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**Faculty of Arts and Languages Department of English Language**

**English for Specific Purposes (ESP) : Lectures for Third-Year LMD Students**

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1. **Definition of English for Specific Purposes ESP**

**Objectives:** This lesson aims at providing different definitions to ESP.

ESP is an abbreviation that stands for English for Specific Purposes. It is an approach to language teaching and learning. Thus, it is a branch in Didactics. ESP is related to an urgent need to be satisfied for a clear benefit that can be gained in a pre-set time. “ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose.” Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2).

 ESP is also related to ‘‘situations where the student has some specific reasons to learn a language” Harmer (1983: 1). This reveals that learning a language is closely tied to the leaners’ motives and their conscious learning.

 According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19), ESP is ‘‘An approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and methods are based on the learner’s reason for learning”.. This clarifies that the learner’s reasons and needs are the ones to decide about the “what” and the “how” of the course.

 “ESP is particular case of general category of special-purpose language training. The same principles apply no matter which language is being learnt and taught”. Strevens (1988: 24). This is why different languages inspired from ESP methodology and theories to teach a special language to a special group to satisfy specific needs for learners. Languages for specific purposes (LSP) then share similar principles and methodologies.

**Tasks:**

* Why was ESP introduced in your country? **(**Hutchinson and Waters1987:8)
* What factors decide about the “what” and the “how” of an ESP course? Explain.
* ***"*Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need"** became the guiding principle of ESP. Explain this principle.
1. **ESP versus EGP ( English for General Purposes)**

**Objectives:** This lesson aims at clarifying the distinction between ESP and GE. This will enable students to have a clear idea about what makes ESP different and special.

ESP and EGP are both concerned with the issue of teaching and learning a language. In fact, even though ESP differs significantly from EGP as far as practice is concerned, they still have the same theory. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that there is no difference between the two in theory; however, there is a great deal of difference in practice. The table below illustrates the major differences between ESP and EGP

**Table 01. Major Differences Between ESP and EGP**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **ESP** | **EGP** |
| -Uses a learner-centred approach to teaching -Based on the learners’ needs and goals - addresses adult learners who are aware and conscious about their leaning needs - aims at satisfying specific leaners’ needs -taught in public or private schools or any workplace such as factory, hospital..etc- represents an **“urgency”**: the teaching should be provided in a limited time- leaners should have prior knowledge of general English.-Materials and textbooks are designed by ESP teachers most of the time. - aims at acquainting learners with a kind of language required in a particular domain,vocation, or occupation.- The content is relevant to a particular field or subfield or a discipline - ESP syllabuses are designed to prepare learners to gain professionalism in conducting activities related to their occupations or their academic careers. - classes of small number of learners. Possibility of having even one-student classes.  | -Uses a language –centred approach - Covers all the language skills -Is a compulsory subject taught to schools’ pupils / and young learners. -with the final aims to succeed in the examination. - taught in public institutions (schools / universities)-represents long term goals to be achieved : success in final examinations. - learners can be novice; no prior knowledge of the target language is required-Content and textbooks are designed in the curriculum at a higher level : ministry of education.- aims at providing general knowledge about the language mainly developing the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing - The content covers different domains.-syllabuses are designed to acquaint learners with wider knowledge of the world.* Classes with big numbers of learners .
 |

 General English (GE) adopts fixed methodologies. However ESP uses diverse methodologies that vary according to the specificities of situations tied by the leaners’ learning needs and aims. This made ESP dynamic in nature .

**Tasks:**

* How far would you agree with Hutchinson and Waters (1987)’s view that the difference between ESP and GE relies mainly on practice rather than theory?
* What differences can you draw between your learning experience at the secondary school having the GE in a form of a compulsory subject and your learning of the subject specialism at the university being a learner of a special domain in a form of specialized modules such as study skills or didactics?

**3. ESP Origins / Genesis**

**Objectives**: This lesson seeks to present an overview about the ESP origins.

 According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 6) “ESP was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends”. They also added that “we can identify three main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP.” 1987: 6): the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics and a new focus on the learner.

 Concerning the first reason, they illustrate that the end of World War II and the Oil Crisis in the 70s were two historical periods that played an important role in the creation of ESP. The Second World War was an era of expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity world-wide. There had been a need to focus on an international language which was the English language. This privileged status of English came from the economic expansion of the United States in the post-war world. Moreover, this high status of English was strengthened by the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s which resulted in Western money. The interest then was on English as a representative of knowledge about the oil-rich countries.

 Consequently, this led to the rethinking of methodologies of the English language teaching and learning. Accordingly the profession of teaching had to cope with this rapid and new demand of learning English.

