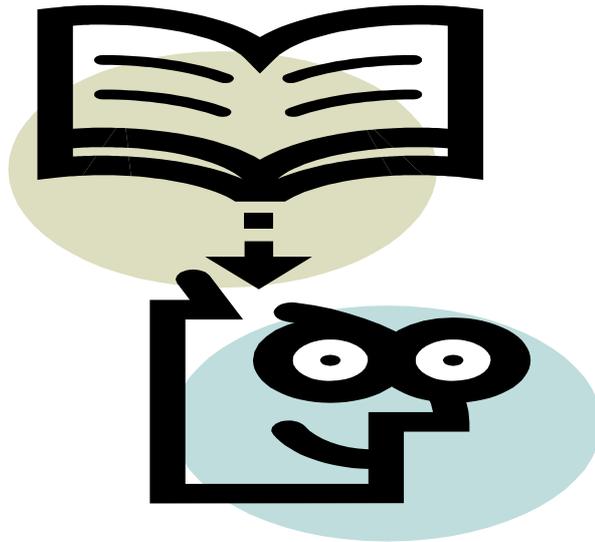


**O`ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O`RTA
MAXSUS TA`LIM VAZIRLIGI**

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õIngliz tili ö kafedrası



KASBGA YO`NALTIRILGAN INGLIZ TILINI O`QITISH

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Lecture One.

Introduction. Classification of ESP.

- *Overview*
- *A definition of ESP*
- *Classification of ESP*
- *Carrier content and real content*
- *Roles of the ESP practitioner*

1. Overview

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes has generally been seen as a separate activity within English Language Teaching (ELT), and ESP research as an identifiable component of applied linguistic research. We believe that for some of its teaching ESP has developed its own methodology, and its research clearly draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics.

The study of languages for specific purposes has had a long and interesting history going back, some would say, as far as the Roman and Greek Empires. Since the 1960s, ESP has become a vital and innovative activity within the Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second Language movement. ESP activity used to be closely associated with projects led, and usually staffed, by expatriate British, North American or Australasian teachers, often in large numbers. Projects in the Middle East, in Iran (Bates, 1978), Kuwait and Saudi Arabia for instance, are good examples.

2. A definition of ESP

ESP is a part of a more general movement of teaching Language for Specific Purposes (LSP). LSP has focused on the teaching of languages such as French and German for specific purposes, as well as English. We will begin by looking at three definitions ESP in the literature, and then give our own.

- 1) Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP rather than a product, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. They suggest that the foundation of ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context, and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP.
- 2) Strevens (1988) definition of ESP makes a distinction between four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English Language Teaching which is:
 - Designed to meet specified needs of the learners;
 - Related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
 - Centered on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and so on, and analysis of the discourse;
 - In contrast with "General English".

The variable characteristics are that ESP

- May be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only)
 - May not be taught according to any pre-ordinate methodology.
- 3) Robinson (1991) also accepts the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition is based on two key defining criteria and a number of characteristics that are

generally found to be true of ESP. Her key criteria are that ESP is normally goal-directed, and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English. Her characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period, in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in homogeneous classes in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

In our definition we use absolute and variable characteristics. Our definition is:

1. Absolute characteristics:

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;

ESP is centered on the language, lexis, register, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

2. Variable characteristics:

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assumed basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Task 1b

Discuss whether, according to our definition, the following courses constitute ESP courses. Give reasons for your decision:

1. A course in remedial grammar for business people, with each unit based on a particular grammatical weakness identified by tests.
2. A course that teaches undergraduate engineering students from various branches (civil, electrical, mechanical etc.) to write reports on design projects.
3. A course that teaches reading skills to a group of postgraduate students from a range of disciplines, studying in a British university. The texts used are of a general academic nature, but are exploited to teach specific reading skills.
4. A course designed to prepare students for the Cambridge FCE examination. The course is based on a careful analysis of the contents of the test.
5. A course designed to teach social English to a group of business people. The level of the students English is intermediate.
6. A course team-taught with a subject lecturer that helps postgraduates of a particular discipline understand departmental lectures.

3. Classification of ESP

ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). According to Robinson classification, it has the division into EAP and EOP, a useful division of courses. 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 course 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. 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-professional in work or pre-work situations. We may thus distinguish between studying the language and discourse of, for example, medicine for academic purposes, which is designed for medical students, and studying for occupational purposes, which is designed for practicing doctors.

Within English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) there are two subsections: Vocational English, which is concerned with the language of training for specific trades or occupations, and Pre-Vocational English, which is concerned with finding a job and interview skills. It also deals with succeeding in a job through an understanding of employer expectations and policies.

Specific and motivation

There are clear advantages in setting up an ESP course where students have specific needs. Strevens (1988) summarizes the advantages of ESP with the following four points:

- Being focused on the learner's need, it wastes no time;
- It is relevant to the learner;
- It is successful in imparting learning;
- It is more cost-effective than 'General English'

3. Carrier content and real content

While discussing the question of specificity in ESP, it is important that we clarify the role of the actual content. The notions of 'carrier content' and 'real content' are essential to the understanding of ESP work and to an understanding of motivation in ESP. In ESP, any teaching activity, whether its aim is to teach language or skills, is presented in a context.

Thus in the following short extract from Nucleus: General Science the aim of the exercise is to present and practice the expressions of time sequence used in the description of process and cycles. It makes use of the context of the life cycle of a plant in order to present this language. It is not the aim of the exercise to teach students about the life cycle, although certain lexical items such as *fertilized* or *decomposes* may be useful.

Stages in the life cycle of a plant

Look at these examples:

Preceding actions:

Before the plant *germinates*, it is watered.

Before } germination, the seed is watered.
Prior to }

Following actions:

After the plant *germinates*, the roots and leaves develop.

After germination, the roots and leaves develop.

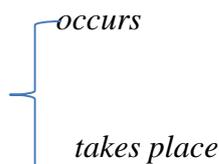
Simultaneous actions:

As the plant germinates, the seed swells.

During germination, the seed swells.

And this example:

After the seed is watered, germination



5. Roles of the ESP practitioner

It will already be clear that we regard ESP teaching as extremely varied, and for this reason we use the term ‘practitioner’ rather than ‘teacher’ to emphasize that ESP work involves much more than teaching. We see the ESP practitioner as having five key roles:

- Teacher
- Course designer and materials provider
- Collaborator
- Researcher
- Evaluator

The ESP practitioner as teacher

ESP is a practical discipline with the main focus on helping students to learn. With the ‘common-core’ EGAP or EGP courses that we mentioned earlier the methodology of ESP teaching may not differ radically from that of General English. But there is one basic difference that affects the methodology and becomes more pronounced as the teaching becomes specific: This is that the teacher is not in the position of being the ‘primer knower’ of the carrier content of the material.

The ESP practitioner as course designer and materials provider

ESP practitioner often has to plan the course they teach and provide the materials for it. It is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material, and sometimes no really suitable published material exists for certain of the identified needs. The role of ESP teachers as ‘providers of materials’ involves choosing suitable published material, adapting material when published is not suitable, or even writing material where nothing suitable exists.

The ESP practitioner as researcher

ESP teacher need to be aware of and in touch with this research. Those carrying out a needs analysis, designing a course, or writing teaching materials need to be able to incorporate the

findings of the research, and those working in specific ESP situations need to be confident that they know what is involved in skills such as written communication. An ESP practitioner has to go beyond the first stage of Needs Analysis- Target Situation Analysis which identifies key target events, skills and texts to observe as far as possible the situations in which students use the identified skills, and analyze sample of the identified texts. As part of this process, ESP teachers generally need to be able to carry out research to understanding the discourse of the texts that students use.

The ESP learner/practitioner as a collaborator.

We have already argued for the importance of specific works as part an ESP program. We believe that subject specific work is often best approached through collaboration with subject specialists. This may involve simply cooperation in which the ESP teacher finds out about the subject syllabus in academic context or the tasks the students have to carry out in a work or business situation. Alternatively, it may involve specific collaboration so that there is some integration between specialist studies or activities. This might involve relating the reading component of EAP course to the actual content of a subject course by exploiting texts in English that [present additional relevant material, in other words the subject teacher provides the carrier content for the English course.

A third possibility is that a specialist checks and comments on the content of teaching materials that the ESP teacher has prepared. The fullest collaboration is where a subject expert and a language teacher team teach classes. In EAP such lessons might help with the understanding of subject lectures or the writing of examination answers, essays or theses.

The ESP practitioner as evaluator.

The ESP practitioner is often involved in various types of evaluation, including both the testing of students and the evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Tests are conducted to assess whether students have the requisite language and skills to undertake a particular academic course or career, and usually but not necessarily at the end of the course- the level of their achievement.

The first role is important in countries such as the UK, USA, Australia and New Zealand, where large number of international students do postgraduate courses or research. For the purpose of assessing whether these students will be able to cope from a language point of view, a number of internationally recognized and validated tests exist, notably the British and Australian International English Language Testing Service (IELTS), Test in ESOL and the American TOEFL test. All but the TOEFL test have an ESP orientation.

Questions:

- 1. Which of the above roles do already undertake?**
- 2. What would you need to feel confident in each role?**
- 3. What is role of ESP practitioner as course designer?**
- 4. Who is the ESP learner- practitioner as a collaborator?**
- 5. What is the Classification of ESP?**
- 6. Speak about Carrier content and real content?**
- 7. Give definition to ESP learning?**
- 8. What is your own opinion about the researchers` ideas on ESP?**

LECTURE 2. A Historical perspective on ESP.

- *The balance between research and practice*
- *Trends in English for Academic Purposes*
- *Authenticity of text and authenticity of purpose.*
- *Trends of English for occupational purposes*

1. Aims

In this chapter we wish to trace the development of ESP, from its origins in the 19620s to the situation today, at the turn of the millennium. This involves looking closely at the interaction between Applied Linguistics, ELT and ESP, the relationship between theory and practice in ESP and the teaching materials that have been developed. We will also show how ESP has been influenced by developments in education, business and computer technology.

2. The balance between research and practice

ESP is essentially a materials and teaching led movement. It has been influenced by developments and changes in Applied Linguistics and ELT, but as a lively ambitious, young movement within ELT it has also had considerable influence on ELT. ESP was, for example, very influential in showing how to communicate language curriculum could be turned into either a functional- notional syllabus or task based syllabus.

The original flowering of the ESP movement resulted from general developments in the world economy in the 1950s and 1960s. The growth of the technology and science, the increased use of English as the international language of science, technology and business, the increased economic power of certain oil- rich countries and the increased numbers of international students studying in the UK, USA and Australia. The idea of language for specific purposes however has been around for a long time.

Hovaat (1984) agrees that the need for commercial English for incoming Huguenot and other Protestant refugees to England in the 16th century led to a focus on Business English in early ELT and that actual textbooks on 'Commercial English' and business letter writing were a feature of ELT from the 19 century.

It was undoubtedly in the mid- to late 1960s, however that various influences came together to generate the need and enthusiasm for developing ESP as a discipline. The relationship between theory and materials in ESP is fascinating to trace. ESP was given its initial impetus by work in the area of register analyses which looked at the grammar of scientific and technical writing, and pointed to certain areas of priority for teaching and materials production.

Subsequently much material was produced as a result of the practitioner engaging with the teaching situation, carrying out a limited text analysis and then writing a handout of series of handouts. This activity may then have been written up and published as an article forming the basis of more extensive research.

This indicates that, ESP has at some points in its history drawn on more theoretical work in Applied Linguistics at other times it has been ahead of Applied linguistics, and ESP experience in needs analyses and materials productions has fed into theoretical work.

2. Trends in English for Academic Purposes

We will look at the various trends in ESP under four headings- Register Analysis, Rhetorical and Discourse analysis, analysis of study skills, Analysis of learning needs- and illustrate through published teaching materials how these movements have influenced ESP.

A) Register analysis

The work of register analysis focused on the grammar and vocabulary of scientific and technical English using what Swales refers to as an approach based on -lexicostatistics. The assumption was that, while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ that of General English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently. Thus the predominant tense is the present simple and the passive voice is used much more frequently than in General English but not more frequently than the active voice.

The significant ESP textbook A.J.Herbert`s The structure of technical English, was published in 1965. The book was designed for students who have studied some English but need training in the special structures and linguistic conventions of the English used in technical and scientific writing so that they may be able to follow the current literature in English in their particular SUBJECT. As Swales remarks The structure of the technical English was driven by the linguistic analyses that underpinned it. The coverage of language, especially semi- technical vocabulary has been admire, but as a textbook for classroom use it left a lot to be desired.

