People' s Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Centre University Salhi Ahmed, Naama

C.U.N
CENTRE UNIVERSITAIRE DE NAAMA

Institute of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language

Introduction to English for Specific Purposes (ESP): Lectures for Third Year LMD Students

Presented by: Merine Asma

Academic year: 2024 / 2025

People' s Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Centre University Salhi Ahmed, Naama

Institute of Letters and Languages **Department of English Language**

Introduction to English for Specific Purposes (ESP): Lectures for Third Year LMD Students

Presented by: Merine Asma

Academic year: 2024 / 2025

The present work is a handout which is addressed to third-year LMD students

Table of Contents

Introduction

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a branch of English Language Teaching that addresses the language and communication requirements of learners in specific professions or fields. This includes areas such as business, engineering, medicine, and law, where proficiency in English is essential for professional success. ESP courses are customized to cater to the unique needs of learners, focusing on the relevant language skills, vocabulary, and discourse patterns specific to their industry. Actually, this course on ESP will help third year students understand and apply the principles of ESP, and prepare them to teach specialised English for learners in different educational and occupational contexts.

There are five main units in this course. The first unit is devoted entirely to studying ESP. The unit begins with a general overview of ESP, discussing its history and evolution, then focuses on the teaching of English for specific professions. It further discusses the various definitions of ESP, its use in the Arab world and Algeria in particular, detailing the novel types of ESP, and differentiating English for General Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. The comprehensive analysis of each topic is intended to reflect on the importance and the development of ESP in various situations.

Unit two of the course examines core English skills through ESP. It starts with the study of specialised texts and considers comprehension and critical reading. After this, the unit explains the construction of clear professional documents and the importance of precision for writing at the professional level. Then, the unit focuses on the listening skills required for the comprehension of specialised vocabulary and contextual elements of different domains. The speaking skills of professional contexts are covered last, examining the techniques of effective communication and the principles of specific presentation. These elements emphasise the integrated nature of the skills and the target level of common language proficiency needed for success in various specialised domains.

The third unit addresses critical aspects of ESP touching on critical aspects of communicative competencies. It first focuses on the understanding of and the construction of field-specific lexical resources, highlighting the importance of various terminologies for unique and appropriate communicative acts in the disciplines. Next, the unit addresses the syntax and discusses the application of certain grammatical constructions and the interrelation of rules in the disciplines. Other than the problems of translating specialised

discourse for the purposes of communication, the unit also touches on the issue of discourse translation and the problems of cross and intersystem communication in specialised areas. The unit analyses the socio-cultural dimensions of communication in ESP and addresses the issues of socio-cultural variation in communication. All the issues together define the communicative and socio-linguistic issues that the learners need to address in their field of specialisation.

Unit four delves into the concept of needs analysis in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and the importance for the learner in defining the specificity of analysis. The needs analysis lexicon is presented first to lay the groundwork for understanding how critical needs analysis is in defining learners' specific language needs. The unit details how needs analysis is fundamental to appropriate ESP course construction, aligning the curriculum to the needs of learners in their domains and fields. Different methodologies to needs analysis are presented, highlighting approaches to collect and analyse relevant data. The section on needs analysis also presents the tools and techniques for the accurate assessment of learner needs. All these builds on the importance of course development in ESP being as needs based as possible to maximise the relevance and effectiveness of the language teaching.

In the fifth unit of the course, the focus is on the complexities of designing ESP courses, analysing various efficient methods for instructional implementation. It starts with understanding different methods of designing courses and the need to be flexible and responsive to the learners in various fields. This part describes the course goal vis-à-vis the student needs identified in the needs analysis. The unit discusses the selection and construction of materials for teaching ESP, concentrating on the development of pertinent and exciting materials for learners. Integrating the theory and the practice, this unit provides educators with the resources to meet the multifaceted demands of their learners in designing and executing quality ESP courses.

Furthermore, this course provides learners with the necessary skills and knowledge to develop ESP courses, design relevant materials, and implement effective teaching methods. This involves understanding the specific needs and objectives of the learners, recognizing the language skills and content pertinent to their field, and choosing suitable teaching strategies and resources to address those needs. All in all, this ESP course is an essential resource for learners aiming to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for delivering effective ESP instruction that addresses the distinct needs and objectives of

students in various professions or fields.

Course Objectives

This course aims to offer a systematic and comprehensive analysis of English for Specific Purposes. The first unit introduces basic concepts of ESP, its history, evolution, and the different approaches particularly in the Arab world and in Algeria. This foundational knowledge is necessary to contextualise and appreciate the importance of ESP in different professions.

The second unit focuses on strengthening students' skills in the core components of the English language—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—specifically in the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This goal is designed to provide students with the applicable communicative competencies required for interaction in particular situations.

The third unit continues with the concepts of the teaching unit of grappling with language barriers in ESP with the aims of deepening the learners' lexical repertoire, contextualising grammar, and appreciating the role of translation and culture on discourse. This unit deals with the language problems pertaining to different fields of work.

In the fourth unit, the goal is to enhance learners' capacities in performing needs analysis. This entails conveying what needs analysis is, its importance in course design, its several methodologies, and the tools used in data collection. Attainment of the unit objective will ensure the learners are capable of developing appropriate and customised ESP syllabi.

The fifth unit aims to provide learners with the principles and techniques to design an ESP course and the supporting materials based on target learners' needs. The objectives include examining different ways of course design and learning how to design and select materials appropriate for the learners. This interdisciplinary approach will help learners create and use valuable materials for ESP teaching and course design.

As globalization continues to reshape the job market, preparing LMD students for international opportunities is crucial. ESP instruction aims to equip students with the skills necessary to function in diverse cultural and professional environments. This objective includes teaching them how to adapt their language use to different contexts and audiences, thereby enhancing their employability in an increasingly interconnected world.

Teaching ESP to third-year LMD students encourages a mindset of lifelong learning and continuous professional development. In rapidly evolving fields, the ability to seek out new knowledge and adapt to changes is essential. By instilling the importance of ongoing education and language improvement, educators prepare students to remain competitive and informed throughout their careers.

In conclusion, educating EFL students on how to teach English for Specific Purposes can greatly enhance their career opportunities as well as those of their future students. By gaining a thorough understanding of the language needs and demands of particular professional settings, they can become more effective and confident educators, better equipped to address their students' needs and support their success in their chosen career.

What is ESP?

Unit Aims:

- To gain an overview of the history, development, and significance of ESP, along with understanding its evolution through the years and its historical context.
- To examine the primary drivers that led to the development of ESP as an independent area of study and practice.
- To explore diverse interpretations and definitions of ESP, showcasing its theoretical underpinnings and practical uses in various fields.
- To explore the current issues surrounding English for Specific Purposes within Arab countries, focusing on obstacles and areas of success.
- Evaluating the context and recent developments pertaining to ESP in Algeria, in relation to the current context, trends, and potential future developments.
- To build a basis for identifying the core language competencies needed in ESP, such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

These objectives will assist students in acquiring a thorough understanding of the basic principles and structures pertaining to ESP in this unit.

1.1. Origins of ESP

Compared to English for General Purposes (EGP) courses, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a customized language teaching approach that caters to the needs of learners in different specialized fields. While EGP classes provide students with a general understanding of English, ESP targets the particular terminology and skills related to communication within specific fields of a profession or academia. Actually, the need for ESP arose in 1945 after the end of the Second World War to address the multifaceted needs of learners more effectively than General English courses. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), all developments of ESP share three common reasons, *"the demands of a brave new world - Revolution in linguistics - New focus on the learner"*

1.1.1. The Demands of a Brave New World

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 6) identify two key drivers behind the rise of ESP. The first reason is the post-Second World War era, which opened "an age of enormous and

unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale." Secondly, the oil crisis that emerged during the 1970s led to significant investment and the transfer of technology from the west into the oil-rich countries. This knowledge came to be disseminated in English.

1.1.2. Revolution in Linguistics

The next primary reason that was noted as having a tremendous impact upon the emergence of ESP is a revolution in linguistics. While traditional linguists set out to describe the characteristics of a language, revolutionary pioneers in the field of linguistics shifted their attention to the ways language is used in real communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that one of the most remarkable discoveries was made regarding the differences between spoken and written English. To put it differently, considering the specific situation in which English is applied, the form of English will vary. Taking this a further step, if language use changes in different contexts, then it is reasonable to assume that instruction can also be adapted to suit learners' needs in particular contexts. Therefore, during the late 1960s and early 1970s there were numerous efforts to define English for Science and Technology (EST).

1.1.3. Focus on the Learner

The last reason Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to as having contributed to the development of ESP has very little to do with language, and everything to do with psychology. The emphasis was shifted from the method of language delivery to how learners acquire language and the variation in methods of language acquisition. Different learners were observed to use different learning schemata with different needs and interests to motivate themselves. As a result, the methods used to impart linguistic knowledge became equally as important as the attention given to the learner's individual requirements. Designing specialized courses that catered better to these distinct requirements was a clear advancement of this idea.

<u>Activity One</u>: Indicate whether each statement is true or false. For any statements you identify as false, provide the correct information.

1) ESP is a customized approach to language teaching that focuses on the needs of learners in specific fields.

2) English for General Purposes is more specialized than English for Specific Purposes.

3) The need for ESP arose in 1945 after the Second World War.

4) According to Hutchinson and Waters, all developments of ESP share four common reasons.

5) The end of the Second World War led to increased scientific and economic activity, positioning English as the international language.

6) The oil crisis of the 1970s had no significant impact on the spread of English in oil-rich countries.

7) A revolution in linguistics emphasized the description of language characteristics rather than its use in real communication.

8) The differences between spoken and written English were a significant discovery in the field of linguistics that influenced ESP.

9) The focus of ESP shifted primarily to the methods of language delivery rather than the needs of learners.

10) Designing specialized courses in ESP is meant to cater to the individual requirements of learners.

Activity Two: Answer the following questions:

1) How did the events follow World War II shape the need for ESP? In what ways did these historical developments influence the global role of English?

2) How did the economic power of the United States and the oil crisis of the 1970s contribute to the growth of ESP? What implications does this have for language learning in different regions?

3) In what ways did the shift in focus from language description to language use affect the development of ESP? How does understanding real communication contexts enhance language teaching?

4) Why is it important to adapt English instruction to the specific contexts in which it is used? How can educators effectively implement context-based learning in ESP courses?

5) How has the focus on learner psychology influenced the design of ESP courses? What are some effective strategies for addressing diverse learner needs in a specialized setting?

6) What challenges do educators face when designing ESP courses that cater to individual learner requirements? How can these challenges be overcome?

7) Considering current global trends, what do you think the future holds for ESP? How might emerging technologies and communication methods influence its development?

1.2. Developments of ESP

The 1960s and 1970s saw the emergence of a demand for teaching English in a manner that was directly applicable to the requirements of the learners. In this regard, ESP emerged to address the shortcomings posed by the conventional methods in teaching a foreign language, which tended to be overly generic and did not consider the practical requirements of the students. ESP has undergone continuous development since its inception and has now become an important area of pedagogical inquiry in English language teaching. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP has undergone five distinct phases since its inception, which they detail in the following quotation:

> English for Specific Purposes (ESP) should not be viewed as a single, uniform practice occurring everywhere in the same way. Countries have adopted and adapted the concept at varying rates, and today any of the models we will discuss can be seen in action somewhere around the globe (p.9).

As noted by Hutchinson and Waters, there are various theoretical principles that serve as the basis for the development of English for Specific Purposes.

1.2.1. Register Analysis

During the 1960s and 1970s, ESP began to concentrate on register analysis, a turn influenced by Peter Strevens' research (Halliday, McIntosh, Strevens, 1964) Jack Ewert (Ewer & Latorre, 1969) and John Swales (1971). Register analysis starts from a straightforward idea: the language used by engineers is not the same as that used by doctors, and so researchers examine grammatical and lexical clues that signal each field's

style. This level of detail helps course designers create materials that meet learners' real-world needs, focusing only on the language learners are likely to see in their own field and leaving out what they will probably never use. Perren (1969) suggests that it is important to distinguish types of language according to the different disciplines for which they are employed, such as language for special purposes or a particular variety of registers. Lee (1976) takes into account two facets in his study of register. Firstly, a counting of the words used in the language in question, concentrating on how often particular words or phrases appear in the communication relevant to a given context as well as their relevancy with the context. Secondly, he indicates the syntactic analysis of that language. Robinson (1980) proposes that ESP would entail special language or special register. She also mentions that register is frequently referred to as vocabulary and language use (collocations).

Although there may be disagreement on how to approach and define the term register, it seems there is relative consensus in the literature on the need for more detail and less general over-simplification when describing the features of 'special registers.' Through the description of register, curriculum desingners were able to modify their programs for the needs of the learners in the particular settings of use. In this regard, Spencer (as cited in de Grève, 1972) criticized register studies on the grounds that they were text bound and proposed a shift to role activities where, as Candlin (1978) noted, language may be used for purposeful communication. Widdowson (1979) supports the change from a quantitative focus of register and lexis analysis to a qualitative one of developing learners' communicative competence. He also contended that this kind of qualitative methodology required further refinement and stressed discourse analysis, as well as the so-called communicative approach to language teaching.

