

MODULE 1 HISTORICAL AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ESP

INTRODUCTION

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

- Unit 1 Definition and Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
- Unit 2 Types and Reasons for the Evolution of ESP
- Unit 3 History and Phases in the Development of ESP
- Unit 4 Differences between ESP and General English; ESP Practitioner and General English Teacher
- Unit 5 Ways of Training EFL Teachers for ESP Teaching

UNIT 1 DEFINITIONS, CHARACTERISTICS AND PRINCIPLES OF ESP

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

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

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define ESP;
- state the relationship between ESP and ELT;
- describe some characteristics of ESP; and
- discuss Swale's (1990) enduring conceptions of ESP.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
- e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is ESP?

Let's start with a question. What is ESP? Read the answer. From the outset, the term ESP was a source of contention with many arguments as to what exactly was ESP? Even today there is a large amount of on-

going debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP constitutes (Belcher, 2006, Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, Anthony, 1997). I would add that as general English courses become increasingly specialized and learner centred with many courses using needs analysis, it is getting harder to describe what ESP is and what “General English” is.

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

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

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

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

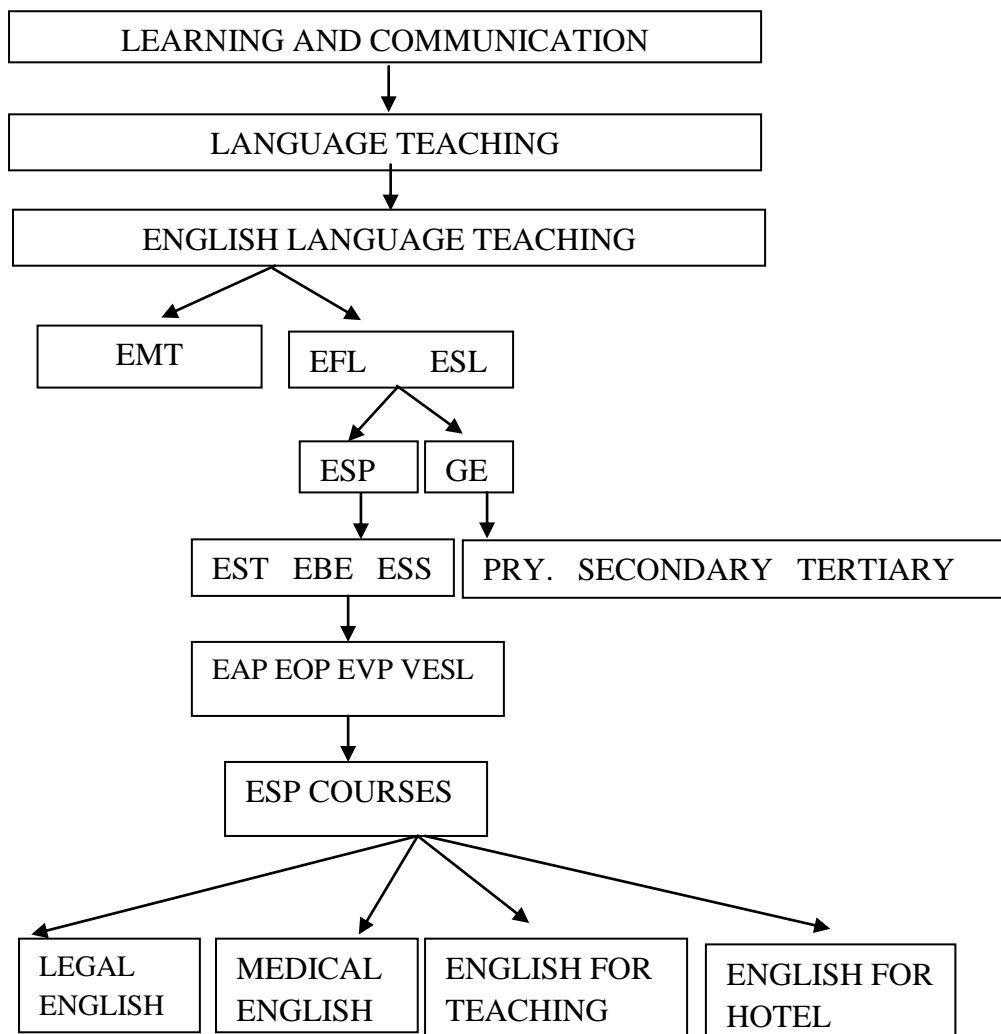
- i. Using at least three definitions, explain the term ESP.
- ii. “ESP is a process not a product”. Explain.

