are only incidentally being developed through texts that are the same as or similar to those used on their content courses. This means that the ESP themes are to be selected in accordance with the students' content courses and the purpose of developing their learning skills needed to understand a given text.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,53) , ESP specialists (Hutchinson and Waters; 1987; Robison, 1991; Jordan, 1997) agree on the fact that the next step is to select materials or texts in accordance with the students' levels. Thus, they are required to include tasks relevant to the needs of the learners. Mackay and Mountford (1978) cite two types of tasks that felt to be necessary for ESP courses, namely comprehension questions and comprehension exercises. The former includes questions about the texts such as Wh, yes/ no questions and true/false statements as well. The latter requires language production. The focus, at this level, according to them, is on the teaching of two types of vocabulary that are; common core and specialized terminology, relying on linguistic aspects of the text such as cohesion.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,54), in addition to the above mentioned role of the ESP teacher, Dudley-Evans and John (1998) add other responsibilities including knowledge, skills and experience. They believe that since the EBE teacher is usually trained in general English and finds himself teaching in business context, this therefore requires:

- a knowledge of the communicative functioning of English in business context;
- an understanding of the business people's expectations and learning strategies;
- an understanding of the psychology of personal and interpersonal interactions in cross-cultural setting;
- some knowledge of the management theories and practice;
- first-class training skills.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,54) Dudley-Evans and John (1998,p,60-61) Knowledge of the communicative functioning of English used in this environment, according to them, should cover the discourse, the business genre, the communicative events, the grammar and lexis needed by the participants. Yet, these latter entail conformity and adaptability on the part of the EBE teacher which may be achieved only through reading, attending conferences, listening to business negotiations (Dudley-Evans and John, 1998). Most authors agree that the ESP teachers' works involve much more than teaching. DudleyEvans and St. John (1998) prefer the term ESP Practitioner as this definition seems to be more detailed and complete. They distinguish the following roles of ESP practitioners.

### **13.6. Material Evaluation**

There have been a number of movements which have attempted to develop materials free approaches to the teaching of languages (e.g., the Dogme movement of Thornbury and Meddings (2001)) but it is commonly accepted that in most language classrooms throughout the world most lessons are still based on materials. Richards (2001, p. 251), for example, observes that "instructional materials generally serve as the basis of much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom". It is also commonly accepted that most language teachers use coursebooks and that no coursebook can meet the needs and wants of every (or even any) class (Tomlinson, 2010). This means that "Every teacher is a

materials developer” (English Language Centre, 1997) who is constantly evaluating the available materials, adapting them, replacing them, supplementing them and finding effective ways to implement the materials chosen for classroom use. This is truer today than ever as the economics of publishing dictates that most coursebooks on the market are still global coursebooks for all learners of English whereas most learners of English these days are learning it in distinctive contexts for distinctive purposes. Materials development must therefore be central to any course designed to train, educate or develop new or practising teachers and it must be accorded significance by the applied linguists and teacher trainers who run such courses and/or publish articles, chapters and books for use on them. In addition to the obvious pragmatic function of preparing teachers for the realities of classroom teaching materials development can also be extremely useful as a “way of helping teachers to understand and apply theories of language learning – and to achieve personal and professional development” (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67).

### **13.7. Differences between Material Development, Material Adaptation and Material Evaluation**

run mini-versions of the courses outlined above for practising teachers either as stimulus courses to get teachers to think about and try out new approaches (e.g., in Belgium, Botswana, Luxembourg, Mauritius, Seychelles, Tunisia, Turkey and Vietnam) or as a preparation for an institutional or national change (e.g., in Hong Kong, Oman, Turkey and Vietnam). I have also run such courses in preparation for teacher involvement in materials development projects in Namibia and in Turkey. I have run many of these courses together with, Hitomi Masuhara. We have similar views about the need for materials to be principled and about how best to facilitate language acquisition and development through materials development. However our voices, our frameworks and our examples differ and we have found this differentiated perspective on a similar approach to be effective in stimulating

teachers to re-think their positions and to achieve personal and professional development.

#### MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR MATERIALS WRITERS

it goes without saying that materials writers could gain considerably from doing materials development courses. Many of the participants on my materials development courses have gone on to become successful materials writers for commercial publishers or on national Ministry of Education projects and in South Korea the International Graduate School of English (IGSE) run a materials development MA from which the most successful participants are offered positions as materials writers for the parent publishing company. However it is very rare for publishers or Ministries of Education to put on courses for their materials writers or to even encourage them to enrol on existing courses elsewhere. I have run courses for writers of in-house materials at the University of Bilkent, Ankara and the University of Hue in Vietnam, I once ran short courses for materials writers from Longman and a few materials writers from publishing companies have participated in materials writing workshops organised by MATSDA. But I know of no other examples of THE IMPORTANCE OF MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING 7 materials writers taking courses before or whilst writing their materials. What an opportunity is being missed of stimulating thought, discussion and energy and of facilitating the development of awareness and skills relevant to the writing of the materials.

14. MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR RESEARCHERS In a plenary paper Chapelle (2008) quite rightly pointed out how little research had been published on materials evaluation. She could have justifiably made the same point about research on the development and use of materials too. This is not really surprising as it is only recently that materials development has become accepted as a respectable academic discipline and therefore as a legitimate area for research. However since Chapelle's comment there has been a dramatic increase in published research on materials development in recognition of how important it is as one of the most applied areas of applied linguistics. Tomlinson (2008) is a book which includes research on the

evaluation of coursebooks in many different regions of the world, Harwood (2010) includes reports of a number of research projects in the field of English for academic purposes, Tomlinson (2011) and Tomlinson (2013a) contain a lot more reference to research projects than the first editions they are replacing (as does McDonough et al. (2013)), Tomlinson (2013b) makes reference to many research projects investigating the match between various areas of applied linguistics and materials development and McGrath (2013) refers to numerous research projects (especially those involving investigations of how teachers evaluate coursebooks and how they adapt and supplement them). However the first book dedicated to the publication of reports of materials development research projects from all over the world was probably Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010). This book is now being supplemented by another book also reporting materials development projects (Masuhara, Mishan & Tomlinson, in preparation). Perhaps even more dramatic than the increase of publications reporting materials development research has been the increase in the number of students now conducting MA and PhD research projects. This has been reflected, for example, in the increase in reports on materials development research at MATSDA Conferences (e.g., The MATSDA/University of Limerick Conference on Applied Linguistics and Materials Development, the MATSDA. University of Liverpool Conference on Enjoying to Learn in 2013 and the MATSDA/University of Liverpool Conference on SLA and Materials Development in 2014). It has also been reflected in the number of requests I get for advice from MA and PhD students from all over the world (at least one a week from post-graduate students researching materials development in Iran).

**MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR APPLIED LINGUISTS** As I said earlier it is not long ago that materials development was considered insufficiently theoretical to be accepted as an academic area of applied linguistics. B. Things have changed now though and many applied linguists are considering the implications of their specialised research for materials development and the implications of research in materials development for their specialism. For example, in Tomlinson (2013a) researchers in such specialism as discourse analysis, pragmatics, second language



acquisition, classroom research, language planning, corpus linguistics, intercultural competence, assessment and language teaching pedagogy wrote chapters linking their research with materials development. Many of them also gave presentations on these links at the MATSDA/University of Limerick Conference on Applied Linguistics and Materials Development in 2013 and such leading experts on second language acquisition as Rod Ellis, Alison Mackey and Pauline Foster linked their research to materials development at the MATSDA/ University of Liverpool Conference on SLA and Materials Development in June 2014. Also many applied linguists are now attending conferences, seminars and workshops on materials development and experts in materials development are being increasingly invited to give presentations at conferences on applied linguistics. For example, I have recently been invited to give materials development presentations to applied linguistics students and researchers at conferences and seminars in Augsburg, Bogota, Liverpool, Pontianak, Prague, Sarawak and Sterling.

## **14. Importance of Material Evaluation**

### **14.1. Evaluation Process**

Muffat says “Evaluation is a continuous process and is concerned with than the formal academic achievement of pupils. It is interpreted in the development of the individual in terms of desirable behavioral change relation of his feeling, thinking, and actions”.

### **14.2. Types of Material Evaluation**

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,48) though authenticity plays a significant role in language teaching, there is a general agreement among scholars (Breen, 1985; Mishan, 2005; Newmann and Wehlage, 1993; Lee, 1995; MacDonald *et al*, 2006) that there is no clear-cut definition. Joining this, Widdowson (1983:30) maintains that “Authenticity [...] is a term which creates confusion because of a basic ambiguity”Therefore, a noticeable split of definitions has been used among those who

related authenticity to *text* (Morrow, 1977; MacDonald *et al*, 2006); and others who associate it to *language use* (Widdowson, 1983; Taylor, 1994). Breen (1985) identifies four types of authenticity:

*1. Authenticity of the texts:*

different names have been, also, used by other scholars to refer to this type as *real text* (Morrow, 1977), *language authenticity* and *materials authenticity* (MacDonald *et al*, 2006). It is defined as a text - be it spoken or written- used by native speakers for the aim of communicating ideas rather than educational purposes, it is, also, described as being unique in nature and it represents original context (Morrow, 1977). Moreover, authentic texts are believed to be used as input data for our learners; as those texts are the source of authentic language which enables students to develop their interpretations.

*2. Authenticity of the learners' own interpretations of such texts:*

This type, according to Breen (1985), refers to learners' ability to interpret meaning from texts.

*3. Authenticity of tasks conductive to language learning:*

The idea behind such a type is that authenticity is not only concerned with text of real life communication but the purpose of learning. Authentic tasks are defined as those assignments that the learners may encounter on the work, at home or other situations (Newmann and Wehlage, 1993). This type of authenticity is acknowledged in language teaching for its focus which is placed upon the needed skills for the learners' academic and professional life.

*4. Authenticity of the actual social situation of the language classroom:*

The language classroom is believed to provide the social event for the communicative purpose of learning. Breen (1985:68) maintains that the authentic role of the classroom is the provision of those conditions in which the participants can publicly share the problems, achievements and overall process of learning a language together as socially

motivated and socially situated activity MacDonald *et al.* (2006) extend Breen's classification; In addition to text and classroom authenticity, they add other types namely *authenticity of competence*, and *learner*.

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,49) Authenticity of competence is concerned with the three competences proposed by Canale and Swain (1980). They refer to grammatical sociolinguistic and strategic competences. They believe that these latter enable learners become authentically competent, and develop a near-native speaker performance. Learner competence refers to students' positive attitudes to the language materials and the educational intentions associated with them (Lee, 1995). Learners, then, should be trained to develop a positive feeling and attitudes not only towards the teaching materials but also and more precisely towards the communicative purposes for learning.

### **14.3. Course-book Evaluation**

The major material commonly used in ELT classrooms is the coursebook. Murphy (1985, p. 12) states that materials should be evaluated "in the light of current needs" and objectives. Therefore, material evaluation should be the top priority of any curriculum. Hutchinson and Waters (1989, p. 96) argue that material evaluation should be carried out in order to judge the fitness of our materials to our "particular purpose." They insist that all the variables need to be evaluated systematically in order to "save a lot of expense and frustration" (ibid, p. 96). Meanwhile, Alderson and Beretta (1996, p. 248-9) caution against a "deterministic" approach to evaluation and suggest taking a flexible procedure. Mukundan (2006, p. 175) believes that the major focus of evaluation should be on "the expected language learning outcomes" which results from using the materials. However good the materials are, they can hardly cater to and satisfy different students with different needs, objectives, wants, learning styles, attitudes, aptitudes, and cultural norms (Tomlinson, 2006, p. 1). This is because each individual student thinks, feels, and believes in divergent ways apart from the identical culture to which they belong. The reason that coursebooks need to be evaluated is that

they might be suitable and ideal in a particular situation and with some particular students but they might turn out to be unuseful in a different situation (Richards, 2007, p. 256)

## **15. Evaluation and Testing in ESP**

### **15.1. Evaluation and Testing in ESP: Meaning Effects and Purpose**

Evaluation and Testing: Meaning, Effects and Purpose It is quite ideal and optimal for each teacher to be able to write a coursebook for his/her course. Although the process of writing and publishing is demanding and challenging, it is certainly worth the effort. It is because developing a coursebook is a lifelong experience and makes teachers to develop professionally (Masuhara, 2006). This article reports on the coursebook (Reading English in Action) which was written and evaluated by the researcher.

The reason that this coursebook was developed was that there were numerous books available at the market but each one had their own shortcomings. Therefore, since the researcher had taught the EGP course at the University of Tabriz for more than twelve years, it was decided to develop a coursebook based on the EGP (English for General Purposes) course's objectives. However, after using the coursebook for four semesters, it was realized that there were some conflicts between the course's and students' goals. The EGP course was intended to develop the students' reading skill and strategies. It was aimed to prepare the students to tackle their discipline's requirements. Meanwhile, the EGP course was aimed to prepare the students to deal with their educational and occupational needs.

However, the study reveals that most of the students prefer more communicative activities and tasks. They want to interact in English language and produce language as far as they receive it. More importantly, it was experienced that both writing and publishing a coursebook takes a lot of time. However, if we want to do something worthwhile, we need to spend some time on it. The more demanding part of producing the present coursebook was to find a publisher to publish it. It is because most of the

publishers were concerned with their investment and required guarantee for the return of their money and plus its benefits. So, in order to satisfy the publisher, the researcher asked six of his colleagues to use this coursebook (Reading English in Action) in their EGP classes.