 The second reason that contributed significantly in the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Linguists’ most work in the 60s and 70s of the 20th century focused on the ways in which language is used in real communication. However, the works of traditional linguists focused on describing the features of language. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. Variations in English, resulted from different situations and contexts, then led the teaching profession to think about ways to tailor a specific instruction that meets the learners’ needs. Therefore, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST).

 The final reason mentioned by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) is that during 70’s of the 20th century more attention was given to the means and ways through which a learner acquires and learns a language. Hence, that period witnessed a shift of focus from methods of language learning to the items related to the psychology of the learners such as the different learning strategies, the different motives and motivating needs. Accordingly, this led to a focus on the learners' needs and therefore designing specific courses that meet the specific needs. There had been a shift from language-centred approach to learner- centred approach to teaching which is a basic principle in ESP.

**Tasks**

* Was ESP a planned and coherent movement at its beginning ? Explain.
* What are the three main reasons that led to the emergence of ESP ?
* Why is the learner-centred approach to teaching basic for ESP ?
1. **Characteristics of ESP**

**Objectives:** This course seeks to present the characteristics of ESP

 Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998) define ESP by suggesting two types of characteristics: absolute characteristics as well as variable characteristics.

* 1. **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 (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genre

appropriate to these activities.

**4.2. Variable Characteristics:**

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

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

General English;

3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a

professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;

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

assume some basic knowledge of the language systems, but it can be used with beginners.

 (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:4)

**Tasks:**

* Is ESP designed for professional work situations only ?
* Why is ESP generally designed for intermediate or advanced adult students?
1. **Types of ESP**

**Objectives:** by the end of the lesson students will be able to know the different branches of ESP.

 ESP is divided into two broad divisions: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). The former is related to English found in academic settings such as universities and educational institutions while the latter is related to English which is required in the real context of work to conduct English language- related activities. In many cases, the academic settings are preparing learners for the professional settings. The following diagram shows the different branches of ESP.



 **Figure 1:**  Branches of ESP (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1997 (p.7)

 The classification mentioned in the tale above is not the only one. Many classifications have been suggested by different linguists.

**5.1. English for Academic Purposes Versus English for Occupational Purposes**

 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) deals with purely academic issues. It is related to English found in academic settings such as universities and educational institutions. Activities then rely on writing academic texts, , listening to formal academic discourses, taking notes and observations. However, English for Occupational Purposes **(**EOP) is the English aiming at training individuals to perform on the job. Teaching EOP can be performed in a class or on-the-job training using the language used in job performance.

 Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP:

People can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many

cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be

used later when the student takes up, or returns to a job.

 (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 16).

 Accordingly, it is not necessary that EOP can only be provided while exercising a profession. The preparation for the job language activities can be provided at earlier stages in a form of EAP at a university setting. For example, some courses of Business English presented to students of commerce or Medical English presented to medical students to be used later on after graduation in their real context of work took place in a purely academic environment first.

**Tasks:**

* What makes EAP different from EOP?
* Name some EAP and EOP teachings provided in your country.
1. **Historical Developments in ESP**

**Objectives:** The aim of this lesson is to track the changes occurred to ESP in the course of its development

ESP has undergone four phases

* 1. **First Phase: The 1960s and the Early 1970s**

 Focus of this period was on the sentence-level characteristics. This was done through extensive analyses of the lexical and grammatical features of academic and professional registers such as the language of the electrical engineering. Researchers found that English for Science and Technology (EST) uses the present simple tense, the passive and noun compounds. Their analysis of “business letters” made them conclude that they contain a fixed format, formulaic expressions (such as the opening salutations and closings), a limited vocabulary for the sake of conciseness , and a limited set of conjunctions. Accordingly, these results led to the construction of grammar-based curricula. Swales’ Writing Scientific English (1971) is one of the most known books in this phase.

* 1. **Second Phase: Late 1970s and Early 1980s**

 In this phase register analysis, opted for the integration of grammatical form with rhetorical function. Tarone et al examined the function of the passive in a single genre ( astrophysics papers). They stated that “one of the most salient grammatical features of the register of English for scientific English (EST) as compared to registers of ‘general English’ is its relatively frequent use of the passive”. A rhetorical analysis was also conducted by Tarone et al “ to determine the systematic functions of the passive voice, as opposed to active, within the text as a whole” (Tarone et al.,1981,p.124). The researchers found that the writers of astrophysics journal articles use the passive when:

1. they are following established procedures rather than discussing their own procedural choices.
2. They are discussing others’ work in contrast to their own.
3. They are referring to their own future research.
4. They wish to front and topicalize certain information in sentences.

 Researchers in this phase consider that mere counting of linguistic features is insufficient to describe special registers. They must be accompanied with rhetorical functions. Thus, the focus of register analyses became more rhetorical.