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

Now that you know what ESP is, let us examine ESP as a branch of ELT. Robinson (1989) describes ESP as a type of English Language Teaching (ELT) and defines it as: “Goal-oriented language learning” (p.

398). This means a student has a specific goal that is going to be attained. Coffey (1985) sees ESP as a major part of communicative language teaching in general. Umera-Okeke (2005, p. 4) adapting Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ELT Tree traced the relationship between ELT and ESP. She establishes that the general purpose of language teaching was initially as a result of learning and communication which was later narrowed to ELT. English was taught as a Mother Tongue (EMT), a Foreign Language (EFL) or a Second Language (ESL). It was ESL and EFL as branches of ELT that later gave rise to ESP and GE. This is as illustrated in *The ELT Diagram* below.

Fig 1: The ELT Diagram (Source: Umera-Okeke, 2005:4)



The diagram illustrates that ESP is an approach to language teaching. This is similar to the conclusion made by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who state that, “ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning” (p.19). It is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of

English; not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists; not different from any other kind of language teaching but concerns what people do with the language and the range of knowledge and abilities that enable them to do it (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981). This definition is against seeing ESP as a product, that is, there is no particular kind of language or methodology nor does it consist of a particular type of reading material. It is rather an approach to language learning based on learner's need (Why does the learner need to learn a foreign language?).

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

1. ESP has specific needs.
2. ESP has content related materials.
3. ESP is centred on particular language function, skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading); English components (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary) or activities.
4. ESP is learner-centred.
5. ESP is perceived as relevant by the learners.

SELF -ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- i. How can you describe ESP in relation to ELT?
- ii. "ESP is an approach, not a product". Discuss.

3.3 Characteristics of ESP

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

As a distance learner, what do you need English language for? You need English to read your manuals, write your assignments, listen and understand what is said during interactive contact sessions.

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

1. designed to meet the specific needs of the learner;
2. related in content to particular disciplines or occupations;
3. centred on language specific to those disciplines or occupations;
4. in contrast to General English.

The variable characteristics are that courses may:

1. be restricted in the skills to be learned;
2. not be taught according to a particular methodology.

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

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

Absolute Characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
3. ESP is centred on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English.
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems (p.4).

This description helps to clarify, to a certain degree, what an ESP course constitutes and what it does not constitute. Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristics that “ESP is in contrast with General English” and added more variable characteristics. They assert

that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline and that it is likely to be used with adult learners, although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting. ESP should be viewed as an “approach” to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an “attitude of mind.”

Other characteristics are that ESP courses are generally limited to a certain time period, and that they are taught to adults in classes that are homogeneous in terms of the work or study that participants are doing. However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 1992) do not emphasize any concrete limits of students’ level or age; they emphasize learners’ individual needs and specialist knowledge of using English for specific purposes.

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

- i. Using Dudley-Evans and St. John’s (1998) definition, write out five characteristics of ESP.
- ii. At the centre of all ESP courses is the learner. Expatiate.
- iii. What are the three features common to ESP?

3.4 The Basic Conceptions/Principles of ESP

At this point, you should note that there are five conceptions considered to be the foundations, essential features or basic principles of ESP. Swales (1990) uses the term “enduring conceptions” to refer to them.

These five conceptions are: authenticity, research-base, language/text, need and learning/methodology. These five conceptions originate from both the real world (the “target situation” of the ESP) and ESP pedagogy. It is therefore crucial to discuss each of them in an attempt to survey the development and directions of ESP. As a matter of fact, each of the conceptions will identify a focus-based approach to ESP and serves as a contribution to the concept of ESP itself.

3.4.1 Authenticity

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

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

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

3.4.2 Research Base

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

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

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

As an offspring of discourse analysis, the genre-analysis approach seeks to see text as a whole rather than as a collection of isolated units. According to Johnson (1995), this is achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of the text through a series of phases or 'moves'. The major difference between discourse analysis and genre analysis is that, while discourse analysis identifies the functional components of text,

genre analysis enables the material writer to sequence these functions into a series to capture the overall structure of such texts. The limitation of genre analysis has been a disappointing lack of application of research to pedagogy. There are few examples of teaching materials based on genre-analysis research.