### **15.2. What is Evaluation/Testing?**

Test & Evaluation (T&E) is the process by which a system or components are compared against requirements and specifications through testing. The results are evaluated to assess progress of design, performance, supportability, etc. Developmental test and evaluation (DT&E) is an engineering tool used to reduce risk throughout the acquisition cycle. Operational test and evaluation (OT&E) is the actual or simulated employment, by typical users, of a system under realistic operational conditions.

### **15.3. Purpose of Testing**

Writing a coursebook is a demanding task and more important than writing is how to evaluate it in order to pin point its weaknesses and improve them. If we yearn to produce a quality and useful coursebook, we need to consider how to develop and evaluate it. The study reported in this article describes the process in which the researcher developed and evaluated a coursebook (Reading English in Action) for the English for General Purposes (EGP) course at the University of Tabriz, Iran. In order to investigate this coursebook's virtues and weaknesses, the researcher taught it for four semesters and asked six of his colleagues to use it for their EGP courses. A questionnaire was developed based on a checklist that had been prepared by the researcher and distributed to the six language professors who taught the coursebook and 480 students who studied it for one semester. A semi-structured interview was conducted with the six professors and twenty four students. The aim was to carry out in-use and post-use coursebook evaluation because these are more valid and reliable than pre-use one. Since the objective of the EGP course was to develop the students' reading skill and strategies, the present coursebook was written to fulfill these goals.

However, the results of the study depicts that mere emphasis on reading bores the students and they require more interactive communicative use of the language. This study can provide invaluable insights for material writers, curriculum developers, and language teachers

#### **15.4. Communicative Language Testing**

Materials, especially coursebooks, need to be evaluated at every stage of the course in order to find their weaknesses and improve them. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 97-8) believe that evaluation is a process of “matching needs to available solutions” and divide it into four steps: “defining criteria, subjective analysis, objective analysis, and matching.” However, Robinson (1991, p. 59) proposes three types of material evaluation: “preliminary, summative, and formative.” She states that preliminary evaluation takes place before the course begins and a checklist can be used to evaluate or select a coursebook. Summative evaluation is performed at the end of the course and investigates whether the coursebook is effective or has any deficiencies. Formative evaluation is carried out during the lifetime of the course and the weaknesses are identified and possible modifications are made. McDonough and Shaw (1993, cited in Jordan, 1997, p. 138) mention two types of evaluation: external evaluation (investigating cover, table of contents, and introduction) and internal evaluation (investigating every aspect in detail). Similarly, Cunningsworth and Kusel (1991, cited in Jordan, 1997, p. 138) list two types of evaluation: global appraisal (an impressionistic approach) and detailed evaluation (close examination of each unit of a book). As Mukundan (2006, p. 170) contends, traditionally, coursebooks were evaluated “impressionistically or used a checklist.”

However, he believes that a checklist only provides partial information and suggests combining a checklist with two other tools: concordance software and reflective journal. At this juncture, Harmer (2002, p. 301) emphasizes “to include student opinion and comment.” It is believed that three overarching methods of evaluating a coursebook consist of administering questionnaire both to students and

teachers, using tests not for assessing students but for evaluating coursebook units, and finally interviewing both students and teachers (Robinson, 1991, p. 60). More importantly, Sadeghi (2005, p. 30) insists on piloting coursebooks and teaching them for one semester in order to examine their virtues and weaknesses. In this vein, the best information about a coursebook can be obtained “in the light of classroom use” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 125-6). However, evaluation based on a checklist has lost its credibility and teachers can make a professional judgment backed up by their practical experience (Cunningsworth, 1995). Apparently, most of the checklists are prepared in haste and their reliability is questionable. Also, Mukundan (2006, p. 171-2) refers to some of the shortcomings of checklists such as: the complexities of teaching-learning process cannot be evaluated by a checklist, some checklists include difficult and misleading terms, and some checklists contain complex and long-winded criteria. Therefore, Harmer (2002, p. 301) maintains that teachers had better prepare a checklist based on their own particular situation considering their objectives, needs, and cultural and social norms.

### **15.5. Authenticity in Language Testing**

Authenticity as a critical quality of language tests has been debated among language testing researchers over several decades (Alderson & Wall, 2000). Nevertheless, there is disagreement about the nature of authenticity and about the level of authenticity that can be achieved in language tests (Weir, 1990). Generally speaking, the theories include the real-life (RL) approach (Bachman, 1990) and correspondence approach (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Thus, these theories will be discussed in details and some comments will be made on them, through which, two main characteristics about authenticity will be summarized, and in the last part, the authenticity in scoring will also be discussed as a complementary concept to the theories about authenticity.

## 15.6. Types and Functions of Evaluation and Testing

Functions of Evaluation In every walk of life the process of evaluation takes place in one or the other form. If the evaluation process is eliminated from human life then perhaps the aim of life may be lost. It is only through evaluation that one can discriminate between good and bad. The whole cycle of social development revolves around the evaluation process. In education how much a child has succeeded in his aims, can only be determined through evaluation. Thus there is a close relationship between evaluation and aims. Evaluation plays an enormous role in the teaching-learning process. It helps teachers and learners to improve teaching and learning. Evaluation is a continuous process and a periodic exercise.

It helps in forming the values of judgement, educational status, or achievement of student. Evaluation in one form or the other is inevitable in teaching-learning, as in all fields of activity of education judgements need to be made

## 15.7. Types of Evaluation

There are several different types of evaluations depending on what is being evaluated and the purpose of the evaluation. All types of evaluation can be generally classified into the broad categories of formative and summative evaluations. *Formative* evaluations are used primarily to provide information for initiative improvement by examining the delivery of the initiative, its implementation, procedures, personnel, etc. *Summative* evaluations, in contrast, examine the initiative's outcomes and are used to provide information that will assist in making decisions regarding the initiative's adoption, continuation or expansion and can assist in judgments of the initiative's overall merit based on certain criteria. Some more *Comprehensive* evaluations combine both process and outcome questions.

Evaluability Assessment. Before a proper evaluation can take place it is often necessary to perform an evaluability assessment in order to assess the extent to which the initiative is ready to be evaluated and what type of evaluation would be most appropriate. The assessment aims to ascertain the needs, goals and objectives of the



initiative and determine if a formal evaluation is warranted at this point in time or even whether the initiative is ready to be evaluated.

There are often several factors that prevent an initiative from being ready to be evaluated. These can include a failure to agree on goals, objectives and performance criteria, the goals and objectives are found to be unrealistic given the resources available, relevant information/data regarding performance is not available, or there is an unwillingness to change the initiative on the basis of evaluation information. An evaluability assessment will help bring these issues to light. The proper steps can then be taken so that a future evaluation becomes feasible. A more in-depth explanation and guide to completing an evaluability assessment can be found in the resource section at the end of this document.