 The researchers and practitioners of this phase began to examine the organization and functions of the entire discourse at a number of levels of abstraction. The Washington State ESP Group, consisting of Trimble, Selinker, Lacksrtorm, and Bley Vroman focused on the rhetorical analyses of discourse. The discussion of their EST register studies appears in Trimble’ s “EST: A Discourse Approach (1985)”, in which the Rhetorical Process Chart for the levels of abstraction in scientific discourse shown in the figure 2 on the next page was proposed.

|  |
| --- |
| Level Description of Level |

A. The objectives of the total discourse

Examples: 1. Detailing an experiment

2. Making a recommendation

3. Presenting new hypotheses or theory

4. Presenting other types of EST information

|  |
| --- |
|  |

B. The general rhetorical functions that develop the objectives of level (A

Examples: 1. Stating purpose

2. Reporting past research

3. Stating the problem

4. Presenting information on apparatus used in an experiment-

a) Description

b) Operation

5. Presenting information on experimental procedures

|  |
| --- |
|  |

C. The specific rhetorical functions that develop the general rhetorical functions of

Level B

Examples: 1. Description: physical, function, and process.

2. Definition

3. Classification

4. Instruction

5. Visual-verbal relation

|  |
| --- |
|  |

D. The Rhetorical techniques that provide relationships within and between the

rhetorical units of level c.

Examples: I. Orders

1. Time orders

2. Space orders

3. Causality

II. Patterns

1. Causality and result

2. Order of importance

3. Comparison and contrast

4. Analogy

5. Exemplification

6. Illustration

|  |
| --- |
|  |

**Figure 2: EST Rhetorical Process Chart (Trimble, 1985, p.11)**

 The interest in rhetorical function led other ESP researchers to begin their investigation on the rhetorical moves (also called macropurposes) within spoken and written discourse. This marked the beginning of interest in Moves Analysis Theory. “Move Analysis” is a text analytical approach whether spoken or written text. MA was first developed by John Swales (1981) to investigate the underlying generic structure of research articles (RAs) in terms of ‘moves’ and ‘steps’ for pedagogical purposes.

 Swales’1981 examination of 48 scientific articles’ introductions from a number of disciplines, led to identify four moves. In 1990, Swales reorganized them in three moves as shown in the figure 03 below

|  |
| --- |
| **Move 1 Establishing a territory**Step 1 Claiming centralityand/orStep 2 Making topic generalization(s)and/orStep 3 Reviewing items of previous research**Move 2 Establishing a niche**Step 1A Counter-claimingorStep 1B Indicating a gaporStep 1C Question-raisingorStep1D Continuing a tradition**Move 3 Occupying a niche**Step 1A Outlining the purposesorStep 1B Announcing present researchStep 2 Announcing principal ﬁndingsStep 3 Indicating RA structure |

**Figure 3:** Swales’ (1990) CARS Model

 Moves analysis was not restricted to written discourse only. Neu (1986), for example studied rhetorical moves in the American English business negotiations which is a form of spoken discourse. She found that this negotiation consists of four successive moves which are:

1. An opening / exchange
2. Mention of the first price
3. Bargaining and other discussion of prices
4. A closing
	1. **Third Phase**

 It is an overlapping phase in ESP since it integrates the discoveries of phase 01 and phase 02. The focus of this phase was upon systematic analyses of the target situations in which students are found to be employing spoken English. This led to construct a “ notional-functional” curriculum. According to Munby1978, the interest of this phase is on:

1. The communicative purposes of the speaker/writer
2. The setting for language use
3. The mode of communication and language use. (Munby, 1978).

 The curricula of this phase is based on the communicative purposes ( or “ functions) of a speakers within a specified context. All other features of language (eg grammar and vocabulary) are subsumed under these purposes. Thus, the notional functional syllabuses of this phase are not organized grammatically as in phase one nor based on rhetorical functions or purpose like in phase 02. Textbooks are rather organized based on chapter headings such as “ agreeing and disagreeing”

* 1. **Fourth Phase**

 This phase benefited from studies in psycholinguistics and elsewhere. The focus of this phase is upon the strategies which learners employ to acquire the target language. Accordingly, needs assessment concentrates on activities or procedures which lead to effective thinking and learning. ESP is then based on the learner-centred approach. The foremost proponents of this learner-centred ESP approach are Hutchinson and Waters (1987).

 Table 02 on the next page presents the teaching historical development suggested by Kern & Warschaeur. ESP also inspired from the novelties of each phase.