B) Rhetorical and Discourse analysis

While the work of Barber and other lexicostatistics examined the language of specific registers, it offered very little explanation of why certain grammatical patterns are favored by the English neither of science and Technology, nor of how sentences are combined to form paragraphs and whole texts or discourses. The pioneering work in this area was done by Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble later book English for Science and Technology: Trimble defines rhetoric as the process a writer uses to produce a desired piece of text and an EST text as concerned only with the presentation of facts. He suggests that, a writer needs to organize a text at four rhetorical levels:

- level A- the objectives of the total discourse ;
- level B- the general rhetoric functions that develop the A level functions;
- level C- the specific rhetorical functions that develop the general ones;
- level D- the rhetorical techniques that provide relationships between the level C functions;

This work introduced the idea of relating language form to language use, making use the main criterion for the selection of ESP teaching materials.

C) Analysis of study skills

The interest in skills seemed to develop fairly naturally from the functional- notional materials we have discussed and was consistent with the ideas of communicative language teaching. The growth of needs analysis, a trend that ran parallel with the rise of the skills approach, identified priorities amongst the four skills for a given situation. The main principle of these skills based courses was that the teaching of language in itself is not

sufficient for the development of the ability to perform the tasks required of a tertiary level student a business person or a practicing engineer. These thought process may either be fairly general, relating to all academic or professional activity or specific to a particular discipline or profession. There is a clever overlap with related work in teaching study skills to native speakers. The skills were taught using general carrier content, and reading or listening passages were chosen on the basis of general academic interest and authenticity.

We will exemplify this movement with an extract from the reading skills course *Skills for learning*. We have not included the whole section, but we will mention briefly the Task that rounds it off. Hutchinson and Waters explain that the task provides a clear objective for the learner and so help to break up the often bewildering mass of the syllabus by establishing landmarks of achievement (emphasis added).

The course focuses on certain specific skills associated with reading such as getting to know the main parts of a book getting familiar with non-linear texts, learning to accept difficult words, reading for relevant information, using contextual information, assessing how much to read.

Hutchinson and Waters` various papers indicate the consolidation of ESP work, but also, more significantly, a recognition that some of the accepted ideas of ESP needed rethinking. They have perhaps been particularly influential in their definition of what they consider ESP should not be. They say that:

- ESP is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English;
- ESP is not just a matter of Science words and grammar for Scientists;
- ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching in that it would be based in the first instance on principles of effective and efficient teaching;

3. Authenticity of text and authenticity of purpose.

One issue that caused a good deal of controversy in the development of ESP was the question of whether texts used for reading, listening and writing exercise should be authentic or not. The exact meaning of authenticity has often been unclear. Many have used it with reference to unsimplified or genuine texts that were used in ESP materials but were originally written for purposes other than language teaching. Others have recognized that texts do not guarantee relevance and that a text is only truly authentic if it is exploited in ways that reflect real world use.

In all the textbooks we have described, ideas for the texts were taken from academic contexts but the texts either simplified or, as in the Focus or Nucleus series, specially written. Others argued that students need to be exposed to authentic texts and develop strategies for reading long, complex and unsimplified texts if they are to be able to develop independence in their study skills. They also suggested that texts simplified or specially written by ESP teachers may misconstrue the career content or write in unnatural and inappropriate language.

A key aspect of authenticity is the level of the text exploited in the ESP class. An unsimplified text on a science topic designed for school pupils just beginning to study science is a genuine text, but is not an authentic text for university level students, as these students will not be able to use it to confirm or extend their knowledge of the topic they are studying on their course.

4. Trends of English for occupational purposes

The influences described under trends in EAP were also present in the EOP courses of the late 1960s and early 1970s. Courses were at that time largely concerned with written language. The early commercial correspondence courses taught standard letter formats for business transactions ranging from general complaints and request for information to specifics such as import/export arrangements. The underlying construct involved model letters to copy, specialized vocabulary and the standard, formal clichéd phrases of the time. The emphasis on specialized vocabulary was also seen in other materials where texts, including dialogues, were accompanied by glossaries of difficult terms and a few comprehension questions.

The approach was definitely based on the linguistic system rather than the use of the language. Rightly or wrongly, the assumption at this stage those learners had a good grasp of language forms, after four or five of school English classes, so that what was needed were words and expressions that occurred in work situation. Many of these materials were designed for use with commerce, secretarial and business students. The first set of materials to adopt the business studies approach of case studies was published in this period. Agenda (1980) comprised cases for discussion with a separate workbook and a cassette to provide language practice.

These materials assumed little knowledge and no practical experience. Gradually an understanding of the different needs of learners with job experience led to new materials; from the mid 1980s there are materials based on business communication situation such as meetings and telephone conversation.

There is more general recognition that language teaching needs to take on board the business context within which communication takes place. In the more closely linked business world that has resulted from developments in technology such as telecommunications, computer networking, e-mail. And video conferencing, it is vital for people to communicate effectively across borders and to bridge cultural gaps. Cross cultural communication requires awareness and sensitivity to the diversity of values and customs around the world.

Questions:

- 1. What is the balance between research and practice?**
- 2. Find information about flowering periods of ESP development.**
- 3. What are Rhetorical and Discourse analysis?**
- 4. What are levels and give definition?**
- 5. What are the differences between Authenticity of text and authenticity of purpose?**
- 6. What are main factors of developing materials for ESP?**
- 7. Describe the specific character of Trends of English for occupational purposes**
- 8. Give your own feedback on scientists' views about ESP teaching and teachers' role?**

LECTURE 3

English for Academic Purposes

- *Four types of EAP situation.*
- *EAP in English ó speaking country.*
- *EAP in ESL situations.*
- *EAP situations in which certain subjects are taught in English.*
- *EAP situations where subject courses are taught in the national language.*
- **Engaging with the disciplines.**

3.1. Aims

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) refers to any English teaching that relates to a study purpose. Students whose first language is not English may need help with both the language of academic disciplines and the specific study skills required of them during their academic course. The study skills may involve any of the main skills (see chapter 6) depending on the context. It is very important to be aware of how, as the study situation changes, the emphasis on different skills also needs to change. The key aspect here is the extent to which either English or the national language is used as the medium of instruction for courses.

EAP has sometimes been seen as one movement within ESP; we shall suggest that there are four different types of situation and that teachers need to look very carefully at accounts of courses and materials before deciding whether they are relevant to their own situations. We will also look in detail at ways in which the language teacher can take the initiative in developing cooperation with departments.

3.2. Four types of EAP situation.

The key determinant of what an EAP course should contain is whether or not the subject course is taught in English. In this regard there are four types of situation, exemplified here using tertiary level institutions. Some features may also apply to the teaching of English at secondary school level, where, particularly in the senior, immediately pre-university classes, English courses will have EAP components. We will, however, focus here on the tertiary level. Teachers need to think carefully about whether the success claimed for one kind of situation will transfer to another. For example, materials teaching note ó taking from lectures on a pre ó sessional course in a British university are unlikely to be relevant to teaching, note ó making for reading in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) situation.

As illustrated in table 3.I, the four types of situation are:

1. An English ó speaking country, such as UK or USA.
2. An English ó as ó a ó Second ó Language (ESL) situation where English is the official language of education and is widely spoken, as in former British colonies in Africa or South East Asia. (We are using ESL in the specific British sense referring to this kind of situation, as opposed to the more general American use of the term, which applies to all EFL\ESL teaching.)
3. A situation in which certain subjects, such as medicine, engineering or science, are officially taught in English, while for other subjects and at other levels of education the national language is used.

4. A situation where all subject courses are taught in the national language, but English may be important for ancillary reasons.

3.2.1. EAP in English ó speaking country.

It has long been traditions that universities in English ó speaking countries accept large numbers of international students, and they have generally set up English Language Units charged with the responsibility of helping such students reach their full academic potential. Teaching is done both on pre ó sessional and is ó sessional courses. The pre ó sessional courses generally run for between 4 and I 2 weeks prior to the beginning of the academic year and focus on both academic language and the study skills related to all the main skills. The courses aim to prepare students for the studies they are about to embark upon. The focus is therefore on common ó core academic language and skills; some more specific work is usually included, but cannot be very extensive as the pre ó session is a pre ó study course. In session work, however, runs is parallel with the subject courses and therefore provides the opportunity for integrated subject ó language teaching and more specific work on the key skills of academic listening, writing and reading, as well as more common ó core EAP courses.

3.2.2 EAP in ESL situations.

An increasing amount of EAP work is being done in Anglophone countries in Africa such as Zimbabwe, Nigeria and the new South Africa (not strictly Anglophone but using English for much tertiary education), and in South ó East Asian countries, such as Singapore, Philippines and to some extent., Malaysia. In these countries (with the exception of Malaysia.) English is used throughout the education system, in most cases from the primary school level, in others from the secondary level. The language level may, in fact, be quite high, but it has been found that many students in these situations need help with adjusting to the demands made of them when they begin an undergraduate course. This is particularly the case with students from rural areas who may well have had rather less exposure to English and may have been less well taught at school level.

Students` need are in the area of study skills and in adjusting to the abstract nature of the language of theory or model building which they may be encountering on a large scale for the first time at the beginning of an academic course. Their academic tuition up to tertiary level will generally have been in the idea of General English, and is unlikely to have included specific preparation for study at university level. It has been often remarked that the needs of such students span the needs of non- native speakers in need of developing communication skills. The most successful communication skills courses in ESL countries make use of a combination of ideas from EAP tradition and the communication skills for native speakerø tradition. A course at Nanyang Technological institute identifies the following three key objectives, which are based on the recommendations and advice of professional bodies and consultants.

1. to communicate technical and business information effectively in the work and academic setting in several modes: written, oral, audio- visual, and graphic.
2. to adapt material prepared in one form for presentation in another for example to adapt a written business proposal for a boardroom presentation.

3.2.3 EAP situations in which certain subjects are taught in English.

In many countries, notably in the Middle East, English is used as the medium of instruction for certain subjects, particularly medicine, engineering and some science subjects. What distinguishes these situations from those in the African and South or East Asian countries described above is that there is no particular or general tradition of English as a medium of education in the country and the school system mostly uses the national language to teach all subjects. Thus students have to make the adjustment from studying all subjects in their national language at school level to studying subjects in their national language at school level to studying subjects such as science, medicine and engineering in English at tertiary level. This has led some countries to include some EAP work in the English curriculum at upper secondary school level (see for example a description of the use of an ESP textbook in Egyptian secondary schools).

3.2.4. EAP situations where subject courses are taught in the national language.

Our final situation is where the subject courses are taught in the national language but English is included on the timetable. In many situations, for example in Latin America, countries in South East Asia such as Thailand and Indonesia, in mainland Western Europe, Eastern Europe and Scandinavia, the medium of instruction is normally the national language.

In South America, EAP has often been referred to as Technical English (Ingles Instrumental) and the courses have focused almost exclusively on reading. In Chile and Colombia, university-specific projects led to the writing of materials that were published and became available internationally (Ewer and Latorre, 1969; *Reading and Thinking in English*, 1980); in Brazil the focus is much more on developing a framework for materials and on teacher training, but overall framework (Alderson and Scott, 1992; Celani et al., 1988). The materials focus on key micro or skills related to the overall macro or skill of reading, but also teach certain lexical and grammatical items relevant to the comprehension of undergraduate academic reading texts.

3.4. Engaging with the disciplines.

For subject-specific work we suggest there are three levels of cooperation: Cooperation, Collaboration and Team or Teaching.

3.4.1. Cooperation

Cooperation is the first stage and involves the language teacher taking the initiative in asking questions and gathering information about the students' subject course, how English fits into their course and what the department and students see as priorities. This is part of the Target Situation Analysis required for needs analysis (see chapter 7). Some of this can be related to the investigation of what Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to as students' wants; it also relates to establishing what the expectations with students' wants. This process is very important as there are clear dangers in ESP teachers operating without much consultation with the departments that students are studying in.

