

Kasbga yo'naltirilgan ingliz tili

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES



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Mazkur metodik qo'llanma Kasbga yo'naltirilgan ingliz tili (English for Specific Purposes) moduli bo'yicha mustaqil ta'lim uchun oliy ta'limning **5120100** – Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish ta'lim yo'nalishi IV bosqich bakalavriat talabalari uchun mo'ljalangan bo'lib, u "Chet tili o'qitishning integrallashgan kursi" fanidan O'zbekiston Respublikasi OO'MTVning 2016 yil 26-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan namunaviy dastur asosida tuzilgan.

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IV bosqich talabalari uchun metodik qo'llanma

Buxoro-2019

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KIRISH

Mamlakatimizda “Chet tillarni o’rganish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to’g’risida”gi PQ 1875-sonli qarorning qabul qilinishi hozirgi kunda ta’lim tizimining barcha bosqichlarida talabalarga chet tillarini uzluksiz o’rganishni tashkil qilish, zamonaviy o’quv-uslubiy materiallar bilan ta’minlashni yanada takomillashtirish, shuningdek, zamonaviy pedagogik va axborot-kommunikasiya texnologiyalaridan foydalanib chet tillarni o’rganish, o’rganilgan bilim, ko’nikmalarni mustaqil ravishda amalda qo’llashga o’rgatish chet tili o’qituvchisi zimmasidagi eng katta mas’uliyat hisoblanadi.

Mazkur “Kasbga yo’naltirilgan ingliz tili” (English for Specific Purposes) moduli bo’yicha mustaqil ishlash uchun tayyorlangan uslubiy qo’llanma oliy ta’limning filologiya va tillarni o’qitish ta’lim yo’nalishi IV bosqich bakalavriat talabalari uchun mo’ljalangan bo’lib, u “Chet tili o’qitishning integrallashgan kursi” fanidan O’zbekiston Respublikasi OO’MTVning 2016 yil 26-sonli buyrug’i bilan tasdiqlangan namunaviy dastur asosida tayyorlangan.

Ushbu uslubiy qo’llanmada talabalarning mustaqil ravishda ishlash ko’nikmalarini shakllantirish hamda kommunikativ mashqlar asosida bu ko’nikmalarni rivojlantirish maqsadida “Chet tili o’qitishning integrallashgan kursi” fanidan ishchi dasturda belgilangan mustaqil ta’lim uchun ajratilgan mavzulardan matnlar berilgan, shuningdek, matnlar asosida matnni o’qishdan oldin (pre-), matnni o’qish jarayonida (while), matn o’qib bo’lingandan so’ng (post) bajariladigan mashqlar o’z ifodasini topgan.

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Pre-activity

I. Answer the following questions:

1. What do you think what ESP itself is?
2. What types of ESP do you know?
3. What are differences between ESP and EOP?
4. What are the purposes of ESP and EOP?

What is ESP?

The aim of the ESP is to determine the needs of a specific group of learners. ESP is often divided into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Further subdivisions of EOP are sometimes made into business English, professional English (e.g. English for doctors, lawyers) and vocational English (e.g. English for tourism, nursing, aviation, bricklaying). ESP Characteristic according to Dudley-Evans (2001) the absolute characteristics of ESP are:

1. ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners.
2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves.
3. It is centered not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register), but also the skills, discourses and genres appropriate to those activities.

ESP practitioners are also becoming increasingly involved in intercultural communication and the development of intercultural competence. For Dudley-Evans (2001) the defining characteristic of ESP is that teaching and materials are based on the results of a needs analysis. The key questions are:

1. What do students need to do with English?
2. Which of the skills do they need to master and how well?
3. Which genres do they need to master either for comprehension or production purposes?

Traditionally ESP courses were typically designed for intermediate or advanced adult learners. Nowadays, many students can start to learn academic or vocational English at an earlier age and at a lower level of proficiency.

Why is ESP important?

ESP has become increasingly important as:

1. There has been an increase in *vocational training and learning* throughout the world.
2. With the spread of globalization has come the increasing use of *English as the language of international communication*. More and more people are using English in a growing number of occupational contexts.
3. Students are starting to learn and therefore master general English at a younger age, and so move on to ESP at an earlier age.

An increasing number of learners are taught in English medium schools using approaches such as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). In some English speaking countries governments are launching initiatives to help economic migrants obtain the practical English skills necessary to function in the workplace. For example, the new ESOL for Work Qualifications in the UK are designed to help employers and employees access courses which offer them the functional language skills demanded across a variety of employment sectors. Content includes topics such as customer care and health and safety.

Some teachers are afraid of making the transition from teaching general English to teaching ESP. There is also the danger that the novice ESP teacher will only use materials that they feel comfortable with and will not stretch their learners. ESP Teacher's Competence Bell (2002) argues that the depth of knowledge of a subject matter that a teacher requires depends on a number of variables which include:

1. How much do the learners know about their specialism?
2. Are the students pre-experience or post-experience learners?
3. How specific and detailed are the language, skills and genres that the learners need to learn?

Although you perhaps don't need to be an expert in a specialist area, you do need to have some awareness and feel for a particular vocational area. Bell (2002) advocates the three Cs for helping teachers to improve their knowledge and skills in a particular area of ESP.

1. Curiosity

The teacher should be interested in the subject area and want to learn more.

2. Collaboration

Teachers should seek out subject specialists, show them their work and ask for their feedback.

3. Confidence

Confidence will grow as teachers explore the new subject matter, engage with subject specialists and learn from their learners.

ESP Teaching Material

Harding (2007) stresses that the general skills that a general English teacher uses e.g. being communicative, using authentic materials and analyzing English in a practical way are also applicable to ESP. He also suggests that teachers should:

1. Think about what is needed and don't just follow an off-the-shelf course or course book.
2. Understand the nature of their students' subject area.
3. Work out their language needs in relation to their specialism.
4. Use contexts, texts, situations from their subject area.
5. Use authentic materials.
6. Make the tasks as authentic as possible.
7. Motivate the students with variety, relevance and fun.
8. Take the classroom into the real world and bring the real world into the classroom.

Like it or not, the days of the EFL generalist teacher may be numbered, so it might just be time to explore the possibility of working in ESP!

The Role of ESP

Since the 1960's ESP has become one of the most active branches of Applied Linguistics in general, and of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in particular.

Among the factors that could explain its vitality and its expansion is, as previously mentioned, the emergence of English as a world language, for this reason the necessity to cope with the different teaching situations and needs that such a position brings about. Such necessity implies an understanding of its development, types and the different teaching concepts of ESP. However, it is of great importance to start with the main definitions stated by the linguists concerning ESP.

Apparent variations in the interpretation of ESP definitions can be observed;

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.

“ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose.” Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2). That is to say that English should be taught to achieve specific language skills using real situations, in a manner that allows them to use English in their future profession, or to comprehend English discourse related to their area of specialty.

Generally, the Students study English “not because they are interested in the English Language or English culture as such, but because they need English for study or work purposes” (Robinson, 1991: 2). In ESP, “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).

This denotes that, the role of ESP is to help language learners to build up the needed abilities in order to use them in a specific field of inquiry, occupation, or workplace. These definitions were stated according to ESP evolution through time, this latter is viewed in more details in the following section.

ESP Characteristics

ESP is a recognizable activity of English Language Teaching (ELT) with some specific characteristics. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns¹¹ 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 (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genre appropriate to these activities.

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, 1998:4)

It is obvious that the absolute characteristics are specific to ESP because learners' needs are of central importance when designing language activities. Concerning the variable features, ESP courses can be designed for a specific group using definite teaching methodology, nevertheless, all learners' categories and disciplines can be concerned with ESP. For that reason, ESP should be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans and St. John illustrate as an 'attitude of mind'. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19) stated that, "ESP should properly be seen not as any particular language product but as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning".

In the course of the statements suggested below great similitude is noticed between ESP and General English Purposes (EGP) as teaching approaches knowing that each methodology is set up to fulfil specific social requirements, so in what terms are they different?

Types of ESP

The maturity of ESP through time knew multiple views concerning its subdivision. Different types are proposed by the linguists; the present study relies on Hutchinson and Waters' subdivision. In 1987, they rooted one of the most well-known and useful theories regarding English language teaching branches with the „Tree of ELT“, in which they divided ESP into three types:

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

Each type is concerned with specific field of scientific knowledge as technology, business and economy or the social fields in general; with its various and large amount of human sciences studies. Additionally, each of these is divided into further sub-branches:

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the ESS branch is 'English for Psychology' whereas an example of EAP for the ESS branch is 'English for Teaching'. Yet Hutchinson and Waters' classification of EAP and

EOP is rather unclear; that is why further clarification is needed in order to distinguish between them.

Acronyms in ESP

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)

EAP (English for Academic Purposes)

EBP (English for Business Purposes)

ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes)

EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes)

EMP (English for Medical Purposes)

EOP (English for Occupational Purposes)

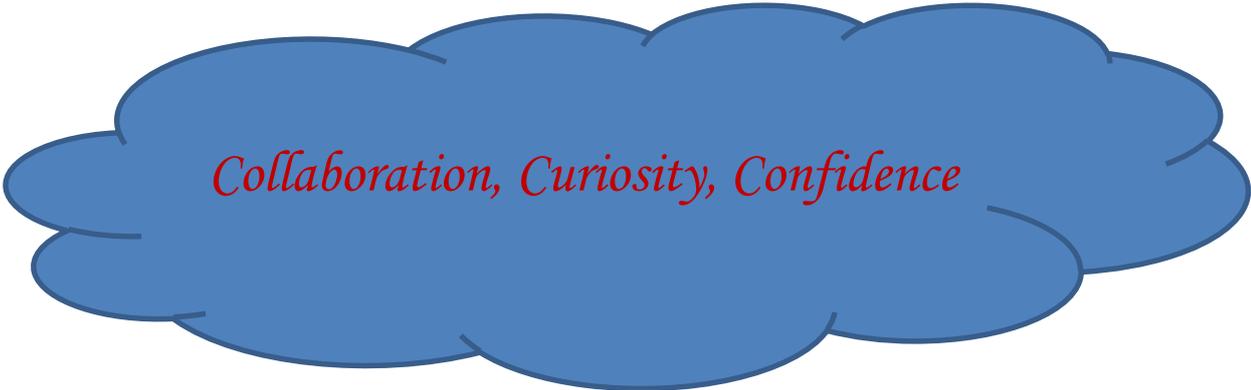
EPP (English for Professional Purposes)

EST (English for Science and Technology)

EVP (English for Vocational Purposes)

EWP (English for/in the Workplace)

II. Put the appropriate words in the blanks which are given the below.



Collaboration, Curiosity, Confidence

Although you perhaps don't need to be an expert in a specialist area, you do need to have some awareness and feel for a particular vocational area. Bell (2002) advocates the three Cs for helping teachers to improve their knowledge and skills in a particular area of ESP.

1. _____

The teacher should be interested in the subject area and want to learn more.

2. _____

Teachers should seek out subject specialists, show them their work and ask for their feedback.

3. _____

Confidence will grow as teachers explore the new subject matter, engage with subject specialists and learn from their learners.