**Table 02**: Historical Developments of Teaching Practices Kern & Warschaeur (2000, p 11)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Stage** | **1970s-1980s** | **1980s-2000s** | **21st Century** |
| Teaching Modes | Structural | Communicative | Integrative |
| View of Language | Structural (a formal structural system)  | Cognitive (a mentally-constructed system)  | Socio-cognitive (developed in social interaction)  |
| English-Teaching Paradigms | Grammar Translation & Audio- Lingual | Communicative Language Teaching  | Content-Based, ESP/EAP |

**Tasks:**

* Define the following terms: grammar-based curriculum / formulaic expressions / Moves/ Moves Analysis.
* Conduct a moves analysis of a letter of complaint in which you show your dissatisfaction about a service or an article bought.
* Design a suitable syllabus devoted to biology students for each of the following kinds of syllabi by filling in the table blow.

**Table 03**:Different Syllabuses

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Grammar–Based syllabus**  | **Rhetorical syllabus** | **Notional- Functional syllabus** |
| * Present simple
* Adjectives

---- | - general truth- description ---- | * Writing laboratory reports
* Presenting a description

---- |

1. **Contributions of ESP to Language Teaching**

**Objectives:** This lesson aims at shedding light on the contributions brought to language teaching by ESP

 The contribution of ESP to the language teaching is a significant one. Practically, we can mention three major contributions which are: the needs analysis principle, materials design and the issue of authenticity.

* 1. **Needs Analysis (NA)**

 One of the greatest contributions to language teaching was introducing the issue of the learners’ needs in designing the curricula.

 Needs analysis is a key stage in ESP. It is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a focused course (Brown, 1995; Chambers, 1980; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1988; Ellis and Johnson, 1994; Jordan, 1997). Strevens (1977) , suggests that needs analysis is a necessary first step for teaching English for specific purposes. Dudley- Evans and St John (1988: 121) also state that " needs analysis is the process of establishing the what and how of a course "

**7.1.1.** **Components of ESP Needs Analysis**

 The fundamental components of ESP learners’ language needs suggested by different ESP scholars are : the Target Situation Analysis (TSA), the Learning Situation Analysis ( LSA) and the Present Situation Analysis (PSA).

**7.1.1.1. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)**

 It focuses on identifying the learners’ language requirements in the occupational or academic settings. Jordan (1997) argues that the TSA is related to any needs analysis focusing on the learners' needs at the end of learning a language course. For Robinson (1991, p8), “a needs analysis, which focuses on students’ needs at the end of a language course, can be called a TSA (Target Situation Analysis)”. Munby (1978)[ formulates the best-known framework of TSA type of needs analysis represented by Munby' s (1978) model of needs analysis. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998, p124) argue that “TSA refers to tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for target situation”. They also add that “TSA includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs. The objective and perceived needs are derived by outsiders from facts, from what is known and can be verified. Therefore, ‘to be able to spell English words correctly’ is an objective/perceived need. Product-oriented needs are derived from the goal or target situation”.

**7.1.1.2.** **Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)**

 It refers to subjective, felt and process-oriented needs (Dudley-Evans & ST John, 1998). The ‘what’ and ‘why’ to learn are included in LSA. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) also clarify that subjective and felt needs are derived from insiders and correspond to cognitive and affective factors while process-oriented needs originate from the learning situation.

**7.1.1.3. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)**

 It seeks to estimate students' present strengths and weaknesses in the language skills and in the experience of learning (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). PSA is based on identifying learners' control of the target language at the beginning of the language course (Jordan, 1997). Richterich and Chancerel (1980) formulate the most extensive range of devices for establishing the PSA. They suggest that there are three basic sources of information: the students themselves, the language-teaching establishment, and the ‘user-institution’, Munby 1978 argues that PSA represents constraints on the TSA. According to (McDonough 1984), PSA involves ‘fundamental variables’, which have to be considered before the TSA.

 Figure 04 on the next page illustrates how Dudley-Evans & St John developed some statements under the headings TSA (Target Situation Analysis), LSA (Learning Situation Analysis), and PSA (Present Situation Analysis).



**Figure 04:** Developed Statements Related to TSA, LSA and PSA (Dudley-Evans & St John (1998, p124)

**7.1.1.4. Means Analysis**

 Means analysis involves information of the local situation (e.g., the teachers, teaching methods, management, students’ facilities, etc) to see how a language course may be implemented (Jordan 1997, Holliday. & Cooke 1982). Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) state that means analysis directs the environment in which a course will be run or the environment in which a project will take root, grow healthily and survive. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998, p124] state also that :“Means analysis is an acknowledgement that what works well in one situation may not work in another”. Swales (1989) argues that means analysis helps in taking decisions about the approach and content to the specific programs.

**7.1.1.5. Language Audits**

 Jordan (1997, p28) states that “language audits are large-scale research in examining language needs”. He argues that language audits are executed for companies, regions or countries. For West R. (1994), language audits provide data about the current situation of language needs in the sector which can help the government to develop an integrated policy or strategy which would take months or years to implement (West R. 1994; 27:1-19).