1.2.2. Discourse Analysis or Rhetorical Analysis

Rhetoric or discourse analysis emerged as the second major movement in ESP, conceived in response to the limitations of the register analysis dominant in the 1970s. Key proponents included H. Widdowson, the Washington School of L. Selinker, L. Trimble, J. Lackstrom, and M. Todd-Trimble. In contrast to the earlier quantitative method that simply counts which linguistic forms appear and how often, a discourse-analytical (DA) perspective is qualitative; it asks what those forms mean in context and how they shape the larger conversation. In other words, where register studies count the frequency of specific language features, discourse analysis examines the purposes those features serve in real

communication. The current phase does not simply compile lists of individual features; instead, it tracks how sentences link so readers can see the patterns that allow a text to work as a coherent unit. In short, what became important is not the frequency of feature x or y but the reason for the choice of x rather than y in the developing text, i.e., the focus was on the sentence and on the purpose of writing rather than on form. Duan and Gu (2005) capture the movement between the two phases:

> Register Analysis focused on choice within single sentences, but Discourse Analysis looks at how those sentences fit together into larger units. The latter approach follows clear language models to trace the order of ideas and shows what makes a talk or text hang together.

"English for Science and Technology: a Discourse Approach", written by Trimble in 1985, offers a hands-on overview of discourse-oriented teaching. Its central aim is to align language choices—grammar and vocabulary—with the specific rhetorical goals of scientific and technical texts. This principle soon became the touchstone for choosing materials in ESP. Yet, as Dudley-Evans and St John note in 1998, the approach also showed limitations. Most notably, the Discourse Analysis syllabus often focused on functional tasks and overlooked systematic practice of the four language skills. These shortcomings prompted a new direction, known as Target Situation Analysis, in the ongoing evolution of ESP.

1.2.3. Target Situation Analysis

In the third stage of ESP development, focus gradually moved from single sentences to complete texts and their underlying goals, and eventually to what became known as Target-Situation Analysis, the touchstone for designing ESP syllabuses. Designers now begin by clarifying the target situation before examining the linguistic features it demands. Consequently, learners occupy a central role in the classroom: their real or anticipated uses of English must be clearly documented, and instruction must respond directly to those uses. Chambers first coined the phrase in 1980, describing TSA simply as communication that occurs within the target situation. Since then, the concept has guided course designers who aim to equip students to speak, write and understand English effectively wherever the language will be put to practical use. In this respect, the Communicative Needs Processor, or CNP, was viewed as a key milestone in ESPs evolution.

Thus, in designing a course, ESP practitioners keep returning to one basic question: What does the expert communicator need to know in order to function effectively in this situation?' The answer can include specific language patterns, planning strategies, and subject-centre knowledge.

Indeed, the ESP movement of the 1970s embraced needs analysis as its central guiding principle. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) capture the spirit of that era when they call Munby's (1978) Communication Needs Processor a watershed and a coming of age for ESP. Thus, conducting a thorough needs analysis is absolutely essential if educators or employers want to pinpoint the skills that truly matter for any particular group of students or staff, and this step cannot be overlooked because researchers now recognise it as the bedrock of ESP programmes in today's rapidly changing world of science, technology, and business.

NA emerged alongside the communicative approach and evolved through a series of stages during the 1970s and 1980s. Munby's Communicative Needs Processor, published in 1978, remains its most cited model and has been called "an unavoidable reference point" (Tudor, 1996, p. 66). In that work he lays out step-by-step procedures for identifying the language tasks learners will face in real contexts.

Even though Munby's target-situation analysis is a landmark study in English for specific purposes, it has drawn sharp criticism from subsequent linguists. Many later models shift emphasis toward learners' current needs or desires because, as Lesiak-Bielawska (2015, p. 6) notes, the term needs now covers subjective needs analysis, present-situation analysis, learning-needs analysis, discourse-genre analysis, and means analysis.

Overall, target situation analysis long dominated course design to align ESP programmes closely with learner and workplace goals. Its popularity, however, comes with drawbacks. By concentrating exclusively on observed behaviour, the model may overlook learners' motivation and potential tasks that have yet to emerge. Still, the TSA framework struggles to explain "how the expert communicator learnt the language items, skills, strategies that he/she uses". Because of this gap, many researchers argue that the heart of any ESP project lies not in knowing or doing, but in learning -in tracing the step-by-step progress of learners as they turn input into usable knowledge.

From that perspective, needs analysis is a multifaceted process that involves much more than identifying the tasks learners will perform in the target setting. Consequently, both the practical need to use the language in specific contexts and the pedagogical need to acquire the language must be addressed in programme design. This insight underpins the Task-Based Assessment (TBA) model, which in turn gave rise to the broader skills and strategies framework now commonly advocated in applied linguistics.

1.2.4. Skills and Strategies

The evolution of NA has brought about yet another shift in ESP, namely the emergence of a skills-and-strategies model. Advocated by several researchers and illustrated in textbooks such as Skills for Learning (1980), this model redirects attention away from discrete points of grammar and vocabulary towards the systematic teaching of basic communicative skills. The core principle of this approach is to guide students towards acquiring practical skills and strategies, since examining language solely through register, situational context, and rhetorical features often proves inadequate. This stage stands apart from the first three for the reason outlined in the following quotation: The principal idea behind the skills-centred approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 13).

Consequently, reading emerges as the first targeted skill in initial materials, with specialist texts supplemented by comprehension and language exercises; at this stage, the ESP course seeks to familiarise learners with a range of discipline-specific texts while practising reading strategies that let them derive meaning and function confidently in English. Put differently, attention within this model centres on interpretive techniques that help the learner move beyond surface features, such as inferring word meanings from context or using the visual layout to identify the text type. Additionally, students are expected to develop grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation simultaneously while performing a single task, such as listening to an audio recording, reading a text, writing a coherent paragraph, or delivering an oral presentation.

In short, the skills and strategies model looks beyond mere language output to the mental processes that shape that output, something earlier frameworks did not do. By taking this angle, the model emphasises the psychological and perceptual mechanics of learning and treats students, in line with cognitive theory, as humans who actively

construct understanding. Course materials under this model therefore spotlight reading and listening, inviting learners to dissect how meaning emerges from written texts and spoken interactions. Recognising the learners' central and active role, ESP then adopted this learning-centred stance as a guiding principle for course design.

1.2.5. Learning-Centered Approach

This model rests on the idea that learners shape their own understanding, and the teacher intervenes only when absolutely necessary. Learning is seen as an inward, personal process driven by what students already know and can do. It is crucial to note the slight yet significant difference between a learning-centred approach and a learner-centred one; the two phrases sound alike but point to separate emphases. The first view includes many elements—experience, context, support—yet treats the learner as the central figure, while the second pushes almost all responsibility for progress onto the learner and sidelines the teacher.

Because of this distinction, the learning-centred approach examines not just what a student can perform in a language, but also the steps and strategies used to reach that point. To apply this view, the syllabus must remain flexible, responding to student interests and energy so final goals can still be achieved. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998, p. 27) observe that a learning-centred approach recognises that each student learns in a distinct manner. Such an approach therefore weighs up a number of interrelated factors, including the idea that learning is more than a solitary cognitive act; it is also a constant negotiation between the learner and the wider society.

Along with the previously discussed approaches, ESP has developed as a primary focus area that draws interest from researchers, academic institutions, and professionals in language pedagogy. How globalisation is reshaping the world and the position English holds in international communication has a great bearing on ESP teaching and impacts the remarkable development of ESP. ESP has undergone a notable evolution from its inception in the early 1960s to the present time. With the evolution of the field, it has undergone rapid changes due to the many new shifts and developments in the world of linguistics. Johns (2013, p. 7) divides the history of ESP into four periods: The Early Years (1962-1981), the Recent Past (1981-1990), the Modern Era (1990-2011) and The Future (2011 plus).

A wide range of frameworks has appeared over the years, starting with Register Analysis, which examined the distinguishing features of different language varieties; unfortunately, that framework rarely guided students to see their specialised English as a practical tool. Discourse Analysis pushed attention upwards, moving the focus from single sentences to the cohesive patterns that operate above the line. Soon afterwards, the new profile known as Target Situation Analysis, seen as a developmental milestone for ESP, steered course design through systematic needs assessment so that learners could participate competently in real-world contexts. The fourth stage brought more radical change when the Skills and Strategies Approach centred on the mental processes at work whenever people use language. Finally, the Learning-centred model, still current, places the active learner at the heart of planning, insisting that course goals, materials, and evaluation must emerge from the students' unique circumstances. Taken together, these phases suggest that rather than abandoning earlier positions, practitioners might benefit more from refining them to fit new pedagogical insights.

<u>Activity One</u>: Please specify if each statement is true or false. For those you determine to be false, offer the correct information.

1) The demand for teaching English in specific contexts emerged in the 1960s and 1970s.

2) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was developed to address the needs of learners by using generic teaching methods.

3) According to Hutchinson and Waters, ESP has undergone four distinct phases since its inception.

4) Register analysis focuses on the differences in language used across various disciplines.

5) Discourse Analysis is primarily concerned with the frequency of linguistic forms used in communication.

6) False (It focuses on how linguistic forms express elements of discourse.)

7) Target Situation Analysis emphasizes the importance of understanding learners' needs in real-world contexts.

8) The skills and strategies approach shifted the focus from teaching language to teaching basic skills.

9) The Learning-Centered Approach places the teacher at the center of the learning process.

10) The ESP movement in the 1970s emphasized needs analysis as a key principle.

11) The history of ESP can be divided into three stages.

<u>Activity Two</u>: Respond to the questions below:

1) How have the needs of learners influenced the evolution of ESP from the 1960s to today? What specific changes can be observed in pedagogical approaches?

2) In what ways does register analysis contribute to the effectiveness of ESP courses? Are there limitations to this approach that need to be addressed?

3) How does discourse analysis improve upon the register analysis approach? What are the implications of focusing on the purpose of language use rather than just its structure?

4) To what extent does target situation analysis accurately reflect the real-world needs of learners? How can educators ensure that the analysis remains relevant over time?

5) What are the advantages of emphasizing a skills and strategies approach in ESP? How does this shift impact the traditional methods of language teaching?

6) What are the key differences between a learning-centered approach and a learner-centered approach? How might these differences affect curriculum design in ESP?

7) How has globalization influenced the development and implementation of ESP programs in different countries? Are there examples of successful adaptation to local contexts?

8) What criticisms have been raised against needs analysis in ESP? How can these critiques inform future improvements in ESP course design?

9) Considering the rapid changes in technology and communication, what future trends do you foresee in the field of ESP? How should educators prepare for these changes?

1.3. Teaching English for Special Purposes

Recently, there has been a significant change in ELT from the teaching of literacy studies towards a language which is no longer culture-based, but is instead aimed at the specific purposes of the student and the professional needs of the employee. Courses of this kind are usually labelled English for Specific Purposes, or ESP, because each class connects the language directly to a single job, field, or academic subject. As a result, researchers and instructors have begun to expand ESP work across many professional and organisational environments.

Considering the rapid growth of ESP, there is a need to design specific syllabi and teaching materials alongside recruiting qualified instructors who possess the requisite professional competencies to effectively deliver on these specialised educational objectives. In this context, Strevens (1977, p. 89) identifies three aspects of ESP which he believes the specialists should focus on. Firstly, in relation to the wide variety of courses that fall under the umbrella of ESP, there needs to be proper classification and analysis of these courses so that appropriate courses designed to meet the learner's needs can be developed. Secondly, it is important to critically analyse 'Scientific English' from multiple perspectives. Thirdly, scholars must address the guiding tenet that ESP instruction focuses on the 'communicative purposes' relevant to the learner.

It is maintained that within 'English for Special Purposes' the key word is 'purpose'. Both instructors and specialists need to be well aware of what that purpose is, and also plan methods to reach the objectives. In other words, educators are required to develop a syllabus that meets the goals of the students as well as select an appropriate methodology that will equip the students with the essential skills. Moreover, the methodology used in ESP teaching have turned out to be a controversial topic of discussion not only among researchers but also teachers of ESP since, unlike ELT, ESP differs from ELT in the issue of content, syllabus and its teaching but the critical question that must be asked is whether or not there is a special methodology of ESP and whether such a methodology is needed.

Hutchinson and Waters insist that no distinctive methodology yet identified belongs exclusively to ESP. This viewpoint is aligned with that of Hyland (2002), who argues that some scholars overlooked providing sufficiently rational defences for the need to adopt separate methodologies for teaching ESP. Hyland elaborates by stating, "the subject matter

domain requires a higher level of English proficiency so the learners first need to acquire general English at the appropriate level."

On the other hand, scholars do point out that ELT and ESP teaching procedures are not exactly the same; Robinson (1991) even says that only two clear features set ESP apart.

- ✓ English for Specific Purposes activities usually emerge from the particular field or discipline the learners belong to;
- ✓ Such activities can have a real-world goal that reflects the students' immediate requirements.