III. Match the acronyms which are given in the following table.

1. EBP	a) Content and Language Integrated Learning
2. CLIL	b) English for Academic Purposes
3. EAP	c) English for Business Purposes
4. EGAP	d) English for Specific Academic Purposes
5. ESAP	e) English for Medical Purposes
6. EMP	f) English for General Academic Purposes
7. EPP	g) English for Occupational Purposes
8. EWP	h) English for Professional Purposes
9. EOP	i) English for Science and Technology
10. EST	j) English for Vocational Purposes
11. EVP	k) English for/in the Workplace

References

1. Bell, D (2002) 'Help! I've been asked to teach a class on ESP!' in IATEFL Voices, Issue 169, Oct/Nov
2. Dudley-Evans, T (2001) 'English for Specific Purposes' in The Cambridge Guide to TESOL, Cambridge University Press
3. Harding, K (2007) English for Specific Purposes, Oxford University Press

TYPES OF ESP. ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP). ENGLISH FOR OCCUPATIONAL PURPOSES (EOP).

I. Answer the following questions

1. What do you think what EAP (English for Academic Purposes) can include?
2. Do we have EAP programs in our educational system?
3. What is difference between EAP and ESP programs?

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

English for academic purposes (EAP), commonly known as ...⁽¹⁾, entails training students, usually in a ...⁽²⁾ setting, to use language appropriately for study. It is one of the most common forms of **English for specific purposes (ESP)**.

An ...⁽³⁾ program focuses instruction on skills required to perform in an English-speaking academic context across core subject areas generally encountered in a university setting. Programs may also include a more narrow focus on the more ...⁽⁴⁾ linguistic demands of a particular area of study, for example business subjects. Programs may be divided into ...⁽⁵⁾ courses and courses taken alongside students' other subjects. In the former case, sometimes EAP courses may be intended to raise students' ...⁽⁶⁾ English levels so that they can enter university. In the UK, this often means endeavoring to help students get a score of 6 or above in the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) examination. In the US, this can mean helping students attain a score of 80 or greater on the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or more than 4 on the ITEP (International Test of English Proficiency). Outside Anglophone countries, English-medium universities may have a preparatory school where students can spend a year or two working on their English and ...⁽⁷⁾ skills before starting degree courses. EAP courses running alongside other degree courses may be based on the American English and Composition model, or may employ ...⁽⁸⁾, either using material from the students' degree subjects or as an independent, elective-like course. These ...⁽⁹⁾ may be desirable more to help students develop study skills and required academic practices than for language development. In common with most **language teaching**, **EAP instruction**

teaches **vocabulary, grammar** and the **four skills** (**reading, writing, speaking** - including **pronunciation** - and **listening**), but usually tries to tie these to the ...⁽¹⁰⁾study needs of students; for example, a writing lesson would focus on writing essays rather than, say, business letters. Similarly, the ...⁽¹¹⁾chosen for study tends to be based on academic texts. In addition, EAP practitioners often find that, either directly or indirectly, they are teaching **study skills** and often having to tackle differences in educational culture, such as differing attitudes to ...⁽¹²⁾. This trend has become more prominent as the numbers of **foreign students** (especially from China) attending **UK universities**, and other institutions across the...⁽¹³⁾, has increased over the last decade. There is some debate amongst EAP teachers as to the best way to help students with academic English. On the one hand, students might be taught particular conventions but not expected to understand why they need to adapt their writing; a pragmatic approach. On the other hand, students might be encouraged to challenge writing conventions and only adopt them if they seem justified; a critical approach. Recently attempts have been made to try and reconcile these opposing views. A critical pragmatic approach to ...⁽¹⁴⁾encourages students to develop writing conventions required by universities while also encouraging them to think about the reasons why these conventions exist.

II. Fill in the gaps by using these words below

*EAP, academic, Academic English, plagiarism,
Content-based instruction, specific, higher
education, EAP, specific, pre-sessional, general, in-
sessional courses, vocabulary, English-speaking*

ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

At the same time, these two aspects are also divided into some categories.

EOP is divided into 3 parts:

- Pre-experience
 - Simultaneous/In-service
 - Post-experience
- EEP/EAP has such categories, as:

- For study in a specific discipline
- As a school subject

In the meantime, these 2 categories have also their subdivisions.

For study in a specific discipline has 2 categories:

- Pre-study
- In-study
- Post-study

As a school subject has 2 main categories. They are as follows:

- Independent
- Integrated

These distinctions are very important as they will affect the degree of specificity that is appropriate to the course. A pre-experience or pre-study course will probably rule out any specific work related to the actual discipline or work as students will not yet have the required familiarity with the content, while courses that run parallel to or follow the course of study in the educational institution or workplace will provide the opportunity for specific or integrated work.

Another typical classification for ESP is given below:

English for Specific Purposes



In EAP, English for Science and Technology (EST) has been the main area, but English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Legal Purposes (ELP) have always had their place.

The term EOP refers to English that is not for academic purposes; it includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations.

III. Tick T for TRUE and F for FALSE according to the text above

- a) EAP is not one type of ESP
- b) EAP program can be used in English speaking environment, especially in university setting
- c) Programs can be divided into three types of courses: pre-sessional, in-sessional and post-sessional
- d) This program helps learners to enter the university
- e) In-sessional courses are compulsory
- f) It includes seven skills, vocabulary, grammar, speaking, reading, writing, pronunciation, listening

IV. Choose the best answer

1. What is ESP?

- a. English for some purposes
- b. English for specific purposes**
- c. English for special purposes
- d. English for several purposes

2. What is the main difference between ESP and EGP?

- a. the age of the learners
- b. the needs of the learners
- c. the purpose of the teaching
- d. all are right**

3. What is the key distinguishing characteristic of ESP?

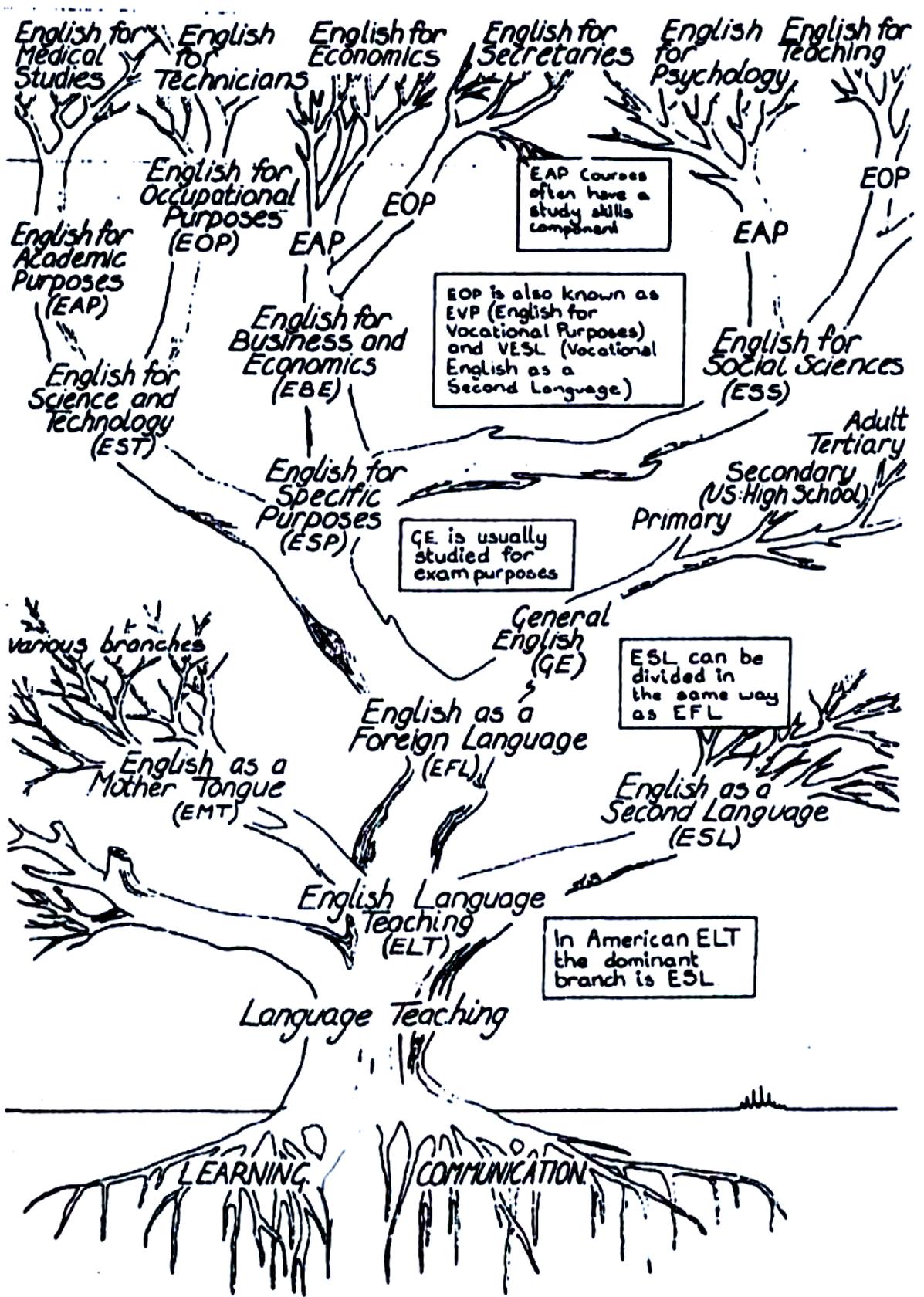
- a. its research draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics**
- b. it is for general purposes
- c. it is purpose id teaching grammar theories
- d. it is based on EGP

4. What is the division of ESP?

- a. ESP/EAP/EOP
- b. EOP/ESP
- c. ESP/EAP
- d. EAP/EOP**

5. How many components of teacher training courses for ESP are there?

- a. 3**
- b. 2
- c. 5
- d. 4



English for Medical Studies, English for Technicians, English for Economics, English for Secretaries, English for Psychology, English for Teaching

English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business and Economics (EBE), English for Social Sciences (ESS), English for Science and Technology (EST)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), General English (GE), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL)

Primary, Secondary (US: High School), Adult Tertiary

English as a Mother Tongue (EMT), English Language Teaching (ELT)

Language Teaching

LEARNING, COMMUNICATION

EAP courses often have a study skills component

EOP is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language)

GE is usually studied for exam purposes

ESL can be divided in the same way as EFL

In American ELT the dominant branch is ESL

V. Match abbreviations with their right definitions.

1. EOP
2. ESP
3. EAP
4. EGP

a. refers to contexts such as the school where needs cannot be readily specified. It **is** more useful to consider EGP providing a broad foundation rather than a detailed and selective specification of goals

b. is a subset of English as a second or foreign language. It usually refers to teaching the English language to university students or people already in employment, with reference to the particular vocabulary and skills they need.

c. refers to the specific ways English is used in different work and professional situations.

d. entails training students, usually in a higher education setting, to use language appropriately for study.

Approaches to course design

I. Answer the questions

1. What is course design?
2. What is the main aim of course design?
3. How many types of course design do you know?

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 experiences. The aim of course design is to lead the learner to a particular state of knowledge. In practical terms this entails the use of the theoretical and empirical information available to produce a syllabus, to select, adapt or write materials in accordance with the syllabus, to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured.

There are probably many different approaches to ESP course design as there are course designers. However, we can identify three main types of course design: Language-centered course design, Skills-centered course design, and Learning-centered approach.

Skills-centered course design

The skills-centered approach to ESP has been widely applied in a number of countries, particularly in Latin America. Students in

universities and colleges there have the limited, but important need to read subject texts in English, because they are unavailable in the other tongue. In response to this need, a number of ESP projects have been set up with the specific aim of developing the students' ability to read in English. The skills-centered approach is founded on two fundamental principles: Theoretical and Pragmatic.

a. The basic theoretical hypothesis is that underlying any language behavior are certain skills and strategies, which the learner uses in order to produce or comprehend discourse. A skills-centered approach aims to get away from the surface performance data and look at the competence that underlies the performance. A skills-centered course, therefore, will present its learning objectives (though probably not explicitly) in terms of both performance and competence. This example from a Brazilian ESP syllabus for Library Science students is given a Maciel et al. (1983) (our brackets):

General objective (i.e. performance level):

The students will be able to catalogue books written in English.