3.4.3 Learning Needs

Another basic conception of ESP is learning needs. It is based on the premise that all language teaching must be designed for the "specific learning and language use purposes of identified groups of students" (Mackay & Mountford, 1978, p. 6). Thus, a systematic analysis of these specific learning needs and language-use purposes (communication needs) is a pre-requisite for making the content of a language programme relevant to the learners' needs.

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

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

is required for successful English usage in these areas? You begin with these basic questions so as to survey what will be needed.

Needs analysis was firmly established in the mid-1970s as course designers came to see learners' purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP. Early instruments, notably Munby's (1978) model, establishes needs by investigating the target situation for which learners were being prepared. Munby's model clearly establishes the place of needs as central to ESP, indeed the necessary starting point in materials or course design. However, his model has been widely criticized for two apparently conflicting reasons: (i) its over-fullness in design, and (ii) what it fails to take into account (that is, socio-political considerations, logistical considerations, administrative considerations, psycho-pedagogic, and methodological considerations).

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

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

As a distance learner, you should be able to assess your English language level and be able to determine what you lack in the areas of:

- **speaking English**, especially the sounds that you find difficult to pronounce;
- **reading**: your undesirable habits that cause slowness in reading;
and
- **writing**: some of the language errors you make while writing English.

Practice English always to eliminate these undesirable areas of deficiency.

Strategy analysis seeks to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn. By investigating learners' preferred

learning styles and strategies, strategy analysis provides a picture of the learner's conception of learning.

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

3.4.4 Learning/Methodology

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

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

The classroom that is learning-centred must keep learners busy throughout the lesson. Learners should engage in challenging tasks such as building, constructing, and designing language for effective communication. As you read your manuals, you should also engage yourself in diverse learning activities such as listing points, writing assignments and so on.

However, in order for an ESP programme to be successful, it would not be sufficient to identify learners' needs, create syllabuses and adopt methodologies that serve these needs. These are not the whole picture. One very important issue in the context of ESP is programme assessment. Assessment involves an evaluation of the learners' ability to communicate effectively using the target language, as well as their

ability to participate fully in the target discourse communities which have been initially defined as relevant to their needs. The formative purpose of such assessment is reflected in the possibility for the learners to use it as feedback on how they can improve their performance, and for the teacher on how he or she can adapt his or her teaching to better fit with the needs of the learners.

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Briefly discuss Swales' (1990) enduring conceptions of ESP.

4.0 CONCLUSION

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

5.0 SUMMARY

As you have read, ESP is classified based on the need it is supposed to fulfil. It is just a process and a trend in language teaching that considers not the structure of the language but the ways in which language is actually used in real communication. It is learner or learning-centred, deals with learner's needs, interest and motivation. It is also geared toward discovering the features of specific situations and then making these features the basis of the learner's course. In this unit we have established ESP as a major part of communicative language teaching in general which is based on the language need of learners. It has been seen as a process of language teaching with no specialized materials or methods; rather, the emphasis is on what learners do with the language

in specialized contexts. In sum, five conceptions/principles of ESP originating from its target situation have been discussed and they include: authenticity, research-base, language/text, need and learning/methodology.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Aptly describe at least four characteristics of ESP.
- ii. Discuss learning/methodology as a principle of ESP.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 TYPES AND REASONS FOR THE EVOLUTION OF ESP

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- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you read about what ESP is. It was mentioned to be a trend in language teaching and learning with the learner at the centre of everything. We also discussed the general principles of ESP. In this unit we will take you into the reasons for the evolution of ESP. It could be said to be as a result of the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and focus on the learner. The unit will also discuss the two branches of ESP - English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). The time frame available for the adult ESP learner to master the English for these purposes will also be explained in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the factors that led to the emergence of ESP as an approach to English Language Teaching (ELT);
- clearly define and explain the different types of ESP; and
- discuss the yardstick for the division of EOP and EAP according to time frame.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
- e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Reasons for the Evolution of ESP

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

3.1.1 The Demands of a Brave New World

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

countries. The language of this knowledge became English. This led, consequently, to exerting pressure on the language teaching profession.