Collaboration

If cooperation largely involves the language teacher taking the initiative and finding out what happens in the subject department, collaboration involves the more direct working together of the two sides language and subject, to prepare students for particular tasks or courses. In collaboration the language and subject teacher work together outside the classroom. The

collaboration has clear goals but also defined limits. There are three options for collaborative work:

- the planning of series of classes where the language class prepares the students for a subsequent subject class taught in English
- the running of a class on a specific skill or related to a specific task where the subject department has a specific input to the materials or the language teacher uses materials produced by the department.
- The north American adjunct model in which the adjunct acts as a back- up class to the subject, helping students with difficulties with that class

Team teaching

The final level of subject language integration is the actual working together in the classroom of the subject and language specialists, usually referred to as team- teaching. The work on listening comprehension involves the recording of a subject lecture and the setting up of a follow up tutorial run by both the language and the subject lecturer who actually gave the lecture. The procedure is as follows:

Stage 1. *The language lecturer records the subject lecture.*

Stage 2. *The language lecturer listens to the recording and prepares a handout with comprehension questions on key points of the lecture and a check on understanding of the language used in it.*

Stage 3. *The language lecturer checks the questions with the subject lecturer*

Stage 4. *The lesson itself.*

The session generally caters for 8- 12 students considered to need special help with English. Students bring their lecture notes and use these to answer the questions; a main aim is to show students whether their notes have been effective in capturing the main points of the lecture. There is also an element of learning to listen to lecturers as opposed to lectures; the students indirectly learn something of the expectations of the lecturer and something of the individual style that each lecturer adopts.

The Team- taught sessions on writing have generally focused on the writing of examination answers. The subject lecturer chooses a relevant question, and the language teacher manages the discussion about the meaning of the question and the planning of the answer. The subject lecturer again acts as a kind of a adviser commenting on the students` suggestions about the meaning of the question and the plan. The session often ends with students writing part of the answer and both lecturers providing feedback.

Professional disciplines: EAP or EOP?

The most important of these has been English for Science and Technology (EST), but English for Medical Purpose (EMP), English for Legal Purposes (ELP) and English for Economics are all course types which teaching materials have been prepared for. The rapid growth in tertiary level courses on Business Management, Finance and Accounting, and Administration means that courses have been set up. What is problematic about these categories is that they seem to fall between two points: on the one hand, the focus on common core EAP specific disciplines, on the other hand the concentration on the particular features of a specific discipline that we have emphasized in previous lecture. When we discuss a more specialist

branch of ESP, such as Medical English, it is not always clear whether we are talking about the needs of medical students, or practicing doctors, consultants in hospitals;

Medical students, for example, have to read textbooks and articles, and write essays and short clinical reports. These are EAP needs. Practicing doctors have different needs; as well as reading specialist articles, they may prepare papers and slide presentations for conference and if working in an English speaking country, interact with patients in English. These are EOP needs. So the terms English for Science and Technology, EMP, ELP and all the others may be little more than useful umbrella terms derived from teaching situations and the writing of teaching materials. In medical English for occupational purposes, there are three main areas of research:

- The use of English in written medical communication;
- The delivery of papers and slide presentations in English at international medical conferences;
- The role of English in doctor/ patient interaction;

The importance of English in the dissemination of medical research has grown dramatically since the 1960s. Maher (1986) shows that by 1980, 72 per cent of the articles listed in the Index Medicus were published in English.

English for Legal purposes is important but relatively uncultivated corner of the ESP field. Bhatia divides legal writing into three main areas:

- Academic legal writing which consists of legal textbooks and research journals;
- Juridical writing, consisting of court judgments, case- books and law reports, the purpose of which is to report the proceedings of the court and the decision of the judge
- The legislative writing, which consists of Acts of Parliament, statutory instruments, contracts, agreements treaties, all of which serve to legislate;

Questions:

- 1. What is the aim of the lecture material?**
- 2. What are the EAP situations?**
- 3. What is collaboration in ESP teaching?**
- 4. How team- teaching is organized in teaching ESP?**
- 5. What are Professional disciplines: EAP or EOP?**
- 6. What are three options of collaborative work?**
- 7. What is the difference between EMP and ELP?**
- 8. What is the form EAP in English speaking country?**
- 9. Give definition to Cooperation in EAP teaching.**

LECTURE 4. English for Business Purpose

Plan:

- *Aims;*
- *Characteristics of Business English*
- *English for General Business Purposes*
- *The role of needs of analysis in Business English*
- *Teachers of Business English*

In this lecture, it is illustrated how the principles of ESP are applied English for Occupational Purposes with a detailed look at English for business purposes. Our discussion here is concerned with adult learners, working or preparing to work in a business context, and deals with Business English. It is considered here general and specific purpose business course, identifying who are the learners, and the implications for teachers and courses.

- **Characteristics of Business English**

English has become the international language of business. One of the consequences of the role of English as the international language is that non- British managers may be able to understand each other more easily when speaking English together than they can understand a native speaker. International English is about effective communication and, as one of course participants put it, "I am not a native speaker". Business English is difficult to define and limit in linguistic terms. Pickett highlighted the fact that there is more than one face to business communication with some of it being a lot nearer the everyday language spoken by the general public than many other segments of ESP. The diagrammatic representation he used suggests two particular aspects to Business communication: communication with the public and communication with in accompany or between companies:

- General English
- Communication with public
- Business English
- Communication among businesses
- Specialized language of particular businesses

For many businesses, communication with the public is most likely to be in the L1. The business English that NNSs require is mainly for intercompany and international conglomerates, intro-company dealings. The distinction Pickett makes ease useful but probably not fun enough for today's wide-ranging business activities. Even within is particular business, the language requirements of the team negotiating. The purpose of the interactions, the topics covered and the professional relationships will all affect the choice of the language.

- **English for General Business Purposes**

In the same way as EAP can be divided into English for General Academic Purposes and English for Specific Academic Purposes, so we can talk of English for General Business Purposes and English for Specific Business Purposes. English for general business purposes are usually for pre- experience; learners of those at the very early stages of their carrier. Their similar to General

EFL courses with the materials set in business contexts. Many learners attend these courses at a language school and groups will usually be formed on the basis of the language level and teachers to choose form, with input in the text, audio and video format plus CD-ROM. The published course books are mainly designed for use on the extensive course that has one or two sessions a week, over several months or years. Most units contain work on the traditional four skills plus specific grammar and vocabulary development.

In contrast, English for specific Business purposes courses are run for the job- experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language learning situation. This course is carefully tailored and likely to focus on one or two language skills and specific business communicative events. The materials often include selections from a range of published books, framework materials and specially written activities, probably stemming from the learners own business context. Courses are frequently intensive; groups are small, maximum of 6-8 and senior staff may opt for one to one tuition. Company courses may have groups with widely differing language levels. They may be run in company- by company staff, in company by external trainers or off site on the trainer's premises.

Key variables in Business English

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Factors to be considered</i>
<i>Course duration</i>	<i>Is it intensive or extensive?</i>
<i>Participants</i>	<i>Are they all from the same company or is it an open registration course?</i>
<i>Group size</i>	<i>Is it one to one or a small group?</i>
<i>Location</i>	<i>Is it in- house, in country, overseas;?</i>
<i>Mode of learning</i>	<i>Is it class teaching? Telephone teaching or self study?</i>
<i>Trainers</i>	<i>Are they company employees or outsiders?</i>

The answers to these questions can, to a degree are predicted from the position of learners in their company. Senior and middle management are more likely to attend residential intensive course in English speaking countries with one to one teaching while secretarial and junior staff might be offered in- country extensive, open registration courses.

- **The role of needs of analysis in Business English**

Needs analysis may be even more fundamental in business English than in, say, English for Science and Technology as learners` needs can be much more varied and the spectrum of language and skills less predictable. The approach to needs analysis depends on the situation and context. Pilbeam suggests that needs analysis should be concerned with establishing both a target profile of language skills which sets down the actual activities that the participants have to carry out. Such a language audit is particularly relevant to in- company work and helps to decide how many hours of language tuition are needed to bridge the gap, or what should be prioritized where time is limited. Brieger suggests needs analysis for English business will set out to identify the range of general and specialist language knowledge required, together with general and professional communication skills.

For short intensive course, less time and fewer resources will be available but the EBP teacher can usually obtain some pre- course information: participants may be willing to complete a short form and supply examples commonly used documents. This information means that the EBP teacher can design the framework of the course before the participants arrive and determined specific need when the learners are on- site. In a one ó to one situation this can be achieved through quite extensive interviewing and discussion as the learner is fully involved in using language during this process. In group situations, learners may not want to spend much time sharing needs; however, the early activities can be designed to combine this, and language practice.

- **Teachers of Business English**

Personality, knowledge and experience are important to business English teacher. In the larger EAP classes there may be opportunities for personal contacts; on a one to one or small intensive course, personal contact is a key factor and trainers need to be outgoing, tactful and genuinely interested in business issues. Most ESP teachers have a language teaching background and do not have first hand experience of the content and context of other disciplines of business. There can be good deal to learn and for an EBP teacher, more in one respect tan for an EAP teacher: EAP teachers have all been students themselves and been through the academic environment. The study skills that are integrally linked on many courses with language development are familiar. A teacher can say of examinations, listening lectures, note ótaking, have been there, I have done that, although their environment may have differed from that of some of their learners in various ways including subject culture and genres.

Being an effective business communicator depends not only on variable language proficiency, but also on personal and interpersonal skills. Increasingly, ESP practitioners who work in company or on company specific courses are delivering both language and skills. The trend is towards õShorter highly job specific courses and increasing emphasis on skills coursesö.

Questions:

- **What is the aim of the lecture?**
- **What is the characteristic of Business English?**
- **What is English for General Business Purposes?**
- **Speak about the role of needs of analysis in Business English.**
- **Who are teachers of Business English?**

Lecture Five. Language issues in ESP.

Plan:

- *Grammar in ESP.*
- *Key Grammatical forms.*
- *Vocabulary in ESP.*
- *Discourse and genre analyses.*

Aims

In this lecture we will look at various language issues in ESP, focusing on both EAP and EBP and considering in detail the questions of grammar, vocabulary and discourse. This will also involve some discussion of recent developments in genre analysis and its relevance to the teaching of writing in particular, as well as to the teaching of reading and speaking. We will begin by looking at the tricky question of grammar and vocabulary in ESP.

Grammar in ESP

There are many misconceptions about the role of grammar in ESP teaching and, indeed, it is often said that ESP teaching is not concerned with grammar.

While much of the skills-oriented work in EAP or EBP does not concentrate on grammar in itself, it is incorrect to consider grammar teaching as outside the remit of ESP. Where students have grammatical difficulties that interfere with the essentially productive skills of speaking and writing, or the essentially receptive skills of listening and reading, it is necessary to pay some attention to those difficulties. How much priority is paid to grammatical weakness depends on the learners' level in English and whether priority needs to be given to grammatical accuracy or to fluency in using the language. If priority is given to accuracy, then direct teaching of grammatical forms in express particular meanings will be required.

For reading where the learners' grammatical weakness interfere with comprehension of meaning, the relationship between meaning and form can be taught or revised in context through analysis and explanation. This often includes the verb form notably tense and voice; modals, particularly in relation to the expression of certainty and uncertainty; logical connectors such as *however*, *therefore* and *moreover*; noun compounds; and various expressions related to the notion of *cause and effect* (this list arises from discussion with Brazilian teachers working on the ESP reading project there). Where English is used as the medium of communication and students are expected to present written work make oral presentations in accurate English, various weakness in grammar require more specific help. This may mean allocating time to concentrate on the given difficulty, teaching both the form and its use in contexts relevant to learners' needs.

Key Grammatical forms

Verbs and tense

Which tenses should be taught? In the early days of ESP, register analysis led to conclusions about which verb forms and tenses predominated in scientific and technical English. The main conclusion drawn by Barber (reported in Swales, 1988) was that any grammatical work done on the verb in EAP should concentrate on the present simple, active and passive voice and the modal verbs.

More recent research (for example Swales, 1988, in his introduction to Barber's article) has, however, suggested that frequency counts carried out on a corpus containing a number of genres without distinguishing between the genres may produce results of limited value.

Voice

The idea that scientific or academic writing uses the passive voice more frequently than the active is a myth; what is true is that such writing uses the passive voice more frequently than some other types of writing. Wingard (1981) found that in his corpus of medical writing approximately 60 per cent of the verbs were in the active voice and 40 per cent in the passive voice. The choice of active and passive is constrained by functional considerations; writers tend to use the *we-* form active when they describe their own procedural choices but the passive when standard procedures are being described.

Modals

Modals, especially **may, might, could, would** are one way of indicating the degree of certainty of a writer's commitment to a statement of claim. If a writer states that 'the discrepancy in the results **may be** due to incorrect calibration of the instrument' he is making a cautious statement. The writer is distancing him/herself from the statement rather more with **could** than with **may**.

This phenomenon is generally referred to as hedging. There are many other means of expressing hedging, for example the use of a reporting verb such as *suggest, appear to, seem to, tend to* in order to distance the writer from the statement that she is reporting. Compare:

1. The data quoted in the Financial Times *show* that the value of the dollar is rising
2. The data quoted in the Financial Times *suggest* that the value of the dollar is rising.