Specific objective (i.e. competence level):

The students will be able to:

- Extract the gist of a text by skimming through it.
- Extract relevant information from the main parts of a book.

b. The pragmatics basis for the skills-centered approach derives from a distinction made by Widdowson (1981) between goal-oriented courses and process-oriented courses. Holmes (1982) points out that:

‘In ESP the main problem is usually one of time available and student experience. First, the aims may be defined in terms of what is desirable,- i.e. to be able to read in the literature of the students' specialism, but there may be nowhere near enough time to reach this time during the period of the course. Secondly, the students may be in their first year of studies with little experience of the literature of their specialism...Accordingly both these factors...may be constraints which say right from the start, “The aims cannot be achieved during the course.”’

Holmes puts his finger on a contradiction that arises from interpreting ‘needs’ in the narrow sense of ‘target situation necessities’. If the ESP course is design in terms of goals, there is in effect a tacit admission that a large number of students will fail the course. Since ESP is by its very nature process that is intended to enable people to

achieve a purpose, it is at best a little odd to frame the course in such a way as to almost predict failure. The process-oriented approach tries to avoid this problem by removing the distinction between the ESP course and the target situation. The ESP course is not seen as a self-sufficient unit from which learners emerge as proficient target situation performers, because, as Holmes points out, a number of students are unlikely to achieve this proficiency. Instead, the ESP course and target situation are seen as a continuum of constantly developing degrees of proficiency with no cut-off point of success or failure. The emphasis in the ESP course, then, is not on achieving a particular set of goals, but enabling the learners to achieve what they can within the given constraints:

‘The process-oriented approach... is at least realistic in concentrating on strategies and processes of making students aware of their own abilities and potential, and motivating them to tackle target texts on their own after the end of the course, so that they can continue to improve.’ (ibid.)

The skills-centered model, therefore, is a reaction both to the idea of specific registers of English as a basis for ESP and to the practical constraints on learning imposed by limited time and resources. In essence it sees the ESP course as helping learners to develop skills and strategies which will continue to develop after the ESP course itself. Its aim is not to provide a specified corpus of linguistic knowledge but to make the learners into better processors of information. We might present the skills-centered model as in figure 19.

The role of need analysis in a skills-centered approach is twofold. Firstly, it provides a basis for discovering the underlying competence that enables people to perform in the target situation. Secondly, it enables the course designer to discover the potential knowledge and abilities that the learners bring to the ESP classroom.

The skills-centered approach, therefore, can certainly claim to take the learner more into account than the language-centered approach: It views language in terms of how the mind of the learner processes it rather than as an entity in itself.

It tries to build on the positive factors that the learners bring to the course, rather than just on the negative idea of ‘lacks’.

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-centered approach still approaches the learner as a user of language rather than as the learner of language. The processes it is concerned with are the processes of language use not of language learning. It is with this distinction in mind that we turn to the third approach to course design.

II. Fill in the gaps.

Course design, theoretical, empirical, syllabus, aim
--

..... is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences. The of course design is to lead the learner to a particular state of knowledge. In practical terms this entails the use of the and information available to produce a syllabus, to select, adapt or write materials in accordance with the....., to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured

III. Write the definition to the given words.

1 The basic theoretical hypothesis -----

2 The pragmatics basis-----

3 The skills-centered model-----

THE ROLE OF THE ESP TEACHER

Introduction

In the 20th century the world has turned to be a small village, consequently an urgent call for teaching one global language increased, especially that which is described as “international channel of communication” (Wallace 1991). This change in the status of language teaching demanded for more specialized teachers to teach language that requires special techniques and tools (Corder 1975). Teaching English for Special Purposes, for example, requires language structure, vocabulary, and the skills needed for the subject specialty (Jordan 1997). In ESP, the teacher comparing with the GE teacher has more roles to play such as: planning lessons, controlling and organizing classes and writing materials (Corder 1975 and Hedge 2000). Furthermore, the number of teachers who leave their jobs increases each day because of the lack of experience, pressure, and stress. So, planning pre service training courses for teachers seemed to be a good “support” for them to survive in their career (Ur 1991).

The purpose of this article is not only to underlie the roles of the ESP teacher inside the classroom, but also those that identify him/her outside the pedagogical setting. The first part will be assigned to the process of the training courses, together with its types. Then, the term “role” will be defined and different roles of the ESP teacher will be described.

Training the ESP teacher

Some teachers believe that being a good communicator means that you must be a good teacher, but when they are put in the classroom environment they find themselves looking for additional preparation to succeed in their teaching career. Therefore, most of them join training courses (Jourdanais 2009). So, what is meant by training? What types of training are there? Richards and Farrell (2005) see that:

“Training refers to activities directly focused on a teacher’s present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals. It is regarded as a preparation for the first teaching position or to take on a new teaching assignment or responsibility” (Richards and Farrell 2005: 03)

That is to say, training courses are sets of activities designed not only for the GE teacher but also for the ESP one. However, before dealing with the concept of the ESP teachers’ training, we would like

first to clarify the difference between teacher training and teacher development. Teacher training means preparing professional tasks for people who intend to teach English for the first time, which is also called pre-service training. This is taken along the years of graduation i.e. EFL students are to be asked, for example, to attend and observe different lectures. Such tasks aim at making the “trainees” accustomed to classroom environment (Dickins and Germaine 1992). Whereas teacher development refers to those activities oriented to experienced teachers. This is called in-service training (Larsen Freeman 2001). Underhill (1986) sees that In-service training is the process of increasing the teacher’s knowledge to be “better” as a professional teacher, and it is in the form of activities for practicing teachers (Underhill 1986 is Cited in: KÖyalan 2011). Such formal training courses are not always available. Most ESP teachers, for instance, seek their own way to develop themselves by, say, reading books, attending courses or workshops (Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

Vassilakis (2011) maintains that the main goal that lies behind training teachers is to prepare them to develop some pedagogical roles such as analyzing language and language “Training refers to activities directly focused on a teacher’s present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals. It is regarded as a preparation for the first teaching position or to take on a new teaching assignment or responsibility” (Richards and Farrell 2005: 03)19 skills in order to understand the learners’ needs, providing the relevant materials and planning courses that match those needs.

The role of the ESP teacher

Widdowson (1990) argues that the term “role” is used in various ways, but generally, a “role” is defined as a part of performance in a certain social action. Wright’s (1987) definition is not so far from Widdowson’s. He holds that in our daily life we have several social roles, some are inflicted on us e. g. A father and others we choose e. g. a teacher. While, for the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics a role is “the part taken by a participant in any act of communication. Some roles are more or less permanent, e.g. that of a teacher or a student” (Richard & Schmidt 2002: 460). So, in language teaching a role determines the status of both the teacher and the learner, and it is subject to change,

depending on the kind of the activity in the classroom. For example, a teacher can be an evaluator and a teacher at the same time (Nunan and Lamb 1996).

Sierocka (2008) claims that the ESP teacher has got more roles to play besides the role of a “teacher”. Dudley-Evans and ST John (1998) proposed five roles for the: teacher, course designer and materials provider, researcher, collaborator, and an evaluator.

As a teacher: It is true that the ESP teacher and the GE one share common roles, for example, Teaching English Language. However, the difference lies in the objective behind teaching (Harmer 2001). In ESP a teacher does not mean only being a language provider, but also a needs-analyst (ibid.). That is to say, since the teacher is not the primary knower of the career content of the discipline, he/she has to understand his/her learners’ needs in order to understand their knowledge of the content so as to bring the relevant materials required by the group of learners in class (Bojovic 2006).

As a course designer and materials provider: ESP courses aim at motivating learners to use English in an academic or a professional setting. So, both ESP courses and materials are based on analyzing the learner’s needs (Basturkmen 2006). Course designers should bear in mind some basic questions before designing any course, such as, who the learners are. What do these learners need to learn English for? And what kind of texts do they need? There is a controversy on whether the materials provider should adopt authentic textbooks or write his/her own (Hutchinson and waters 1981). Text writing according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) should be the last step a teacher adopts when the other 20 possibilities are exhausted. So the ESP teacher should first select the available textbooks. Also, he/she can modify the activities so as to suit learners’ needs, and in case both possibilities are not in hand, the ESP teachers can, then, generate their own (Dudley-Evans and ST John 1998).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest some tips concerning “materials providing”:

- “-Use existing materials as a source of your ideas.
- It is better to work in a team.
- Do not set out to write the perfect materials on the first draft. Materials can always be improved.
- Do not underestimate the time needed for materials writing. It can be very-time-consuming business.

-Pay a careful attention to the appearance of your materials.” (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 259)

It is not always true that materials and courses are designed according to the learners’ needs. However, teachers and sponsors’ needs are also to be taken account of because if the teacher, for instance, is not satisfied with the materials he/she provides this would affect the learners by losing and decreasing their motivation (Tomlinson 1998).

As a researcher: ESP holds an important position in English language teaching all over the world. It draws its own way from language theories and research (Hyland 2009). Hence, the process of teaching ESP is restricted to the findings in linguistic research in the target subject-specialty (Basturkmen 2006). According to Sierocka (2008) the ESP teachers first have to research their own goal “in what they really want to achieve” (Sierocka 2008: 35). Then, before designing courses or providing materials, they need to do research in order to investigate the genres of texts 1, language, and skills required by the specific field of study (Dudley-Evans and ST John 1998). For instance, ESP teacher often attends classes, talks to the administration staff and investigates the strategies learners need in their learning (John and Price-Machado 2001).

As a collaborator: Coordinating with colleagues is considered to be an essential step in any educational task (Nunan and Lamb 1996). The ESP teacher is no exception since one of his/her roles is to cooperate with the subject specialist. The objective behind this cooperation is to have knowledge about the subject skills, tasks, and syllabus, and to discover how the subject integrates with the language in order to bring the suitable material and courses for the learners (Dudley-Evans and ST John 1998).

As an evaluator: Some issues are considered to be as daily activities (cooking, breathing, and eating...). Evaluation is no exception of being an unconscious activity in our day life. In language teaching, evaluation plays a role as a feedback for learners and the course achievement (Dudley-Evans and ST John 1998). Nunan and Lumb (1996) argue that: “Monitoring and evaluation are essential parts of everyday life. We monitor ourselves and others as we carry out the many tasks of everyday life- Shopping, riding the subway to work, looking after our kids in the park, watching television and so on.” (Nunan and Lumb 1996: 299).

Pedagogically speaking, evaluation is not the same as testing since the latter is a part of the first, and evaluation is mainly oriented to the classroom setting (Dickins and Germaine 1992). Evaluation should be carried out by the teacher and not outsiders (experts) because the teacher knows the learners' specialist. Further, he/she is accustomed to understand the classroom problems and knows the kind of evaluation which is relevant to his/her learners (ibid.).

The teacher is often involved in different types of evaluation. In the context of ESP there are two kinds of evaluation (Bojovic 2006). Students' evaluation in which the teacher assesses whether the learners have the necessary language and skills to survive in the academic course or career, and in which he/she assesses the level of their achievement. The second type of evaluation in ESP is evaluating the course and the teaching materials in order to measure the extent to which these suit the learners' needs (ibid.).