Watson (2003, p. 147-156) reinforces Robinson's argument by noting that the only differentiating feature of ESP from ELT is team teaching; there is cooperation among teachers and what remains, such as the blend of teaching with technology, learner independence, the use of real-life materials and tasks, and many other methods are also present in general ELT.

Contrary to earlier supporters, Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) assert that specific ESP instruction has its particular methodology which they mean that:

- ✓ All teaching within ESP should mirror the approaches of the specific field it caters to.
- ✓ Students must complete activities that necessitate the generation and manipulation of specific registers and genres of the language pertinent to the activity.
- ✓ The dynamics between instructor and learners may differ from that of an ordinary English classroom.

The absence of a firmly established methodology for teaching ESP suggests that the approach to teaching ESP does not greatly deviate from the methodology applied in General English instruction. Unlike GE instructors, ESP practitioners must be adaptable and accommodating, as their designations lack mastery in the topics being discussed by the professionals in their classrooms.

It can be said that forming a clear conclusion on whether ESP took concepts from ELT or ELT drew upon ideas from ESP is not straightforward. In addition to simply updating information, ESP instructors who teach practical courses need to pay considerable

attention to methodology pertaining to needs analysis; course design, development of teaching materials, and evaluation.

Activity One: select the correct answer

1) What is the primary focus of English for Special Purposes (ESP)?

a) General communication skills

b) Cultural studies

c) Specific needs related to a job or subject

d) Basic literacy skills

2) According to Strevens (1977), which is NOT one of the aspects that specialists should concentrate on in ESP?

a) Classification and analysis of courses

b) Nature of 'Scientific English'

c) Cultural integration in language teaching

d) Communicative purposes of the learner

3) What is a controversial issue among ESP scholars and instructors?

a) need for general English proficiency

b) The effectiveness of online learning

c) The necessity of a specific methodology for ESP

d) The role of technology in language teaching

4) Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that:

a) ESP requires a unique methodology

b) There is no specific methodology for ESP

c) ESP and ELT are identical

d) All ESP courses must focus on cultural aspects

5) According to Robinson (1991), which of the following is a characteristic aspect of ESP?

a) ESP activities must always derive from students' specialism

b) ESP activities can have an authentic purpose

c) ESP is only for advanced learners

d) ESP should exclude authentic materials

6) What do Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) believe about ESP teaching methodology?

a) It is identical to general English teaching

b) It reflects the methodology of the disciplines it serves

c) It should avoid interaction with learners

d) It requires less flexibility than ELT

7) What do ESP specialists need to maintain according to the lesson?

a) Outdated teaching methods

b) Updated data and materials

c) General English proficiency

d) Strict adherence to traditional methods

<u>Activity Two</u>: Answer the following questions:

1) How can educators effectively identify and articulate the specific purposes of ESP courses to ensure that they meet the diverse needs of learners and workers in various fields?

2) What are the implications of the ongoing debate regarding the existence of a distinct methodology for ESP? How might this impact the design and delivery of ESP courses in practice?

3) In what ways can ESP borrow from or contribute to the methodologies of General English Teaching, and how should educators navigate the balance between the two approaches in their teaching?

4) Considering that ESP teachers may not be subject matter experts in every field, what strategies can be employed to ensure effective teaching while maintaining flexibility and openness to the unique demands of each specialty?

1.4. ESP Interpretations

In the past few decades, the motivations for learning English have remained vague. After being recognised and integrated as a global language, the current generation has come to appreciate the significance of English. Individuals engaged in international trade, hotel receptionists wishing to communicate with international visitors, mechanics and engineers needing to read manuals in foreign languages, as well as students from various disciplines keeping pace with sector advancements such as in economics, medicine, computing, etc, all of these alongside other expectations have greatly contributed towards the growth of a specific specialised area in English Language Teaching commonly referred to as 'ESP' or English for Specific Purposes. As a matter of fact, the prevalence of English in almost all disciplines has made ESP more popular and preferred than other types. Thus, it is crucial to seek answers to the two pivotal queries, what is ESP? And what does it stand for?

English for Specific Purposes, or English for Special Purposes, emerged as a concept in the 1960s, prompting vigorous discussions by practitioners, particularly when it became evident that General English did not cater to learners' specific requirements. In fact, numerous interpretations have been advanced by scholars. Thus, to distinguish what this term truly denotes, some relevant interpretations within the ESP framework are necessary. In short, ESP describes the teaching of ESP, such as in academic or professional contexts. The focus of this new approach is targeted at adult learners studying English for specific functional professional and occupational interactions, including seamless communication, appropriate engagement, and execution of relevant tasks.

Mackay and Mountford (1978) characterise ESP by saying that it is "a form of teaching English for a utilitarian purpose and as a pragmatic response to a developing situation." They identify three main areas where need drives the instruction: (i)

Occupational requirements—for example, language training for international telephone operators or civil airline pilots, (ii) Vocational programmes—training courses for hostel staff, catering personnel, technical trades, and similar roles, and (iii) Academic or professional study—preparation in fields such as engineering, medicine, law, or commerce. Robinson (1980, p. 3) offers a clear overarching formulation, describing ESP as an enterprise that combines education, training, and practice and draws on three bodies of knowledge—language, pedagogy, and the specialist concerns of the learners.

Robinson goes on to assert that the objectives of an ESP course are both useful and focused on the effective execution of occupational or academic roles. This claim reinforces the idea that each programme emerges from a careful analysis of learner needs and is tailor-made to real contexts. Accordingly, an ESP course is likely to differ from general language classes in the content selected, the skills emphasised, the communicative situations simulated, the functions practised, and, of course, the discrete features of language examined. Her working definition of ESP rests on two core features: first, the idea that students in these classes share a fairly uniform language goal, and second, the observation that the classes are restricted to adults studying either in academic programmes or directly on the job.

The above definitions are supported by Harmer (1983) who defines ESP as: situations where the student has some specific reasons for wanting to learn a language. This means that English is taught to match the learner's requirements in certain contexts. According to Kennedy and Bolitho, ESP is based on an investigation of the purposes of the learner and the set of communicative needs arising from these purposes (1984, p. 3). In simpler terms, ESP is both learning and learner oriented through an analysis of the communication needs of the learner.

Additionally, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classify ESP as an 'approach' and not a 'product' of language instruction. This means that ESP has specifically defined objectives to cater to learners' needs. It does not presuppose any particular language, teaching materials, or methodology. They continue by noting that:

> ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need. The foundation of all ESP is the simple question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign language.

Once more, Robinson (1991, p. 2) provides an extensive analysis of the theoretical frameworks and definitions of ESP. She declares that, “ESP is for study in a specific discipline or as a school subject.” Moreover, she classifies ESP as a subtype of ELT and defines it as 'Goal Oriented Language Learning'. However, for many subject specialists of ESP, it is viewed as a compilation of grammar structures and situationally-contextualised vocabulary utilised by the learners. In this context, Mackay and Mountford (1978, p. 4) conceptualise ESP as: “a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language because that restricted repertoire covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation.”

1.4.1 Characteristics of ESP

Drawing on those concepts, Strevens (1988) identifies four absolute and two variable characteristics that together form his definition of English for Specific Purposes.

1.4.1.1. Absolute Characteristics

Strevens (1988) argues that English language teaching should begin from clearly defined learner needs, linking course content - themes, topics - to specific disciplines or jobs, and concentrating on the grammatical, vocabulary, discourse, and semantic language that those contexts naturally require; this focus sets it apart from general English.

1.4.1.2. Variable Characteristics

With regard to its changing features, Strevens (1988) argues that English for Specific Purposes may, though it need not, limit itself to the language abilities learners must acquire; and that these abilities do not always follow a set teaching method. Since each of these definitions has merits and shortcomings, there has been intense dispute regarding what ESP actually entails. In this regard, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) adapted Strevens’ definition by expanding the scope of ESP and using a spectrum of traits: absolute and variable characteristics.

In terms of absolute characteristics: a) ESP aims to address the distinct requirements of a particular learner; b) ESP utilises the methods and procedures of the disciplines it caters to; and c) ESP focuses on the pertinent language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse, and genres relevant to those activities. In terms of variable characteristics: a) ESP may be related to or oriented around particular disciplines; b) In some teaching contexts, ESP may apply a different approach from that of General English. c) Prior to secondary school, learners are unlikely to be exposed to ESP, as it is predominantly aimed at adult learners in a tertiary level institution or professional setting. d) ESP is typically directed toward learners at the intermediate or advanced level, and e) While most ESP courses are designed with an assumed foundational knowledge of the language system, beginners can still access the content. (Dudley Evans et al, 1998, p. 4-5). Clearly, rather than maintaining the defining absolute characteristic of 'ESP is in contrast with GE,' Dudley Evans and St John have removed this feature. In comparison to Strevens' model, Dudley Evans and St John have revised and incorporated more dynamic variables, asserting that ESP does not have to be associated with a particular field of study. Moreover, ESP is intended for use with mature learners, although it may be applicable with younger adults in a secondary school context.

Most importantly, regardless of the attempts made to explain what ESP is, no one can explain it in a few sentences because it is "complicated" as Strevens (1980) writes. It is not effortless to come up with a definition of ESP that is direct and devoid of substance. Generally, ESP is regarded as an approach to language teaching which is characterised by focusing on learner needs as the main aim, with the use of needs analysis as the foundation for curriculum building. ESP is regarded as an umbrella term with several subdivisions, often classified into two primary sub-branches: 1) English for Academic Purposes (EAP) which incorporates disciplines such as tourism, law, medicine, business, and science. 2) English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) which further divides into English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes. While multiple features of ESP have sparked intense debate among experts, the need for English for Specific Purposes is still growing globally.

<u>Activity One:</u> Indicate whether each statement is true or false. For any statements you identify as false, provide the correct information.

1) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) emerged as a term in the 1960s to better meet the

specific needs of learners.

2) ESP is primarily focused on cultural aspects of language learning rather than specific job-related functions.

3) Mackay and Mountford (1978) define ESP as a form of teaching English for utilitarian purposes.

4) Robinson (1980) describes ESP as solely focused on language, disregarding pedagogy and the learners' interests.

5) According to Harmer (1983), ESP is taught to meet learners' needs in specific situations.

6) Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that ESP is a product rather than an approach to language learning.

7) Strevens (1988) identifies absolute characteristics of ESP that differentiate it from General English (GE).

8) Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) maintain that ESP is always restricted to specific disciplines and cannot be applied broadly.

9) ESP courses are generally designed for beginner learners only.

10) ESP has two major subdivisions: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

Activity Two: Answer the following questions:

1) Given the various definitions and interpretations of ESP provided by different scholars, what consensus can be reached regarding its core purpose? How might these differing definitions impact the design and implementation of ESP courses?

2) To what extent should ESP methodology differ from General English Teaching (ELT)? What are the implications of these differences for educators who are not specialists in the fields they are teaching?

3) How can educators effectively assess and prioritize the specific needs of learners in ESP contexts? What strategies can be employed to ensure that ESP courses remain relevant and responsive to the changing demands of various professional fields?

1.5. ESP in the Arab World

The rise of Business English marks a significant turning point in ESP. While early ESP research and teaching centered almost exclusively on English for Science and Technology, the dramatic growth of global commerce soon pulled the field toward the language demands of business. As highlighted by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the 1990s marked an era of significant expansion in Business English (BE) during which ESP actively branched out into several countries and embraced a broader spectrum of learners. Countries in the Middle East, Latin America, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific Region have implemented it. In addition, the core region of the Middle East, extending from Libya in the west to Iran in the east and from Turkey in the north to Sudan in the south, has witnessed remarkable expansion of English teaching programmes. The primary objective driving the increase is not a desire to appreciate English culture, but rather, a necessity to utilise this global language as a medium of instruction, particularly in its written form.

In the so-called "petro-dollar states," there was a remarkable increase in the number of educational institutions. From the outset, it was clear that local teachers and lecturers would not be enough to staff these institutions, so expatriates had to be brought in. While the development of ESP research in the Arab world is still emerging, there was an increasing community of professionals with reputable TEFL and Applied Linguistics degrees working in the region. Along with a sustained British teaching presence and the occasional visits of specialists like Sinclair, Candlin, Campbell, and Falvey to Kuwait and Iraq, they travel to Turkey to gradually cultivate the field. Support from outside sources for ESP has existed. Textbooks based on teaching practices from Arab countries have appeared, such as *Writing Scientific English* from Swales (Libya), the *Nucleus* series edited by Dudley-Evans and Bates (Iran), and *English for Engineers* by Brasnett (Syria). In this context, Swales and Mustafa (1984) say that, "Writing in the region is substantiated by three books I know to be in press (there may be several more): Read and Note for Medical Students (Purvis/Saudi Arabia), English for Basic Mathematics (Blackie/Kuwait), and (Pearson/Sudan)"

Numerous conferences have taken place across the Arab world over the years. The first regional event dedicated to ESP was convened in Alexandria in 1976. The second meeting followed in Isfahan in November 1977, where participants agreed to create an Association of ESP Professors in the Middle East and North Africa. Since 1975, the

University of Khartoum has published the ESP-MENA Bulletin, providing a steady platform for research and discussion. In addition, many Arab nations are now demonstrating a solid commitment to ESP and to elevating its status within the broader field of English language teaching.