In the first sentence the writer is aligning him/herself with the claim through the use of the reporting verb *show*, while in the second the use of *suggest* distances the writer from the claim and shows a neutral position. On the one hand, it may be because the writer wishes to soften a statement, for example, to mitigate a criticism of another member of the research or professional community. Learners need to be able to appreciate the role of hedging in academic, professional and business genres and to manipulate its actual linguistic devices.

Articles

Certain uses of the articles are of particular importance in ESP. These are the absence of an article in general statements with an uncountable noun, as in:

Copper is a reddish metal.

Downsizing is a business phenomenon of the 80s and 90s.

Another area that seems to cause particular difficulties is the use of *the* with named methods, procedures, formulas, graphs, cycles and other concepts as in:

the Smith hypothesis, the water cycle, the Fry model.

These two aspects of article usage seem to cause problems for non-native speakers, yet can be taught by making the rules of usage specific.

Nominalisation

Nominalization that is the use of verbal nouns usually ending in suffixes such as *-action, -ition, -ment, -ness*, is a major feature of the abstract language favored by academic writers (Mason, 1990).

The nominalised phrase which acts as the grammatical subject in sentence is also the grammatical subject of the second sentence. A key part of the meaning is packaged in this nominal phrase; contrast what we might say in informal language where we might transfer the main meaning to the verb phrase for ex: *the crop produces a large amount*

Logical connectors

Logical connectors, such as moreover, however, therefore have always had a high profile in EAP teaching. They are generally seen as a key to understanding the logical relationships in texts and therefore relevant to the teaching of reading, listening and writing in EAP.

Grammar in Business English

As noted by Robinson and Dudley- Evans and St John much less research has been published in the area of BE. The amount of research is growing and will undoubtedly increase dramatically in the next ten years or so. We can draw up a list of grammar areas that business grammar reference books single out. All the place emphasis on the verb form, especially tense and voice; then on modals and verbs of saying, reporting and the difference between do and make, have and have got. Wilberg and Lewis select 24 business and practice their forms: *accept, advise, confirm, consider, explain, offer, object, point out, propose, recommend, refuse, reject, remind, reply, and others.*

The teaching of grammar in ESP

Reference books outlining the meaning and form of grammatical points can be particularly useful for the ESP teacher and we list some in our recommend reading. Assisted Language Learning CALL programs which all students to home in on their own particular difficulties.

Vocabulary in ESP

The importance of the teaching of vocabulary in ESP is now widely accepted (Swales, 1983).our major concern will be with what is referred to in EAP as semi- technical vocabulary (or occasionally sub-technical vocabulary and in EBP as core business vocabulary.

1. Technical vocabulary

We believe that the situation with regard to the teaching of technical vocabulary is rather more complicated than the simple notion that -the ESLØteacher should not touch itØ While in general we agree that it should not be the responsibility of the ESP teacher to teach technical vocabulary, in certain specific contexts it may be the duty of the ESP teacher to check that learners have understood technical vocabulary appearing as carrier content for an exercise. In any ESP exercise which exploits a particular context, that context will use certain technical vocabulary. It is important that both teacher and learner appreciate that this vocabulary is acting as carrier content for an exercise, and is not the real content of the exercise. However, students usually need to be able to understand the technical vocabulary in order to do the exercise. How do we deal with this vocabulary? In some circumstances a term will be cognate with the equivalent term in the students ` first language and will not therefore cause difficulty. In ESAP and ESBP situations where the subject specialist is not present, for example a one- to one consultation, the language teacher will need to adopt a questioning role about technical vocabulary.

In some situations learners starting a new academic course or professional training programmer will need help with technical vocabulary that is completely new for them. One way to prepare learners for such a situation is for the language teacher and the subject expert to prepare glossary of new terms with straightforward explanations of the terms.

2. Semi- technical and core business vocabulary

Our main concern in this chapter is with semi- technical vocabulary and core business vocabulary. We would suggest that the six categories overlap very considerably and that there seem to be two broad areas: vocabulary that is used in general language but has a higher frequency of occurrence in scientific and technical description and discussion. We would suggest that six categories overlap very considerably and that there seem to be two broad areas: vocabulary that is used in general language but has a higher frequency of occurrence in scientific and technical description and discussion and vocabulary that has specialized and restricted meanings in certain disciplines and which may vary in meaning across disciplines.

Table: vocabulary

Types of vocabulary	Examples
General vocabulary that has a higher frequency in a specific field	Academic: <i>factor, method, function, occur, cycle</i> , evaluative adjective such as <i>relevant, important, interesting</i> ; tourism verbs: <i>accept, advise, agree, confirm</i> ; collocations: <i>make a booking, launch a campaign</i> ;
General English words that have a specific meaning in certain discipline	<i>Bug</i> in computer science; <i>force, acceleration, and energy</i> , in physics; <i>stress and strain</i> in mechanics and engineering;

3. The teaching of vocabulary in ESP

The teaching of vocabulary in ESP follows similar general principles to those in EGP. It is important to distinguish between vocabulary needed for comprehension and that needed for production. In comprehension, deducing the meaning of vocabulary from the context and the structure of the actual word is the most important method of learning new vocabulary. For production purposes storage and retrieval are significant. Various techniques have been suggested for storing vocabulary: the use of word association, mnemonic devices and others.

Different learners favor different techniques, and it is important that teachers encourage learners to find out what works best for them. Each of these techniques involves cognitive processing rather than mechanical learning of lists. There are three ways in which vocabulary may be gathered to facilitate cognitive processing.

- Situational, semantic and metaphor sets;
- Collocation and use of corpora;
- Lexical phrases;

Nattinger suggests (1988) that the use of word meaning is the key to successful retrieval and those meanings can be presented in the form of semantic, situational and metaphor sets. The retrieval of a vocabulary item from memory is aided by the grouping of words according to their meaning. This may be according to topic, so that the words associated with a library such as book, shelf, borrow, loan, period, fine and so on;

These examples have clear implications for the teaching of vocabulary and argue for materials that encourage learners to build their own sets. They also justify the syllabuses that built on

notions; one of the perhaps understated strengths of using notions such as cause and effect, measurement, quantity; and structure;

4. Discourse and genre analysis

First, however, we should be clear about how we will use the two overlapping terms of discourse analysis and genre analysis. Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of the sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraph structure, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts ó any text- work. Where, however, the focus of the text analysis is on the regularities of structure that distinguish one type of text from another type, this is genre analysis and results focus on the differences between text types, or genres.

We have selected two areas of particular interest to ESP in discourse analysis: firstly certain text patterns that may be used at any time and in any text; secondly turn taking and topic change within dialogue. The basic pattern consists of four parts:

Situation:

- Problem with that situation;
- Response to that problem;
- Evaluation of that response;

The implications of these findings for teaching students to participate in meetings or academic seminars are clear, and this study makes good use of the essentially text- bound findings of discourse analysis to investigate a situation in which cross cultural differences led to difficulties of communication. In general, however, there is a danger that the findings of discourse, fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place.

Questions:

- What is the structure of grammar teaching in ESP?
- How modal verbs and articles are taught in ESP?
- What is the main factor of vocabulary in ESP?
- The principles of teaching vocabulary.
- Compare Discourse and genre analysis?
- What are the views of scholars about teaching grammar and vocabulary in ESP?
- Semi- technical and core business vocabulary

LECTURE 6. The skills in EAP and EOP

Plan:

- *Aims of the topic*
- *Reading skills in ESP*
- *Listening to monologue*
- *Listening and speaking skills in ESP*
- *Speaking monologue*
- *Writing skills in ESP*

Aims

We opted for 5 skills because when we discuss listening comprehension, we need to be clear about whether we are referring to listening to monologue, as in an academic lecture or a business presentation, or to listening as part of a group discussion, as in a business meeting or negotiation or a seminar in which the listener will also contribute as a speaker to the discussion.

The term 'skills' is used at two levels: there are 5 macro-skills of reading, listening, listening and speaking, speaking, and writing, each consisting of a number of micro-skills. Some micro-skills such as 'using cohesive and discourse markers' will be associated with all the macro-skills; others such as 'revising a first draft of a text' will be associated with a particular skill, in this case.

Reading skills in ESP

In this lecture we shall look at how the purpose of reading and the balance between skills and language affect the teaching of reading in ESP. *The purpose of reading*; TALO to TAVI. One of the most important contributions to the approach to reading in ESP was the shift from Text as a Linguistic Object (TALO) to Text as a Vehicle of Information (TAVI) (Johns and Davies 1983). Johns and Davies encapsulated the key principles that, for ESP learners, extracting information accurately and quickly is more significant than language details; that understanding the macrostructure comes before language.

The balance between skills and language

Around the same time there was a second significant contribution to teaching reading on ESP courses: the recognition that good reading requires language and skills. Hosenfeld (1977) had shown that less successful foreign language learners had a fragmented approach to text, while successful learners went for overall meaning, guessing or skipping language and information. The reading component of an ESP courses thus requires balance between skills and language development. Some of the key skills to be learnt or transferred into the new language area:

- selecting what is relevant for the current purpose;
- using all the features of the text such as headings, layouts, typeface;
- skimming for content and meaning;
- scanning for specifics;
- identifying organizational patterns;

- understanding relations within a sentence and between sentences;
- using cohesive and discourse markers
- predicting, inferring and guessing;
- processing and evaluating the information during reading;
- transferring or using the information while or after reading;

	TALO	TAVI
Principles underlying text selection	<p>*text illustrate syntactic structures</p> <p>*topics are of general interest</p> <p>*texts are specially written, modified or re-written</p> <p>*new vocabulary is controlled</p> <p>*texts are graded and short</p> <p>*texts are selected by teachers</p> <p>*almost none</p> <p>*some translation of vocabulary</p>	<p>*texts are chosen for their value in relation to students' needs</p> <p>*a range of authentic texts are used</p> <p>*grading is through tasks and support</p> <p>*texts are of different lengths, getting longer</p> <p>*texts are selected not only by teachers, but also by learners and others</p>
Preparatory activities	<p>*almost none</p> <p>*some translation of vocabulary</p>	<p>*always: important as direction finders to awaken interest and to establish purpose</p>
Working with the text	<p>*focus on language and what is unknown</p> <p>*focus on detail and understanding all the sentences and words</p>	<p>*focus on information and what is known</p> <p>*guessing unknown words</p>
Type of teaching/learning interaction	<p>*teacher monologue</p> <p>*teacher-centered teacher questions, student responds, teacher evaluates</p>	<p>*students work in groups</p> <p>*reversal of roles: students ask questions, evaluate each other, reach agreement</p>
Follow-up activities	<p>*comprehension questions</p> <p>*grammar and lexis exercises</p>	<p>*using the information: transfer, application or extension</p> <p>*applying techniques</p>

Selecting texts

Who chooses? Traditionally texts have mainly been chosen by institutions and teachers: by institutions through the textbooks in their resource centre and any supplementary material they provide. The scenario where subject specialists contribute to text selection is most likely in EAP and English for Vocational Purpose situations where there is set texts to study and to use. In deciding what to use an ESP teacher will balance needs and motivational factors.

What is chosen?

The criteria used for selecting texts will relate to key features of both carrier and real content. We have already mentioned that the conceptual level of the carrier content must be neither trivial nor distractingly high and that there must be both value and interest to it.

Using the information that has been gathered

Although this may be the final step in the process of reading a text, it is the one from which the design of activities begins. Knowing what students would really do with a text, and why, is necessary for setting the task that will guide the reading process and determine all the other activities.

Listening to monologue

The ability to follow monologue, specifically the lecture, is particularly important in EAP situations and has received a great deal of attention in both research and teaching materials. In EOP situations doctors and other professional people attend conferences and listen to presentation technicians have to listen to and understand instructions; business people and other professionals listen to policy presentations. Comprehension of a lecture, seminar or business presentation will involve the same two stage process we noted for second language reading comprehension, the first being processing of the language, the second being the change to background knowledge of the topic that results from the understanding of the language.

Micro-skills and language

A significant number of micro-skills related to listening are seen as necessary for effective comprehension of monologue. Flowerdew quotes Richards who lists the following micro-skills:

Ability to:

1. identify the purpose and scope of monologue
2. identify the topic of lecture and follow topic development
3. recognize the role of discourse markers
4. recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic
5. deduce meanings of words from context
6. recognize function of intonations to signal information structure

Distinguishing features of monologue

1. Phonology

One key feature which distinguishes listening to a lecture or seminar from reading a textbook or articles is that listeners have to cope with phonological features of language as well as the other features of text. They have to be able to cope with the intonation patterns and to recognize unit boundaries. They also need to be able to recognize phonological signals indicating both the main points of the lecture and the digressions into asides, jokes, and other topics unrelated to the main topics of the lecture.