Conclusion

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claim that being an ESP teacher requires more than being only a language provider. ESP teacher has got several roles to play in addition to teaching. For this purpose, ESP teacher is expected, first, to have some knowledge about his/her learners' subject and that is by participating in training courses.

Teacher training, in general, is a kind of an "on-going" education, which means that teachers never stop getting more and more knowledge along their teaching career (Vassilakis, 2011).

In this article, we have dealt with the ESP teacher's training and the types of English for Specific Purposes. Moreover, we set the roles that distinguish the ESP teacher from the GE one. These roles are: as teacher, course designer, materials provider, researcher, collaborator and evaluator.

I. Read the text and answer the questions

1. What is the role of ESP teacher as teacher?
2. What is the role of ESP teacher as researcher?
3. What is the role of ESP teacher as materials designer?
4. What is the role of teacher as collaborator?
5. What is the role of teacher as evaluator?

II. Read through the text and say whether the following statements are True or False

1. 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. *True/False*
2. Test are conducted in order to find the weaknesses of the students. *True/False*
3. ESP teachers can use flexible syllabus in order to evaluate the students. *True/False*
4. ESP teacher also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching materials as researcher. *True/False*
5. ESP teachers should carry out a needs analysis and designing a course as researcher. *True/False*

III. Complete the gaps with the words which is given in the box

1. Evaluation through discussion and on-going_____ can be used to adapt the syllabus.
2. ESP teachers need_____ with research.
3. In some situations, the role of ESP teacher extends to giving_____ advice to students.
4. 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 _____ often have to provide the material for the course.
5. In countries such as the UK, USA, Australia where large numbers of international students do _____course or research and need internationally required tests.



THE PLACE OF STUDY SKILLS: NOTE-TAKING; NOTE-MAKING IN AN EAP CONTEXT

Note-Taking Skills

Note taking is an essential skill for university students, but taking notes and integrating information from many sources, including textbooks, labs, online discussions, lectures, and/or seminars, can be challenging. Take time to explore different note-taking methods in order to determine which method works best for you and your course requirements. Carefully reviewing your course outline, booking a consultation with us, speaking to someone who has already taken the course, or speaking to your professor or TA about course expectations can help you decide the best note-taking approach for you.

Popular Note-Taking Methods

Concept Mapping is a technique used to organize information, facts, concepts, equations, theories, etc. Concept mapping can be used to make connections between key concepts, even when those connections were not made during lectures. Mapping can also help you identify less familiar concepts. Begin by writing the main idea in the center of a page, and from there, place related ideas on branches radiating from the center. After your initial brainstorm of information, look at ways to reorganize and group related concepts, and consider integrating other visual cues, such as diagrams, arrows, or colours, to emphasize concepts and connections. There are also apps and software to facilitate concept mapping.

The Cornell Method

The Cornell Method is an organizational framework to take notes, either in class or from textbooks. Designed to save time and be efficient, the method emphasizes three aspects of note taking: recording information (from the lecture or text); recording extra comments, questions, or thoughts that you had about the information; and summarizing the main ideas of the notes.

Matrix note-taking

Matrix note taking converts linear notes into a chart format. To create matrix notes, take your notes from lectures and readings and simplify them into topics and categories. For example, a course on human development may include readings on three major theories about stages

of development. Place the three theories in columns at the top of your chart, and place questions, such as “Who are the major theorists?” or “What are the stages?” in the left hand column. Non-linear note-taking encourages you to be concise in your note-taking, emphasizes relationships and patterns among concepts, and enables you to identify gaps and integrate information in your notes

If you prefer electronic note-taking, consider these suggestions:

- Be selective about what you record, as if you were writing by hand
- Using a tablet can reduce the distractions associated with laptops but are less comfortable to type on
- Consider using a note-taking organizer or template such as the Cornell note-taking method on your laptop to help focus your notes
- Some courses require writing many equations and diagrams that can be time consuming and difficult in word processing programs. To avoid missing key lecture points, draw these by hand and incorporate them later. Some apps for tablets and laptops also allow you to draw by hand/mouse on existing notes

Resist the urge to copy and paste from online PDFs, notes or textbooks. Copying and pasting does not have the same benefits as creating your own notes because you are not actively sifting and processing information

Methods of taking notes

Headings and bullet points

This is a very common way of making notes. It is especially useful if you are making notes on a computer as you can reorganize information under new headings. The heading is the key point or a question. The bullets or list of points under it all refer to that one heading.

Double notes

These are notes where you use either two colour or two columns or two sheets of paper in order to make two connected sets of notes. The first set is a summary of what you are reading or hearing. The second set is your commentary upon the first set. This is useful for separating out other people's ideas and words from your own.

Pattern notes

These are notes that are organised around a central concept and work their way out from that idea. Each line from the centre leads you into more depth on a particular theme. Use colour and shape to make the

notes distinctive. Look for a particular image formed by the final shape of the notes - or aim to develop a particular image. This will make the notes more memorable.

Annotations

If you own the text, you can highlight key points and write additional information and comments in the margins or underneath. This can save time making longer notes, but is less effective for processing the information and ensuring that you understand it than other forms of notes.

Summaries

It is useful to summarize your notes on any one topic or questions down to a few key points, quotes and examples. This familiarizes you with the material. It also makes it easier to carry the information around to refer to on work placement or to revise for exams.

Lists

These are useful, for example for:

- Identifying all the tasks that have to be undertaken on a particular day.
- Noting the key themes in a book or lecture.
- Numbering key points.
- Being able to see what you need to do or remember very easily.
- Identifying resources to follow up.
- Keep a record of resources such as useful web-pages.

Keep a record of sources

It is important to keep a very good record of where you gained each piece of information so that you can find it again quickly and easily if you need to check something about it. You will also need this information when you make reference to the information in your work. If you do not state where you get ideas, material and quotations, then you may be accused of plagiarism and cheating.

Record the:

- Author's name and initials.
- The full name of the chapter, book or article.
- The name of the journal for printed articles or of the book for chapters.
- The place of publication.
- The date of publication.
- The publisher.

- The shelf reference or web address.
- It is also useful to keep a record of the ISBN number at the back of the book.

Noting down quotations

Take special care when copying quotations. To avoid plagiarism:

- Copy only very small phrases or very short sections to quote in your work.
- Use a different colour pen to copy these.
- Make very few such quotes.
- Write down details of the source of the quotation and reference these in your text and list of references.

Importance of Note - Making

The process of grasping knowledge is vast and unlimited. Our memory is not able to store so many information altogether, hence notes making is quite handy and helpful. With the assistance of note making, we may recall the entire information of past events. For the students, it makes their preparation less strenuous.

Note- making helps in:

- Keeping information handy whenever we require.
- Recollecting and recalling past events said or heard.
- Delivery of speeches for debates/discussion, writing an essay and revising lessons before examinations.

Points to remember while making notes

- They should be precise and to the point.
- They should have all the relevant and important information of the extract.
- All information should be systematically divided, and subdivided.
- Use universally relevant symbols and abbreviations necessary and provide key to the abbreviations.
- The main title should be short and apt to the extract.
- Try to avoid any long sentence as a title unless it is a common proverb. It must reflect the essence of the extract.

Notes must be written in points and must be listed one after another and must be numbered properly.

Points to be avoided while making notes

1. Avoid the usage of full sentences.
2. Do not lift portions of the paragraph to form the notes.

3. Do not include irrelevant parts of the extract while taking down notes.

Mechanism- Note Making

- **Usage of abbreviation:**

1. Capital letters to be used for first letter of the words for (eg: UNO, NCERT etc.).
2. Usage of abbreviations and symbols (for e.g. >, < @, % etc.)
3. Commonly used in newspapers and magazines. (gov., sec., Bio.)
4. Key to be used for own short forms
(For e.g. Trans.=Transparent)

Note: Students must use at least four abbreviations in board exam.

- **Proper Indentation**

1. Title (reflects the main theme of the extract and carries 3 marks, it should not be more than 1/3 of the passage length)
2. Subheadings (grasp of the passage by the students)
3. Try to use only phrases and avoid using full sentences

Marking Scheme for Note Making

- Title- 1 marks
- Abbreviations (at least four)-1 marks
- Subheadings with 2-3 sentences -3 marks.

I. Answer the questions

1. What is the note-making?
2. What is the note-taking?
3. Tell about popular note-making methods?

II. Match the phrases with their definition.

1	Concept Mapping	A	can save time making longer notes, but is less effective for processing the information and ensuring that you understand it than other forms of notes
2	The Cornell Method	B	can be used to make connections between key concepts, even when those connections were not made during Mapping can also help you identify less familiar concepts
3	Matrix note-taking	C	These are notes that are organized around a central concept and work their way out from that idea

4	Double notes	D	is an organizational framework to take notes, either in class or from textbooks.
5	Pattern notes	E	To create matrix notes, take your notes from lectures and readings and simplify them into topics and categories
6	Annotations	F	These are notes that are organised around a central concept and work their way out from that idea. Each line from the centre leads you into more depth on a particular theme

III. Discussion.

Divide the group into 2 small groups and discuss what the terms mean below.

For the first team:

- **Importance of note-taking in EAP;**

For the second team:

- **Importance of note- making in EAP;**

THE FOUR ENGLISH SKILLS IN AN ACADEMIC CONTEXT

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) entails helping students develop the English skills they need for academic study in a higher education setting. In EAP practice, it is unlikely that the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) will receive equal coverage. Typically, academic writing receives the most attention. There are good reasons for this as many formal assessments at university are done through students' writing. However, the other skills remain important, not least listening.

Listening skills in an academic context

Students need good listening skills to interpret what people are saying in various academic situations. For example, they need to be able to understand the content of a lecture at the speed it is delivered. Presentations also require good listening skills, as do seminars, where students are expected to understand and build on the contributions of

others. Other events include tutorials, discussions, meetings with tutors and supervisors, group projects, and informal social interactions. In addition, students need good listening skills to interact with administration staff in the local context. In short, students exchange, discuss and apply critical thinking to a considerable amount of knowledge in oral/aural settings.

What are the challenges?

A lecture, for example, can present many linguistic challenges. These include speed of delivery, accent, academic and specialist vocabulary. There is also grammatical complexity such as false starts, long sentences, and complex noun phrases. An extract from a university medical lecture on stroke contains the following examples:

False starts and repetitions: an honour– honorary

Unnecessary words: So if I'd like to just go, go...

Long sequences with a number of items, including run-on sentences with multiple clauses which pile up layers of information: Furthermore, it's the third commonest cause of death, with a third of strokes being fatal; one in six people in the world will have a stroke in their lifetime, it's unlikely to get through life without knowing somebody, a first-degree relative or very close friend, who will not have a stroke.

Technical terms which can be difficult to hear, understand, pronounce, and spell: hemicraniectomy, thrombolysis

Words with dependent prepositions which express specific relational meanings: the impact on, of, of stroke on people

Abbreviations and acronyms: AIDS, EU, TB

There are other challenges too, including culture, dealing with the content of the lecture, the cognitive processing of numbers and statistics, working out detail from the main points, and visual challenges such as the use of PowerPoint slides. Students also need to know why they are listening, and be able to make a record of the content for future use.

How can teachers help students develop their listening skills?

To deal with such challenges, EAP students and teachers need to work with good materials. Authentic texts and tasks are important because they build up students' competence and confidence in listening.

EAP teachers can use the following sequence of tasks to develop their students' listening skills and language.

Task 1: Preparing for the lecture by reading a pre-lecture handout on the lecture topic

Task 2: Listening for essential factual information

Task 3: Academic language: a focused study of key language in the lecture, such as the language of association, speculation, and degree of certainty

Task 4: Listening for association and evaluation in the lecture

Task 5: Reprocessing information from a lecture using notes

What resources are available?