3.1.2 A Revolution in Linguistics

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

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

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

Assess how much the present English language courses meet your learning needs using the outline below:

1. Ability to speak very well.
2. Ability to read English extensively.
3. Opportunities to write English every day.

The courses must meet all the above learning needs to be effective.

3.1.3 Focus on the Learners

The final reason that Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned to have influenced the emergence of ESP has more to do with the development of educational psychology than linguistics. More attention was given in the 70s to the means through which a learner acquires a language and ways in which it is learnt. Hence, there was a shift of focus from methods of language learning to the different learning strategies, different skills, and different motivating needs and interests employed

by different learners. This consequently led to a focus on learners' need and designing specific courses to better meet individual needs. The learner's needs and interest was seen to have bearing on their motivation. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. The result of this was a natural extension of "learner-centred" or "learning-centred" perspectives on ESP. Texts were taken from the learner's area of specialization and English lessons developed from them. This increases learner's motivation and makes learning better and faster.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention and explain three factors that led to the emergence of ESP.

3.2 Types of ESP

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

- ❖ Occupational requirements; for international telephone operations, civil airline, pilot, etc.
- ❖ Vocational training programme for hotel and catering staff, technical trades, etc.
- ❖ Academic or professional study, engineering, medicine, law, etc (p. 2).

In their classifications, they distinguish between "language" and "restricted language" use of English language with this statement: ...the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (Mackay & Mountford 1978, pp. 4-5).

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

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

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

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

- ❖ English for Science and Technology (EST),
- ❖ English for Business and Economics (EBE), and
- ❖ English for Social Studies (ESS) (p. 17).

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

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

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

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

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

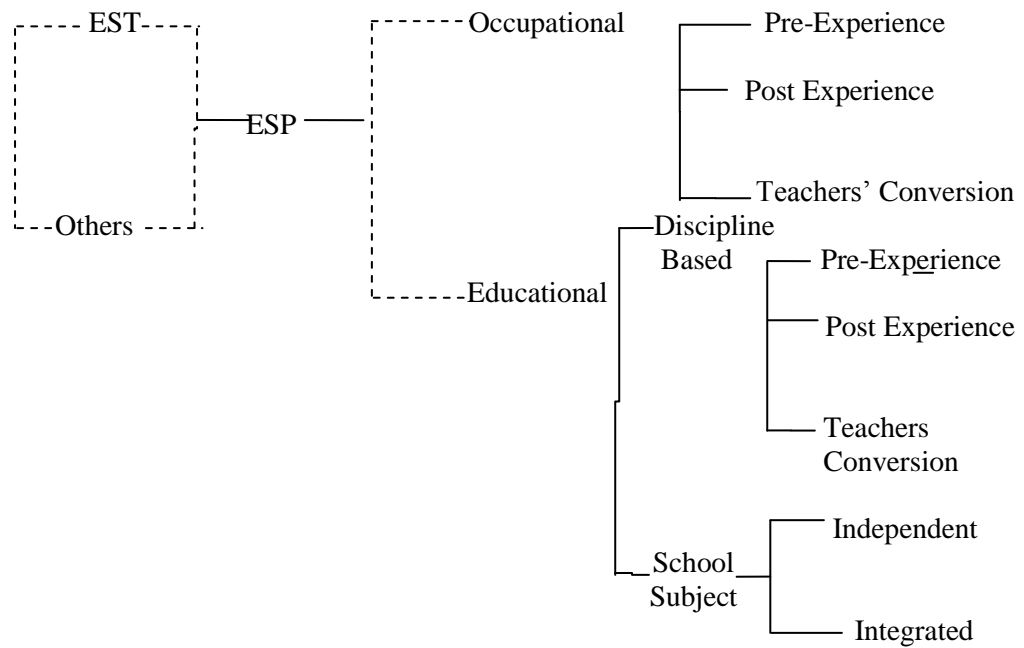
Pre-experience indicates that the English for the job is being taught simultaneously with the learning of the job itself. Munby gave as an example of pre-experience EOP as an Indonesian working in an oil field at the same time as he is being instructed in the job itself. Teacher's conversion courses mean re-training as teachers of other languages to enable them to convert to teaching English, either additionally or alternatively.