2. Speed of delivery

Listeners also have to cope with the speed of delivery; research indicates that a high speed of delivery causes comprehension difficulties for non-active speakers. Griffiths (1990) for example, found that a fairly fast speech rate of 220 words per minute led to a significant fall-off in comprehension amongst lower- intermediate learners.

3. Real time processing

A monologue has to be understood as it is delivered. There is no opportunity to listen to certain sections of the lecture again in the way that a written text can be re-read until it is understood. Nor is there the possibility of skim reading or skipping certain sections of text. There is rarely a second chance to listen to the lecture. This creates the need for listeners to discipline themselves not to lose concentration on the main thread of the argument in section of the lecture in which the lecturer introduces an aside in colloquial language that is difficult for the non- native speaker to comprehend.

4. Note taking in real time

The taking of notes is a complex task that requires a student to be assessing whether or not a point made by the lecturer needs to be noted down and how it can be taken down in such a way as to be understandable when the notes are consulted at a later stage. The student has to process the language, relate the new information to existing schemata and find a way to record that new, related information.

5. Deducing the speaker's attitude

In some monologues it will be important to deduce the stance the speaker is adopting towards the information that he or she is reporting. In EAP situations this is almost invariably done cautiously, using politeness strategies- certainly in the case of criticisms- and it is often difficult for non active speakers to deduce exactly what the speaker's attitude is.

Listening and speaking skills in ESP

Good listening is vital in spoken interactions, particularly in business and goes beyond understanding the words and key points; it is a skill and an art. Active listening has been adopted from management interpersonal skills courses and is an example of an interdisciplinary crossover.

Active listening includes the non-verbal and the verbal encouragement given to a speaker for example non-verbal physical expressions, gestures and movements, and verbal -back channeling devices such as -uh uh, really, that's interesting, tell me more and questions.

Questioning is another skill and art needed for effective spoken interaction and, like active listening, it goes beyond just the words. Questioning is a powerful means of controlling communication. Questions can be asked for a range of purposes, using a variety of language forms. To ask questions, learners need to know several language structures:

1. use of the auxiliary with subject /verb inversion
2. -Wh words +auxiliary +inversion
3. statements and intonation
4. statements +tags

One to one spoken interactions

Many spoken interactions involve just two people; telephone conversations (excluding telephone conferencing) are one example. Telephone conversations can be difficult to handle mainly because of the absence of body language. Mehrabian's results showed a listener's trust and belief in what is said can depend more on the body language than on the words.

An additional difficulty is that certain stages or types of telephone call are still quite conventional and can use phrases that will not be met elsewhere:

Speaking monologue.

Spoken monologue, that is oral presentations, can be a feature of EOP and EA work. Mostly the teaching of oral presentations in EAP occurs in English- medium situations with some examples in EAP courses for tour guides, sales, representatives and professional people such as doctors and engineers. An effective oral presentation is built on language and skills and requires confidence. ESP courses are likely to look at: structuring, visuals, voice and advance signaling as well as language.

Structuring presentation has much in common with structuring written communication in as much as listeners want a clear map to follow; there should be a start, middle and an end. It is often said, "Visuals are worth a thousand words". Yes, if they are good and used well, otherwise! Visuals can include a few written words but are hardly visual if they are primarily text and then get read aloud.

Voice work may include pronunciation but intonation usually hinders comprehension more. Phrasing, pausing, speed of delivery, volume and tone variation all play an important role and may need as much attention as the actual words. Pausing is silence and often feels uncomfortable to a less confident speaker. It is though essential processing time for listeners. Silence is also a part of the language of visuals; the silent time when the visuals make its impact and the audience absorbs and processes the information.

Writing skills in ESP.

We believe that knowledge of genre is a key element in all communication and especially significant in writing academic and professional texts. Knowledge of genre involves an understanding of the expectations of the discourse community that text and of the conventions that have developed over time about the structure, the language and the rhetoric of the genre. Developing writing skills also involves other skills, notably the skills of planning, drafting and revising so that the end product is appropriate both to the purpose of the writing and the intended readership. The students may start by planning the piece of writing and then do the actual writing. In planning writing and revising writers will have in mind a reader and will think about the needs of that reader and the purpose of the document.

They will have a map to guide them their message, audience and purpose. Writers need to ask themselves questions such as whether to expand a point provide an example or define a term in order to help the reader understand the text or to persuade him of the validity of the argument presented. For example, if we write an introduction to a business report or an academic article, we need, on the one hand, to consider how the text can be made clear and interesting to the people that will read the introduction.

Questions:

- **How skills are developed in EAP and EOP?**
- **What is specific feature of selecting texts?**
- **What is the role of Listening and speaking skills in ESP?**
- **Explain what is Speaking monologue?**
- **How writing skill is developed in ESP?**

LECTURE 7. Needs analysis and evaluation.

Plan:

- *The aims of the analysis and evaluation.*
- *Needs analysis*
- *Evaluation*
- *Collecting data for needs analysis and evaluation purposes*
- *Extracts*

The aims of the analysis and evaluation.

The key stages in ESP are needs analysis, course design, materials selection, teaching and learning and evaluation. These are not separate, linearly-related activities, rather than they represent phases which overlap and are interdependent. The simplicity and clarity of figure 7.1 in reality more like figure 7.2.

This cyclical representation places evaluation and needs analysis, seemingly at opposite ends of a time span, in adjacent positions and even allows them to overlap. Needs analysis is the process of establishing the *and how* of a course; evaluation is the process of establishing the effectiveness. Neither of these are one *off* activities- they both need to be on-going.

An initial pre-course needs analysis and a final end or post-course evaluations have different aims and perspectives. On the other hand, on-going needs analysis within a course and formative evaluations have much in common. Robinson comments that *repeated* needs analysis can be built into the formative evaluation *process*. We support Brown's suggestion that the difference between needs analysis and program evaluation may be more one of focus than of the actual activities involved. In this chapter we will look at both needs analysis and evaluation. We will look at the fundamentals of each, focusing on the similarities

And differences between them. We will look at the issues in actually carrying out needs analysis or evaluation and show that the three steps involved in each, mainly collecting data and implementing the results, are very similar.

Needs analysis

Needs analysis is either unique to language teaching- needs assessment for example is the basis of training programs and aid development programs- nor, within language training, is it unique to LSP and thus to ESP. However, needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course.

Within ESP the definitions of needs and needs analysis have broadened with experience and research. For instance, in the 1960s and early 1970s, literature and language trained English teachers, faced with teaching science students English for their subject studies, knew very little of what or how of those studies and concomitantly little about the language of science and technology.

Data collection therefore began from first principles, and language analysis was influenced by the General English stance and by approaches in linguistics and register analysis which helped to define needs as discrete language items of grammar and vocabulary. When Munby published his

Communicative Syllabus Design, the English language teaching world had begun to recognize that function and situation were also fundamental. Munby provided detailed lists of micro functions in his communicative needs processor; what he did not include was how to prioritize them or any of the affective factors which today with our broader knowledge and understanding of language and language learning, we recognize as important.

Teachers or trainers setting out nowadays to determine learners' needs begin from a different and broader base. Before they approach clients and students they can trawl the literature for previous needs analysis, available materials, researching findings. Not only are they able to do so but we believe that they must. The information obtained from clients and students will only be as the questions asked and the analysis of the answers. For example, neither of us have ever worked with police forces or on board ship and we know nothing about how either group operates. If we went straight to them, we should have to ask a great many questions, we should probably not distinguish the relevant from the trivial, and we should probably have as many questions at the end as we begin with.

Instead we should do some groundwork which would include checking the literature for relevant articles, looking for ESP teaching material, contacting colleagues and organizations that might have experience of such groups, reading material about the subject or discipline. We would want to be as knowledgeable as possible beforehand because then we would:

- Know what we did not know - that is we would know what to ask;
- Not waste our clients or students time;
- Appear much more professional
- Know how we should analyze the data

A crucial point, whenever data is being collected, is to know beforehand what will happen to the raw data and to the information derived from it. Much time and effort can be wasted in gathering responses that cannot be interpreted or lead to more questions rather than answers. As ESP practitioners we need to know exactly what we are trying to find out and what we will do with the answers before we start.

A current concept of needs analysis.

We see today's concept of needs analysis including aspects of all these approaches.

1. Professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners use English for target situation analysis and objective needs.
2. Factors which may affect the way learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it;
3. Effective ways of learning the skills and language

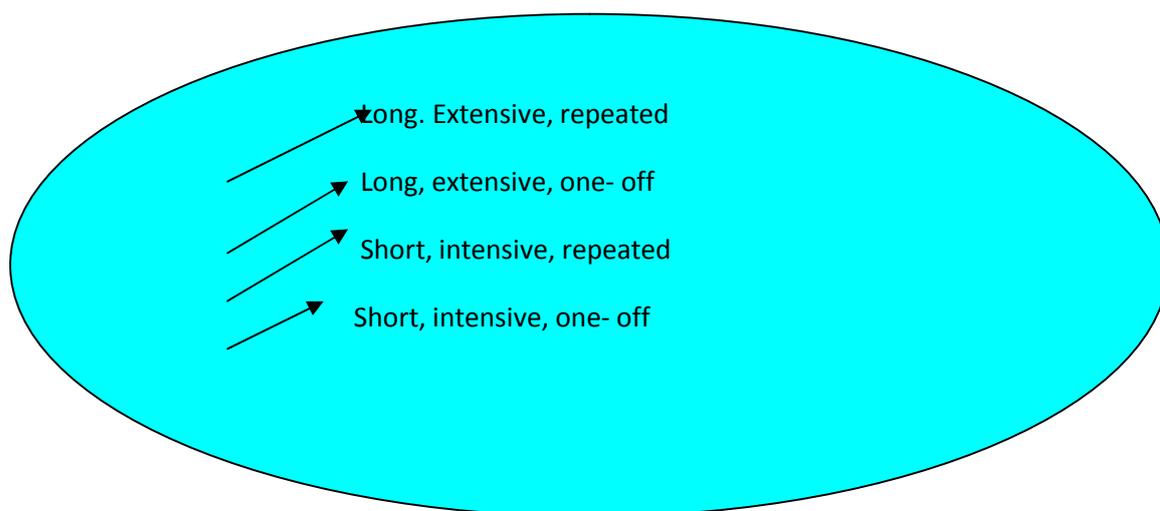
We have in this part summarized the key elements involved in the five skills of reading, listening to monologue, listening and speaking, speaking, and writing and discussed various approaches to the teaching of these skills. The fact that we tackled each skill separately does not imply that we favor the teaching of each skill in isolation. In fact there are strong reasons for integrating the teaching of these five skills, or at least two or more three related skills. Using one skill generally involves some reading, listening to monologue may be preceded or followed up by a discussion or a reading activity, a discussion may lead to a follow up fax or letter.

Another reason is that skills are generally learnt more effectively when taught with other skills in an integrated manner. For example research shows that following a written text when it is read aloud increases understanding and retention when it is subsequently read silently. Similarly,

hearing the correct pronunciation of a vocabulary item helps storage of that item in the memory and retrieval when it is needed for speaking or writing. The findings from a needs analysis are not absolute but relative and there is no single, unique set of needs. The findings depend on who asks what questions and how the responses are interpreted.

Matching needs analysis to situation

In theory, needs analysis is a first step carried out before a course so that a course outline materials and other resources can be in place before teaching begins. Practice may be rather different. The way in which needs analysis is actually approached and conducted will differ according to each situation. Needs analysis and courses are not mounted in a vacuum and must be developed around available human and material resources. Other variables that are influential can be represented on a course cline.



The amount of data collected and when it is collected may be very different at opposite ends of the cline. In situation where the course is repeated, with large numbers of students, substantial advance needs analysis may be possible and justified. A word of warning we must distinguish between overall needs and course needs. This is our point in the list of what constitutes needs analysis. An additional factor is that an ESP course is rarely long enough to cover all that learners need. Thus, both at the needs analysis stage and when we meet with the learners, we need information that will help us select and prioritize. For example, what could cause communication breakdown? What are the absolute essentials?

What is evaluation?

There are many definitions of evaluation; fundamentally evaluation is asking questions and acting on the responses. For us, evaluation is a whole process which begins with determining what information to gather and ends with bringing about change in current activities or influencing future ones. We believe that evaluation must be more than collecting and analyzing data; to have value the evaluation process must include action.