As well as the material in EAP course books, there are many online resources. These include the following:

Open access resources at university EAP centres, e.g., lectures at the University of Reading

TED (Technology, Education, Design)

It is good to use a wide range of resources. If students have only watched TED lectures, they might be disappointed by the less exciting delivery of some university lectures!

In short, listening in EAP is vital, yet challenging. Fortunately, there are plenty of good resources out there for EAP teachers to use.

Reading skills

In academic contexts students will have much to read, from thick text books to academic journal articles.

Often the most effective strategy for increasing reading speed is to avoid reading every word. If you just want to know whether a text is worth reading in more detail, you can survey the text by reading about the author, looking at the title, introduction, etc. If all you want to know are the main ideas, then you can skim the text, focusing on the introduction, first sentences of paragraphs, etc. Finally, if you want to find specific information you can scan or search the text for key words or phrases. Another important skill to employ is to establish a purpose before reading: knowing why you are reading will determine how you should read (e.g. skim, scan, or carefully), as well as which parts of the text may be useful (perhaps you do not need to read all). A final skill which will be important to increase speed is guessing unknown words in the text: if you stop to look up every word you do not know, you will waste a lot of time. Each of these skills is considered in more detail in the following sections.

Speed Reading

You cannot skim, scan or survey everything. You will still need to read texts closely for detailed understanding, often in conjunction with note-taking. The average reading speed is around 250 words per minute, and the average reader reads each word individually. It is, however, possible to recognise four or five words at a time, and the key to increasing reading speed is to take in more than one individual word when you read. A simple way to do this initially is to divide the page vertically into three or four sections, either by folding it or drawing lines, and to look only at the middle of each section. As this habit becomes more natural, you will not need to fold the page or draw lines, and may even be able to reduce the number of sections to two per page.

What is skimming?

Skimming a text means reading it quickly in order to get the main idea or gist of the text. Skimming and another quick reading skill, scanning, are often confused, though they are quite different. Skimming is concerned with finding general information, namely the main ideas, while scanning involves looking for specific information.

What parts of the text should I look at?

When you are skimming a text, you will want to focus on the parts which are more likely to contain the main ideas, while ignoring the details. These include the title, which is often a summary of the whole text. The first paragraph may also be useful, as this will usually be the introduction which could contain an overview of the whole text. Likewise, the final paragraph may be helpful, as it may be a conclusion and so will often contain a summary of the main points. You should also try to read the first sentence in each paragraph, as this is very often the topic sentence, and the last sentence in each paragraph, which may be a concluding sentence. Also look out for repeated words, as these may give an indication of the main points. Other aspects, such as an abstract for a technical article, or section headings, can also help. In short, you will need to focus on the following (note that not all texts contain all of these, e.g. many texts do not have abstracts or section headings).

Title and sub-title

Abstract

First paragraph

Last paragraph

Repeated words

Section headings

First sentence of each paragraph

Last sentence of each paragraph

What is scanning?

Scanning a text means looking through it quickly to find specific information. Scanning is commonly used in everyday life, for example when looking up a word in a dictionary or finding your friend's name in the contacts directory of your phone. Scanning and another quick reading skill, skimming, are often confused, though they are quite different. While skimming is concerned with finding general information, namely the main ideas, scanning involves looking for specific information.

How to scan a text

Before you start scanning for information, you should try to understand how the text is arranged. This will help you to locate the information more quickly. For example, when scanning for a word in a dictionary or a friend's name in your contact list, you already know that the information is arranged alphabetically. This means you can go more quickly to the part you want, without having to look through everything. For this reason, skimming can be a useful skill to use in combination with scanning, to give you a general idea of the text structure. Section headings, if there are any, can be especially useful.

When scanning, you will be looking for key words or phrases. These will be especially easy to find if they are names, because they will begin with a capital letter, or numbers/dates. Once you have decided on the area of text to scan, you should run your eyes down the page, in a zigzag pattern, to take in as much of the text as possible. This approach makes scanning seem much more random than other speed reading skills such as skimming and surveying. It is also a good idea to use your finger as you move down (or back up) the page, to focus your attention and keep track of where you are.

Searching vs. Scanning

Sometimes you may be looking for an idea rather than scanning for an actual word or phrase. In this case, you will be searching rather than scanning. Skimming the text first to help understand organisation is especially important when searching for an idea. It is also useful to guess or predict the kind of answer you will find, or some of the language associated with it. In this way, you still have words or phrases

you can use to scan the text. As such, searching is part skimming, part scanning. For example, if you are reading a text on skin cancer and want to find the causes, you would skim the text to understand the structure, which might be a problem-solution structure; you might already know that exposure to sunlight is one of the causes so you might scan for 'sunlight' or 'sun', and because you are looking for causes you might scan for transition words such as 'because' or 'cause' or 'reason'.

How to deal with unknown words

There are two questions to ask yourself whenever you meet an unfamiliar word. The first question is: 'Do I need to know the meaning of the word?' If not, you can keep reading and ignore the word. In order to answer this question, you need to make sure you have a clear purpose in your reading. The second question you need to ask is: 'Is an approximate meaning enough?' If not, you need to look the word up in a dictionary.

If the answer to both questions above is 'no', it means you can guess what the word means then keep reading. Use the following to help you guess an approximate meaning:

1. examine the immediate context of the word (i.e. the sentence in which it appears, and words which come before and after); pay particular attention to linking words;
2. examine the wider context of the word (i.e. other sentences in the paragraph);
3. look at the structure of the word (i.e. prefix, suffix, root).

Basics of note-taking

Below are some tips for making effective notes from reading texts. These include actions to take before making notes (points 1-4), while making notes (points 5-9) and after making notes (point 10).

Before note-taking

Be clear about your purpose. This will affect not only how but how much of the text you read. Reading for an assignment will probably need quite detailed notes, though perhaps for only part of the text; in contrast, reading to prepare for a lecture might result in much briefer notes, with a list of key vocabulary.

Be a critical reader. This starts before you begin reading by making judgements about the author, the intended audience and how trustworthy the source is. This information could potentially reveal that the text is one you should not be reading or making notes for.

Survey or skim through the text first. This will help you to get a general idea of the text, which makes taking notes easier. You may also find that only part of the text relates to your purpose, in which case you can engage in selective note-taking by making notes for only a section of the text.

Read the text actively. This means engaging with the text in order to understand what it contains, for example by highlighting key words and phrases, making annotations in the margin, testing yourself as you read, or reading critically by asking questions about the text.

During note-taking

Make a note of the source. It is best to put this at the top of the first page, with full details of the author, title, year of publication, etc. This is especially important if you plan to use this text in your writing, as you will need to cite it to avoid plagiarism. It is much easier to make a note of source details before you begin note-taking than to try to find the text again later.

Make a note of the main points, using an appropriate style. You will need to decide what style of notes, either linear or pattern notes, best suits the text and your own preferences. Using colour or highlighting can also help to make your notes more memorable.

Keep your notes clear and concise. Pay attention to transition signals as you read in order to understand the connection between ideas, for example a cause/effect relationship, comparison, contrast, etc. Remember also that these are notes, so keep them brief, with enough space so you can add more detail later.

Try to use your own words. This will not only help you understand the meaning, but will also assist you in avoiding plagiarism if you use the information in your writing.

Make sure your notes clearly distinguish between ideas in the text and your own ideas. If you have read critically and added annotations, you will probably want to include these in your notes. However, you need to make a clear distinction between the writer's ideas and your own, especially when you are using the information in your writing (your ideas do not need citations).

After note-taking

File the notes carefully. You will probably want to be able to access the notes later, so make sure you are able to.

Writing is necessary for all students in higher education. It is a process. It starts from understanding your task. It then goes on to doing the research and reading. The next stage is planning and writing various drafts. This is followed by proof-reading and editing. All this should lead to the final text.

Writing Skills

Academic writing is a social practice. By a social practice we mean that it is what people do together. This means that you always write with a readership in mind. You always write with a purpose: to explain, to persuade etc. It also means that what is right and wrong, appropriate or inappropriate is defined by the users in the social community. In your case these are other students, lecturers or examiners. There is nothing natural about the organisation and the way language is used in a scientific report, for example. It is as it is because that is the way it has developed through centuries of use by practitioners. For that reason, it has to be learned. No-one speaks (or writes) academic English as a first language (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1994, p. 8). It must be learned by observation, study and experiment.

Academic writing in English is clearly defined by having an obvious audience; a clear purpose, either an exam question to answer or a research project to report on. It is also clearly structured.

Academic writing in English is linear:

- it starts at the beginning and finishes at the end, with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digression or repetition. This line of argument must be made clear whatever kind of writing you are producing and you, the writer, are responsible for making this line of argument clear and presenting it in an orderly fashion so that the reader can follow.

Your written work should have the following sections:

Preliminaries

Main text

End matter

The preliminaries and end matter will depend on the kind of text you are writing. The main text will, however, generally contain an introduction, a main body and a conclusion. The introduction will usually consist of some background information, which will give the reason for the writing and explain, to some extent, how this will be done. This must be closely connected to the essay or research question.

The main body will then contain some data - either experimental, from ideas or from reading - and some argument. This will then lead to the conclusion, which will refer back to the introduction and show that the purpose has been fulfilled. The actual form of the main body will depend on the type of writing.

Common pieces of writing in the academic world are essays and reports. Most students will take a written examination.

Genres in academic writing

Introduction

Students are asked to write many different kinds of texts. Depending on your subject, these could be essays, laboratory reports, case-studies, book reviews, reflective diaries, posters, research proposals, and so on and are normally referred to as genres. These different genres, though, can be constructed from a small range of different text types.

If, for example, you are asked to write an essay to answer the following question:

Discuss possible solutions to the problem of international credit control.

You could answer it in the following way:

1. Define credit control, say what it is and give an example;
2. Explain why international credit control is a problem in business today, and support your explanation by evidence from your reading;
3. Describe some possible solutions to the problem of credit control in an international context. Again support your suggestions with evidence from your reading;
4. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of each of the possible solutions;
5. Decide which solution you would prefer and give reasons.

So in order to answer the question you need to be able to write texts to do the following:

Define

Give an example

Explain why

Support your explanation with evidence

Describe a solution

Describe advantages and disadvantages

Choose

Explain why

Here are some other genres of academic writing

Essays

Reports

Case Studies

Research proposals

Book reviews

Brief research reports

Literature reviews

Reflective writing

Introductions

Research methods

Research results

Research discussions

Writing conclusions

Research abstracts

Research Dissertations & Theses

Speaking for EAP

Three settings

Essentially, there are three settings in which learners will need to speak:

1. In lectures
2. In small-group seminars
3. When giving and attending presentations

What the learner will have to do with the language in these settings will vary but there are commonalities, as we shall see.

Purposes and functions

It is possible to divide speaking skills for EAP into those skills most obviously needed in the three settings identified above. That is not the approach taken here.

Here we shall consider the purposes learners have when speaking, and therefore the functions they will need to be able to perform in all these settings. Where necessary, we shall consider which settings are most likely to call on which purposes but that is not the fundamental organising criterion.

Asking questions

What follows here applies to lectures, seminars, presentations by peers and even one-to-one tutorials.

Forming the question grammatically is not usually the issue. The issues are:

1. Recognising when and if questioning is invited
2. Sending a signal that one wishes to pose or interpose a question
3. Phrasing the question appropriately, not just structurally accurately

These need explicit treatment on an EAP course.