**7.1.2.. Models of ESP Needs Analysis**

 Many models have been suggested by different scholars: Munby (1978), McDonough (1984), Hutchinson & Waters (1987), Robinson (1991), West (1994), Jordan (1997) and Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998). Despite the fact that the models are similar to a certain extent, each ESP scholar has his own views about the focus of needs analysis, the data analysis and the development of the training program in the context of ESP.

**7.1.2.1. Munby’s “Communicative Syllabus Design (1978)**

 It is very early model of analyzing ESP needs. The figure 05 below illustrates its components.



**Figure 05:** Communication Needs Processor (Source: Munby 1978)

 This ‘Communication Needs Processor’ (CNP) was a detailed profile of the students’ need. It is a systematic and comprehensive model. Hence, it was adopted and developed by many scholars to meet other situations.

 This model covers many aspects. However, it had been subject to criticism by different scholars. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) criticized it because they see that different factors such as teachers, learners and sponsors were ignored when dealing with the target needs. This model was also criticized by West, Dudley-Evans and St John and Jordan.

**7.1.2.2**. **McDonough’s (1984) Model Resulted from Munby’s Work.**

 The figure 06 below illustrates the needs analysis model suggested by McDonough’s (1984). This model resulted from Munby’s Work.



 **Figure 06:** ESP Needs Analysis Model (Source: McDonough 1984)

 McDonough (1984) provides the use of an integrated procedure for needs analysis, Firstly, the procedure suggests that students must be at the centre of the system. Secondly, the “needs” are not seen as static, but developing and changing. The third aspect is that the system is so complex that it allows the needs analysis to be carried out from different perspectives: learners, teaching institutions and the sponsoring bodies. The fourth aspect of the procedure consists in having a great interdependence of decision-makers and decisions. Finally, the procedure also considers the degree of details and explicitness that may vary with the requirements of different situations. This model is considered as an effective model for ESP needs analysis. However, it has also its limitations. The model does not concentrate on learning needs. It only concentrates on target and present needs. It does not emphasize on other aspects of needs analysis (such as lacks, wants and so forth).

**7.1.2.3.** **Hutchinson & Waters (1987) Model**

 Hutchinson and Waters (1987) focus on target needs, present needs and learning needs, which are very important components of ESP needs analysis. They dealt with objective and subjective needs. They also focused on the three key features of needs analysis which are necessities lacks and wants. This is shown on table 04 below:

**Table 04:** ESPNeeds As Necessities, Lacks And Wants (Source: Hutchinson & Waters1987)

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **OBJECTIVE**(i.e. as perceived by course designers | **SUBJECTIVE**(i.e. as perceived by learners) |
| **NECESSITIES** | The English needed for success in Agriculture or Veterinary Studies  | To Reluctantly cope with a ‘second-best’ situation |
| **LACKS** | (Presumably) areas of English needed for Agriculture or Veterinary Studies | Means of doing Medical Studies |
| **WANTS** | To succeed in Agricultural or Veterinary Studies  | To undertake Medical Studies  |

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain necessities, lacks and wants as:

- **Necessities’** are the type of needs that is determined by the demands of the target situation, and necessities are what learners need to know so as to function effectively in the target environment.

- **‘Lacks’** are the type of needs where the ESP practitioners need to investigate what the learners already know, so that the ESP practitioners can decide which necessities the learners lack.

- **‘Wants’** are what the learners want to learn.

 The model suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) does not consider means analysis, linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis, which are prioritized by Dudley-Evans & St John (1998).

**7.1.2.4.** **Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Model**

Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) introduced one of the most recent needs analysis models which is illustrated in the figure 07 below.



 **Figure 07:** What Needs Analysis Establishes (Source: Dudley-Evans and St John 1998)

 Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) needs analysis model is very important. It focused on different aspects shown on the figure 07 above which are: learners’ professional information, learners’ personal information, learners’ language information about the target situations, learners’ lacks, learners’ needs from course, language learning needs, communication information in the target situation, and environmental information. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) defined those components as follows:

A. professional information about the students: the tasks and activities students are/will be using English for-target situation analysis (TSA) and objectives needs.

B. personal information about the students: is concerned with learners’ general profile, previous language learning experiences.

C. English language information about the students: what their current skills and language use are- present situation analysis (PSA)-this could allow us to assess (D). PSA determines strengths and weakness in language skills.

D. the students’ lacks: the gap between (C) and (A)-lacks

E. language learning information: effective ways of learning skills and language in (D)-learning needs-Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)

F. knowledge of how language and skills are used in target situation-linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis.