Evaluation is usually described as formative or summative. As ESP practitioners we are most likely to be concerned with formative evaluation which takes place during the lifetime of an activity and the findings help to shape the course during its life time. Formative evaluation is typically undertaken at intervals and will consist of a series of mini evaluations. Summative evaluation takes place at the end of an activity and so does not influence that version of the activity. Its purpose is to assess impact and provide information that can be fed into repeat versions or related activities. Summative evaluation can be both qualitative and quantitative. Tests and objective question questionnaires provide numbers and percentages for individual

items. They provide answers to what questions but cannot easily address the how or why. Evaluation can be very threatening; it suggests change and change is often resisted. The threat is greatest when evaluation is seen as an imposed external act, over which there is no control. In fact evaluation is very constructive and powerful activity and a very stimulating one. There is the chance to focus on what has been going well and to ask what have been the most significant contributing factors so that less successful aspects can be modified. Evaluation will also show weaknesses or features that were just not suitable for the particular group of learners. Evaluation should not be used only negatively to comment on perceived problems. A good evaluation emphasizes the successes and discusses less successful aspects. It also addresses the crucial how and why issues. Knowing how well something has worked is not significant on its own. Understanding why will enable us to repeat success and avoid the less successful.

What do we evaluate?

Evaluation in ESP situations is concerned with the effectiveness and efficiency of learning; with achieving the objectives (assuming that the needs analysis has set valid objectives) has learning been maximized? Have resources been optimally employed? Our focus in this chapter is on evaluation as used by teachers and learners and formative evaluation we are less concerned with large scale project evaluation involving outsiders.

To be an integral part of a course evaluation has to be built in as part of the course design. To evaluate everything is unrealistic; priorities can be set, the type and timing of data collection can be planned together with the resulting actions. At different times evaluation might focus on the materials used the classroom activities the out of class support the course design methodologies, the role of assessment, that is any aspect of teaching learning situation.

For one off course the important questions are those asked part way through and they must focus on change that is feasible and immediately implement able. If you ask about the hours of contact time, can you change them? This is evaluation overlaps with, and can be equivalent to, on going needs analysis. If you ask about the balance of activity types can you actually change ití ..? Evaluation results can be used to influence decisions and bring about long-term change.

Record keeping

For evaluation record keeping is a must. This can include teacher records of what actually happened in lessons, and learner records such as diaries and journals. What is needed in record keeping is systematically records must be made immediately, as other events dull our memories. Information on similar points over time is essential for comparative purposes so it is useful to devise evaluation forms even as a sole teacher. But a record keeping system will only work, if it is simple, quick, and easy to use and suits the culture.

Collecting data for needs analysis and evaluation purposes

For both needs analysis and evaluation, outsiders or insiders could be involved. Outsiders can be perceived as more objective since they provide a fresh or alternative viewpoint and are not stakeholders. However, as outsiders, they do not know the situation and the environment so they may miss or misinterpret data. Holliday (1955:120) stresses how important it was that he knew the educational system of the country in which he was asked to carry out a company needs analysis. Without taking cultural and micro political factors into consideration his recommendations would not have been realistic. This constitutes a real problem for a complete outsider who may find that there are hidden agendas and that their support is being sought for a decision that has already been made.

For needs analysis the main sources are:

- The learners
- People working or studying in the field
- Ex- students
- Documents relevant to the field
- Clients
- Employers
- Colleagues
- ESP research in the field

The main data collection methods for needs analysis are:

- Questionnaires
- Analysis of authentic spoken and written texts
- Discussions
- Structured interviews
- Observations
- Assessments

Checklists and questionnaires: Questionnaires are generally more wide ranging than checklists and, as they are used for quantitative information, they need careful construction. Checklists are narrower in scope and more commonly used for a qualitative feel. When used with large numbers then only objective responses can be analyzed which restricts the information collected. Striking the balance between enough answers and data, and time boredom for responders is difficult.

Structured interviews: The structured interview is extremely useful in evaluation and needs analysis. It consists of questions which have been carefully thought out and selected in advance. Because the interviewer has key questions which everyone is asked, comparisons can be made. Additional questions can be asked to follow up responses for clarification and more detail. Structured interviews are time consuming but provide valuable information that we may not otherwise obtain.

Observation: For needs and analysis, observations can cover a range of activities from watching a particular task being performed to shadowing individuals at work. Observation and particular shadowing are sensitive issues. People in business may feel the content of events is commercially sensitive: anyone may feel a personal threat at having their movements watched and their words noted or recorded. After the session, observer and teacher should share their ideas and perceptions of what was happening. As always, the early comments must focus on positive features. When these have been noted and discussed, then attention can turn to where improvements can be introduced.

Analysis of authentic texts: analyzing authentic texts is a crucial stage of needs analysis. The texts can be written documents or radio and video recordings of events such as lectures, meetings, telephone interactions, classroom activities. Authentic texts are invaluable for learning

about real and carrier content. They can also form the basis of classroom materials, with three provisos.

Assessment: assessment includes formal and informal judgments of students` performance and progress through class work, assignment and tests. Testing or assignments may form part of a pre-course PSA or evaluate progress.

Questions:

- **What are the aims of the analysis and evaluation?**
- **Give definition to Needs analysis.**
- **What is A current concept of needs analysis.**
- **What is collecting data for needs analysis and evaluation purposes?**
- **What do we evaluate?**
- **What is evaluation?**

LECTURE 8. Course Design.

Plan:

- *Parameters of course design*
- *Balancing the parameters*
- *Case studies*
- *The role of materials.*

This lecture will discuss issues and questions, illustrate their implementations through four case studies and finally suggest an organizational framework for grouping and ordering course items.

Parameters of course design. There are a number of parameters that need to be investigated in making decisions about course design. Our questions, as presented here, show these as choices between two poles of a dichotomy. However, our discussion illustrates that these choices represent the ends of a continuum and that there are, in fact, a number of positions along that continuum. Some of the positions are pre-determined by circumstances of the client, the environment-others are determined by the course designer.

1. Should the course be intensive or extensive?
2. Should the learners' performance be assessed or non- assessed?
3. Should the course deal with immediate needs or with delayed needs?
4. Should the role of the teacher be that of the provider of knowledge and activities, or should it be as a facilitator of activities arising from learners' expressed wants?
5. Should the course have broad or narrow focus?
6. Should the material be common- core or specific to learners' study or work?
7. Should the course design be worked out by the language teacher after consultation with the learners and the institutions, or should it be subject to a process of negotiation with the learners?

Intensive or Extensive

During an intensive ESP course the learners' time is totally committed to that ESP course. In contrast, an extensive ESP course occupies only a small part of a student's timetable or a professional person's work schedule. ESP courses, both EOP and EAP, are frequently intensive. Companies send their managers, secretaries or technicians on short intensive courses in the expectation that an exclusive concentration on certain skills or language for the period of the course will greatly enhance their performance in activities that require English. Similarly, intensive EAP pre-study courses are very common in English medium situations. Students are given language improvement and study skills sessions for between one and six months before they actually begin subject courses. The assumption is that they need to reach a certain level of proficiency before they actually begin their subject.

Advantages of intensive courses

There are clear advantages in the intensive course. The students are totally focused on their purpose for learning English and, if the course is residential, they can be immersed in an

English-language environment, even out-side the actual class sessions. They have no distractions and, because of the availability of time, a great deal of variety in the activities can be introduced. Learners can, for example, spend time preparing an oral presentation or writing a report, and then get feedback on their performance. This total focus on the ESP course and the absence of them distractions can mean that the intensive and residential course makes the most effective use of time available for English and study communication skills.

Assessed or non-assessed

A compulsory EAP course, where learners' performance in English is assessed along with other subjects at the end of a semester or academic year, has definite advantages: It raises the status of the subject and should ensure that it is taken seriously by both students and the departments. It does, however, bring responsibilities. Where different groups are taught by different teachers but take the same test, it is vital that teachers coordinate to ensure that the testing is valid and fair. This inevitably means some loss of freedom in the choice of topics and material used on the course.

Assessed courses in EOP

Short intensive EOP are not usually concerned with testing learners' proficiency. There are, however, various standardized tests of proficiency in business and professional communication and many learners will find that passing one of these examinations enhances their career prospects. It is clearly for such a test to be built in on longer intensive and extensive EOP courses.

Teachers as provider or as facilitator/consultant

Teachers as provider of input

The question of the role of the ESP teacher is a very important and a controversial one. In many situations the teacher expects, or is expected, to control the class, to provide information about skills and language, to control the activities, possibly moving into pair or group work for part of the class, but always at the suggestion of the teacher. In these situations the role for the teacher generally matches the expectations of the learners. We define this teacher role as teacher as provider of input and activities.

Teacher as facilitator or consultant.

In other situations the ESP teacher manages rather than controls. S/he may not make decisions about the course design but will negotiate with the learners about what is most appropriate to include, and when to include it. S/he will often get members of the class to bring material for exploitation in class. A development of this is where the teacher knows relatively little about the content or the skill that is being taught in the ESP class, and proceeds by pulling together and organising the information that the learners, and if possible their lecturers or instructors, are able to provide about the language or skill.

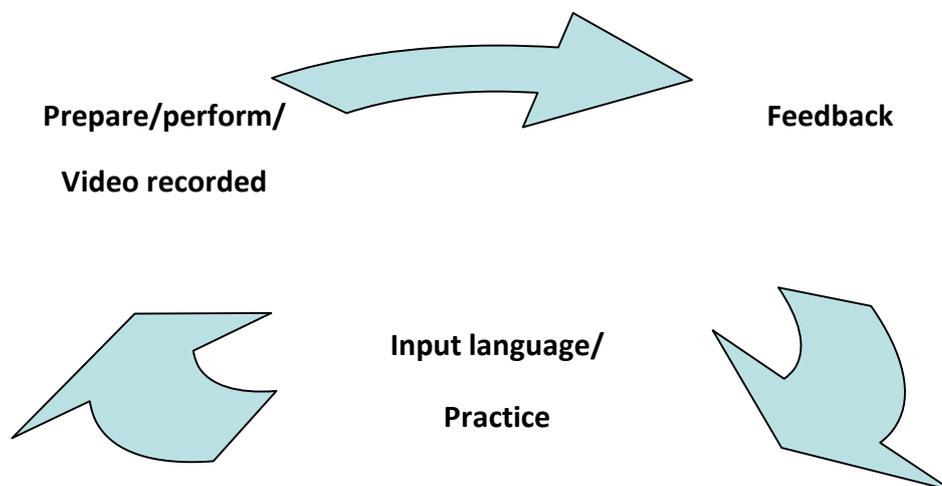
- **Balancing parameters**

In planning a course, ESP teachers should first be aware of the options and of the limitations arising from institutional and learner expectations. In some circumstances, course design may be revised either during the course or, more likely, after the course has been run. Initial revisions may be major, but thereafter the details may only need fine-tuning. In other circumstances the teacher may be designing the course while teaching takes place or negotiating the course with the learners and reacting quickly to the needs as expressed at the beginning of the course and as they

change over the period of the course. It is generally important in such situations that the ESP teacher has a good deal of experience in both teaching, and materials provision and writing.

Course framework

The course was designed to be team- taught and experiential. The cycle of activities is:



At the design stage, a number of mini language practice situations were planned. In fact, all the language practice has been built into the skills task. The course is designed around these and the language supports rather than determines them. The course materials, which are common ó core, consist of in-house handouts and tasks plus Business English; adaptations were made during the first and subsequent courses based on tutor and participant evaluations. The current language components comprise original components () and new aspects covered in a different manner ():

- Use of notes
- Language guidelines relevant to first meeting
- Conventions and expressions for saying õyesõ or õnoõ
- Language discussing change, that is dealing with data- based facts and figures
- Guided self study

Language for introducing visual aids

Language for structuring presentation

Daily vocabulary development work

Intensive listening practice based on video extracts

Input and practice in questioning techniques

This example illustrates a situation where teaching and course design happen simultaneously and a satisfactory course is achieved over time through a number of revisions;

- **Developing a Course Outline**

Coming up with a course design is a dynamic mix of juggling and doing jigsaw puzzles. Juggling because there are a lot of different aspects to keep in mind and keep between moving between

the balls a juggler has to keep in the air. Jigsaw puzzles because we are taking different pieces and shifting them around until they fit to make a satisfactory picture. With the range of ESP courses that have been taught around the world and the materials published, even for a new course, we should not have to start from scratch- to invent a wheel. As with needs analysis, an important part of the process is to learn from what else we and others have done. The target events will have been broken down into skill areas and the appropriate rhetorical awareness considered as part of the analysis:

- Writing a good introduction;
- Citing sources and attributing ideas;
- Writing in an academic style;
- Discussing data;

Within those the students needed to develop an awareness of how to handle others` ideas, what it was acceptable to use, what should be quoted and what could be termed plagiarism. At the course design stage these skill areas also have to be ordered and the same criteria apply; because writing in an academic style is the most general of the skills, and will be used throughout the assignment, it is the first component.