Recognising the signals

Speakers have a number of ways of signalling that questions or interruptions are welcome.

Cultures vary in how it is done (or even if it is done) and within cultures, individuals will vary in the signals they send so there are few fixed rules.

Setting, too, will have a significant effect. In EAP settings, there is frequently a rather formal set of signals for people to notice and tutors and lecturers often take on the role of a chair of a meeting. This means they will use strategies for inviting questions such as

Ways of including quieter participants and demanding participation: e.g., Fred. Do you have a question?

Ways of silencing the over-enthusiastic questioner: e.g., Thanks, Jane. Let's get some other questions now, huh?

Ways of signalling transitions: e.g., Right. Before we go on to the reasons for all this, does anyone have a question?

Ways of keeping the questions on track: e.g., We are getting off the topic. Let's go back a bit.

Ways of moving things on and requiring a current questioner to give up the turn: e.g., Right, let's move on.

Ways of closing a topic: e.g., Does anyone have anything to ask before we move on?

Lecturers and tutors in group seminars or teaching roles usually assume control not only over who speaks next but what they say. This is done in three ways:

Selection and constraint

In small-groups, i.e., around twenty or fewer, tutors may select the next person to take a turn, either by naming them or by alluding to them in some way. For example:

What is the question we should be asking, John?

Well, we have two people here who have been reading the text. Does either of you have a question?

What do those who will actually do the work want to know?

etc.

Tutors may signal who is to respond to something said by using gaze, focusing on whoever is required to contribute. Being alert to what shifting gaze means is a cultural issue in part but can be taught.

In this case, the learner needs to recognise two important points: not only that it is his or her turn to ask a question or make a point but also that the topic of the question has been constrained by what the tutor is currently talking about. Off-topic questions are not usually welcome.

Constraint

In lecture settings, a speaker may not have the luxury of selecting questioners because participant names are unknown or because the audience is simply too large.

In this case the speaker needs to rely on constraint alone but the constraint is often signalled explicitly, by the parts underlined in the following examples:

Does anyone have a question about these figures?

Bearing this in mind, does anyone have a question?

Does anyone need to ask anything about the results so far before we go on

Failure to notice question-topic constraint is quite serious because it irritates the tutor / lecturer as well as other participants.

Open-ended invitation

A tutor may do neither of the above and simply signal the fact that a question from anyone on any topic is welcome. This may occur at the end of teaching phases by the tutor falling silent or signalling open endedness by, for example:

Is there anything at all anyone wants to ask?

Any questions about anything?

etc.

Recognising the lack of topic constraint may be as important as recognising its existence.

These three turn passing mechanisms come in order of precedence. Selection of questioner overrides constraint by topic and selection plus constraint is the most powerful strategy.

Sending the signals

Lecturers and tutors need to know when someone needs to ask a question (although they are not universally good at doing so).

Four of the ways learners can signal that they want to ask something, providing the speaker has signalled that questions are welcome, are:

taking a sharp intake of breath (small groups only)

leaning forward (small groups or front-row occupiers of lecture theatre groups)

raising a finger (small groups)

raising a hand (larger groups)

Again, this is a culturally determined issue. In most English-speaking societies, power distances are low and the posing of a question carries little threat to the speaker. In fact, questions are often welcomed and in some contexts, even planted.

In other cultures, questioning implies that the speaker has been unclear or what has been said is incomplete. In that circumstance, asking a question threatens the speaker's face and needs to be done with great care.

Forming the question

People like to know what they are about to be asked.

Questions such as:

What the significance?

Why is it important?

etc.

are unwelcome because the questioner has not signalled the topic carefully enough.

Questions framed in these ways are more welcome:

My question concerns the first set of data and I'd like to know ...

What do you believe the significance of the second kind of response is?

etc.

are more welcome because the speaker knows instantly what the topic is and can spot off-topic questions and act accordingly.

Even lecturers like a complement. Questions preceded with, e.g.:

I think that's really interesting. What ...?

That's very helpful. How much ...?

etc.

are usually more welcome than just jumping in.

It is easier to ask for forgiveness than permission.

Off-topic questions may be tolerated if they are properly framed. For example:

I realise this is a bit off topic but may I ask ...?

This might not be relevant but do you know ...?

etc.

may be allowable.

Most interactions between educators and students in English-speaking cultures may be described semi-formal so the question needs to be properly phrased.

So, for example:

What's the importance of ...

Why ...?

etc.

Are less appropriate than, for example:

Can ask whether ...?

Could you tell us if ...

Would you say that ...?

etc.

Learners need to know that, especially, but not exclusively, in small-group settings, the questioner needs to acknowledge whatever response has been given so something like:

Thanks. That's clearer now.

Ah, I see. Thank you.

is appropriate.

All of this is eminently teachable and learnable.

Checking one's own comprehension.

Questions such as:

Am I right in thinking ...?

Would I be wrong if I assumed ...?

Should I assume that ...

etc.

are all ways to check that one has understood accurately.

Requesting repetition or reformulation.

Questions such as:

Could you go over that point again?

Could you explain again what ...?

Could you say that again?

etc.

ask for repetition and are requests, not questions.

Questions such as:

Could you put that another way?

Is there another way you could explain this?

Is that the same as saying ...?

etc.

ask for reformulation and are requests not questions.

Challenging.

Questions such as:

Is that always the case?

Are we to believe that ...?

How reliable are the data?

What evidence do we have that ...?

etc. are all ways of challenging the speaker to justify comments made.

They should be handled with care, even in low-power-distance settings such as listening to a peer's presentation.

Presenting

Sooner or later in most educational settings, students are expected to present data to their tutors and colleagues. This is, for the EAP learner, pretty scary.

There are ways to prepare learners for this kind of event whatever subject matter they are having to present. Usually, presentations are of two types:

Formal presentations to groups of peers (and the tutor(s)) in which the speaker takes a central position and is backed up by data, audio-visual aids and so on.

Less formal situations in which the learner is expected to present a prepared answer to colleagues and the tutor in a seminar setting.

Considerations are the same for both types of presentation.

Genre

Presentations will usually fall into one of these categories and their staging will be predictable and conventional. Straying from conventional staging will confuse and bewilder listeners. Longer and more complex presentations may embed, for example, discussion of controversies within an information report, but the general outlines of each type will be unaffected.

It is important to recognise that the conventional staging set out here concerns life in an English-speaking environment. Conventional

staging of generic categories is culturally variable so this has to be taught, not assumed.

Recount

A recount is intended to set out clearly what has happened. It is the format for reporting back on experiments conducted, surveys carried out and work done.

It works like this:

Orientation (what was done):

For example:

This survey was carried out to discover how the populations of seals in the sea off Malta has varied over the year.

Records of events (in chronological order):

For example:

The first measures were taken on [date] and further counts were made at monthly intervals until ...

Reorientation (a summary referring to what was done):

For example:

From the data we gathered, it is possible to see how the population has varied over the year. The data are ...

Coda (evaluation of results):

For example:

We feel that this data should be used by government in order to ...

Further studies will be needed to know if ...

Procedure

A procedure text (spoken or written) is intended to explain how something is done.

It works like this:

Goal (what the procedure is intended to achieve):

For example:

This presentation focuses on how meteorological measurements are taken and recorded.

Materials (what is required):

For example:

We need normally to have a pluviometer to record rainfall, a minimum-maximum thermometer to record temperatures, ...

Steps (in a logical sequence):

For example:

Setting up the equipment is done as follows ...

Measurements are taken by ...

Records are kept in the form of ...

Information report

An information report is intended to present data logically and has a simple structure although the ordering of information in the second stage needs careful attention.

It works like this:

General statement (identification of the subject):

For example:

Internet-enhanced learning may be defined as ...

Description (these data need to be logically categorised):

For example:

Most internet-enhanced learning programmes have three elements. The first is the transmission of data, the second is the ability to submit online assignments and the third is the ability to interact with teachers and other students. I'll take these in turn ...

Then the presentation will follow the pattern set out here by the speaker. Straying from it will confuse and irritate the audience.

Discussion

A discussion is intended to present both sides of a controversy and is more common in the humanities than the sciences.

It has two possible structures because stages two and three may be combined with the arguments for and against presented in pairs. It works like this:

Issue (what I am discussing):

For example:

Whether health care should remain free at the point of need is not a new controversy but ...

Arguments for (each point requires some exemplification):

For example:

A free healthcare service has four distinct advantages for society:

Firstly, it provides For example, ...

This section and the next may also include some consideration of causes and effects. There is a separate guide on this site concerning the ways English does this linked in the list of related guides at the end.

Arguments against (exemplified):

For example:

There are also four major drawbacks:

Firstly, the expense For example, a single cataract operation costs ...

Coda (this is an optional stage)

For example:

On the whole, I feel that ...

There is a fifth category which may be considered: exposition.

This is rarer because the speaker is presenting a one-sided argument, not discussing an issue objectively. The staging is similar to that of a discussion text except that the thesis to be argued comes at the beginning and one set of arguments, either those for or against, is excluded. The final coda is replaced by a statement reinforcing the speaker's thesis and is usually not optional.

There are some commonalities to consider when teaching this type of structuring and practising the skill of presenting.

All presentations begin with a statement of the topic: orientation, goal, identification of topic or issue to be discussed.

Logical staging is essential to maintain coherence: switching stages around or mixing them up will result in incoherence.

Most presentations will end with a summary and/or some kind of coda to signal the end.

Most presentations will allow time for and invite questions from the audience.

Many presentations will be followed by a general discussion in which turn-taking skills will be at a premium. See the link below for a guide to more on that.

Pressures

There are a number of pressures on anyone speaking in public. In the classroom, we can reduce them somewhat.

Preparation level

Off-the-cuff presentations are not for most people. Learners operating in a foreign language are even less able to present impromptu and it isn't fair to ask them to do so.

It is important, therefore to build in preparation time to any teaching programme aimed at presentation techniques.

Being well prepared and knowing that you are, reduces the pressure considerably.

Topic familiarity

Trying simultaneously to research a new topic and prepare a presentation on it is an unnecessary pressure in the classroom so care should be taken, especially at the beginning, to allow the learner to decide on the topic. That way, they can focus on the presentation not the data because the latter are well known to them.

Audience size

Pressure increases in direct ratio to audience size so one way to reduce the pressure is to get people to practise their presentations in small groups of three or four before they have to take the step up to presenting to the whole group. Repeating a presentation may seem somewhat dull to us but it is not seen that way by learners who appreciate the opportunity to repeat a presentation more than once.

Using visual aids

Visual aids can be extremely helpful or just an irritation depending on how well they are designed. There are two issues:

They act as an irritation when they are used instead of explanation and description; they are helpful when they are used to supplement explanation and description to present data which cannot (or should not) simply be read out. We have probably all attended a presentation in which the speaker projects a slogan and then reads it to us. That's a waste of everyone's time.

They have a further useful function when used well and that is to replace the speaker's notes. If, for example, slides are projected which refer to key data and ideas, they will serve to remind the speaker of what should be emphasised. If they are used indiscriminately, they simply overwhelm the audience with detail and people lose the thread. A rough rule of thumb is not to use more than one slide per five minutes of the presentation.

Language unfamiliarity

The first area of language which needs to be tackled before most people can even begin a presentation is that of verbalising graphical data.

Practising the skill of looking at, say, a graph such as:

bar chart

and being able to say something like

As can be seen, Series 3 remained around 2.0 for the first two Categories but increased by 50% in the third Category and had more than doubled by Category 4.

is valuable practice for anyone aiming to be able to present data verbally. We need to do more than show the data, we need to be able to explain them.