> The language Studies Units at Aston, we currently have students undertaking ESP-related research from Egypt, Iraq, Libya, Sudan and Syria, and Master9s students from Morocco, Algeria and Jordan in addition. We have regular visitors from the Arab world, subscribe to all the ESP- oriented journals from the region, maintain an ESP document collection, make occasional professional visits, and keep up other contacts by correspondence.

The field of ESP has now moved well beyond its original roots in Applied Linguistics and matured into a distinct area of study. Scholars from diverse backgrounds have contributed a growing body of literature that maps its theoretical and practical contours. More than twenty-seven dedicated ESP journals, including the Asian ESP Journal, ESP-MENA, TESOL Quarterly, ESP World, the TESL Journal, the Oxford ELT Journal, and the Elsevier English for Specific Purposes Journal, regularly publish empirical studies and pedagogical insights. Implementing and integrating ESP in classrooms across the Arab world presents challenges that differ from those faced in general English-French language learning, arising from complex cultural, political, and educational contexts that are often difficult to evaluate fairly. Gathering reliable, comparable data from the region remains elusive, and any broad assessment therefore runs the risk of oversimplifying local realities. Even so, persistent issues—limited faculty continuity, short-term contracts with external experts, and regulatory barriers—still undermine many ESP programmes. Without deliberate investment in knowledgeable staff and locally owned curricula, the Arab world may continue to function as an unacknowledged testing ground for Anglo-American theories rather than establishing its own scholarly voice.

<u>Activity One:</u> Determine if each statement is true or false. For those you find to be false, supply the accurate information.

1. The development of Business English is considered a significant shift in English for Specific Purposes.

2. ESP work in the Arab World primarily focuses on English for Science and Technology (EST).
3. The first regional ESP conference was held in Alexandria in 1976.
4. The main reason for the growth of English teaching programs in the Middle East is a desire to learn about English culture.
5. Several ESP textbooks have been developed based on experiences in the Arab World.
6. There are currently more than 27 journals publishing research related to ESP.

Activity Two: Respond to the questions below

1) What are the primary challenges faced by ESP programs in the Arab World, and how do these challenges impact the effectiveness of English language instruction in various professional contexts?

2) How has the shift from focusing solely on English for Science and Technology (EST) to incorporating Business English and other domains influenced the development of ESP curricula in the Arab region?

3) In what ways can collaboration with international experts and institutions enhance the growth and sustainability of ESP initiatives in the Arab World, and what potential risks might arise from relying on external support?

1.6. ESP in Algeria

It is difficult to overlook the position that English now holds as the global language of exchange, whether in academic research or professional practice. Acknowledging that reality, Algeria's education planners have woven English into the country's learning pathways. At the university level, the language appears both in dedicated English Departments—where learners tackle Written and Oral Expression, Linguistics, Phonetics, Literature, and Human Sciences—and as a supportive strand in disciplines such as biology, medicine, and economics, allowing future graduates to deploy English across varied contexts.

As mentioned, ESP has a history in Algeria stretching back to the early 1970s, soon after similar initiatives began across the Arab world. The launch of the LMD system, however, marked a turning point: structured ESP modules were formally embedded in nearly every university programme, underscoring a widespread commitment to equipping students with the language tools they need for their chosen fields. In Algerian universities, ESP classes are offered under various labels and abbreviations such as EST, EBE, and ESS.

This widespread demand for ESP across faculties has created an urgent need for qualified ESP instructors, yet the bulk of those teaching these courses are part-timers with only a Master diploma. Another segment consists of middle- and secondary-school teachers or individuals in the process of earning a Magister degree in the past—or a PhD today. A smaller group, holding Magister or PhD, originates from General English and is now being retrained to serve the English department. It is evident that most ESP lecturers entered the field after teaching General English. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that such teachers often encounter texts they know little about, a situation that can expose them to difficulties that, if unchecked, may impair student learning. The good news is that universities have begun to formalise ESP as a distinct track within Magister and PhD programmes. Still, ESP courses remain low in academic standing: their coefficient is a mere one, while subject-specific modules typically range from two to four.

Currently, English classes for specific purposes in Algeria meet for just ninety minutes a week, a timetable that leaves little room for depth. Compounding the issue, curriculum designers pay scant attention to course content, teaching methods, or materials,

so instructors essentially choose between general English and English related to students' fields. Because of this freedom, many observers conclude that GE and ESP are taught as if they were the same thing. As a result, neither students nor teachers feel satisfied, since neither group sees its particular needs addressed in a meaningful way. Classroom time is often dominated by reading passages and answering comprehension questions, with little emphasis on speaking, writing, or listening tasks that professionals use every day. Although some instructors know English well, few possess the specialised knowledge needed in fields like engineering, medicine, or tourism. Consequently, many ESP lessons still rely on the grammar-translation method, stressing memorisation and heavy use of the mother tongue while the communicative approach is allowed to fade. A more balanced programme would treat all four language skills equally, thus supporting students' linguistic growth and their future careers. Furthermore, formal assessments prove useful because students enter classrooms with varied linguistic histories and proficiencies.

Indeed, in Algeria, ESP can be classified into two broad domains, which are English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes. EAP is offered primarily at higher education institutions and comprises both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes aimed at assisting students in their areas of specialisation, whereas EOP is delivered at certain vocational training centres, as well as private colleges, by virtue of its necessity in job contexts. Therefore, the context of ESP in Algeria can be presented as follows:

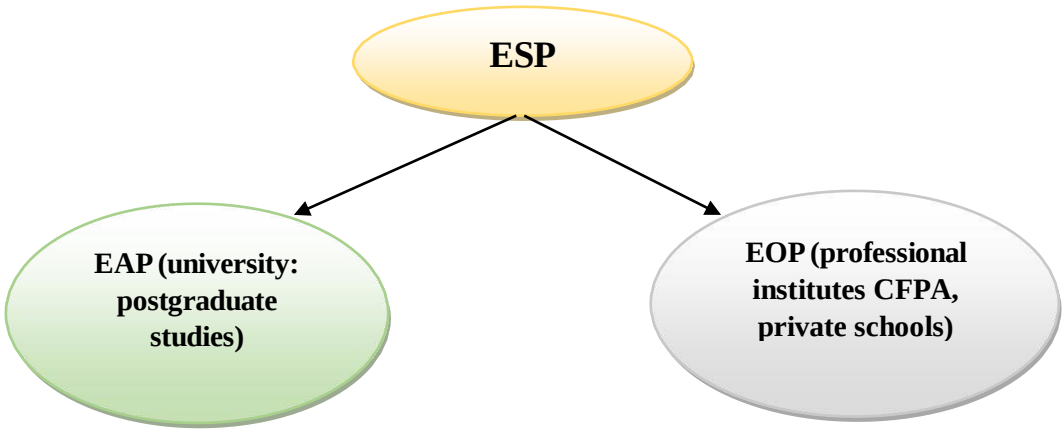

Figure 1. ESP Teaching in Algeria

<u>Activity One:</u> State whether each statement is true or false. For any that you identify as false, provide the correct information.

1) English is integrated into the Algerian educational system primarily as a main subject in the English Department.

2) The teaching of ESP courses in Algeria began in the early 1970s.

3) Most ESP teachers in Algeria hold advanced degrees such as a PhD.

4) ESP courses in Algeria have a higher status compared to other subject-specific modules.

5) The majority of ESP classes in Algeria use the Grammar Translation Method, focusing on memorization and the mother tongue.

6) ESP in Algeria includes two main categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

<u>Activity Two</u>: Fill in the Gaps

1. As a result of ....., the role of English cannot be denied as a communicative tool for academic or occupational settings.
2. English has been integrated into the educational system of .....
3. At the tertiary level, English is taught either as a main subject in the English Department or as an.....module in other departments.
4. The teaching of ESP courses in Algeria goes back to the early ..... when ESP courses started to be introduced in the Arab World.
5. With the implementation of the ..... system at Algerian universities, special attention began to be given to ESP teaching.
6. The majority of ESP teachers in Algeria are part-time teachers who hold only a .....degree.
7. ESP courses have a low status in comparison with other subject-specific modules, with a coefficient of only .....

8. ESP classes in Algeria are often based on the..... Translation Method, which focuses on memorization.

9. ESP in Algeria can be divided into two main categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for ..... Purposes (EOP).

10. EAP is mainly taught at universities and helps students in a particular .....of study.

Activity Three: Answer the following questions

1) How has globalization influenced the integration of English into the educational system in Algeria, particularly at the tertiary level?

2) What challenges do ESP teachers in Algeria face, and how do these challenges impact the effectiveness of ESP courses for students?

3) In what ways do the two categories of ESP—English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)—differ in their objectives and teaching methods within Algerian institutions?

1.7. ESP Branches

Within the scope of ESP, there are numerous sub-divisions. Broadly, these two sub-divisions consist of "English for Academic Purposes" (EAP), and "English for Occupational Purposes" (EOP), which relates to employment and training requirements. Each category contains multiple secondary divisions based on content areas and numerous other branches, with new ones being added to the list every year.

1.7.1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

EAP has grown tremendously in the last two decades. It is part of a larger phenomenon generally referred to as 'ESP.' What started as a sub-branch of ESP has evolved into a key driver of English language teaching and research in virtually every corner of the globe. Robinson (1980, p. 7) captures its essence when she states that EAP concerns "study skills, i.e., how to study through the medium of English regardless of the subject matter or of the studies." Kennedy and Bolitho (1984, p. 4) echo this view

explaining that EAP is usually situated in primary and secondary schools and universities for learners who require English in order to undertake their classes.

Swales (1990) adds that EAP seeks to build a solid command of academic reading and writing, paying special attention to graduate theses and dissertations. Under this approach, reading and writing become conspicuous learning tools a learner can see and measure. The larger aim, as Swales argues, is to shape learners' communicative competence in any scholarly setting they enter. Dudley-Evans (2001) likewise observes that EAP tends to be very practical, with course content shaped by the immediate context and the specific needs of particular students. Dominguez and Rokowski (2002, p. 2) argue that English has transformed from just another foreign language into a universally accepted means of communication in virtually all areas of human activity.

Mo (2005, p. 62) narrows the idea, defining EAP, as the use of English when people learn and teach—especially, though not only, in university. Ypsilandis and Kantaridou (2007, p. 69) expand on that and say EAP or the 'academic environment' centres around the specific zone of learning for a given application, consequently, it includes all domains of scholarly communicative practice such as:

- Classroom engagements including teacher evaluations, tutorials, and seminar discussions.
- Research outputs which include journal articles, conference papers, and grant proposals.
- Student authored works such as essays, examination papers, and graduate theses.
- Administrative functions ranging from course outlines to oral defences of the doctoral theses.

Moreover, EAP is English teaching tailored to the specific requirements of an academic undertaking. Dudley-Evans and St John note that within EAP, English for Science and Technology (EST) has traditionally been regarded as the primary area of focus, albeit English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Legal Purposes (ELP) had early inclusions. More recently, English for Management, Finance, and Economics (EMFE) has become more important for the MBA programmes.

EAP has certainly grown with the advancement of universities globally and due to the greater number of people learning English. In Hyland's words, in "2006" modern EAP is based on the descriptions of language use in the academic contexts and in many cases, goes beyond the immediate communicative contexts to grasp the nature of disciplinary knowledge itself. Therefore, in the context of EAP, learners must be able to communicate effectively, and the same goes for the workers; they will have the capacity to read within their specific field, make oral presentations, listen to lectures, write detailed reports, and actively follow advancements pertinent to their fields of expertise.

1.7.2. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

In today's world, English is crucial for securing employment and facilitating effective communication in professional settings. This need has given rise to a new subdivision in the English for Specific Purposes domain, which is EOP. EOP studies the precise language habits that emerge within particular workplaces and professions rather than focusing on the more academic settings covered by English for Academic Purposes. Within EOP, specialists further sort content into areas such as Business English, Medical English, Legal English, Political Science English, and Vocational English for groups such as nurses, teachers, or tour guides.

In the past twenty years, EOP has been developed to meet the growing demand for a proficient English workforce. Therefore, the primary focus of EOP is English for Employment Purposes. According to Swales (1990), EOP is defined as the utilisation of English for the purpose of seeking, retaining or any work-related activity. In contrast, Anthony (1997) describes EOP as: "the portion of the curriculum which prepares students for gainful employment in occupations spanning from low-skills to sophisticated technical jobs."

EOP endeavours to address the professional needs of workers by providing adequate and purposeful training which sharpens the practical language skills required in a professional English-speaking context and builds on the foundational skills. As a result, the training will focus on the exploration of specific job functions. Most classes in EOP have been designed with proper foundational exposure to reading, writing, speaking and listening, as stated by Anthony (1997). From the training, students would delve into particular job tasks and roles that are essential in their professional domains. Additionally, Dudley-Evans et al. (1998, p. 95) argue that any language instruction designed for

professional purposes must begin with an analysis of the four traditional skills within a particular contextual framework. Moreover, they defend the claim that an effective syllabus has to be an effort to try and address the gaps and inadequacies within the existing educational system. Also, in EOP, teachers prioritise equipping learners with skills essential to gaining, retaining, and advancing in employment. This is because of students' motivation to better position themselves for a successful career (Bukhart, 1996).