The Policy on Evaluation requires that departments prepare annual or multi-year Departmental Evaluation Plans to identify priority evaluations and evaluation-related activities. A specific type of evaluability assessment process used to support departmental risk-based assessment of evaluation priorities is contained in the Guide to Developing a Risk-based Departmental Evaluation Plan.

### Needs Assessment

A Needs Assessment can be useful for determining whether a problem or need exists within a community, organization or target group and then describing that problem. Recommendations can then be made for ways to reduce that problem. This process typically involves interviews and consultations with stakeholders as well as document reviews and research of relevant information. The Needs Assessment is an ongoing process and is helpful for assessing whether a new policy/program/intervention may be necessary. A more in depth explanation and guide to completing a needs assessment can be found in the resource section at the end of this document.

The existence of reliable data supporting a needs assessment is an important factor to justify major policy or program changes in departmental Cabinet submissions.

### *Implementation/Process/Formative Evaluation*

Every initiative has a strategy or plan that dictates how it is intended to work. The initiative's theory states that if its plan is followed and implemented faithfully, then the intended outcomes will be achieved. A process evaluation can be conducted at any point in the initiative's lifecycle and is used to assess whether and to what degree this plan was followed and the extent to which early outcomes are achieved. A process / formative evaluation involves collecting relevant information regarding the initiative's implementation on an ongoing basis and identifying any barriers that need to be overcome. Accurate and detailed information about the initiative and its activities and goals are a necessity in order to make the linkages between its various components and the achievement of outcomes. The results of a process evaluation can be used to make improvements to the initiative. If monitoring reports indicate material variances that cannot be explained, a process / formative evaluation may assist to determine the reasons and allow for mitigation strategies to be put in place to improve future performance.

### **15.8. Function of Evaluation**

The main aim of teaching learning process is to enable the pupil to achieve intended learning outcomes. In this process the learning objectives are fixed then after the instruction learning progress is periodically evaluated by tests and other evaluation devices. The function of evaluation process can be summarized as following:

Evaluation helps in preparing instructional objectives:

Learning outcomes expected from class-room discussion can be fixed by using evaluation results. What type of knowledge and understanding the student should develop? What skill they should display? What interest and attitude they should develop? Can only be possible when we shall identify the instructional objectives and

state them clearly in terms of intended learning outcomes. Only a good evaluation process helps us to fix up a set of perfect instructional objectives.

2. Evaluation process helps in assessing the learner's needs:

In the teaching learning process it is very much necessary to know the needs of the learners. The instructor must know the knowledge and skills to be mastered by the students. Evaluation helps to know whether the students possess required knowledge and skills to proceed with the instruction.

3. Evaluation help in providing feed back to the students:

An evaluation process helps the teacher to know the learning difficulties of the students. It helps to bring about an improvement in different school practices. It also ensures an appropriate follow-up service.

4. Evaluation helps in preparing programmed materials:

Programmed instruction is a continuous series of learning sequences. First the instructional material is presented in a limited amount then a test is given to response the instructional material. Next feedback is provided on the basis of correctness of response made. So that without an effective evaluation process the programmed learning is not possible.

5. Evaluation helps in curriculum development:

Curriculum development is an important aspect of the instructional process. Evaluation data enable the curriculum development, to determine the effectiveness of new procedures, identify areas where revision is needed. Evaluation also helps to determine the degree to what extent an existing curriculum is effective. Thus evaluation data are helpful in constructing the new curriculum and evaluating the existing curriculum.

6. Evaluation helps in reporting pupil's progress to parents:

A systematic evaluation procedure provides an objective and comprehensive picture of each pupil's progress. This comprehensive nature of the evaluation process helps the teacher to report on the total development of the pupil to the parents. This type of objective information about the pupil provides the foundation for the most effective co-operation between the parents and teachers.

7. Evaluation data are very much useful in guidance and counselling:

Evaluation procedures are very much necessary for educational, vocational and personal guidance. In order to assist the pupils to solve their problems in the educational, vocational and personal fields the counsellor must have an objective knowledge of the pupils abilities, interests, attitudes and other personal characteristics. An effective evaluation procedure helps in getting a comprehensive picture of the pupil which leads to effective guidance and of counselling.

8. Evaluation helps in effective school administration:

**ADVERTISEMENTS:**

Evaluation data helps the administrators to judge the extent to which the objectives of the school are being achieved, to find out strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum and arranging special school programmes. It also helps in decisions concerning admission, grouping and promotion of the students.

9. Evaluation data are helpful in school research:

In order to make the school programme more effective, researches are necessary. Evaluation data help in research areas like comparative study of different curricula, effectiveness of different methods, effectiveness of different organisational plans, etc

### **15.9. Difference between a Summative Evaluation and Learner Assessment**

Summative evaluation is useful for focusing on the results of an initiative, whether they are short-term, intermediate or long-term. This type of evaluation determines what changes, if any, occurred and if they are in line with the initiative's theory. An important aspect of this assessment is determining whether those outcomes occurred due to the initiative itself (impact or attribution), whether some change may have occurred without the program intervention (deadweight) or may have been achieved by other external factors (? Displacement). The findings from this type of evaluation can be used not only for making improvements to the initiative, but for summative decision making as well, that is will the program continue as is, expand, reduce or be eliminated.

The document "Developing an Accountability Framework Resource and Reference Guide" contains a section requiring departments to identify if and when formative or summative evaluations of new programs and major new policies will take place.

### **Program Review**

A Program Review is a systematic overall assessment of an initiative's operations, processes and systems for the purpose of finding efficiencies, cost savings, opportunities for possible realignment with another level of government and/ or other delivery options. It is needed when there is an overriding concern with the initiative's relevance, operations and/or a need to find savings. Such a review process often involves a comprehensive review of an entire department or organization often with a budget reduction target assigned.

### **Efficiency Assessment (Cost/Benefit Analysis or Cost Effectiveness Analysis)**

An efficiency assessment is used to determine the value or benefit of an initiative in relation to its cost. Whether the evaluation focuses on cost-benefit, cost-effectiveness or both depends on the evaluation's scope. A cost-benefit analysis seeks to compare the total costs of implementing an initiative to the total net benefits, while cost-effectiveness analyses assess the value-for-money of an initiative based on the costs required to produce various outcomes. Typically, this type of evaluation is recommended after the initiative has been in place for a period of time so that actual outcome data is available. A more in-depth explanation and guide to completing an efficiency assessment can be found in the resource section at the end of this document.