Secondly, learners need to master a range of pre-fabricated language to increase their fluency. Examples are:

To gather one's thoughts when questioned:

Well, let me see

Thank you for the question. It's an important one

Hmm, that's an interesting question

Well, now, what I can say is ...

To present a personal opinion (a coda, usually):

as far as I'm concerned

to my mind

in my view

as far as I can see

it seems to me that

To orientate the audience:

Now we can move on to the second issue

To summarise ...

The essential point is ...

Finally, ...

Another way of saying this is ...

An example of what I mean is ...

To invite questions:

I am happy to try to answer any questions you may have

Does anyone have a question they'd like to ask?

To deal with interruption:

I'll come to that at the end, if I may

I'll take that point later.

That's an interesting point but we don't have time for a full discussion now.

Visualising a presentation

A useful technique for EAP learners asked to give a presentation is to get them to visualise it before they deliver it. It has advantages:

It makes them less reliant on their notes, helping them to be more mobile and maintain eye contact with the audience

It increases their confidence because they will feel better prepared

It lets them see where they may need more content (or fewer PowerPoint slides)

It allows them to predict what people may ask and prepare some kind of answer

It works like this:

Step 1: learn the presentation

Learners should sit with their plan for the presentation and make sure they can, without looking at it, recite the essential stages of the talk. Depending on the genre (see above), this will require four or five stages to be recited.

Step 2: run through the stages

This is where the use of visual aids such as projected slides is most helpful. As was noted above, slides and other graphics can replace the speaker's notes altogether if they are confined to the key ideas in the talk.

Once the staging is clear and memorised, learners need to focus on what they will say at the beginning of the presentation

what they will say when displaying any data graphically (see above under language familiarity)

what they will say at the beginning of each stage

how they will signal transitions between stages

how they will signal the end and invite questions and comments

Step 3: reduce the notes

Learners can now re-visit their notes and reduce them to key words on cards. If this procedure has been followed to the end, they may not need the cards, but most people like some reassurance.

Step 4: visualise the whole presentation

The learners should now find somewhere comfortable to sit or lie and, with their eyes closed, visualise the whole presentation from start to finish. In particular, focusing on getting the order and staging right and going over in their minds the short language chunks they need to memorise to help them speak fluently

Step 5: questions

The final stage, before repeating Step 4 as often as necessary, is to try to imagine what questions people are likely to ask and how they will field them.

Delivering the presentation

There are a few logistical matters to attend to, not least:

Setting up the room appropriately and the presenter is comfortable with the arrangement.

Making sure the equipment is functioning as it should and knowing what to do if it doesn't.

Making sure everyone shows respect by turning up on time and being quiet and attentive. It'll be their turn soon.

Allowing for overrunning. Novice presenters, in any language, are often poor at knowing how long something will take. It's disturbing and can even be distressing to be hurried along or cut short.

Having a question or two in mind yourself to get the ball rolling at the end of the presentation.

Making sure the topic of the presentation is known to everyone in the group. This simulates what will happen when they attend lectures or lessons for real.

During and before any student-led presentation, we should not forego the opportunity for the other learners to practise their note-making skills and their questioning strategies. See the separate guide for the former and above for the latter.

Other speaking skills

That is obviously not the end of the range of speaking skills that learners will need when attending an English-speaking educational institution. However, most other speaking skills do not lie specifically in the realm of English for Academic Purposes. They include:

1. Cooperating in peer groups to get tasks done
2. starting tasks
3. planning
4. setting aims
5. agreeing
6. suggesting
7. negotiating
8. objecting
9. encouraging
10. volunteering
11. Interacting with authorities
12. getting permission
13. getting help
14. explaining
15. getting information

16. complaining
17. arranging
18. apologising
19. Socialising
20. Living in an English-speaking society

and all these skills will form just as much a part of a General English programme as they will form part of an EAP course.

ACTIVITIES FOR EAP LEARNERS

1. Fill in the gaps where needed with the words from the bracket below.

Tutorials Technical Reprocessing Listening linguistic confidence
 academic critical thinking culture Presentations acronyms factual

Students need good skills to interpret what people are saying in various situations. For example, they need to be able to understand the content of a lecture at the speed it is delivered. also require good listening skills, as do seminars, where students are expected to understand and build on the contributions of others. Other events include, discussions, meetings with tutors and supervisors, group projects, and informal social interactions. In addition, students need good listening skills to interact with administration staff in the local context. In short, students exchange, discuss and apply to a considerable amount of knowledge in oral/aural settings.

A lecture, for example, can present many challenges. These include speed of delivery, accent, academic and specialist vocabulary. There is also grammatical complexity such as false starts, long sentences, and complex noun phrases.

.....terms which can be difficult to hear, understand, pronounce, and spell: hemicraniectomy, thrombolysis

Words with dependent prepositions which express specific relational meanings: the impact on, of, of stroke on people

Complex / convoluted structures such as noun phrases: the very exciting acute treatment which has now emerged over the past ten years as I've said with thrombolysis and hemicraniectomy

Abbreviations and.....: AIDS, EU, TB

There are other challenges too, including, dealing with the content of the lecture, the cognitive processing of numbers and statistics, working out detail from the main points, and visual challenges such as the use of PowerPoint slides. Students also need to know why they are listening, and be able to make a record of the content for future use.

To deal with such challenges, EAP students and teachers need to work with good materials. Authentic texts and tasks are important because they build up students' competence and in listening.

EAP teachers can use the following sequence of tasks to develop their students' listening skills and language.

Task 1: Preparing for the lecture by reading a pre-lecture handout on the lecture topic

Task 2: Listening for essential factual information

Task 3: Academic language: a focused study of key language in the lecture, such as the language of association, speculation, and degree of certainty

Task 4: Listening for association and evaluation in the lecture

Task 5: information from a lecture using notes

2. Match the tips/descriptions of reading techniques with their names.

Scanning Often the most effective strategy for increasing reading pace is to avoid reading every word. If you just want to know whether a text is worth reading in more detail, you can survey the text by reading about the author, looking at the title, introduction, etc.

Skimming This technique means looking through it quickly to find specific information. It is commonly used in everyday life, for example when looking up a word in a dictionary or finding your friend's name in the contacts directory of your phone.

Note-taking This technique means reading it quickly in order to get the main idea or gist of the text. It is concerned with finding general information, namely the main ideas, while scanning involves looking for specific information.

Speed Reading

Writing down precise and most essential parts of the needed information, which can be divided into before, while and after procedures.

3. Put the stages below in an order of importance or procedure initiation.

- A. Requesting repetition or reformulation.
- B. Checking one's own comprehension.
- C. Discussion
- D. Selection and constraint
- E. Presenting
- F. Open-ended invitation
- G. Using visual aids
- H. Forming the question
- I. Asking questions
- J. Delivering the presentation
- K. Challenging.
- L. Recognising the signals

4. Working in small groups of 4 and Simulation of Speaking Skills:

cooperating in peer groups to get tasks done starting tasks planning setting aims agreeing	Suggesting negotiating objecting encouraging volunteering
Interacting with authorities getting permission getting help explaining getting information	Complaining arranging apologising socialising creating an English-speaking environment

5. Match the words which are used and underlined in the text, (1-8) with their definitions below (a-h):

1. Comprehension a) the same origin as claimed

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 2. Supplemental audience | b) a speech given in front of an audience |
| 3. Verbally | c) through understanding |
| 4. Undergraduate | d) belonging to an academy |
| 5. Authentic | e) acting to supplement |
| 6. Academic | f) student at university who has not yet received a degree |
| 7. Intelligibility | g) concerned with the words |
| 8. Presentation | h) understandability of speech |

MATERIALS EVALUATION

After completed our need analysis and course design, the next step that should be done by the teacher is deciding what they will do. Teacher may turn the course design into actual teaching materials. There are three possible ways of turning the course design into actual teaching materials:

1. Select from existing materials: materials evaluation
2. Write our own materials: material development.
3. Modify existing materials: materials adaptation.

In this section, we concern to discuss the first point “Material Evaluation”. The techniques and a lot in terms of ideas of evaluating the existing materials can be found in this chapter.

1. Why Evaluate Materials?

According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987) stated that evaluation is a matter of judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose. Evaluation concerns on the relative merit. There is no absolute good or bad, only degrees of fitness for the required purpose. It means that, when the teacher does materials evaluation, the evaluation is based on the required purpose or goal that would be reached by the students. In another word, according to Hutchinson & Waters (1987) stated that in any kind of evaluation, the decision finally made is likely to be the better for being based on a systematic check of all the important variables. In doing the evaluation materials, the writer probably get a negative and positive impact. The negative side of evaluation materials is the teacher probably spent a lot of expense, time, and probably getting frustrated. On the other hand, the positive side of evaluation

materials is; it can also help in justifying request of the sponsors or other members of an ESP team for money to buy materials or time to write them.

2. How do you evaluate materials?

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) stated that “evaluation is basically a matching process: matching needs to available solutions”. In order to match the needs and solutions, the matching should be done as objective as possible. It means that teachers have to look the needs of students and the solution separately. In the final analysis, any choice will be made on subjective grounds. However, if subjectivity influence your judgement, it may blind you to possible alternatives. For example: teacher might reject a particular textbook, because the teacher does not like the picture on the cover or dislike functional syllabuses but it does not mean that the book does not suit the needs of parties. Thus, teachers should not let subjectivity too much influence their judgement in the early stages of analysis when evaluating materials to be taught. Process of evaluation can be divided into four major steps

- 1) Defining criteria
- 2) Subjective analysis
- 3) Objective analysis
- 4) Matching

The first two stages will be done in course design stage. While the other two stage is done as the continuation of the subjective analysis where teacher have to evaluate or develop their material through objective analysis. From these process, teacher will be easier to know how far the material match the needs.

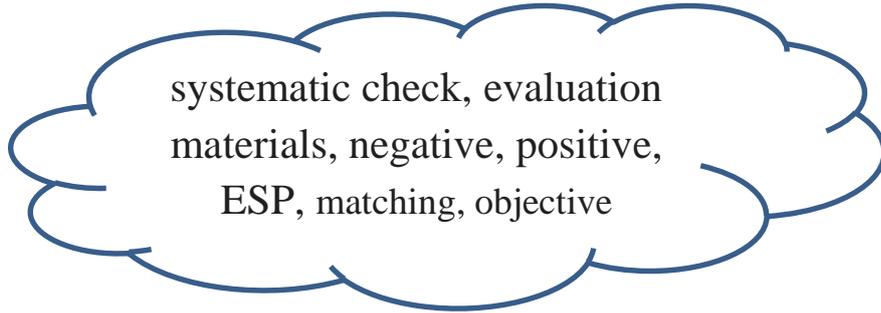
To sum up, we can conclude from the materials about materials evaluation as following:

We observed the materials evaluation as one way of exploiting a course design. The evaluation process should be systematic. The evaluation process is best seen as a matching exercise: matching your analyzed needs with available solutions. It can save a lot of duplication of effort by possibly revealing materials that can provide all or part of your materials needs.

I. *Answer the following questions*

1. What is material evaluation?
2. Why do we need to evaluate materials?
3. How do you evaluate materials?

II. Fill in the gaps by using given words



According to Hutchinson & Waters stated that evaluation is the decision finally made is likely to be the better for being based on a 1) of all the important variables. In doing the 2), the writer probably get a 3) and impact. The negative side of evaluation materials is the teacher probably spent a lot of expense, time, and probably getting frustrated. On the other hand, the positive side of evaluation materials is that it can also help in justifying request of the sponsors or other members of an 4) team for money to buy materials or time to write them. Furthermore, they stated that "Evaluation is basically a 5) process: matching needs to available solutions". In order to match the needs and solutions, the matching should be done as 6) as possible.