As noted earlier, ESP is a methodology that has gained prominence over the last three decades. It is usually categorised into two uppermost branches: EAP and EOP. Covered under 'English for Work or Training' (EOP, EVP, English for Occupational Purposes/ English for Vocational Purposes), it encompasses a person's work-related training needs. As suggested in Hutchinson's division of EOP in (1987), it consists of (a) English for Professional Purposes which incorporates both business and medical fields, and (b) English for Vocational Purposes. The latter is further divided into Pre-vocational English (for prospective employees) and Vocational English (for current employees).

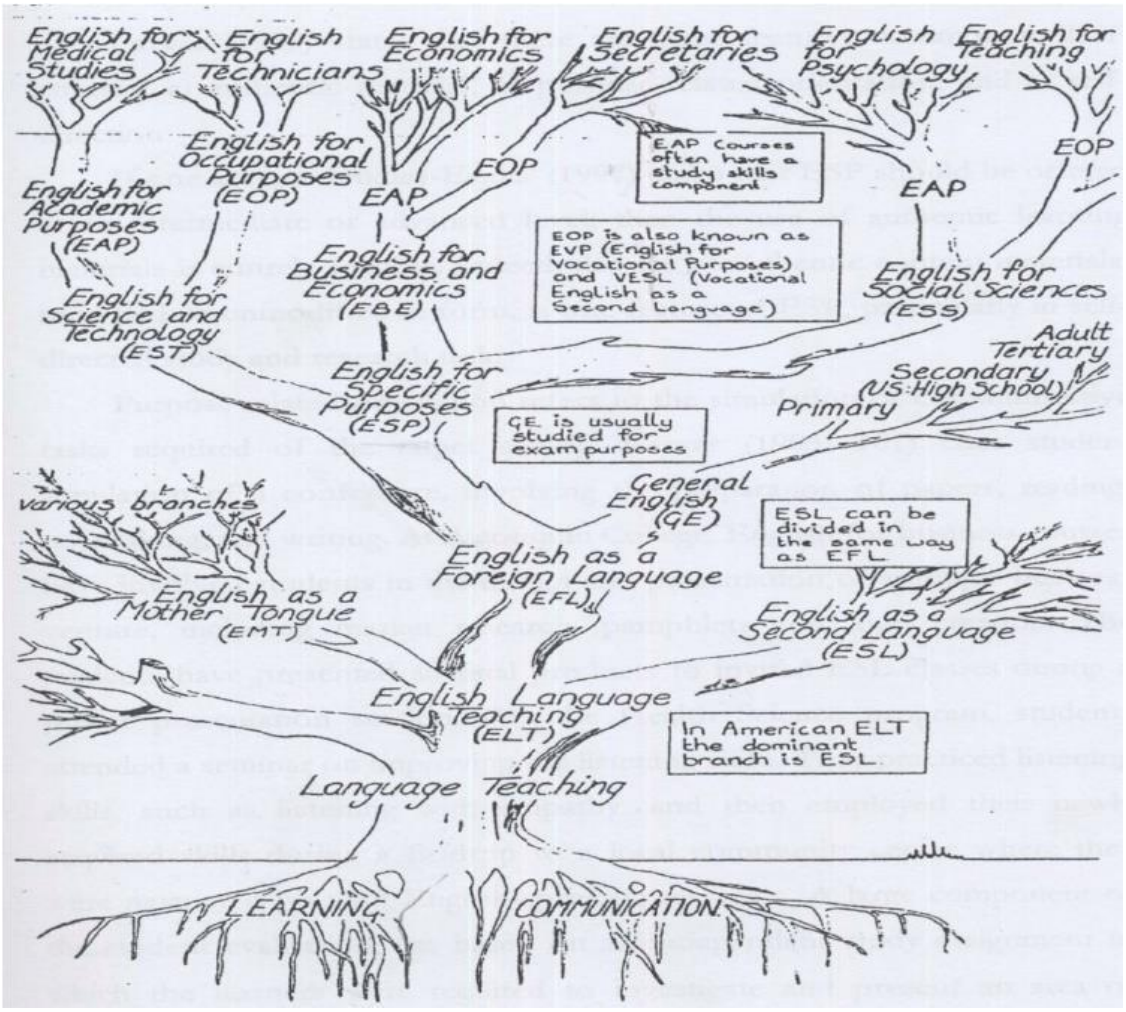

Figure 2. The ELT Tree (**Adapted from Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)**

In addition, Dudley-Evans and St. John explain that the expression EOP encompasses professional functions in management, business, law, medicine and non-professional work or pre-work activities for non-professionals. EMP is a course that focuses on practising doctors while EBP is oriented around the functional use of English in business contexts. As noted by Hutchinson et al, EOP is also referred to as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language). Consequently, EAP is divided into some components: EGAP and ESAP; whereas, EOP is also further divided into EGOP and ESOP.

EOP is more general and common in comparison with ESP. In this light, Simion (2012) states that, in EOP, all the English language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking are exactly the same as ESP; the focus is on the general skills that are crucial for the learners to equip them for the world of work, not on a specific discipline or specialised

field. Consequently, EOP programmes should aim to foster communicative competence in specific fields such as tourism, business, or aviation.

The umbrella term of ESP encompasses numerous subdivisions, with new ones being added annually. For example, English for Hotel Industry (EHI) is classified as a subset of English for Tourism which falls within the domain of ESP. An example is Basturkmen (2010), who has more recently classified ESP in her book of teaching ESP as an area of study into several sub-branches based on the general and specific characteristics of the course, in which many types are added.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)	English for Academic Writing English for Law Studies
English for Professional Purposes (EPP)	English for General Professional Purposes (EGPP) English for Specific Professional Purposes (ESPP)	English for the Health Care Sector English for Nursing
English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)	English for General Occupational Purposes (EGOP) English for Specific Occupational Purposes (ESOP)	English for the Hospitality Industry English for Hotel Receptionists

Table 1. Areas of ESP teaching (**Adapted fom Busturkmen, 2010**)

One of the distinctions made within the ESP framework is the differentiation between occupational and educational courses. Further, a distinction arises between pre-experience and post-experience courses in all categories of occupational ESP, based upon whether the learner is familiar with the job and is augmenting English skills or if English for the job is instructed concurrently with job training. It is recognised that the inadequacies and issues related to occupational ESP programmes stem from insufficient coordination between the language expert and the specialised field. Within Occupational

ESP, there are already vocational programmes which offer conversion or retraining courses of a certain type. Thus, in various fields such as business, medicine, engineering, and others, different terms are used exclusively. Each profession possesses its own technical vocabulary, terms, expressions, procedures and protocols. When the aims of each profession are articulated with respect to some defined goals, then the language components will be modified, which will ensure that the training will focus on the mastery of communication skills in the relevant field.

Activity One: State whether each statement is true or false. For any that you identify as false, provide the correct information.

1) English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is one of the two main sub-divisions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

2) EAP focuses exclusively on vocational training and does not include academic study skills.

3) Robinson (1980) describes EAP as study skills that help learners navigate their studies through English.

4) According to Swales (1990), the main goal of EAP is to help learners develop proficiency in spoken English only.

5) English for Medical Purposes (EMP) is considered a part of EAP.

6) The demand for EAP has decreased due to fewer students studying English in academic settings.

7) English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) refers to the specific ways English is used in different work and professional situations.

8) EOP is exclusively focused on academic study needs and does not include any vocational training.

9) According to Swales (1990), EOP includes using English to find or keep a job.

10) Dudley-Evans et al. (1998) assert that EOP classes should focus primarily on theoretical knowledge rather than practical language skills.

11) EOP can be subdivided into English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes.

12) EOP programs aim to develop communicative competence in general language skills rather than specific occupational contexts.

<u>Activity Two:</u> Match the following terms related to Types of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) with their correct definitions by writing the corresponding letter in the space provided.

1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	**A.** Focuses on communication skills needed in the workplace and specific job functions.
2. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)	**B.** Aimed at developing skills for academic reading, writing, and research in educational settings.
3. English for Professional Purposes (EPP)	**C.** Involves language training for disciplines such as law, medicine, and business.
4. English for Science and Technology (EST)	**D.** Prepares students for using English in scientific fields, including research and technical writing.
5. English for Medical Purposes (EMP)	**E.** Tailored for healthcare professionals to communicate effectively in medical contexts.
6. English for Business Purposes (EBP)	**F.** Focuses on language skills required for business communication, including meetings and presentations.
7. English for Legal Purposes (ELP)	**G.** Equips learners with the language necessary for understanding legal documents and court proceedings.
8. English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)	**H.** Aimed at preparing learners for specific trades or vocational fields, such as tourism or hospitality.
9. English for Academic Writing (EAW)	**I.** Concentrates on the conventions and skills needed for writing essays, reports, and theses in academic contexts.
10. English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)	**J.** Covers a broad range of academic skills relevant to various disciplines without focusing on a specific field.

<u>Activity Three</u>: ESP teaching takes place in a number of differing contexts as shown in the following scenarios, identify the type of the ESP course in each example, then justify your answer.

Albert:

Albert is bilingual and was brought up in a French-speaking home in the UK. After studying French and Business at university, during which he did some part-time English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) teaching, he was offered a job with a computer software company based in Paris. His brief was to track the daily work practices of a number of key employees at the company and offer English language assistance to them when they had difficulties using English in their work. The aim was that these key employees should eventually become independent in using English for their workplace needs.

Cathy and Louis:

Cathy and Louis were completing postgraduate degrees in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) when they responded to a job advertisementcalling for teachers to work at a military defence training facility in the US. The facility trains military personnel from various countries and aims to improve their technical and English language skills. Cathy and Louis' students were pilots. Having begun teaching at the facility, Cathy and Louis realized that the students' interest in English for its own sake was limited but they were deeply enthusiastic about their specialist areas, such as helicopter piloting. Cathy and Louis quickly set about devising content-based teaching of English in which the primary focus of instruction is on texts and activities related to the students' specialist military areas.

John:

John studied law at a university in Australia. In his final year he began teaching ESOL part-time in order to supplement his income. He found he enjoyed it more than law and on completing his law degree, he taught ESOL full-time for three years before doing a masters degree in TESOL. For his thesis topic he decided to investigate discourse in 'problem-answer' essays' – an academic legal genre common in legal studies. After receiving his degree, John got a job teaching academic reading and writing skills in the English

Language Support centre at an Asian university. Sometime later, he was transferred from the centre to the ESP Unit at the same university in order to work in an established small team that designs and teaches English courses for students in the law department. Here John feels able to combine his interest in language teaching with his knowledge of law and legal discourse.

Estelle:

Estelle found that after teaching primary school in New Zealand for a number of years, she needed a change of direction. She wanted to work abroad and teach adults. She studied for a diploma in TESOL during which she took a course in ESP. Following her graduation, Estelle found a job in a two-year vocational college. The first course Estelle was assigned to teach was 'English for Office Management'. The course had only been running one year and Estelle was told she would need to prepare new instructional material as there was insufficient course content. The students on this course were between 18 and 20 years old and were hoping to gain employment in international companies after their return to their home countries. Alongside English, the students were studying word processing, spreadsheet and office administration.

Alison:

Alison began her teaching career teaching French in the secondary school sector in New Zealand. A number of years later due to falling enrolments in European Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes languages in secondary schools, Alison started teaching English as a Second Language in a Tertiary College. She taught intermediate level learners there for some years and then began to also conduct classes for immigrants focusing on 'settling-in skills', such as job applications, dealing with administrative enquiries, and so on. One day her director of studies called her in to tell her that the college was to introduce a course called English for Medical Doctors. The students would be recently arrived immigrant doctors who needed to appear for medical registration examinations and English language tests to enable them to work as general practitioners in the country. Alison was asked to prepare and teach the course.

Derya:

Derya graduated in teaching English as a foreign language in Turkey and almost

immediately gained employment in one of the large state universities in which English is used as the medium of instruction. Most students at Derya's university spend a year in the preparatory school studying an intensive English language programme prior to starting study of subjects in their departments. Derya has taught on the intensive programme for a number of years. Recently, the Engineering faculty at the university expanded its doctoral programme. The faculty however realized that the doctoral students' lack of English was hampering their studies and it was decided that a special English language programme to help the postgraduate students with reading and writing engineering research reports needed to be set up. Derya, whose brother is completing his doctoral studies in the Engineering faculty, was requested to set up a suitable ESP course for the engineering students on the doctoral programme.

Teachers	Learners	Purpose for taking the ESP course	Type of the course
Albert			
Cathy and louis			
John			
Estelle			
Alison			
Derya			

<u>Activity Four</u>: Answer the following

- How do the sub-divisions of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) differ in terms of their goals, methodologies, and target audiences? What implications do these differences have for curriculum development?
- What factors have contributed to the rapid growth of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in educational institutions worldwide? How does this growth reflect the changing role of English in academia?
- In what ways does English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) address the specific

language and communication needs of different professions? How can EOP programs ensure they remain relevant to the evolving demands of the workplace?