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

An area of EOP that is less developed is English for Teaching Purposes or English for Primary School Teachers, English for Secondary School Teachers and English for Teachers of Tertiary Institutions. As you go through this course, think of specific English words, expressions or discourse that are used by this group of professionals.

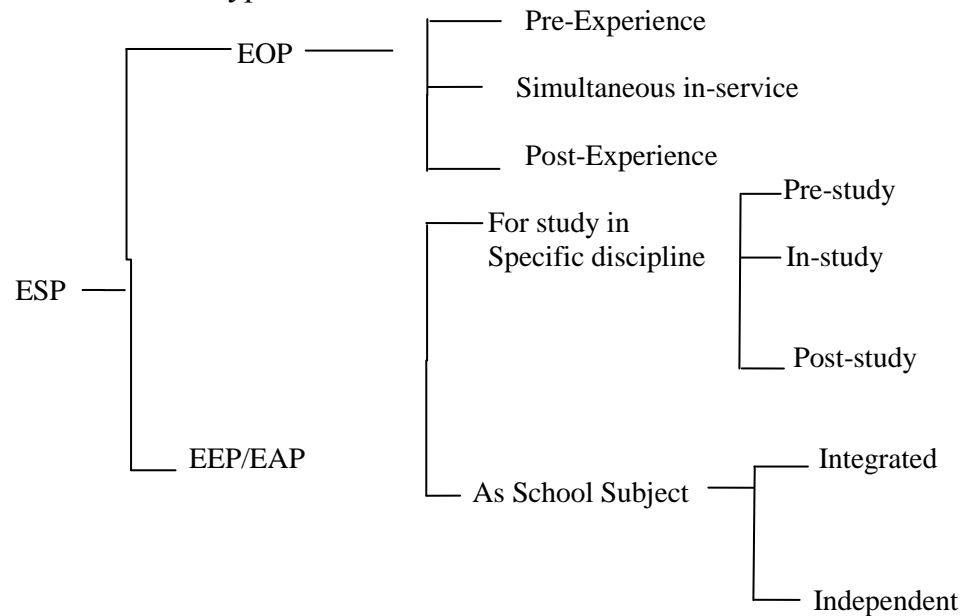
The distinctions that came as a result of ESP necessitate collaboration between the content teacher and the ESP teacher. While the content teacher provides the content and culture of the discipline/profession, the ESP teacher will look into how language is used in that profession. Below are figures showing Strevens' and Robinson's classifications of ESP, reflecting the time frame for learning.

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



Robinson (1991, p.3) in her classification also indicated the time for learning in an ESP programme as shown in the figure below:

Fig 3: Robinson's Types of ESP



SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- i. On what basis was ESP divided? State and explain the types of ESP.
- ii. Educational ESP varies according to the aims and framework within which it is offered. Explain.
- iii. What do you understand by ESP as a school subject and ESP as a study in specific discipline?

4.0 CONCLUSION

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

5.0 SUMMARY

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

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

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

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UNIT 3 HISTORY AND PHASES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ESP

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction of the Unit
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 History and Growth of ESP
 - 3.2 Phases in the Development of ESP
 - 3.2.1 Register Analysis
 - 3.2.2 Rhetorical and discourse analysis
 - 3.2.3 Analysis of study skills
 - 3.2.4 Analysis of learning needs
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

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

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- trace the growth and history of ESP;
- describe each phase in the development of ESP;
- State the differences in the phases;
- differentiate between language use and language learning;
- explain what is meant by CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content-based Instruction) and TBL (Task-based Learning); and
- outline the criticisms against register analysis.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
- e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The History and Growth of ESP

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

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

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

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

Another application of ESP is the Content-Based Instruction (CBI), which focuses on the teaching of academic English through content knowledge. Language learning and content of subject matter could be brought together because a foreign language is most successfully acquired when learners are engaged in its meaningful and purposeful use. The integration of language and content involves the incorporation of content material into language classes. Content can provide a motivational and cognitive basis for language learning since it is

interesting and of some value to the learner (Brewster, 1999). Kasper (1997) has greatly strengthened the evidence for the effectiveness of content-based courses. She has reported both improved language and content performance among students exposed to content-based English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes and they have higher scores in reading proficiency and higher pass rates on ESL (English as a Second Language) courses. She has also supplied quantitative evidence that such students gain a performance advantage over students who are exposed to non-content based ESP training and that they maintain it in the following years.