G. students’ needs from the course: what is wanted from the course?

H. environmental situation: information about the environment in which the course will be run-means analysis

**7.2. Materials Design**

 Material design is an important contribution to language teaching brought by ESP. Textbooks used to be designed at higher levels. e.g. ministry of education. ESP brought the idea of designing materials that fit the special situation of learning and meets the learners’ needs. The ESP teacher is no longer someone who applies what the others have designed, he/she is responsible for measuring the appropriateness of materials used and can design his/ her own materials or introduce significant changes to already existing materials designed by other institutions and scholars.

The Grammar- based syllabuses as well as the notional –functional syllabuses inspired ESP researchers to develop three other types of syllabuses: Task-based syllabuses, project-based syllabuses and Process-based syllabuses.

* + 1. **The Task-Based Syllabuses**: they are of 02 types
* **Type 01:** The researcher identifies a number of tasks which students must perform in a target situation e.g. business negotiation, then s/he builds the syllabus upon task assignments.
* **Type 02:** This second type begins with the learning process involved in the completion of a task
	+ 1. **The Project-Based Syllabuses:** They are closely related to task- based syllabuses. The difference lies on the scope of teaching units and the nature of the tasks involved. In Task- based syllabuses the tasks do not always require a completed visible product. The project- based syllabuses, however, result in one or more tangible products.
		2. **The Process-Based Syllabuses:** In this kind of syllabi,the product or the task is the syllabus itself. The process of developing the syllabus is determined mainly by the students. However the preliminary decisions that concern different issues such as the form of participation, the procedure of tasks (number of tasks their order etc.) are taken by the teacher before the beginning of the course. There exists a sort of agreement between teachers and learners this is why this kind of syllabuses is flexible and changeable at any point of the teaching procedure for the sake of meeting the leaners’ needs

**7.3. The Authenticity**

 The third important contribution brought by ESP is the issue of authenticity and using authentic materials. “An authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort” (Morrow, 1977, p. 13).

According to Nunan (1989, p. 54), “A rule of thumb for authentic here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching”. Another definition was provided by Richards in which he states that “Authentic materials refers to the use in teaching of texts, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources that were not specially prepared for pedagogical purposes”  (Richards 2001). Task- based, project based ad product- based syllabuses in ESP environment are based on authentic materials.

**Tasks:**

* Define the following terms: TSA, LSA and PSA. Give examples to each definition.
* Conduct a needs analysis using Hutchinson & Waters (1987) Model.
* Conduct a needs analysis using Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Model.
* List the three contribution s of ESP to the English language teaching.

**8. Stages in the ESP Teaching Process**

**Objectives:** This lesson attempts to present the different stages undergone by an ESP practitioner so as to conduct a successful ESP course . The lesson also highlights the multiple roles assumed by the teacher to accomplish the process.

 The ESP Course design is a whole complicated process. The figure 08 below shows the different steps that exist while designing a course.

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**Figure 08:** A Learning-Centred Approach to Course Design (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987,

p.74).

 The course design is also a road map to ESP teachers. It clarifies clearly what should be taught and how to teach i.e. it clarifies the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ of a course. Figure 09 on the next page shows the different factors that affect an ESP course design.

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**Figure 09:** Factors Affecting ESP Course Design (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 22)

 The ESP course design undergoes different stages. According to Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998:121), “The key stages in ESP are needs analysis, course (and syllabus) design, materials selection (and production), teaching and learning, and evaluation.” A dynamic interaction exists between these stages which are linearly-related activities. Hence, they represent overlapping phases which are interdependent.

Course design in ESP according to Hutchinson and Waters is:

“The process by which the raw data about learning needs is interpreted to

produce an integrated series of teaching- learning experiences, whose ultimate

 aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge. This

entails the use of the theoretical and empirical information available to

produce a syllabus, to adapt or write materials in accordance with the

syllabus, to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to

establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specific

goals will be measured”.

 Hutchinson, T., and Waters, A., (1987): op. cit. p. 65

 The following cyclical representations are suggested by Dudley-Evans and St. Johns to

illustrate the theory and the reality of the stages in ESP process.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Evaluation | Needs | Evaluation |  | Needs |
|  |
|  | Analysis |  |  | Analysis |
| Assessment |  | Assessment |  |
|  | Course |  |  | Course |
|  | Design |  |  | design |
| Teaching |  | Teaching |  |
| Learning |  | Learning |  |



**Figure 10: Stages in the ESP Process: Theory**  **Figure 11: Stages in the ESP Process: Reality**

(Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998, p.121) (Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998, p.121)

 Basing on the above two figures, six successive stages can be identified in the process of ESP course design.