- What are the key components of effective training in EOP that enhance practical language skills for professionals? How should EOP curricula be designed to meet the specific job functions required in various fields?
- What challenges arise from the lack of coordination between language specialists and the occupational context in EOP programs? How can these challenges be addressed to improve the effectiveness of occupational English training?

1.8. EGP/ESP

ESP can be regarded as a specialized form of EGP that integrates practical language skills to prepare students for effective execution of professional tasks (Potocar, 2002). In contrast, EGP offers foundational knowledge and skills in English at the school level, without adequately addressing the specific occupational and educational goals of students. The primary aim of implementing ESP in various non-native and international contexts is to provide learners with essential English language skills to navigate communication challenges in their future careers. As Holme (1996, cited in Potocar, 2002) states, ESP should enable students to acquire the necessary language skills that combine work-related competencies with personal development and sociocultural awareness.

According to Widdowson (1983, cited in Ajideh, 2009), the difference between ESP and EGP is based on how we define and approach the learning objectives. ESP focuses on objective-oriented learning, where the goals are clearly specified and relate to training that develops specific competencies. In contrast, EGP is aim-oriented, without directly linking the specification of objectives to specific aims, and it works on enhancing general capabilities. The primary responsibility of an ESP teacher is to create a syllabus aligned with practical goals and assess students' performance through relevant language skills. In contrast, an EGP teacher may not explicitly establish the program's goals and objectives. Thus, an ESP teacher is engaged in a "training operation," equipping learners with targeted skills for specific tasks, while an EGP teacher is involved in an "educational operation," preparing students with a broader capacity to handle unpredictable situations in the future (ibid, p. 163).

The unique nature of ESP courses requires teachers to take on different roles and teaching strategies to effectively impart knowledge to their students. First, they must assess learners' needs, which will influence the methods, materials, and language levels used in instruction (Robinson, 1991). As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 53) note, "What distinguishes ESP from General English is an awareness of the need." This implies that an ESP teacher is similar to a General English instructor, but must prioritize and address the specific needs of their students (Robinson, 1991). Moreover, certain linguistic knowledge and skills may be applicable across multiple subjects or professions (Holme, 1996). For instance, the skills necessary for effective communication in various occupations may

share similarities (Potocar, 2002). Widdowson (1983) outlines key distinguishing features of ESP and EGP, with the most significant characteristics being:

ESP

- ESP emphasizes training.
- ESP prioritizes language in context over teaching grammar and language structures.
- ESP is based on an evaluation of the purposes or needs that dictate the use of English.
- ESP includes a needs analysis to identify the most essential language skills for students, with the syllabus designed accordingly.
- ESP is typically designed for adult learners, whether in higher education institutions or in professional work environments.

EGP

- EGP emphasizes English language education in primary and secondary schools.
- Its goal is to develop strong everyday English communication skills.
- It encompasses the four key skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking.
- Selecting course content is more challenging because the future English needs of learners are difficult to anticipate. (Fehaima, 2022, p. 22)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that, theoretically, there is no distinction between the two; however, significant differences arise in practice. Like other language teaching methods, ESP is grounded in realities about language, learning, and instruction, but it is often compared to General English. The ESP teaching approach is learner-centered, prioritizing the needs and goals of students, while the General English approach (EGP) is language-centered, focusing on acquiring language through a broad perspective that encompasses all language skills and cultural aspects of English-speaking communities. Robinson (1980, p. 6) explained that "the general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of General education for life, culture, and literature-oriented language courses, where the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course."

In ESP, after identifying and analyzing specific learning needs, students learn "English as they acquire a different body of knowledge and set of skills." A key distinction between General English courses and ESP is that ESP learners are primarily adults who have a certain level of awareness regarding their language needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In contrast, General English courses are mandatory modules for school students, primarily aimed at helping them pass exams. Basturkmen (2006, p. 9) argues that while General English teaching progresses from a specific starting point to an uncertain endpoint, ESP is designed to guide learners towards a clearly defined destination in order to achieve specific objectives. The focus in ESP on efficiently moving from point A to point B can lead to the perception that it is fundamentally a practical endeavor.

Activity One: Indicate whether each statement is true or false. For any statements you identify as false, provide the correct information.

1) ESP is primarily focused on general language skills rather than specific professional tasks.

2) EGP aims to develop strong everyday English communication skills for school students.

3) ESP learners are typically children in primary education.

4) The main goal of ESP is to provide learners with essential English language skills for their future careers.

5) ESP teaching is centered around a broad perspective that includes all cultural aspects of English-speaking communities.

6) The needs analysis in ESP helps determine the most relevant language skills for students.

7) EGP courses are designed with specific occupational goals in mind.

8) According to Hutchinson and Waters, there are significant theoretical distinctions between ESP and EGP.

9) ESP is learner-centered, focusing on the specific needs and goals of students.

10) General English courses are often mandatory and primarily aimed at preparing students for examinations.

Activity Two: Fill in the Gaps

1. ESP can be seen as a specialized form of..... that integrates practical language skills for professional tasks.
2. In contrast, EGP provides foundational knowledge and skills in English at the ..... level.
3. The primary aim of ESP is to equip learners with essential English language skills to navigate.....challenges in their future careers.
4. According to Widdowson, the difference between ESP and EGP lies in how we define and approach the learning .....
5. ESP focuses on .....-oriented learning, while EGP is aim-oriented.
6. An ESP teacher is responsible for creating a syllabus aligned with ..... goals.
7. The unique nature of ESP courses requires teachers to assess learners' .....to influence instruction.
8. Hutchinson and Waters note that what distinguishes ESP from General English is an awareness of the .....
9. EGP emphasizes English language education in.....and secondary schools.
10. The ESP teaching approach is.....-centered, focusing on the specific needs of students.

Activity Three: Correct the following statements

1. "ESP focuses on general language skills for all learners."
2. "EGP is designed mainly for adult professionals."
3. "The primary goal of EGP is to prepare learners for specific job tasks."
4. "ESP courses typically do not require a needs analysis."
5. "EGP emphasizes training for specialized careers."
6. "ESP programs are usually compulsory in primary education."
7. "EGP prioritizes language in context over grammar."

8. "ESP is focused on broad language capabilities."

English Language Skills in ESP

Unit Aims:

- To enhance reading skills related to specific disciplines, focusing on the strategies to comprehend specific texts effectively.
- To improve the ESP writing by examining the fundamental conventions, formats, and strategies relevant to different professional contexts.
- To enhance the ability to listen effectively through the application of certain methodologies for comprehending oral discourse in particular domains and professional contexts.
- To highlight the necessity of combining these linguistic competencies for the purpose of enabling efficient communication in specialised contexts.

Within the framework of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), these objectives will assist learners in acquiring the fundamental linguistic competencies required for effective participation in their respective industries.

2.1. English Language Skills in ESP

It is often argued that the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking are crucial in teaching ESP courses; however, it is more relevant to the learners' needs and preferences. Learners often possess skills that are situated in particular contexts within social practices. Different skills are prioritised differently in various fields. For instance, the aviation and hospitality sectors place a high value on communication skills, especially listening and speaking. In contrast, employees at banking institutions place more value on reading and writing skills.

2.1.1. Reading in ESP

The reading skill is particularly critical for the academic life of English learners as it assists them in advancing their education. In some cases, reading may lead learners to devote excessive time to reading passages because reading is far from being a passive skill. It does not focus only on a mere form and decoding the text. As a result, the focus on one’s communicative competence has led to the development of a new approach where reading is treated as communicatively as oral interaction. Thus, the categories of communication

and discourse analysis have emerged. The communicative approach to language focuses on identifying the lexico-grammar clues which mark the meaning relationships among the sentences. Indeed, the focus area in reading under ESP is scientific texts and journals. As Johnsons et al. (1998, p. 108) point out, previously the scope of ESP teaching emphasised the reading skill alone.

> An initial and continuing focus in ESP has been the skill of reading, for the practical and international reason that, in a great number of study contexts throughout the world, English is primarily required as the ‘library language’ of text books and research reporting.

Most students at what we term a 'pre-ESP' level will need to develop their reading skills by reading extensive texts with full comprehension before transitioning to a specific subject area, thereby developing the complex skill of reading itself. In this respect, ESP has used the communicative approach to devise reading techniques which aid ESP students in extracting more information from a given passage in a limited amount of time, such as ‘skimming’ to grasp the major ideas and ‘scanning’ to locate specific pieces of information. Understanding the excerpts in relation to the objectives at hand; grasping the linkages within a sentence as well as between sentences; recognising the principal and supplementary ideas and action of the text to construct relevant information while reading and retaining the ability to apply it during or post-reading.

Years later, reading as an integral part of an ESP course balances other skills. Hence, attention shifted towards the other skills of writing, listening, and speaking. Thus, ESP entails the teaching and learning of a particular skill or a language relevant to specific learners, either for academic or professional objectives. In this context, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 41) argue that English for General Academic Purposes “isolates the skills related to study activities like attending lectures, participating in supervisions, doing practicals, reading textbooks and other written materials, and composing essays, examination responses, dissertations, and reports.”

2.1.2. Writing in ESP

The advancement of ESP has made both native and non-native speakers appreciate the importance of mastering the writing skill. Indeed, a variety of approaches have developed, moving from a product to process focus, culminating in the most recent

research which advocates a third, social-constructionist approach. The product approach emphasises the final product, which must be error-free and coherent. Students learn by imitating and transforming the models presented in textbooks or by the teachers. This approach enhances knowledge acquisition by the learners, particularly regarding grammatical framework. This method enhances the student's knowledge, particularly with regard to their grammatical structures. As stated by Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998), "the product approach" is used to describe the importance of text features alongside the final output of text a writer is required to produce. In this case, a model text is provided, analysed, and serves as a foundation for composing a text that is either identical or parallel to the original.

Some researchers have raised concerns regarding the effectiveness of this approach. Some of the drawbacks of teaching using model texts are preventing intuition and imagination among students since they tend to alter a few words in order to create a new version of the text. Consequently, it is regarded as mechanical work that suppresses students' creativity rather than improving their writing skills. Nevertheless, in the case of teaching writing in the Context of ESP, it remains justifiable to provide a model text as long as the author intends to modify the text for particular purposes. Such practices may be observed in various sectors, including hospitality, banking, and education. Adhering to a model text allows learners and professionals to save time through the use of a document's format, lexicon, and stylistic choices.

The process approach emerged to address the shortcomings of the previous approach. The process approach aims to foster the writing skill in a more communicative manner, emphasising the student's creativity both as a writer and as a communicator of the intended message. The focus is on writing as an aspect of problem-solving so that the students are able to recognise the rhetorical problem, tackle it sufficiently, and clearly articulate the appropriate conclusion. This approach promotes the language development processes of brainstorming, planning, group discussion, mind mapping, selecting and arranging concepts, and subsequently rewriting them in a sequenced format. Therefore, it is expected that learners will undergo multiple iterations of drafting, receiving comments on their drafts from either classmates or the instructor, followed by revising their text.

Considering the context, a social constructionist approach seems to fulfil the needs of the community by having students concentrate on the contextual frame of writing. This is

related to the developments of genre analysis and the sociological study of academic and professional discourse as central components of ESP texts. Knowledge of genre entails understanding the expectations of the relevant discourse community. This relates to who the intended audience is and what the objectives of the writing are.

2.1.3. Listening in ESP

Listening is a skill that can be practised and developed in various employment contexts such as meetings, supervisions, or phone calls. It refers to the act of receiving, interpreting, and responding to verbal and nonverbal communicative messages. Listening can be as important, or even more important, than speaking. If one does not possess good listening skills, effective communication becomes almost impossible, particularly in professional settings. However, most students do not seem to receive proper instruction on how to listen effectively.

As noted by Brown (1990), the primary objective of both SL listening and ESP listening is to cultivate active listeners who can devise justifiable interpretations from insufficient data and seek further pertinent information. Even though ESL and ESP appear to imply distinctions in the instruction of listening skills, they possess common similarities and foundational traits with regard to guiding engagement and understanding. As stated by Paltridge and Starfield (2013, p. 57-58):

> ESP listening as a construct has many similarities to ESL listening. It involves the same cognitive processes that draw from a number of similar knowledge sources to process spoken input, and requires the use of the same core (or macro) skills that enable effective attention to information in accord with the purpose of listening. Where the two types of listening differ is in the additional skills and spcific types of knowledge required for EAP and EOP purposes.

The distinction between ESL and ESP listening is that learners who need ESP training already have some degree of proficiency that enables them to communicate in English. Such learners concentrate on acquiring new, specialised skills pertinent to their area of study or profession to meet their desired comprehension objectives. In EAP or EOP contexts, learners may need to acquire new skills, for instance, identifying specific discourse markers and cues in lectures during comprehension tasks. ESP learners have

specific academic and professional requirements that demand sophisticated listening abilities. Therefore, rather than viewing the development of ESP listening skills as an "addition" to a set of skills individuals already have, it is more appropriate to view ESP and ESL listening skill development as interrelated processes, given the numerous similarities they share.