Associated with each of the four skills areas are particular functions and language. We can find that particularly the micro- skills and also some of the grammar, even lexis, occur more than once, that is, they match with more than one target event or skill area;

The role of materials and timetabling

We stressed in the chapter on needs analysis the process of discovering, through reading, analyzing texts, observing interactions, and asking questions of experts, exactly what is involved in communicating effectively in the target situation and in learning to do so. Looking at existing materials, published and unpublished, is part of this process; we can learn about skill areas and associated language from materials. Through timetabling a final order for the course outline a time allocation are reached. In some circumstances- courses with few hours or little time for course design- this may be part of the initial juggling. When the course content was outlined, we began to think about how to teach it and how long different activities would require.

That gave us a feel for whether everything could be inclined and which items had to have less time allocated to them. The final order was also influenced by practical learning issues such as:

1. varying the kind of activities throughout the day;
2. not having heavy input session at the work immediately;
3. having interactive rather than passive work immediately after lunch;

Other factors to be built into the course design and timetabling are assessment and evaluation. Both take up course time which must be allowed for. Building them in ensures that they happen and they are planned and effective.

Grading. We have discussed criteria which we use to priorities and order items in a course. We have mentioned blocks which are about grading. What we have not used as a criterion is to go from easier to more difficult. That is something which we address through the materials and how we handle them in class. There is not enough knowledge and evidence about language learning for everyone to order all features of language according to simplicity/ difficulty.

Even if there were, this would not necessarily help an ESP learner. The present perfect may be trickier than the past simple but if both are needed to write a good introduction or discussion then it is no good leaving the present perfect until later. Grading is achieved not through the course order but through the materials and methodology. When the language learning will be difficult, the carrier content needs to be easy. The more difficult an area of language, the more guidance and support a learner needs in exercises and tasks as well as more practice.

We have in this unit looked at the parameters for course design, illustrating these with four case studies from our own experience. We have also looked at the questions of ordering and grading. In our final remarks we will restrict ourselves to two points. The first is to emphasize the importance in course design of looking at other examples from other situations. As we have noted ESP literature is concerned with describing course design. A considerable amount of time and energy can be saved if we learn from these examples, by looking at the decisions other course designers made and at the materials they selected, and then adapt these other approaches to match the particular parameters in our own situation.

Questions:

- **Where the parameters are of course design?**
- **Explain the role of teachers as provider or as facilitator/consultant?**
- **How are balancing parameters built up?**
- **What is current language components developed?**
- **Speak about developing a Course Outline.**
- **What is the role of materials in ESP teaching?**
- **How is timetabling organized?**
- **Speak about grading in ESP.**

LECTURE 9. The role of materials.

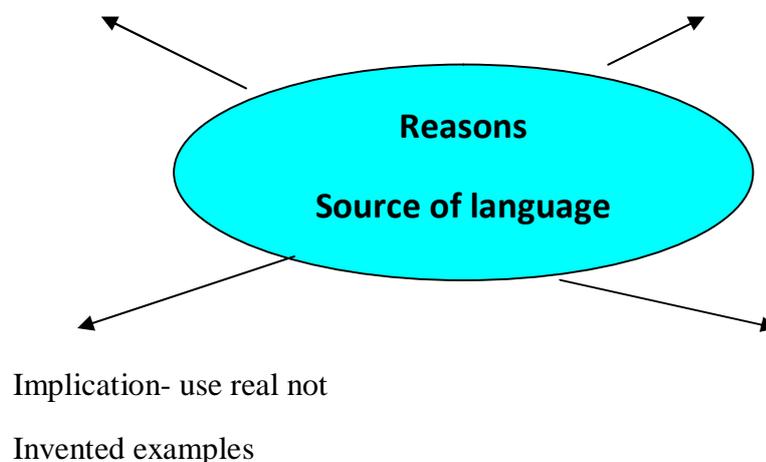
Plan:

- *Aims of the lecture*
- *The purpose of materials*
- *Writers or providers of materials*
- *Teacher- generated materials*
- *Learner generated materials*

Materials are used in all teaching. The core materials are usually paper- based but, where possible, ESP teachers also want to use audio and video cassettes, overhead transparencies, computers, and occasionally other equipments or real objects. In this lecture, we will consider how we can make the most of existing materials or add our own. We will also discuss how we can involve our learners and use learner- generated materials. We begin by considering why we use materials as this has implications for what materials we use and how we use it.

- **The purpose of materials**

Before you read on, we may brainstorm reasons for using materials. Then, for each reason think of the implications that follow. Note these in a table or as an "octopus" as in these examples.



Four reasons for using materials which seem significant in the ESP context are:

1. as a source of language;
2. as a learning support;
3. for motivation and stimulation;
4. for reference;

As a source of language; In some situations, where English is a foreign not a second language, the ESP classroom may be almost the only source of English. Materials then play a crucial role in exposing learners to the language, which implies that the materials need to present real

language, as it is used, and the full range that the learners require. Consider the situation where learners need to extract information from English- medium, if nearly every text comes from magazines such as 'Time' or the 'New Scientist', content and style will be journalistic. The language differs substantially from didactic and pedagogic style of the text books. So, the language is real but it can not provide the range of features that learners require.

Where the classroom is the primary source of language, the materials also need to maximize exposure to the language, for instance, by providing additional material: not everything needs to be studied in detail; interested learners will use it for their own learning practice. Another source of language in materials is the rubrics.

Learning support: as a learning support, materials need to be reliable, that is, to work, to be consistent and to have some recognizable pattern. This need not mean a frigid unit structure; we would argue against a fixed format. The text may lend itself to detailed study and the asking of more than ten questions. More likely, the questions that arise naturally will be fewer. The other questions become trivial fillers and distract from the real objectives. To enhance learning, materials must involve learners in thinking about and using the language. The activities need to stimulate cognitive not mechanical processes. The learners also need a sense of progression. To stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging yet achievable; to offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners' experience and knowledge to encourage fun creativity. The input must contain knowledge that are familiar but it must also offer something new, a reason to communicate, to get involved.

Reference: Many ESP learners have a little time for class contact and rely on a mix of classes, self- study and reference material. For self- study or reference purposes, materials need to be complete, well laid out and self- explanatory. The learner will want explanations, examples and practice activities that have answer and discussion keys.

- **Writers or providers of materials**

All this places high demands on the materials and great pressure on materials writers. Not surprisingly, producing one hour of good learning material gobbles up hours of preparation time. Each stage of finding suitable carrier content, matching real content to learning and real world activities, composing clear rubrics, planning an effective layout, is time- consuming. Preparing new materials from scratch of every course taught is clearly impractical, even if every teacher actually had the ability. This then leads to the myth that every ESP teacher is also a good designer of course materials. What all ESP practitioners have to be good provider of materials will be able to:

- Select appropriately from what is available;
- Be creative with what is available;
- Modify activities to suit learners' needs;
- Supplement by providing extra activities;

Selecting material, like selecting a partner, involves making choices and decisions. To make a good choice we need to have good criteria on which to base our decision. Numerous criteria, such as factors about the learners, the role of the materials, the topics, the language, the presentation, have been put forward for the analysis of materials and each of them has validity. Operating with so many possible variables is difficult. Very often it is not a whole book we need to evaluate but just an activity. Identifying and separating the real content and the carrier content of particular activities is crucial to this process.

Often, being creative with what is available is crucial, especially if the work environment is heavily constrained. Situations can vary along the cline of:

- Freedom to choose from any material;
- Small range of material to choose from;
- Given materials have to be used;

For instance, on a recent in-service development course one teacher was very frustrated because she had to work with a set book which she and her computer science learners found dull and out-of-date. This was a situation which called for two simultaneous strands of action: preparing a persuasive case to change the situation and being creative with the existing situation. Where possible no one would use unsuitable carrier content but there can be situations where there is no alternative. Until we have succeeded in changing the situation we have to be creative.

The fact of being creative can put a new perspective on material and reveal possibilities such that it is no longer making the best of a difficult situation. With input the carrier content is out-of-date, learners could:

- Extract what is no longer true;
- Separate what they already know from what is new;
- Extract what is true and re-write or re-tell it;

Modifying activities is generally for when the input and carrier content are adequate but some or all of the exploitation is unsuitable.

Possible modifications:

Reason 1. Select the activities that are central to the core objective. With a mixed group these could be carried out by everyone while other activities could be selected for weaker learners to practice later or faster learners to work in spare class time.

Reason 2. Replace them with activities which focus on or drop the activity. This may mean preparing a new activity.

Reason 3. Change the rubric to change the focus or drop the activity. Examples are activities which require learners to manipulate grammar constructions without reference to meaning.

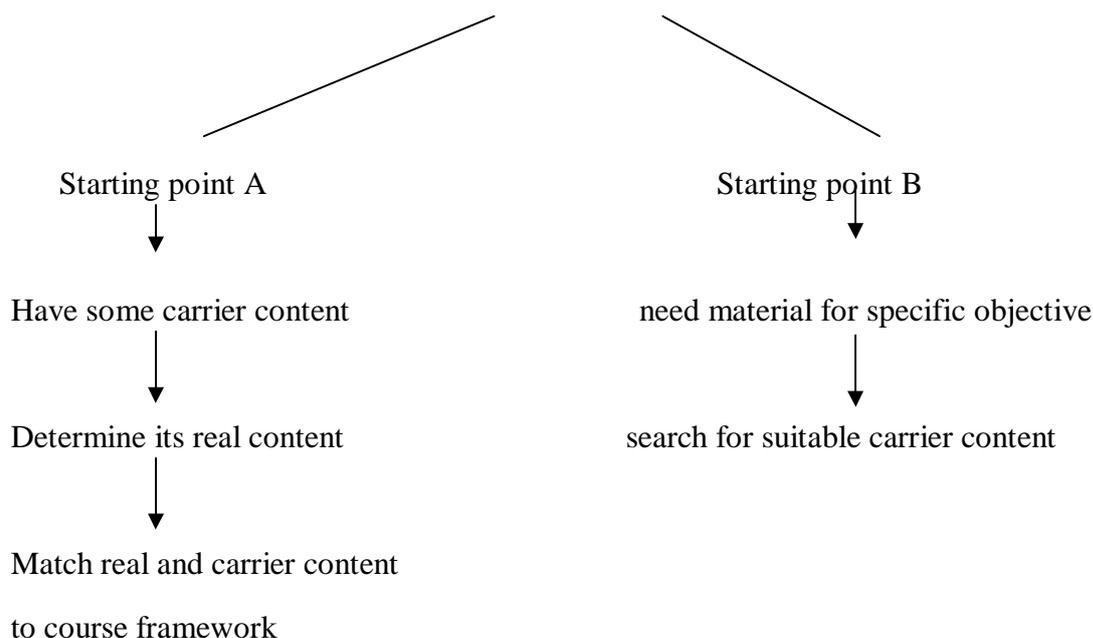
Reason 4. Add in an activity or two before those given in the material.

- **Teacher-generated materials**

The development of new materials along traditional lines could be from one of two directions: this may come from a client or from the learners or be something we have come across. When the starting point is good carrier content, the next stage is to analyze it to determine what real content, it could be exploited for. Then it is a question of whether, where and how that real content fits into the course. The other starting point is where there is a gap in the course material; that is, there is a course objective. Some real content for which there is, no suitable material available. In this case, the first stage is to search for some suitable carrier content.

These two possibilities can be represented as:

Process for preparing new materials



When the real and carrier content are matched, the next stage is to draft activities. The resources, group sizes, approaches to learning and target activities must be considered when selecting activities so that they are appropriate for the learning environment. In ESP, the learners are not primarily language learners; they are or have been learners of other disciplines and this has to be a major consideration in the devising and delivering of a course. Providing variety is essential in any language class, but we feel that it is particularly important in an ESP class as there is sometimes the danger of the ESP class becoming rather a dry affair that fails to motivate learners. We need to practice a number of micro- skills in one class, we need to introduce a range of activity types and we need to vary the type of interaction taking place during the class.

Variety in the micro- skills

A class may have as its aim one particular macro- skill, such as writing, but the use of other macro- skills will both help the learning of the target macro- skills and provide variety for the class. In the same way we feel that we should ensure that we focus on a number of micro- skills in a class; a reading class dominated by, say, deducing the meaning from context is likely to be less effective and motivating than one that focuses on a number of related micro- skills, for example deducing meaning from context, learning certain key core business vocabulary its and investigating collocations. Many textbooks use a relatively narrow range of exercises types but we have always found that the use of a wide range of types increases motivation, for both the learners and the teacher. A visual element in an exercise is often effective as it both increases variety and avoids the danger of too much writing to be read and understood as input for a task. We can use visuals for language work, to generate spoken or written production, and as a comprehension check on a reading or listening passage.