Do you know that you can use the reading of the content of this manual to learn English? As you go through the manual, note some unfamiliar vocabulary items and expressions. Use these to increase your knowledge of English.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- i. When did the concept of ESP begin? Briefly describe what led to this growth in the history of language teaching. How is this historical analysis relevant to your field of study?
- ii. Write short notes on CLIL, CBI and TBL as developments in ESP. How can all these make you more knowledgeable in English?

3.2 Phases in the Development of ESP

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

3.2.1 Register Analysis

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

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

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

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

The criticism on register analysis can be summarized as the following:

- It restricts the analysis of texts to the word and sentence level (West, 1998).
- It is only descriptive, not explanatory (Robinson, 1991).
- Most materials produced under the banner of register analysis follow a similar pattern, beginning with a long specialist reading passage which lacks authenticity (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

3.2.2 Rhetorical and Discourse Analysis

Since register analysis operated almost entirely at word and sentence level, the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence and tried to find out how sentences were combined into discourse. Also, West (1998) is of the opinion that the reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. The assumption of this stage was that the difficulties which students encountered arose from the unfamiliarity with the use of English. Consequently, their needs could only be met by

a course that developed the knowledge of how sentences were combined in discourse to make meanings. According to Allen and Widdowson (1974) cited in Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it focused on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. Allen and Widdowson (1974) view the approach as follows:

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

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

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

The discourse analysis approach soon came under attack. One of the shortcomings is its treatment which remains fragmentary, identifying the functional units of discourse at sentence/utterance level but offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text (West, 1998). There is also the danger of discourse analysis: failure to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

The concept of text - the genre analysis approach - came to make up for this shortcoming, as the approach considers text as a total entity, rather

than a collection of unrelated units. Dudley-Evans (1987) conveys the idea in the following way: to teach the writing of certain specific texts such as ... the business or technical report, we need a system analysis that shows how each type of text differs from other types. This, as Johnson (1993) says, can be achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of text through a series of phases or moves.

3.2.3 Target Situation Analysis

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

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

3.2.4 Analysis of Study Skills and Strategies

Strategy analysis seeks to establish learners' preferred learning styles and strategies (Allwright, 1982); means analysis investigates the educational environment in which the ESP course is to take place (Swales, 1989). The assumption of this stage was that underlying all language use there were common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface form, enabled us to extract meaning from discourse (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Therefore, the teaching of language in itself was not sufficient and the thought processes should be addressed. This is because the thinking processes that underlie language use enable us to extract meaning from a discourse. In this stage, ESP teachers focused on the teaching of study skills and assumed that these skills learnt through exercises could be transferred to students' own specific academic studies (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). For

instance, the meaning of words could be guessed from context and the type of a text could also be known by observing the visual layout. ESP at this stage looked for particular skills and strategies that are peculiar to different situations. The emphasis on this stage was on how words are combined to make meaning.

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

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

3.2.5 Analysis of Learning Needs

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

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

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

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

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

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

- teaching and learning styles with which the learners are familiar;
- appropriate or ineffective teaching and learning methods;
- knowledge of specialized contents that teachers should have;
- suitable instructional materials and study location;
- time of study and status of ESP courses;
- expectations about what learners should achieve in the courses;
- and
- how necessary the courses are for the learners.

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

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

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- i. Write and explain three developmental stages in ESP
- ii. What were the criticisms against register analysis?

- iii. Which stages of the developmental phases are termed 'language-centred' and which are 'learner-centred'?

4.0 CONCLUSION

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

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit looked at the stages in the development of ESP. It is a development that started in the 1960s and 1970s and continued till date. At first, the analysis of language was just register analysis to discourse level to analyzing the skills and strategies underlining language learning and finally to learner/learning approach which is the bulk of what this course material shall discuss. In the next unit, we shall be viewing closely the difference between ESP and GE programmes and also find out if the teachers are the same.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Differentiate between language-centred and learner-centred approaches to language learning.