## **15.10. Advantages of Evaluation and Testing**

Some of the Advantages of Evaluation and Testing include:

- Enhancing the chance that the initiative's goals and objectives are being achieved
- Determining value for money (i.e., allocated resources are yielding the greatest benefit for clients and stakeholders)
- Identifying what components of an initiative work/do not work and why

- Identifying areas that need improvement in order to provide the best service possible

While most people think about evaluation in the context of assessing programs and policies, building evaluation into operational processes can lead to better procurement decisions. The Government of Newfoundland and Labrador is in the process of reforming its procurement legislation and processes to allow for an assessment of value for money.

## **16. Genre Analyses**

Genre analysis is a way of examining a type or style of writing in order to better understand the conventions, expectations, purpose, and target audience for that genre.

Genre' has become one of the main concepts in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Hyon defines genre as different type of spoken and written text. We recognize it as a type, or category, because various instances of it share similarities in purposes, content, form, and/or context

### **16.1. Meaning of Genre**

Genre analysis here is a direct method of researching language needs- ESP practitioners as researchers have to examine the structure of specialist texts or genres, then turn them into teachable elements (teach the grammar, vocabulary

### **16.2. What is a Genre?**

According to Byrne (1984: 28), genre based approach is defined as a framework for language instruction based on examples of a particular genre. Genre-based approach is an approach which is also known as text based instruction

### **16.3. Genre Analysis in ESP**

Genre analysis has become a key approach within the field of English for Specific Purposes and helps students understand particular language use patterns in target contexts. Introducing Genre and English for Specific Purposes provides an overview of how genre has been conceptualized and applied in ESP, as well as the features that

distinguish ESP genre research and teaching from those of other genre schools. The macro and micro aspects of ESP genre-based pedagogy are also analysed and include: different possibilities for planning and designing an ESP genre-based course; the concrete, micro aspects of materials creation; and how genres can be learned through play. *Introducing Genre and English for Specific Purposes* is essential reading for students and pre-service teachers who are studying Genre, English for Specific Purposes or language teaching methodologies.

#### **16.4. Steps in Analysing Genre**

Genre analysis, according to Halliday (1973) is the study of how the contextual parameters, discourse structures and language interrelate. 1980's genre analysis approach considers text as a total entity, rather than a collection of unrelated units (unlike register analysis). It came to replace early linguistic analyses of the 1960's that were under the banner of 'register analysis' focused on language structures and specialist vocabulary in isolation (see Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens, 1964, cited in Upton, 2012). Without taking account of the context (author's communicative purpose, target audience, etc.), the language features of specialist texts were limited to the sentence level, hence, devoid of any communicative purpose (i.e., information about how or for which purpose the word is used in that target specialist domain). By the 1970's, the shift of focus towards the importance of communication paved the way to discourse analysis as a primary tool for ESP to study language, or specialist texts, above the sentence level. While discourse analysis examines the key structures and patterns of texts that define their communicative purposes, they help understand how language structures are deployed to fulfill different communicative or rhetorical purposes (Upton, 2012; Hyland, 2007). In the 1980's genre analysis emerged as a type of discourse analysis that focuses on language functions and key structures and patterns that distinguish specific text types or 'genres' from others. In the same way, it is of note that genre analysis does not assume absolute separateness from register analysis. Highlighting the organization of particular texts, it also draws on register analysis to stop at the key language forms and vocabulary.

## 17. Legal Language

### 17.1. What is Legal English?

It is generally acknowledged that law does not exist without language. Legal rules and regulations are coded in language. Legal concepts and legal processes are accessible only through language. If a legal text is criticised for being abstruse and incomprehensible to the general public, the problem most probably lies with the language. The designation “legal language” tends to emphasize the subject matter, the domain in which language is used, i.e. law. It might therefore create the spurious impression of legal language being a homogeneous and uniform phenomenon. In fact, the expression “legal language” hides a multitude of specific classes of texts (genres) created and used by various professional groups working in different legal contexts. Legal language spans a continuum from legislation enacted at different levels (e.g. state, federal), judicial decisions (judgments, decrees or orders), law reports, briefs, various contractual instruments, wills, power of attorney, etc., academic writing (e.g. journals, textbooks), through oral genres such as, for example, witness examination, jury summation, judge’s summing-up, etc. to various statements on law reproduced in the media and any fictional representation of the foregoing

Thus, what is routinely referred to as ‘legal language’, represents an extremely complex type of discourse embedded in the highly varied institutional space of different legal systems and cultures. In other words, the designation “legal language” should be viewed as an umbrella term referring to a universe of remarkably diverse texts, both written and spoken. While legal language has always been an interdisciplinary object of research attracting both lawyers and linguists, the focus of this article is on language-based approaches and methodologies (see Tiersma 2008 for a useful overview of both legal and linguistic approaches to legal language). The complexity of legal language can be attributed to its long historical development which often ran parallel and independently of ordinary language. Legal English was greatly influenced by Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and French. Interested readers should consult Mellinkoff 1963 for one of the most detailed descriptions of legal English including its



history (see also Hiltunen 1990 and Tiersma 1999). The oldest recorded evidence of legal translation is Egyptian-Hittite Peace Treaty of 1271 B.C. (Šarčević 1997), while for example, Bible translation dates back to the third century B.C. Significantly, the forms and meanings of legal

## **17.2. Style of Legal English**

The complexity of legal language can be attributed to its long historical development which often ran parallel and independently of ordinary language. Legal English was greatly influenced by Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and French. Interested readers should consult Mellinkoff 1963 for one of the most detailed descriptions of legal English including its history (see also Hiltunen 1990 and Tiersma 1999). The oldest recorded evidence of legal translation is Egyptian-Hittite Peace Treaty of 1271 B.C. (Šarčević 1997), while for example, Bible translation dates back to the third century B.C. significantly, the forms and meanings of legal language developed through legal rather than linguistic processes.

The meaning of legal terms, phrases or even longer chunks of discourse is determined by courts, legislatures and government agencies and consequently it often differs from ordinary usage. Such influence of jurisdiction on the development of legal discourse has often led to problems connected with its interpretation and comprehensibility. The perception of legal language as opaque and incomprehensible, especially in the case of government forms and consumer documents, resulted in the emergence of the Plain English Movement (see the classic book by Wydick 1994). This movement is directed at making the law more understandable to the general public, especially in the case of the so-called consumer documents, such as contracts, leases, notices, etc. The appropriateness of using the designation 'legal language' has been the subject of much debate. Klinck 1992 contains a detailed discussion of various perspectives adopted with respect to this issue. Essentially, the opinions range from those who maintain that "there is such an identifiable phenomenon as 'legal language' and that it is meaningful to think in terms of such a category" (Klinck 1992: 133) and use the designation 'law language' with reference to "technical, idiosyncratic

sublanguage system” (Kevelson 1982) to those like George Mounin (1974) who assert that it is not scientifically correct to speak of the language of law because legal language is only a specialised form of general language rather than an autonomous and independent linguistic phenomenon. Charrow (1982: 84) notes that the designation ‘legal language’ spans a continuum “from almost ‘normal’ formal usage to highly complex varieties that differ substantially from normal formal usage “.No clear consensus exists over which classificatory term should be used. For example, Brenda Danet (1980) considers dialect, diglossia and register as labels potentially applicable. The concept of dialect has not been generally accepted (e.g Charrow 1982: 82) because legal English does not tend to meet the basic intelligibility criterion whereby two varieties can be called dialects if they are mutually intelligible. It is by no means certain that legal language is intelligible to ordinary speakers of language. More importantly, dialects usually differ greatly in terms of vocabulary, syntax, etc., and they are traditionally associated with geography.