We need to ensure that the ESP class is varied in the nature of its interaction. Changes from teacher input to individual work to pair work to class discussion can provide this so long as they are not overdone. A final, important step is to present the material well. This includes writing good, consistent rubrics, planning layout and proofing. Consistency helps learners to focus on learning rather than working out what to do.

- **Learner generated materials**

Learner-generated material can provide both carrier content and activities. Another way in which learners can provide carrier content is through framework materials. Most materials provide carrier content and activities for input and practice, and one of the major difficulties ESP materials writers face is balancing the levels and appropriateness of carrier content and real content. Framework materials remove that difficulty. They do not provide carrier content, instead they set a context, a framework, within which the learners fit their own carrier content and their existing language competence. Framework materials take the same concept of visual, diagrammatic representations but use them for the production of language. So, the ideas that are fitted into the framework are the learners' and the framework is a device for organizing those ideas. The framework below is useful for comparison, contrast or the listing of advantages and disadvantages of a modified production process, a proposed promotional campaign, a new product idea, a structural re-organization or the opening of a new agency. The learners fit their own content into the framework.

Compare and contrast

Relocation of head office to a new site		
London		Midlands
Prestigious		space to expand
close to Heathrow airport		some loss of personnel
traffic congestion		more flexible layout
more expensive		good road their communication
		short term re- location

Advantages and disadvantages

Production process		
Advantages		Disadvantages

Framework materials supplement rather than replace more traditional materials. They may be used at a practice stage after specific language input or as a starting point for deep-end approach. Some frameworks are designed to be completed by an individual while others require two or more people. The frameworks can also be used for specific language practice. With a flow diagram the grammatical structures used with *before*, *after*, *while*, *when* can be introduced and practiced, as can the active and passive; by using an old, current or a future

process, different verb tenses can be worked on the comparative. Framework materials are enjoyed most by people with right-brained learning styles because they use visual representation. With groups where learning styles are mixed, they complement the more left-brained materials and provide a more balanced mix. Learners, who have only experienced traditional, teacher-centered education, may need help and time to adjust to the concept of framework materials. In keeping with our earlier discussion materials, we recommend first using published frameworks devised and tested by others. When modifying or devising additional frameworks, the golden rule would be "Keep it simple". The visual variables within the frameworks are:

- Shape;
- Size;
- Color;
- Relative position;
- Connections;

Creativity and learner involvement is also possible using traditional materials through adopting a non-traditional approach to some of the activities. It has been traditional for teachers to ask all the questions. In ESP situations, teachers may not know what the most appropriate questions are while their learners may.

Text comprehension: working with a partner, learners prepare comprehension questions on a text. They exchange with another pair and answer the questions they are given. This can be extended to language work around the wording or phrasing of the questions. A further class activity is to compare all the questions and discuss which they are best. The discussion usually helps to distinguish main points from minor issues. The group can select best ones and then there is set of questions the teacher can use for another group.

Note taking/ information transfer. Similarly, learners can devise information transfer activities for their peers to complete.

Vocabulary development: learners can generate their own sets or word partnership; they can devise matching and grouping activities and try them out on each other.

Questions:

- **What are the purposes of materials?**
- **Speak about writers or providers of materials**
- **What is the specific feature of selecting materials?**
- **What are the possible modifications for selecting materials?**
- **What is process for preparing new materials?**
- **Speak about the variety in the micro- skills.**
- **What are the learner generated materials?**
- **What are specific factors of framework and creative materials?**

Teaching and learning materials

Another effect is one kind of teaching materials used. Framework materials which use learners' experience are a good example. The carrier content comes from those with that knowledge – the specialists, the language learners. By owned authentic materials we mean materials which the individual learners use or produce versus authentic material from the discipline. Thus the business report that is being written or the taped lecture or recommended reading text on which notes need to be made have an immediacy and focused purpose that published material can not have.

Psychological research has shown that there are quite different ways of viewing the world and approaching learning. Our general approach may be predominantly right-brained or left-brained or a mix. Our culture also affects our learning style. Learning is a social process and so attitudes to learning and views of language have cultural dimensions to them, determined by national culture, professional culture, and individual culture. In language learning significant factors are also the extent to which an individual is visually, aurally or kinesthetically oriented. Visually oriented learners need to see words to remember them and will read and write a lot; auditory oriented learners can recall pronunciation and meaning from hearing only. Kinesthetic learners are stimulated by touch and movement and benefit from learning through games and drama. In addition, in ESP situation we also need to activate and build on the learning styles and strategies which have been developed through the specialist field that is through the academic and professional culture.

Learning style is different from leaning strategies which are specific behaviors or techniques learners use such as grouping words, holding mental conversation with themselves, getting someone to read aloud to them, watching TV. The strategies chosen are often linked to the individual's learning styles. Following a text while it is read aloud is helpful for visually oriented learners, while watching TV can suit auditory learners. Research studies have shown that learning can be enhanced by teaching in ways that encourage students to activate their own learning styles.

- **Case studies.**

Case studies are a feature of many professional courses such as business, law, engineering and medicine. Their purpose is to present students with some aspect of a real-life scenario, through which they can apply and integrate knowledge, skills, theory and any experience. The role of case studies varies from one profession to another: in law, cases establish precedent; in medicine, case conferences can take the form of an enquiry as to whether there is anything else that can be done. On business courses, the students are presented with data concerning some organization's business and a brief which could comprise some questions, a specific problem or a decision about where would you go, what would you do now? These case studies are carried out in syndicates which provide experience of team work and develop students' abilities to fulfill various team functions and roles. The results may be written up as a report or poster and presented orally. Evaluation considers the accuracy of the analysis, the appropriacy of any models applied and the business rationale behind the proposed solution.

The business case study approach fits comfortably within ESP principles since it is activity based, often uses authentic material and involves learners in both individual and group work. On the negative side, business case studies can involve a large amount of background reading, difficult texts and difficult concepts. Data overload is a feature of their constructions, so the time to read, understand and absorb the data can be over-ling when the students' aim is to develop language and skills. They could easily do the following tasks:

- Design an advertisement / a market research questionnaire/ a poster;
- Write a letter/ a report;
- Draw up a business plan;
- Design an announcement for display on computer screen;

The case study approach can be broken down into three main stages:

- Data input;
- Data processing;
- Output presentation;

Both the cases and the way it is used can reflect the learner's professional world. However, each of the three stages may be handled slightly differently for ESP purposes; there may be more structuring of activities than usual and more of the work may be carried out in class so that language work can be undertaken as required.

Project work.

In case study, the resource materials and brief which generate the language and skills development are given to students. In project work it is the students who find and assimilate information for a brief that preferably, they have generated for themselves. When students are well-prepared for project work and understand what is required of them, the purpose and the benefits, their motivation can be high. Project work can be very rewarding but it is also a high risk activity. Students have to search out information for them, so there is a good deal of out of class activity. The project begins in the classroom, moves into the outside world and then back into the classroom, and provides an opportunity for real world and classroom experience to overlap.

Project work has become a standard feature of much EAP work as most students have to carry out a project during their undergraduate studies. In subject projects students generally have to:

- Generate a hypothesis;
- Carry out a literature review;
- Test the hypothesis;
- Write a report;
- Give an oral presentation or seminar;

In many situations in life we gather information from more than one source, collate it, select from it and then transform it into spoken or written format to transmit to someone else. In ESP, it is appropriate to provide opportunities for this, for example by giving several texts for reading, or listening and setting a task that exploit them jointly.

- **Class size.**

Class size can vary immensely; an ESP teacher could have just one student, for example a business person; an ESP teacher could have several hundred of students. The notion of when a class is large is not an absolute that is there is no given number of learners above which a class is

large. In primary and secondary education a class of over 35- 40 pupils may be large class. In private EFL schools, over 15 students could be large. The term 'large class' sets up negative connotations of undesirable consequences and problems. The difficulties teachers of large classes around the world feel they face are similar; and each situation will have a unique constellation of factors that require a particular solution. The challenges which teachers around the world have listed during workshops revolve around the issues such as control, for example of behavior and noise; assessment and feedback; individual attention; mixed abilities; use of mother tongue. The solutions that teachers have proposed and practiced generally involve a shift of attitudes and encouragement of the strategies that the students use to cope with large classes.

Changing the numbers:

- Run classes alternatively;
- Combine and split classes;
- Team- teach;
- Get the authorities to increase resources;

Changing approach:

- Allow students to consult each other;
- Introduce pair and group work;
- Introduce new feedback procedures;
- Have core and alternative activities;

The essence behind most of these approaches seems to be four 'I's

- **Involvement**
- **Interaction**
- **Individualization**
- **Independence**

with a modified teacher role as manager rather than controller. *Involvement* can actually reduce rather than raise noise levels as the buzz of activity *interaction* is different to that of noisy boredom. *Individualization* is not *one-* to *one* attention but allowing each person to be in individual work and contribute in own manner. *Independence* results from the teacher allowing students to learn in their own ways rather than controlling them through teaching.

- **Beyond the classroom.**

Developments in technology increases in demand but not in resources, and research into learning are all changing the face of how, where and when people learn. Two factors coalesce the understanding that learning is exploring and the ability of technology to provide wide spaces for exploration. In these two senses the use of technology complements and extends the learner centered methodology that predominates in ELT and ESP teaching. The main advantage is that learners can access the source of materials in their own time, work through the material at their own pace, choosing topics and subject areas to match their own interests and do all this without necessarily having to interact with a teacher.

Five modes of technology.

Essentially there are five modes that are being used in language learning and, to some extent, ESP teaching. They are the use of video discs, CD-ROM, Internet or World Wide Web, e-mail, computer for either CALL (COMPUTER AIDED LANGUAGE LEARNING). We will take video discs and CD- ROMS together. They can be used:

1. to support a course by;
2. to enhance a course by providing extra topics;
3. as free standing material;
4. to provide data which can be exploited for language purposes;
5. to provide authentic materials originally designed for a purpose other than learning language.

Two particular features of CD-ROMs make them invaluable in helping learners with oral production and in listening to monology. It is possible to record yourself speaking and then compare very small features of pronunciation, intonation, or lexis with a model much more easily than it is when using a cassette recorder. With monologue it is possible to examine very closely a particular part of a lecture or presentation, for example an intonation feature, by clicking onto a splits second of the recording and playing it again until you have grasped completely what the speaker is doing.

The Internet

It provides the opportunity for course to be used by all learners with access to the Internet. This means that a language school or a language center can place an ESP course on the Internet, and that course may then be used by any student. It also can be used as a source of material for ESP classes, generally where students are involved in the project work or case studies. Here the students can either have access the relevant web page and use the information, or they can download the actual pages for use in the ESP activity.

Perhaps of most interest to ESP practitioner are interactive courses with tutor presence and peer interaction. The patterns of interaction are:

- participant to text;
- one- to ó one participant;
- peer to peer in pairs or groups;
- whole group;
- whole group plus tutor;

E-mail communication

E ómail communication has become widespread in communication between educational, administrative and business institutions. ESP learners will almost certainly need to become familiar with the conventions of writing e- mail messages, but this is a different question from that of how e- mail can be used in ESP teaching. We have read of e- mail being used for commenting on students` writing and also for student- to student peer commenting.

CALL MATERIALS

CALL materials have all the advantages of self-access materials; learners can work on their own and can carry out tasks without support or feedback from the teacher. Materials for CALL are generally produced using authoring packages which enable the teacher to introduce exercise types. Flowerdew (1995) describes how a principled ESP approach to course design was used to develop a CALL program to help students acquire job seeking skills, such as writing application letters and preparing CVs.

For ESP teaching the corpora provide a resource for students wanting to check whether they have used the correct collocation in their writing. Students or professional writers usually do their writing themselves on the word processor; they thus have opportunity to check collocations very easily with the use of different programs.

Questions:

- **What is the aim of the topic?**
- **What is the role of learners' specialist knowledge?**
- **How are teaching and learning materials selected?**
- **What is Case study? How it is organized?**
- **What is the main factor of Project work?**
- **Speak about the class size?**
- **What are four approaches of ESP class?**
- **What do you understand by beyond the classroom statement?**
- **Speak about five modes of technology.**
- **What is the advantage of using the Internet, E-mail communication, and CALL materials?**

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