**8.1. Needs Identification and Analysis (NIA)**

 Identifying the needs of the learners is the first important step to be realized by an ESP teacher. “The idea of analyzing the language needs of the learner as a basis for course development has become almost synonymous with ESP” (Mc.Donough 1984: 29). The importance of NA is also signaled as being the basis for any course. “…any course should be based on an analysis of learner need” (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 53). This reveals that the learners’ s needs are the factors that decide about the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ of an ESP lesson. The NA facilitates the ESP teacher’ task since it will lead to a focused course. This idea was also highlighted by Johns:

“The rationale for needs analysis is that by identifying elements of students' target English situations and using them as the basis of EAP/ ESP instruction, teachers will be able to provide students with the specific language they need to succeed in their courses and future careers”.

 (Johns, 1991: 67).

**8.2. Syllabus Design**

 After identifying the leaners’ needs, the second stage consists in designing a suitable syllabus that meets those specific needs. Hutchinson & Waters (1987: 80) define “Syllabus” as “... a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt”. In the same context, Robinson (1991: 34) states that the syllabus is “a plan of work and is, thus, essential for the teacher, as a guideline and context of class content.” This implies that the syllabus guides the teacher while presenting the content. The syllabus is also defined by Basturkmen (2006:20) who argues that “in order to specify what language will be taught, items are typically listed and referred to as the syllabus”.

 Seven features can characterize the syllabus. They are clarified in figure 12 below.

|  |
| --- |
|  A syllabus:1- Consists of a comprehensive list of* + content items ( words, structures, topics)
* process items ( tasks, methods)

2- Is ordered ( easier, more essential items first)3- Has explicit document4- Is a public document5- May indicate a time schedule6- May indicate preferred methodology or approach7- May recommend materials |

**Figure 12: Characteristics of a Syllabus**

(Course in Language Teaching, CUP, 1996:177 qtd in Basturkmen 2006:21)

 The syllabus is also the tool that enables the needs to be translated into aims. The syllabus is then “an instrument by which the teacher,..., can achieve a certain coincidence between the needs and the aims of the learners, and the activities that will take place in the classroom” (Yalden 1987:86).

**8.2.1 Types of Syllabi**

According to Long & Crookes, (1993) the syllabi are of two types: synthetic and analytic. They illustrate this classification in figure 13 below.

**Syllabi**

 **Synthetic Analytic**

-Structural (Grammmatical) - Task-Based

- Functional- Notional - Procedural

- Lexical -Process

- Relational - Content-Based

- Skill- Based - Learner-centred

-Situational - Natural approach

-Topical

**Figure13:** Classification of Syllabi (Long and Crookes, 1993).

According to Basturkmen (2006:21) syllabuses can be “synthetic” in which the “language is segmented into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time”, or “analytic” wherein “language is presented as whole chunks at a time without linguistic control”.

 Synthetic‟ syllabus represents the classical approaches to syllabuses. However, the “Analytic‟ one represents the modern approaches in language teaching methodologies.

 The Synthetic Approach to syllabus design is based on determining discrete items (lexical items, grammar structures, communicative functions, etc.) to be taught to learners. In this approach, the learner is expected to re-synthesize the discrete items. The Analytical Approach, however, is based on determining the reason and the procedure learners use to learn. In this approach, recognition of linguistic regularities by the learners is expected by syllabus designers. According to Wilkins, the Analytic Syllabuses “are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes.” (Wilkins 1976: 13)

 ESP rejects “synthetic” approaches to course design (Basturkmen 2006:103). Wilkins also signals that

“Age teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step- by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up”.

 (Wilkins 1976: 2)

 Concerning the learners’ tasks Wilkins adds that

“The learner’s task is to re-synthesize the language that has been broken down into a large number of smaller pieces with the aim of making his learning easier. ... It is only in the final stages of learning that the global language is reestablished in all its structural diversity”.

 (Wilkins 1976: 2)

**8.3. Material Production**

 Textbooks are not always available it is up to teachers to design the suitable materials that fit the special group to be taught. The ESP teacher has to develop materials in most of the time. However, many textbooks are available and ready made for different ESP groups.

 Designing syllabuses by ESP teachers is not an easy task to perform, this is why, they should be trained to such responsibilities. “Few teachers have had any training in the skills and techniques of materials writing”.(Hutchinson & Waters‟, 1987: 106). Assistance and guidance are therefore of an paramount importance to ESP teachers. “Materials writing is one of the most characteristic features of ESP in practice” (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 106)

 Figure 14 below represents a four- elements model of material design proposed by Hutchinson and Waters( 1987). This model aims at providing a “coherent framework for the integration of the various aspects of learning, while at the same time, allowing enough room for creativity and variety to flourish” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 108)

**Figure14:** A Material Design Model (Hutchinson and Waters,1987: 109)

 Widdowson signals the issue of authenticity in material design. He states that: “It has been traditionally supposed that the language presented to learners should be simplified in some way for easy access and acquisition. Nowadays, there are recommendations that the language presented should be authentic.” (Widdowson 1990:67). Robinson (1991: 54) also states that : “A key concept ...felt to be particularly relevant for ESP, is that of authenticity.”