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UNIT 4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ESP AND GENERAL ENGLISH; ESP PRACTITIONER AND GENERAL ENGLISH TEACHER

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Differences between ESP & General English Programmes
 - 3.2 Differences between General English Teacher and the ESP Practitioner
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

Key Words: General English (GE) and ESP Practitioner

1.0 INTRODUCTION

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

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- list and explain the differences between ESP programme and GE programme;
- state the differences between an ESP Practitioner and a GE teacher;
- explain vividly the three major ways of retraining EFL teachers to be able to teach ESP;
- describe the problems of having unqualified ESP teachers; and
- proffer short and long term solutions to the problems.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
- e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Differences between ESP and General English Programmes

Have you ever stopped to wonder what differentiates ESP programme from General English programme? Are they not the same English? Read this unit to discover why the term ESP is not the same as that of General English (GE).

The main difference of ESP and GE is on the purpose of learning English and its focus of language learning, as mentioned by Lorenzo (2005). ESP students... have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job related functions. An ESP programme is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required... ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners (p. 43).

ESP, unlike GE, is followed by the people who already have some background in English mastery and the purpose is to set a 'professional skill' such as speaking, writing and presentation skills in typical job-related situations as well as evaluation and assessment procedure in certain job function. Due to this fact, the focus of ESP is more to "language in context" rather than grammar and the structure of language. Theoretically, ESP is a "dependent subject of study" linked to particular area: vocational, academic, professional (Allen & Widdowson, 1974). Even though some experts do not really consider a

sharp difference between ESP and General English, at least they agree that the *practical outcome* of the learning and the *vocabulary used* in learning are different.

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

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

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

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

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

For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), answer to the question “What is the difference between the ESP and General English approach?” is, “in theory nothing, in practice a great deal” (p. 53). Attention is focused on the language need of learners which is effective communication in different situations in which they find themselves. To meet this communication needs, according to Hortas (1999) view more and more individuals have highly specific academic and professional reasons for seeking to improve their language skills: for these students, usually adults, courses that fall under the heading ‘English’ for special purpose (ESP) hold particular appeal (Cited in Robinson 1991, p. 3).

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

Furthermore, ESP “concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures” (Lorenzo (2005, p. 1). Though I agree with Lorenzo, but I would argue that grammar still plays an important and necessary part in an ESP course. It covers subjects

varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes), instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners.

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

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

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

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

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

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- i. State and explain at least four differences between ESP and General English.
- ii. Why do we say that the line between ESP and General English Courses are vague?
- iii. General English and ESP diverge not only in the nature of the learner, but also in the aim of the instruction. Discuss.

3.2 General English Teacher versus ESP Practitioner

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

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

- (a) Teacher,
- (b) Collaborator,
- (c) Course designer and materials provider,
- (d) Researcher, and
- (e) Evaluator.

3.2.1 Responsibility as a Teacher

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

(i) Organizing Courses

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

(ii) Setting Goals and Objectives

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

(iii) **Creating a Learning Environment**

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

(iv) **Evaluating Students**

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

3.2.2 Responsibility as a Collaborator

Another role of an ESP teacher is collaboration. The role of a 'collaborator' is connected with working with specialists to meet the specific learners' needs. In order to meet the specific needs of the learners and adopt the methodology and activities of the target discipline, the ESP Practitioner must work with field specialists. ESP teacher needs the prior content knowledge. ESP teaching should be in collaboration with the EFL teacher and the content teacher. They can carry out ESP teaching scaffolding each other; the former provides the latter with methodology of language teaching while the latter makes the content meaningful, helping the EFL teacher learn content knowledge. This collaboration, however, does not end at the development stage; it can extend to team teaching, a possibility discussed by Johns et al. (1988). When team teaching is not a possibility, the ESP Practitioner must collaborate more closely with the learners, who are generally more familiar with the specialized content materials than the teacher. Fluency in academic English is an inevitable skill for an ESP teacher to be

successful. ESP teaching requires particular and, sometimes, special skills, such as dealing with language input, handling skills work, answering questions on terminology, listening to lectures, research presentations and seminar skills training.

3.2.3 Course Designer, Materials Provider and a Researcher

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

3.2.4 As an Evaluator

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

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in their contribution, stress that two roles differentiate ESP and GE teachers. Beside the typical duties of classroom teacher, the ESP teacher “deals with needs analysis, syllabus

design, materials writing or adaptation and evaluation; they see “ESP teacher’s role in one of many parts” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.157). The other aspect refers to training ESP teachers, which was not covered as much. The teachers of ESP have to “orientate themselves to a new environment” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1992, p.157). In general, positive attitude to ESP content, learners and previous knowledge of the subject area are required (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 163).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- i. Briefly explain three important roles of an ESP practitioner.
- ii. An ESP practitioner is often regarded as a course designer and evaluator. Explain.
- iii. In which situation can a collaborative teaching exist between the ESP teacher and the content teacher?