In fact, the listening skills have been classified into sub-skills to help instructors choose the most appropriate micro-skills applicable in conversational listening. Therefore, students will engage in genuine oral tasks like listening to real discourse pertinent to their field of specialisation. Concerning this matter, Goh and Hu (2013) study the construct of ESP listening and provide a thorough description of the development of ESP listening as well as the metacognitive processes required for effective and successful listening. They highlight that listening skills entail:

- Investigating the framework of ESP listening
- Cognitive processes and knowledge sources
- Listening skills and meta-cognitive skills
- Investigating ESP listening
- Enhancing academic listening skills
- Instructors and materials
- Future avenues of research on ESP listening
- Recommendations for instruction
- Concluding remarks

As noted before, the aim of ESP listening is to cultivate active listeners capable of making sensible interpretations based on insufficiently detailed input. Furthermore, ESP listening helps learners identify when particular details are needed and therefore request the necessary information. Additionally, it helps learners demonstrate comprehension by paraphrasing and summarising so that the speaker is aware that the key messages have been received. Active listening is not limited to interpersonal interactions; it applies to all forms of contexts. In this regard, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) propose the following strategies that learners of a language are to listen actively:

- Have access to a relevant knowledge base to aid in cognitive processing;
- Employ listening skills to assist understanding and collaboration;
- Participate in self-directed metacognitive processes to manage and improve their comprehension and listening skills (Goh, 2005).

Goh argues that further research into listening skills in non-academic contexts is needed as her studies predominantly focus on EAP contexts. She points out gaps in the literature and considers important directions for future research. Based on Dudley-Evans and St John's classification (1998, p. 105), an individual utilises listening skills when communicating with peers (interactive listening) or when attending a presentation or lecture (one-way listening). Therefore, active listening can be categorised into two types: one-way and interactive listening.

Indeed, authentic materials are important in foreign language teaching and even more crucial in ESP. They have gained greater recognition in the field of language teaching and learning. In the context of ESP listening, the genuine resources are valuable concerning their language features, documentary resources, different categories of tasks, as well as the processes students use when engaging with the language they listen to. Incorporating real discourse in language learning provides a confidence boost and an increase in motivation because learners are able to comprehend the language in its context. This is especially helpful in overcoming the challenge of listening, taking notes, or reading from slides since the real-life context serves as scaffolding. As cited in Tomlinson and Maley (2017), Porter and Roberts state that:

> If the learner is to achieve any degree of real proficiency in language use as opposed to a rather abstract proficiency, which operates only under the strictly controlled, laboratory-like conditions of the classroom then he or she must be given the chance to listen in authentic ways.

As reported by Sally in 1985 regarding engineering students and their listening comprehension skills in an ESP context at a university in Sri Lanka, she notes: "Technical words like 'grain boundaries,' 'transducers,' and 'dendritic' posed no difficulty since they

were illustrated and explained when needed. But everyday words that were taken for granted posed considerable challenges." (Navaz, 2016)

An additional aspect that deserves attention from the findings concerning the listening skills of students in ESP classes is that the technical vocabulary is generally pronounced with sufficient clarity for students to easily understand. Conversely, challenges can also arise from non-technical vocabulary. The problem stems from the lack of knowledge that common terms can be used in numerous situations due to their ambiguities. For example, most students interpret the term 'sound' exclusively as 'moving waves of energy that interact with the ear.' Nevertheless, this term can also describe a thing, an animal, or a person as being in good condition, not harmed, injured, or sick. Considering this, it would be crucial in developing learners' higher order thinking and comprehension skills to analyse various sentences that include the same words.

In the aviation and tourism sectors for example, employees are trained to attend to certain predetermined phrases pertinent to their roles. This training enables them to comprehend and engage with interlocutors from diverse linguistic backgrounds. To put it differently, they must pay attention and respond decisively within the limited timeframe available due to the real-time nature of the interaction. Likewise, students attending English-speaking universities are expected to possess a requisite proficiency in English enabling them to score highly in tests such as TOEFL and IELTS. The primary purpose of academic listening is to assist students in succeeding in academic dialogues—grasping sophisticated meanings through higher order skills, comprehension of lectures, and engaging in verbal interaction.

To summarise, listening is an active psychological process; one that is far from being passive. It allows meaning to be assigned to all information received. It requires effort and focus. Indeed, research has demonstrated that listening constitutes the most common form of communication in the workplace (Adler and Elmhorst, 1999). As other studies indicate, managers devote 65-90% of their working hours to listening, and this percentage increases with the level of managerial responsibility held (Nichols and Stevens, 1990). Consequently, effective communication is contingent not only on speaking but greatly relies on effective listening as well.

2.1.4. Speaking Skill in ESP

The speaking skill involves productivity as it necessitates the production of words and shaping ideas orally. It involves verbal communication, public speaking, and word articulation. According to Brown (1994), speaking is an interactive systematic process of meaning construction through encoding, decoding, and information processing. In addition, speaking is a primary form of communication that people use for the purpose of sharing their ideas and thoughts.

As stated by Chaney and Burk (1998, p. 13), "Talking is the process of constructing and reasoning shared meaning through the use of words and other signs in different forms and contexts." Hence, the meaning and structure is determined by the context in which the speaking happens, the people involved, their collective experiences, the environment, and certainly the reasons for talking. Moreover, the act of speaking necessitates that learners have knowledge on how to produce various aspects of language, for example grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence). Additionally, learners must know the when, why and how of producing language (sociolinguistic competence).

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983, p. 140) view speaking as an integrated skill which requires knowledge of phonetics, phonology, lexis, grammar, culture and the sound system of the language. Speaking is viewed as an activity that comprises both mental and physical actsthat are connected, and must occur at the same time and seamlessly. In addition, Finocchiaro and Brumfit outline that:

> The speaker must think of the ideas they wish to express, either initiating in a conversation or responding to a previous speaker, b. Change the tongue in order to articulate the appropriate sounds, c. Be consciously aware of the appropriate functional expressions, as well as of the grammatical, lexical, and cultural features needed to express the idea, d. Be sensitive to any change i.e. change the direction of their thought on the basis of other person's responses.

Indeed, most ESP research has prioritised writing over speaking because, in many ESP contexts, written communication is regarded as more critical to professional success than oral communication. Moreover, collecting and organising spoken data presents numerous barriers and challenges that make it substantially more difficult compared to

written data. Speaking samples are expensive and time-consuming to gather, while written datasets can be effortlessly collected and transformed into formats suitable for analysis. Consequently, very few attempts were made to address the speaking skill systematically. Today, with a commanding advantage and the advent of computers, mobile phones, and audio/video recording devices, data can now be collected in any speaking environment. Accordingly, there is a pressing need to develop targeted specific-purpose curricula that consider socio-pragmatic awareness and the pedagogical frameworks of speech genres.

Developments in several corpora have recently emerged in the ESP field and have become valuable for ESP researchers. Consequently, there is a shift in how learners' needs and curriculum design are perceived. Paltridge and Starfield (2013, p. 36) mentioned that ESP spoken corpora focus on academic speech only; for example, the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), British Academic Spoken English corpus (BASE), and English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings corpus (ELFA) along with many others that are broader in scope such as the Corpus of Spoken, Professional American English. The 1990s set the stage for a wide variety of largely homogeneous corpora, and by the first decade of the new century, there were indications that it would become the decade of the specialised corpus—small in size but rich in content; the MICASE is one of these small corpora. It is a freely accessible corpus that includes data from numerous academic spoken genres, as well as metadata on the speakers and various attributes of the speech events. Moreover, MICASE is a spoken language corpus containing around 1.9 million words of contemporary verbal discourse collected at the University of Michigan. Certainly, the productive skills, especially speaking, need to be emphasised in the ESP courses due to their connection with the learners' basic needs in communication, be it academic or professional.

<u>Activity One:</u> Determine if each statement is true or false. For those you consider false, give the correct information.

1) The reading skill is considered unimportant for the academic life of English learners.

2) The communicative approach treats reading as a passive skill that focuses solely on decoding texts.

3) ESP emphasizes reading scientific texts and journals to enhance students' comprehension skills.

4) Over time, ESP has shifted focus to balance reading with other skills like writing, listening, and speaking.

5) The product approach to writing emphasizes the importance of producing error-free and coherent final texts.

6) The use of model texts in writing instruction is universally accepted without any drawbacks.

7) The process approach aims to enhance students' creativity and problem-solving skills in writing.

8) A social constructionist approach in ESP focuses solely on grammatical accuracy without considering the context of writing.

9) Listening is considered less important than speaking in professional settings.

10) The primary objective of ESP listening is to cultivate active listeners who can interpret information from limited data.

11) ESP listening skills are entirely different from ESL listening skills with no overlapping processes.

12) Authentic materials are crucial in ESP listening, as they help students engage with real-world contexts.

13) Students in ESP contexts generally find technical vocabulary more challenging than everyday words.

14) Speaking is a passive skill that does not require active engagement or productivity.

15) According to Brown (1994), speaking is an interactive process involving meaning construction through various communication methods.

16) Most ESP research has prioritized speaking skills over writing skills due to the importance of oral communication in professional contexts.

17) The advent of technology has made it easier to collect spoken data for analysis in ESP contexts.

<u>Activity Two:</u> Answer the following questions

1) How does the communicative approach to reading in ESP enhance learners' comprehension and engagement with scientific texts and journals?

2) In what ways has the focus of ESP shifted over time to incorporate other language skills alongside reading, and why is this balance important for learners?

3) How do the product and process approaches to writing in ESP differ in terms of fostering students' creativity and problem-solving skills?

4) In what ways does the social-constructionist approach address the contextual needs of writing within specific discourse communities in ESP?

5) What are the key differences between ESP listening skills and ESL listening skills, particularly in relation to the specific requirements of learners in professional contexts?

6) How do authentic materials enhance the effectiveness of ESP listening instruction, and why are they especially important for learners in specialized fields?

7) In what ways can active listening strategies, such as paraphrasing and summarizing, improve comprehension and communication in professional settings?

8) How does the interactive process of speaking, as described by Brown (1994), contribute to the construction of meaning in communication?

9) What are the key linguistic and sociolinguistic competencies required for effective oral communication in ESP contexts?

10) Why has research in ESP traditionally prioritized writing skills over speaking skills, and how are emerging technologies changing this dynamic?

Language Issues in ESP

Unit Aims:

- To investigate the different language issues relevant to ESP, concentrating on specific problems experienced by students and teachers.
- To highlight the significance of specialised vocabulary in ESP, incorporating methods for acquiring and using vocabulary meaningfully in various professional settings.
- To examine fundamental grammatical frameworks pertinent to ESP and their contribution to effective and precise communication within particular fields.
- Exploring the role of translation in English for Specific Purposes focuses on its importance in the comprehension and communication of specialised material.
- To explore the impact of cultural dimensions on the use of language in ESP, we seek to raise awareness regarding the cultural implications on communicative interactions.
- To facilitate learners' engagement with their subjects and effective communication through critical thinking about language challenges.

These aims will assist students in focusing on the language components important for optimum communication in their areas of specialisation.

3.1. Language Issues in ESP

Various language issues are regarded as critical components for facilitating communication in ESP teaching and learning because they illustrate the application and perception of language. In this context, it is commonly accepted that vocabulary has always been regarded as pivotal to the success or failure of any given communication. Recently, some specialists in English for Specific Purposes began considering grammar, translation, and culture as fundamental elements in the construction of ESP curricula because their importance is undeniable.

3.1.1. Vocabulary in ESP

Beginning with Wilkins' quote (1972) "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" illustrates how strong command of vocabulary is crucial for ESL and EFL learners as well as ESP learners. This is because

both fluency and accuracy in English cannot be obtained without acquiring sufficient vocabulary. A vocabulary does not encompass the entirety of a language, but it is essential to communicate a variety of ideas, whether in simple or complex forms. Considering that meaning is predominantly conveyed through vocabulary, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have attained considerable significance in recent pedagogical innovations and modern learning theories for both educators and learners who pursue specific purposes across various fields of study or professional work. Vocabulary, technical vocabulary, sub-technical and semi-technical vocabulary, specialised vocabulary, specialised non-technical lexis, frame words, and academic vocabulary are all used interchangeably to refer to ESP vocabulary.

As a matter of fact, ESP from its inception in the 1960s has put considerable emphasis on teaching specialised lexicons in diverse fields, as Harding (2007, p. 53) states: "Vocabulary is an important part of the ESP course." With regards to technical vocabulary, the students' background knowledge concerning the topic is regarded as an essential element. As stated by Nation (2001, p. 187), "it is wise to direct vocabulary learning to more specialised areas when learners have mastered the 2000…..3000 words of general usefulness in English." In this context, one of the core questions of ESP research is what vocabulary do ESP learners need? The question above brings to light several more: Firstly, 'which vocabulary is more relevant for instruction?' Secondly, 'which vocabulary should be acquired?' Thirdly, 'what are the methods of teaching ESP vocabulary employed by instructors?' The most effective foreign language teaching procedures include learning strategies for vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, in the case of teaching and learning ESP, one needs to identify the various types of vocabulary before dividing them into subcategories to avoid confusion.