By contrast, legal language frequently mimics ordinary language considerably and it is not linked to any specific geographical location. Although diglossia has never been taken entirely seriously as a concept applicable to the study of legal language, it is worth recalling because it usefully highlights some important features of legal language. Diglossia is typically associated with bilingualism and it refers to two language varieties co-existing in society. It assumes that one low variety is used more frequently in informal, personal situations while the high variety tends to be employed in formal and official communication contexts. The high variety is perceived as more prestigious and superior to the low variety used largely to deal with interpersonal and domestic issues. Viewed in such terms, legal language could be described as the high variety (H) with general language relegated to the status of a low variety (L). Danet lists several features of diglossia which seem relevant, even if somewhat controversial, to describe the relationship between legal language and general, ordinary

### **17.3. Features of Legal English**

A common feature of the syntax of legal language is the formal and impersonal written style joined with considerable complexity and length. Complex structures, passive voice, multiple negations and prepositional phrases are extensively used in legal language.

## **18. ESP Divisions**

As opposed to what has been mentioned earlier, there is a general agreement among other educationalists (Robinson, 1980, 1991; Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) who believe that ESP is subdivided into two branches to fit different learning requirements, notably EAP and EOP.

According to Benabdallah (2017,p,16) Literature reports several sub-divisions within the ESP field to better fit the participants' wants, cope with their expectations and meet the requirements of the context. At this level, it is to be mentioned that this present study stands on the division offered by Hutchinson and Waters' (1987). Prior to them, ESP is split into the following headings:

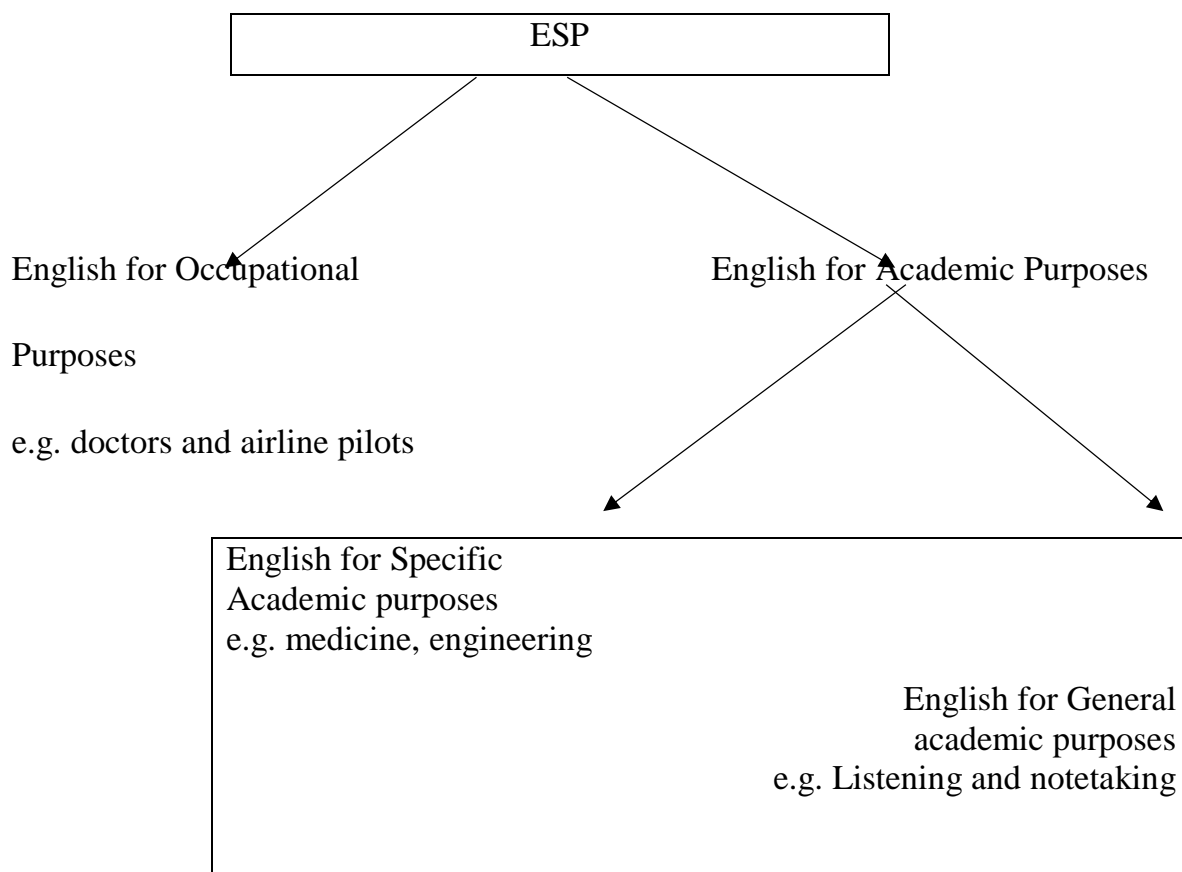
- English for Social Sciences (ESS);
- English for Business and Economics (EBE);
- English for Science and Technology (EST).

Each of the above sub-branches is broken down into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

### **18.1. English for Academic Purposes**

According to Benabdallah(2017,p, 18) EAP or EEP is commonly defined as the teaching of English to students in formal educational contexts. The learners' requirements are related to their areas of research and study such as reading articles, summarizing the main results and attending conferences, taking notes, writing

abstracts and so forth. In this respect, Kennedy and Bolitho (1984,p, 4) argue: “EAP is taught generally within educational institution to students needing English in their studies.” Similarly, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) describe EAP as an international activity of tremendous scope; the aim of such courses is to help learners studying, conducting research and completing some academic tasks. An example of EAP course is an English course which is designed to help students reading their economic textbooks. In this vein, there is a general consensus among scholars (Dudley Evans and John, 1997, 1998; Jordan, 1997; Basterkmen, 2006, Hyland; 2006) that EAP is further divided into two branches, In EGAP or common core, the learners’ needs are general.