III. Read the text again and write your overview

Materials Adaptation

Materials adaptation means matching materials with the learner's needs, the teacher's demands and administration's purpose. To adapt materials we have to consider five major factors:

- 1. Addition:** Addition is an adaptation procedure which involves supplementation of extra linguistic items and activities to make up for the inadequacy/ insufficiency of materials. Addition of extra materials is necessary/applicable/appropriate when the following situations are faced:

- Areas are not covered sufficiently.
- Texts/pictures/tasks are not provided.
- Texts/pictures/tasks are fewer than needed.
- Tasks are limited in scope.
- Tasks are of limited range.

2. Deletion/omission: Deletion is an adaptation procedure which involves removal of some of the linguistic items and activities which are found to be extra and unnecessary. So, deletion is a process in which materials are taken out rather than added. Materials should be reduced through omission when the following situations are faced:

- Learners are clear about a language point.
- Learners are competent in a skill.
- There are too many tasks on a particular area/point.
- The item/area concerned is not a priority.
- The item/task is not well designed.
- The item/task is not well-suited to its aim(s).
- The topic is not appropriate for learners.

3. Modification/changing: Modification means changes in different aspects of materials, such as linguistic level, exercises, assessment system and so on. Modification of materials is applicable/appropriate in the following situations:

- Texts are of inappropriate length.
- Materials are inappropriate to the aim.
- Materials are inappropriate to the learners' age/ experience.
- Materials are unclear, confusing or misleading.
- Tasks are badly designed.

4. Simplification: This procedure is employed to make materials less complicated or easier to understand. If the language teaching material is found to be difficult or mechanical for the target learner, it (material) can be made suitable for the learner through the process of simplification.

5. Rearrangement/re-ordering: Rearrangement is a procedure of materials adaptation through which different parts of a course book are arranged in a different order or sequence. Rearrangement of materials helps to make them comparatively more interesting and

appropriate for the learner as well as the teacher. Learners may reorder materials by:

- Matching their aims.
- Using a practice task for lead-in and elicitation.
- Revising an area earlier than the course book does.
- Comparing and contrast areas.
- Providing thematic unity.
- Providing an appropriate follow-up.

MATERIALS DESIGN

Defining objectives

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.

A materials design model

a. Input

This maybe a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending on the needs you have defined in your analysis.

The input provides a number of things:

- Stimulus material for activities
- New language items
- Correct models of language use
- A topic for communication
- Opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills
- Opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter

b. Content focus

Language is not an end in itself, but a means of transferring information and feelings about something. Non-linguistic content should be exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom.

c. Language focus

Our aim is to enable learners to use language, but it is unfair to give learners communicative tasks and activities for which they do not have enough language knowledge. In language focus, learners have the chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practice putting it back together again.

d. Task

The ultimate purpose of language learning is language use. Materials should be designed to lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

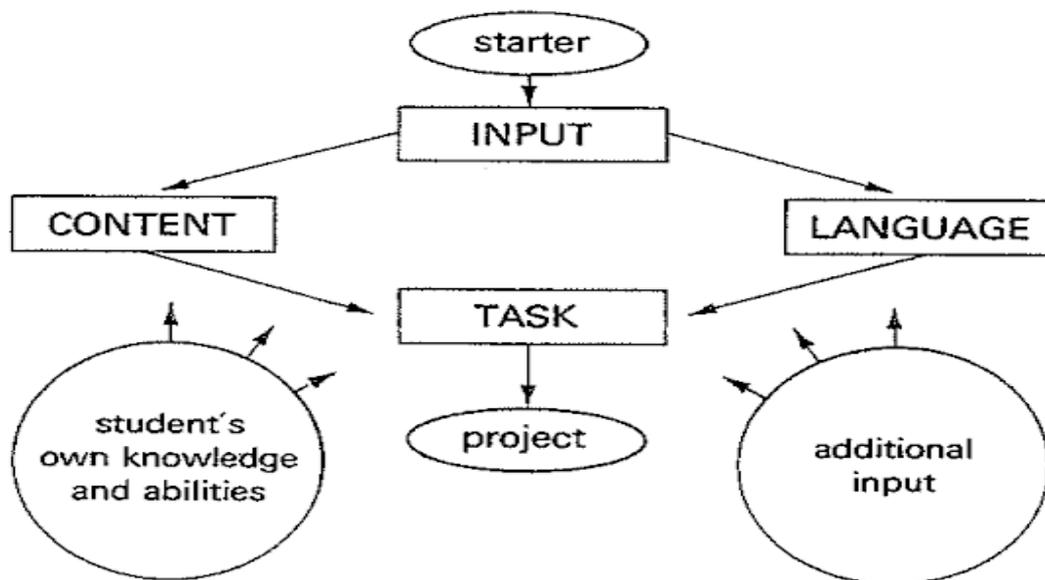
These four elements combine in the model as follows

- The primary focus of the unit is task

- The language and content are drawn from the input and are selected according to what the learners will need in order to do the task.
- It follows that an important feature of the model is to create coherence in terms of both language and content throughout the unit.
- This provides the support for more complex activities by building up a fund of knowledge and skills.

Refining the Model

A number of possible refinements to the model can be seen in the unit above. We can relate these points to the nucleus of the model to provide an extended model like this:



Materials and the Syllabus

We know 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 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.

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.

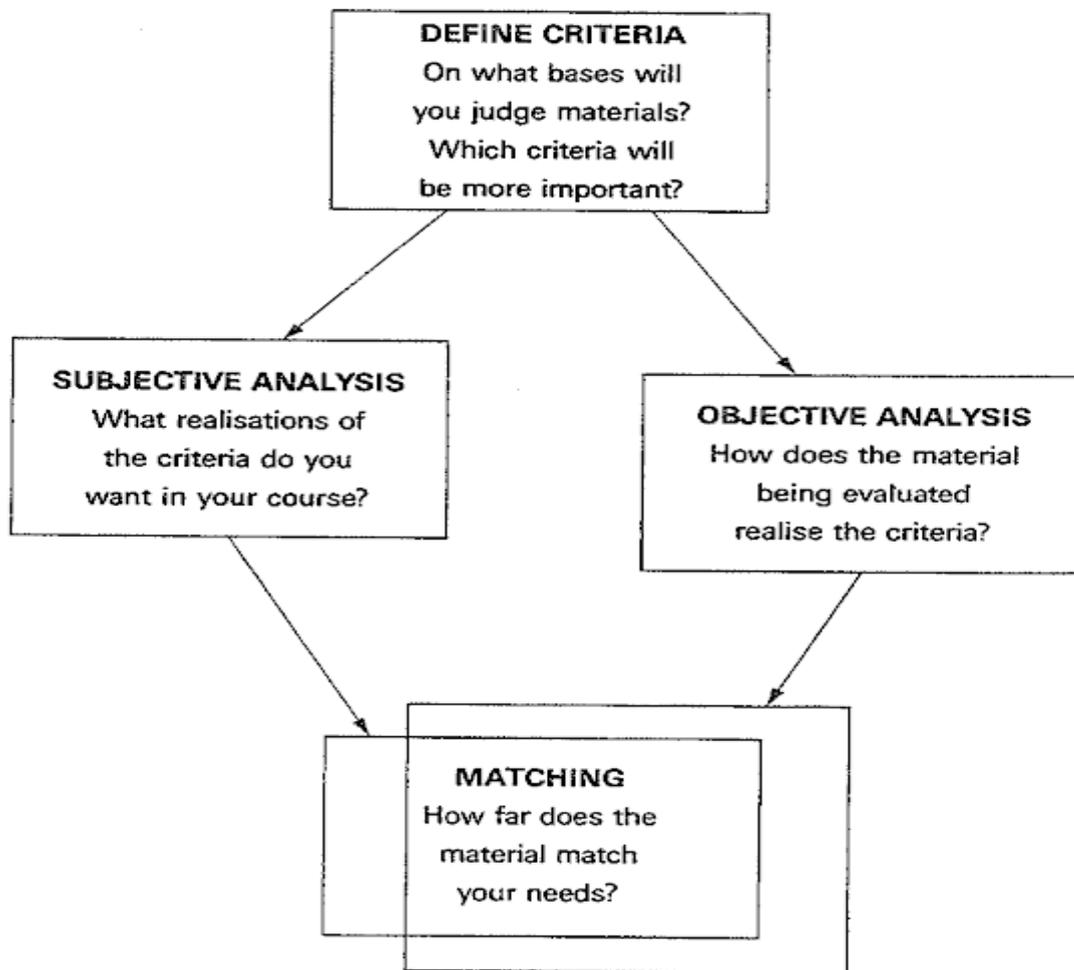


Figure 26: The materials evaluation process

b) *Evaluative*. This kind of model acts as feedback device to tell you whether you have done what you intended. The syllabus/unit interface model 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.

Using The Model: A Case Study

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:

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.

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

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?

Stage 4. Decide the language structure, vocabulary, and functions that are appropriate to the task and useful for the learners. Here we identify name of parts, present active and etc.

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.

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?

Stage 7. 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.

Stage 8. We need to check new material against syllabus and amend accordingly.

Stage 9. Here we try the material in the classroom.

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.

The factors of materials design

Materials are anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including course books, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions. They can be informative (informing the learner about the target language), instructional (guiding the learner in practicing the language), experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use), eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language) and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language). Ideally materials should be developed for learning rather

than for teaching and they should perform all the functions specified above.

Materials design is a practical undertaking involving the production, evaluation, adaptation and exploitation of materials intended to facilitate language acquisition and development. It is also a field of academic study investigating the principles and procedures of the design, writing, implementation, evaluation and analysis of learning materials. Ideally materials development practitioners and materials development researchers interact and inform each other through conferences, publications. In the past materials development practitioners were either teachers with little awareness of applied linguistics or applied linguists with little awareness of teaching and learning. Nowadays there are many materials development experts who have considerable experience and expertise as teachers, as materials development practitioners and as materials development researchers and there have been a number of conferences recently in which materials development principles and procedures have been both discussed in theory and demonstrated in action.

There have been a number of movements which have attempted to develop materials free approaches to the teaching of languages but it is commonly accepted that in most language classrooms throughout the world most lessons are still based on materials. Richards (2001), 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 course books and that no course book can meet the needs and wants of every (or even any) class. This means that “Every teacher is a materials developer” 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 practicing 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.

I. *Answer the questions before reading the article.*

You should work as a team. Students should be divided into three groups. Merely, one member should represent his/her ideas after discussion. You should exchange your perspectives with another group accordingly too.

- WHAT ARE MATERIALS?
- WHAT IS MATERIALS DESIGN?
- WHY IS MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT IMPORTANT?

II. *While reading, try to answer questions and write them below. Every student should do this task individually.*

III.

1. What can be examples of materials?

2. What is the importance of material development in learning?

3. Who were materials development practitioners?

4. Who are materials development experts?

5. What are instructional materials?

6. What can teachers do to implement the materials chosen for classroom use?

III. Find whether the following sentences are true or false.

1. Materials are only course books, flash cards, games and mobile phone interactions.

2. Materials can be informative instructional, experiential, eliciting and exploratory.

3. In the past materials development practitioners were teachers or linguists.

4. Course books can meet the needs and wants of every (or even any) class.

5. Most teachers are materials developers.

6. Materials development can be a beneficial way of helping teachers to apply theories of language learning and to achieve personal and professional development.

Used literature:

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