**8.4. Teaching**

 In this stage of the process, the teacher will execute the syllabus by presenting the content in a form of materials to a given class. Teaching an ESP course can be challenging especially for general English teachers who have been recently teaching ESP, or even for experienced ESP teachers who teach a difficult subject specialism. Strevens (1988: 41) describes the ESP teacher as “...a teacher of General English who has, unexpectedly, found him/herself required to teach students with special needs.” ESP teachers can then, in certain situations, consult experts in the subject specialism. Hutchinson & Waters (1987: 163) state that “ESP teachers do not need to learn specialist knowledge. They require three things only: a positive attitude towards the ESP content; knowledge of fundamental principles of the subject area; an awareness of how much they probably already know.”

 Because of the different roles of ESP teachers, Swales (1985) opts for using the term “ESP practitioner”. The ESP practitioner is “instructor, facilitator, role-advisor, monitor, cocommunicator, classroom managerand consultant”.(Benyelles,2009:42).

**8.5. Assessment /Evaluation**

 The last stage in the ESP teaching process is assessment and course evaluation. Evaluation and assessment are ongoing processes. Every stage involved should be assessed and evaluated so as to determine its effectiveness and to enable teachers to construct their feedback. Teachers then have to be flexible to review their decisions at any stage they see appropriate because the assessment and evaluation are the real indicators of the appropriateness of the methodology adopted and the utility of the selected choices.

**Tasks:**

* What are the different stages that compose the process of ESP course design?
* What makes an ESP course design complicated?
* How can ESP teachers be good course designers?
* Which elements should be subject to evaluation in an ESP course?

**9. The Role of ESP Teacher**

**Objectives:** This lesson aims at making the students aware of the multiplicity and the complexity of the ESP teacher’s roles compared to a general English language teacher. The lesson also attempts to shed light on the necessity of having a training for ESP teachers so as to enable them assume the different responsibilities.

 Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998) prefer the term” ESP practitioner” rather than a “teacher” because of the multiplicity of tasks to be performed by the ESP teacher who has to assume different responsibilities. The ESP practitioner, as signaled by Dudley-Evan and St John (1998), has five roles: teacher; collaborator; course designer and material provider; researcher and evaluator. The table 05 below illustrates those roles.

**Table 05:** The ESP Practitioner’s Role

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Teacher  | S/He uses a specific methodology. The role of ESP teacher is to teach the language not the learners’ specialty. Eclectic methodology is adopted. TEFL methodologies can be also used.   |
| Course designer and material provider | The ESP teacher has the role to design the course as well designing the suitable syllabus to meet the learners’ needs. S/he has to design the materials or to adapt already existing ones so as to cope with the specific group s/he is teaching. |
| Collaborator | Collaboration between the ESP teacher and the subject specialist is of great importance especially when the domain is highly specialized or when the ESP teacher is a novice. Some ESP courses are taught by both an expert and an ESP teacher. |
| Researcher  | Since the ESP learning situations are dynamic and varied. The ESP teacher has to conduct research to find the suitable materials and approaches appropriate for the target situation. S/he has to conduct research also in the subject specialism of the leaners. |
| Evaluator | Evaluation is an ongoing process. It aims at measuring the effectiveness of each step in the course design. Evaluation provides teachers with information that enable them to take decisions about revision and appropriateness of the procedure followed. |

 It is worth mentioning that being an ESP teacher does not mean that the teaching/ learning theories of general English language are neglected. The knowledge of the target language and EFL teaching methods, instructional practices, learning strategies, language theories of second and foreign language acquisition, educational psychology and pedagogy, teaching approaches and socio-cultural aspects are also essential. In addition, the ESP teacher has to have knowledge of the basic concepts, values and culture and tenets of the ESP discipline.

**9.1. Training of the ESP Teacher**

 Most ESP teachers are basically general English language teachers. They have to deal with the subject specialism of the learners. They also become in charge of many responsibilities and roles. This is why, the issue of training ESP teachers is of a paramount importance. There should be both focused and ongoing types of training. Training should be the first interest for an ESP teacher’s professional development. Training can be organized by institutions or can be achieved by individual effort by ESP teachers. The professional training can be in-service training which occurs simultaneously while s/he is teaching or as a first phase before embarking with the ESP teaching profession.

**Tasks:**

* Which of the ESP teacher’s roles you find difficult?
* What makes the ESP teacher different from a general English language teacher?
* Why is training essential for an ESP practitioner?
* How can the ESP teacher gain a training in the subject specialism?