**Figure.2.**Types of ESP (Adapted from Jordan, 1997) cited in (Benabdallah,2017,p, 18)

This allows the language teachers to design wide-angle courses where the content and the topics are selected from a variety of disciplines. As an example of EGAP addresses an English course designed for engineering studies. In this context, learners are taught for instance to listen to lectures, read articles and take notes. Yet, ESAP or subject discipline refers to the type of courses where the learners' needs and expectations are limited. These narrow angled courses then are addressed to students from one specific discipline. As an example of this type is the courses delivered to engineering student that is divided into either English for Computer Engineering, Chemical Engineering or English for Civil Engineering classes.

According to (Benabdallah,2017,p,19) The difference between these two sub-categories is that EGAP refers to the situation where the focus is placed upon the activities that are common such as preparing learners to perform oral presentation. The latter, on the other hand, deals with teaching language skills and activities associated with the demand of one specific discipline. In this vein, Dudley-Evan and John (1998:42) clearly state: "The difference is that ESAP courses focus on the actual tasks that students have to carry out while EGAP courses select more general contexts. "

According to (Benabdallah,2017,p, 19)In addition to these categories, scholars (Dudley-Evans and John, 1998; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001; Crystal, 2003) agree that different status of the English language around the world results in the tackle those four types of EAP situation. The first situation refers to the English speaking countries such as U.K and USA where English is used as the mother tongue. The second situation is concerned with the outer or extended circle which is related to the countries where English is used as a second language. As far as the third language is concerned; it is the situation where some content disciplines are taught in English. The

fourth type refers to the expanding situation in which English is used as an international language (Crystal, 2003).

**Table .1.** Situations in which ESP is taught (Adopted fromnDudley-Evans and John, (1998: 35) ctd in (Benabdallah,2017,p, 20)

Situation 1 e.g. UK, USA, Australia	Students come from another country to study in a foreign system; for them both general and academic culture may be different; everything around them operates in English..
Situation 2 e.g. Zimbabwe	Education at all levels has been mainly in English; the civil service uses English, but people mostly use their first language (L1) in everyday life
Situation 3 e.g. Jordan	In tertiary education some subjects are taught in L1, but others, such as medicine, engineering and science are taught in English
Situation 4 e.g. Brazil	All tertiary education is taught in the L1. English is an auxiliary language

According to Benabdallah(2007,p,20) Another distinction has been reformulated by Strevens (1977); Kennedy and Bolitho (1984); Robinson (1991) on the nature of EAP courses sub-categorizing it into *school subject* and *discipline based* or in another term, independent or integrated. The former is meant to teach EAP as a separate subject on the learners' syllabus, the latter is fundamentally used when English is used as a language of instruction (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984) Dudley-

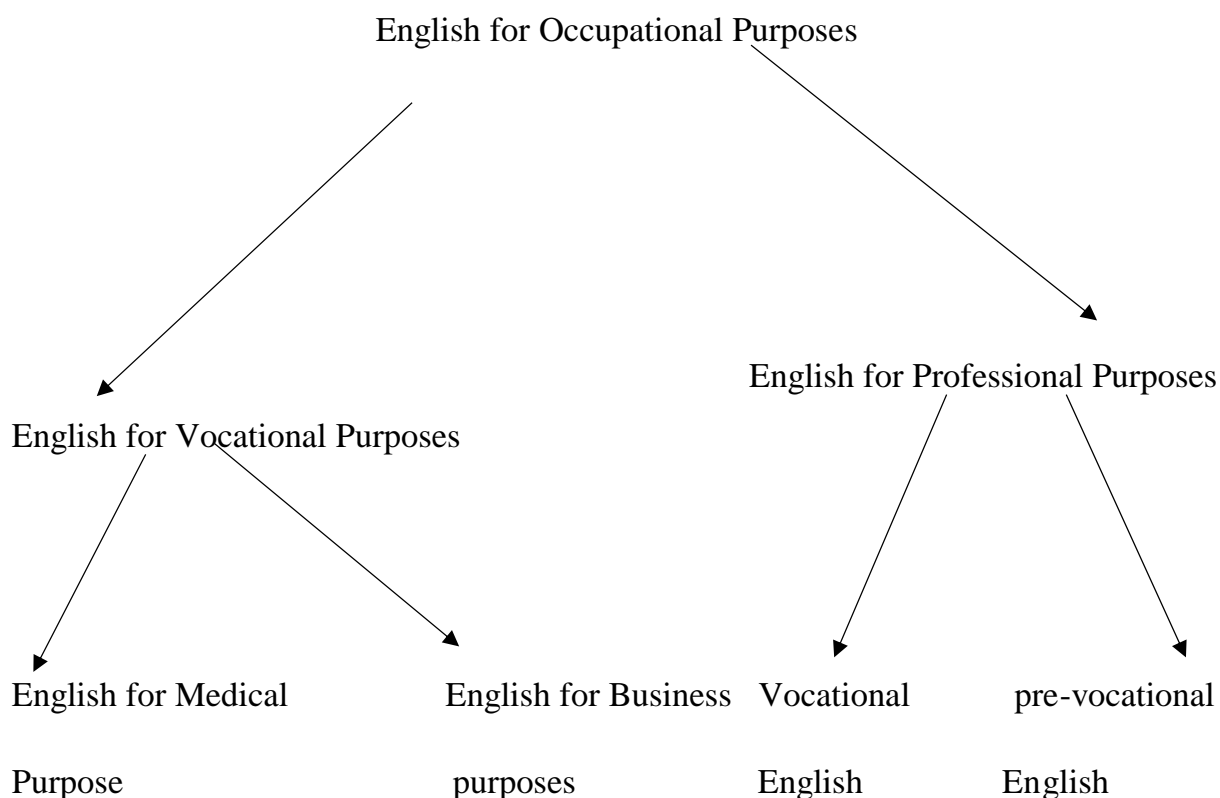
Evans and John (1998) extend the scope of EAP as they add the following classifications notably English for (academic) Science and Technology; English for (academic) Medical Purposes; English for (academic) Legal Purposes; and English for Management, Finance and Economics. Though a variety of categorizations have been recognized among scholars, they almost share the same idea; the use of English in the academic setting for an educational purpose.

## **18.2. English for Occupational Purposes**

According to Benabdallah (2007, p, 21) English for Occupational Purposes refers to the teaching of English for workers or employees who need the language to perform their jobs. In this sense, this EOP course intends to suit their needs for their work-place setting. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984,p, 4) assume that “EOP is taught in a situation in which learners need to use English as part of their work or profession” Depending on the professional settings, the EOP participants; can be either economists, businessmen, doctors, air travel-controllers or lawyers; then, it is of vital importance, according to Kennedy and Bolitho (1984), to have an acquisition *of practical skills and theoretical knowledge* to achieve their specific task. Telephoning, making requests, apologizing are examples of this. With reference to EOP courses, three teaching types have been categorized among specialists (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984; Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans and John; 1998), these are pre-experience, simultaneous and post-experience as if the language teaching occurs before, while and after the training.