4.0 CONCLUSION

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

As an ESL teacher in training you have many things in common with the ESP teacher. You are:

- a course organiser;
- a teacher who should use learner-centred approach to teaching;
- an evaluator;

- a collaborator during teaching activities with content area specialists.

Play these roles in your respective schools.

5.0 SUMMARY

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

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Briefly describe the essential roles of an ESP teacher.

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UNIT 5 WAYS OF TRAINING EFL TEACHERS FOR ESP TEACHING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, the roles of the ESP practitioner were extensively discussed. ESP teaching requires particular and sometimes special skills, such as dealing with language input, handling skills work, answering questions on terminology, and listening to lectures and research presentations and seminar skills training. For this reason, the ESP teacher is supposed to have language and content knowledge of the field. This unit will examine some of the handicaps of the ESP teacher that call for training, how they should be trained and resources available to face the new challenges of language teaching that meet learners' specific needs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain how an ESP teacher will require an extra training to carry out his or her job;
- state how the training should be done; and
- explain ways of equipping the ESP teacher.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.

- e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Why Train ESP Teachers

Can all General English (GE) teachers teach ESP? The answer is no. Language teachers lacking content knowledge to teach ESP feel unprepared to integrate authentic texts, tasks, or tests from content areas in their English classes. In this case, the task of teaching ESP is shouldered by content teachers who have got a degree in a university with English-medium instruction. However, these content teachers without training, skills and strategies for language teaching perceive themselves as unable to help ESP learners to understand academic concepts, facts and knowledge encoded in academic texts through the language that they are still learning.

We train teachers in order to be able to:

- join language and content to provide the learners with a tool to comprehend what they read in their content books; and
- improve their content knowledge in the field and transfer productive linguistic skills needed for effective performance in academic and occupational fields.

Language teachers lacking language and content knowledge to teach academic English feel unprepared to integrate authentic texts, tasks, or tests from content areas in their English classes. In this case, the task of teaching ESP is shouldered by content teachers who have got a degree in a university with English-medium instruction. However, these content teachers without training, skills and strategies for language teaching perceive themselves as unable to help ESP learners to understand academic concepts, facts and knowledge encoded in academic texts through language learning. Consequently, I am of the opinion that EFL teachers who have to teach ESP and content teachers who have to teach academic English should get special training to perform well to meet the needs of tertiary level students. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 157) refer to this as “orientate themselves to a new environment” (p. 157).

3.2 How to Train ESP Teachers

How then should this training be done?

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

3.3 Ways of Equipping ESP Teachers

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

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

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

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

2. *Collaborative work (Team teaching)*

Chen (2000) holds that the language teacher should not be expected to possess sophisticated content knowledge, but basic concepts are needed to design an ESP syllabus that backs up the content course. Indeed, language teachers have not been trained to teach content subjects but they could definitely be a competent ESP teacher if they participate in content teaching classes and thus develop the flexibility to undergo disciplinary acculturation. In this regard, the content teacher shares the

responsibility not only of providing opportunities for the language teacher to overcome the fear of a lack of content knowledge but also of introducing him/her to the modes of disciplinary thought and values. Therefore, language teachers can ask for assistance from content teachers. When this is the case, it is possible, through collaboration and cooperation, for both language and content teachers to develop the confidence and the competence to effectively integrate language and content instruction in ESP teaching, which entails:

- (a) analysis of texts, materials, and curriculum;
- (b) classroom observation, reflection, and feedback;
- (c) collaborative action research and reflection;
- (d) development of integrated or complementary lessons, materials, or curricula;
- (e) Collaborative or team teaching (Crandall, 1998).

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are the consequences of having unqualified ESP teachers?
- ii. List and describe three major ways of re-training EFL teachers for ESP job.

4.0 CONCLUSION

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

5.0 SUMMARY

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

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. List two major ways that could be used to equip prospective ESP teachers.
- ii. What is collaborative work and what does it entail in getting ELT teachers to teach ESP?

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