According to Benabdallah(2007, p, 22)Another classification for Professional areas has been put forward by Dudley-Evans and John (1998). They believe that English for Occupational Purpose is broken down into English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). In this vein, a distinction is made between studying English for professional or occupational purposes; for instance, the case of lawyers, doctors, businessmen who are already engaged in their

field of work; and English for vocational purpose which is further divided into pre-vocational English and vocational English. The former, according to them, deals with helping learners to find a job by teaching them the required interview skills. The latter, on the other hand, refers to fact of imparting the learners with the necessary skills and training for a specific occupation.



**Figure .3.** Classification by Professional Areas (Adapted from Dudley-Evans and John (1998) cited in Benabdallah(2017,p,22)

According to Benabdallah(2007, p, 23) it is to be added that though the learners' needs differ in terms of their academic and professional environments, both of them share the same overall subject matter which is training them to become active participants in their target discourse communities. In this line of thought, Hutchinson and waters (1987,p,16) argue that there is no exact distinction between both types: 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. In sum, it should be noted that the sharing points



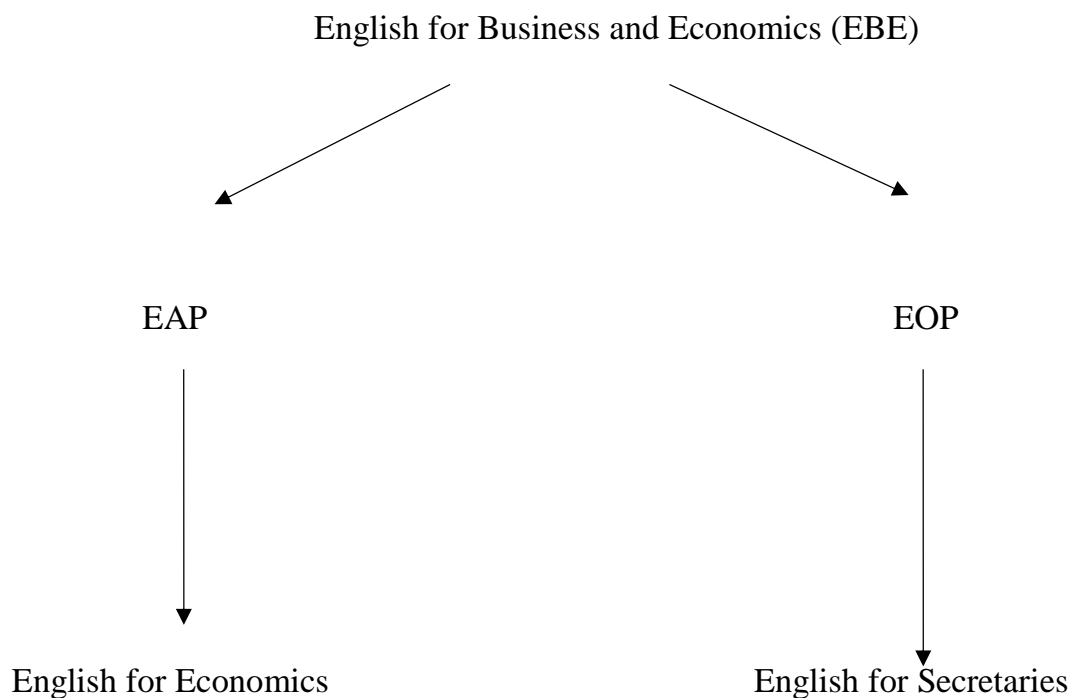
between the above definitions is that the learners' needs, purposes, interests and expectations are used as a guiding principle that characterize any EAP or EOP course.

### **18.3. English for Science and Technology (EST)**

According to Benabdallah(2007, p, 23) As a sub-field of ESP teaching, English for business and economics (EBE) or business English (BE) has progressively become among the most important and widely taught specialized courses all over the world. The hidden reasons for such an interest in this kind of courses can be linked to globalization as a process, the technological development as well as the liberalization of trade. As a matter of fact, English is used as an international language of world marketplace to better fit the requirements of this global age. This idea has been clearly supported by Estaban and Pérez Cañado, (2004,p,137) "...English has become the primary language for doing international business" The use of English becomes a mass requirement for successful communication among multi-national corporations to accomplish a variety of economic activities such as production, import and export of products and services in the international trade, advertising for goods, writing emails for customers, complaint or application letters, etc. In this vein, Gore (2007,p,I) writes: In today's business world, anyone working in marketing or advertising needs English in order to do their job. Whether you are talking to clients, discussing new advertising campaign for your company, establishing a new marketing plan, or writing press release -you will be using English more and more.

### **18.4. EAP Vs EOP**

According to Benabdallah (2007, p, 23) different names and categorizations have been recognized among educationalists for an attempt to define the academic and occupational contexts of EBE teaching. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), for instance, label this type of ESP course English for Business and Economics (EBE). This latter is broken down into EAP and EOP which are respectively split down into English for Economics and English for Secretaries.



**Figure.4.** Sub-division of EBE adopted from the tree of Hutchinson and Waters (1987:17).cited in Benabdallah (2017,p,24)

According to Benabdallah(2007, p,24) ,Dudley-Evans and John (1998) in their turn differentiate between two types with reference to the academic and professional area namely English for Management, Finance and Economics and English for Business Purposes. To this end, they believe that the former refers to the use of English in the academic or educational setting such as economics, business, banking, accounting and management as a result no specific acronym is used. The latter namely EBE is concerned with the use of the language in the professional context. They go a step further giving additional subdivision which is English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP).

For Benabdallah (2007, p,25) though different names, acronyms and classifications have been used to define and describe this type of ESP teaching, the underlying assumptions oriented to all of them is that the prerequisite for business English to perform some tasks is not only restricted to professionals such as businessmen, economists and workers in occupational contexts who need to achieve day-to-day success in their business and financial sectors and further their overall performance of the companies they are engaging with but also, and more importantly, to cope with the demands of our global age such as reading up-dated materials, attending conferences and seminars, writing articles I.e., the need for that language in academic environments.

## **19. Conclusion**

This handout reviewed a number of key aspects relevant to ESP area. This review of literature has first highlighted the concept of ESP / EAP followed by a discussion of the main characteristics and approaches to ESP courses design. Benefits of ESP on the basis of what has been said before, one are now in a position to state the benefits of ESP. Basically; these are threefold in that they help achieve speed, efficiency, and effectiveness in learning; learning efficiency, on an ESP course, the trainees make the maximal use of their learning resources, all of which are brought to bear on acquiring specific, pre-identified linguistic items and skills.

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