Nation (2001) identifies four types of vocabulary found in texts: high frequency words, academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary, and low frequency words. In fact, there is considerable research on academic and high frequency vocabulary, and few on technical vocabulary, which is regarded as a crucial component in ESP teaching and learning.

In any language, it is useful to teach or learn the most frequent words used, as they are likely to be useful for students. High Frequency words cover the 2000 most common words of English. West (1953) labelled these words "a general service vocabulary" because they were beneficial in any form of communication irrespective of the language being

employed. This type of vocabulary usually consists of approximately 80% of the text's words, which needs to be broadened to focus on the more useful words found in various academic texts and newspapers or utilised in about 90% of conversations and novels. It contains almost all English function words (approximately 176-word families). However, regarding the high frequency words, the bulk are content words (Nation, 2001, p. 13-16).

In academic contexts, vocabulary is the set of words that convey a particular meaning which in this case is used by both teachers and students for the purpose of sharing, learning new information, articulating an elaborate notion as well as nurturing a student's mental understanding. Academic vocabulary serves to teach learners about the content of a particular discipline with the aim of facilitating understanding of concepts and materials. Learners need to possess a high level of comprehension of the content vocabulary; for example, students undertaking biology need to grasp the biological concepts. It is particularly important to note that academic vocabulary differs from vocabulary required for daily interactions. To put it differently, the 570-word family Academic Word List is a specialised addition to the collection of frequently used terms cut from high-frequency words (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). It accounts for, on average, 8.5% of academic texts, 4% of newspapers, and under 2% of the flowing prose in novels. Given the subtleties of the academic vocabulary, limited knowledge of academic lexicon is perceived as one of the major hurdles hindering students in understanding texts and lectures. This may trace back to the fact that much of the academic vocabulary is built on Latin and Greek roots and, relative to daily spoken English, employs longer and more complex sentences.

In an ESP class, it is unavoidable that learners come across various texts, particularly contextualised ones. Concerning this, technical vocabulary is defined as the specialised lexicon of any discipline that relates to learners who have a particular objective in language acquisition. As cited in Ha and Hyland (2017), Mudraya (2006, p. 238) defines technical terms as "those words which have no exact synonyms and have a very narrow range of interpretations within a particular field." Such vocabulary is critical for learners of the English language, particularly in ESP. However, there is some overlap between technical vocabulary and general vocabulary; an ordinary word, when employed in particular contexts, acquires a specialised meaning that diverges from its usual interpretation.

Other scholars refer to this category as ‘sub-technical vocabulary’ (Cowan, 1974), ‘semi technical vocabulary’ (Farrell, 1990), ‘specialised non-technical lexis’ (Cohen et al, 1988), ‘frame words’ (Higgins 1966), and ‘academic vocabulary’ (Coxhead, 2000). Martin (1976) classifies technical vocabulary into three groups. First, in the case of the research process, the technical language used comprises mainly of verbs and nouns, and is presented in the discussion of the five steps of research: formulating, investigating, analysing, drawing conclusions and reporting. Secondly, the analysis draws upon high-frequency words alongside two verbs which are essential to present information in a sequential and structured manner. Finally, the vocabulary of evaluation, it includes adjectives and adverbs that occur in reviews and some reports, e.g. exhaustive, controversial, substantive, objective, subjective, implicit, explicit, inductivedeductive, and significant-insignificant.

3.1.2. Grammar in ESP

Alongside vocabulary, grammar has always been an integral component of language teaching and learning since it relates to the organisation of a language and aids in the construction of sentences. Nonetheless, grammar practices in ESP have been overlooked in the literature. Some researchers argue that grammar does not concern ESP. From this angle, two key questions arise: Is grammar vital in ESP? If so, how is it implemented by instructors in ESP classes? In ESP education, the pedagogy approaches grammar within the context of its application because it assists ESP students not only in formulating precise sentences but also in employing diverse structures to articulate their ideas during ESP communicative situations. Moreover, the ability to write within specific disciplines that are academically appropriate greatly hinges upon one’s command of grammar.

As stated by Ellis in 2005 and quoted in Chen (2016), proficiency in ESP demands that learners obtain both a comprehensive vocabulary and command of the language alongside the requisite specific grammatical rules that ensure precise communication. Typically, and particularly in the context of ESP education, grammar serves two important roles. The first one is optimisation of comprehension by utilising previously acquired grammatical structures to decode complex sentences and subsequently to decode puzzles within their ESP reading comprehension exercises. In order to understand a sentence, learners need to analyse its structure, particularly the roles and relationships of its parts. The second component, monitoring effective output, pertains to oral or written expression, which may

contain some erroneous grammar usage. In the absence of correct grammar, communication suffers a considerable breakdown.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 18) assert that grammatical difficulties and deficiencies constitute an impediment to the development of both receptive and productive skills. The authors outline the following five fundamental grammatical forms which may serve as barriers:

- ✓ Verbs and tense,
- ✓ Voice,
- ✓ Articles,
- ✓ Nominalisation,
- ✓ Logical connectors

In ESP, the use of verbs and verb tenses correlates with specific sections and genres of texts. The predominant tenses are most often the simple present, present perfect, past simple, and modal verbs such as may, can, could, and might. With regards to active and passive voice, authors most frequently employed the passive voice to discuss prior research in their discipline, but they prefer to use active voice when discussing their own work. The compiled works of many authors from different disciplines enable the quantitative analyses pertaining to passive voice usage through verb tense and aspect to yield diverse results within a single scientific field, comparing the ratio of active to passive constructions.

Remarkably, there is some research that focuses on the range of uses of passive voice in a particular discipline, and this is the work of Wingard (1981) who studies a corpus of medical texts. He found that 60% of the verbs were in the active form and 40% in the passive, that is, the proportion of active verbs was greater than that of passive verbs. Regarding the use of articles, two article usages are important in teaching English for specific purposes: omission of an article and the use of “the” when naming and labelling procedures and methods. Finally, logical connectors such as furthermore, moreover, and therefore need to be included in teaching materials because they strengthen the mastery of the logical relationship between sentences, thereby aiding the acquisition of the four skills. In fact, Dudley-Evans and St John have also pointed out that there are other diverse ESP

contexts which necessitate the sensitive application of grammar; therefore, an educator must be mindful of these contexts.

As mentioned by Shuib (2009), students' grammatical skills, as well as the instructional help provided to them, were largely determined by the teacher's grammatical knowledge. It can be concluded that in order for grammar to be effectively implemented in ESP classes, instructors are required to know what teaching methods and strategies will best fit the needs of ESP students so that they can learn grammar and subsequently become more adept at identifying, understanding, retaining, and extracting grammatical knowledge. Secondly, teaching grammar within the context of ESP necessitates using cognitive methods: either the deductive or inductive method, also referred to as explicit or implicit instruction. In the case of deductive teaching, the instructor begins by providing the students with pertinent grammatical rules and relevant information regarding ESP, after which the students work collaboratively to apply these rules in designated ESP activities. In the case of the latter, learners try to discover rules of grammar based on their experience with ESP. Through active use of grammar for communication, instructors can employ a communicative approach to teaching grammar during ESP classes through the design of targeted activities in reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Today's ESP instructors need to understand that the role of grammar is not limited to EGP teaching. In ESP learning, students encounter grammar issues indirectly, leading to significant challenges when employing grammar accurately for various academic tasks during communication. In this connection, special consideration has to be devoted to grammar in the context of teaching ESP. It is relevant that learners of ESP must be able to process the language skills with the corresponding grammar concepts. There are several strategies for teaching grammar in ESP which may include cognitive approaches to learning grammar, metacognitive approaches, as well as affective and social approaches. It is, therefore, necessary for instructors to ensure learners are able to master ESP grammar autonomously by selecting strategies that develop English language communicative skills, thereby fostering overall ESP proficiency and effectiveness.

3.1.3. Translation in ESP

As Willis (1981) states, the teaching of languages operates on the communicative method, which emphasises teaching English via English. This does not mean, however,

that translation, at least in some measure, is not required for a considerable number of students with limited skills in English who seek to learn a foreign language. Translation is regarded as the fifth language skill alongside listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The significance of translation in foreign language instruction led to the development of the grammar-translation method many years ago. Nowadays, translation has a prominent role in ESP as it fosters communication and understanding in novice learners. In fact, a notable amount of literature has recognised both its merit and demerit in ELT. However, very little has been documented about its role in ESP.

Following Duff's (1994) definition of "uncommunicative, boring, pointless, difficult, and irrelevant," there has been a growing interest in using the mother tongue as a medium for cultivating language skills and developing accuracy, clarity, and flexibility. It is obvious that the attitude toward the mother tongue and translation in language classes has shifted for the better. The practicality of translation in English classes stems from the comparison of word order, grammar, vocabulary, and other linguistic features both in the students' native language and in English. That is why it is often supported by non-native teachers. In ESP, translation can greatly facilitate the learning of a foreign language by fully grasping intricate problems, gaining specialised knowledge, and economising time. There are occasions when the use of the first language is beneficial, especially when the students or professionals are at a loss to access their vocabulary resources to carry out a given role.

3.1.4. Culture in ESP

In the teaching and learning of English, it is quite evident that language and culture are fundamentally intertwined because learning a new foreign language without a proper understanding of the culture is not only unrealistic but also ineffective and incomplete. It clearly illustrates the roles culture can perform in the various aspects of language teaching and learning— vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, and even translating. For instance, students who are motivated to work on their listening skills will attempt listening practice, but they tend to struggle with comprehension. The issues underlying this obstacle may differ based on learners' levels; on one hand, it could be related to indistinct articulation, limited vocabulary, and poor command of grammar in addition to vague pronunciation. On the contrary, the reason is mostly related to their insufficient amount of the relevant background information concerning the culture of the language they are studying.

This view has been highlighted by Wang (2008) who states that, “foreign language teaching is foreign culture teaching, and foreign language teachers are foreign culture teachers.” Moreover, Agar, an American anthropologist, in early 1996 created the term ‘languaculture’ which depicts the relationship between a language and the culture in which it is utilised. With the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), one significant question arises: Is culture necessarily a component of an ESP course? If it is, how does a teacher incorporate cultural elements into ESP teaching? In fact, culture within the ESP context has sparked intense controversy, and the predominant premise is whether culture should be incorporated within ESP courses or not.

For a long time, there has been a lack of research addressing the topic of culture in relation to ESP, as the teaching of ESP has traditionally been regarded as devoid of culture. Strevens (1977, P. 89) summarises this by stating, “ESP is a conception of teaching and learning the practical command of a language, unrelated to aspects of culture.” In her contribution, Omaggio (2001) states that the absence of culture in ESP classes stems from a lack of time due to the teacher’s overloaded syllabus that needs to be taught. Moreover, she argues that many teachers have an equally perplexing idea of culture because of their own limited command of the foreign language, leading them to wonder what cultural elements should be incorporated into their ESP curricula. Following this line of thought, Gonzalez (1995, p. 58) states: “English is deracinated or uprooted from its original cultural soil; only special registers of science and technology, business and geopolitics are used.” He also indicates that teaching EIAL is simply a case of teaching ESP. Thus, culture is relegated less importance in LSP, far more in general terms.

Recently, culture has started to be integrated through the materials and techniques utilised in the ESP classroom, and it is anticipated that language textbooks would incorporate aspects of the target culture to facilitate social interaction beyond the classroom. Given that students have learned English for several years, they possess the requisite linguistic ability to understand the language, which places the obligation on instructors to weave culture into the curriculum, into English classes. To avoid miscommunication between educators and students, it becomes imperative for teachers to research the 'classroom culture' to incorporate culturally relevant activities. Furthermore, For Barron (1991, p. 174), it is essential to incorporate the culture of learners in ESP as a dimension of language instruction within professional settings to achieve cultural

equilibrium and cross-cultural analysis which are fundamental in minimising the danger of undermining learners' self-esteem. Given this perspective, a learner's cultural background may be considered in the variables of ESP syllabus design. To explain the necessity of including culture in ESP, we can define culture as "An information-processing system which has links with education, and therefore with ESP, because it involves the transfer of information in a factual system, the purpose of which is to produce fit members of society" (Barron, 1991, p. 176).

In today's world, English serves as a lingua franca in numerous countries, meaning it is used for communication with non-native speakers as opposed to with native speakers, especially in professional environments. Multicultural workplaces have necessitated the use of intercultural communication competence since the 1970s because culture represents a portion of what the learners require, even if it has been relatively peripheral and neglected. The cultural aspect ought to be associated with the students' and employees' primary field of study or work alongside the objectives of the course in terms of functions and concepts. In this regard, classes in ESP must encompass the acquisition of skills needed to attend international conferences and meetings, reading scientific papers, negotiating with foreigners, and so on so that the risks of misunderstandings are minimised, and relationships and respect are facilitated among the students or employees.

Undoubtedly, the execution and incorporation of multicultural activities is essential in fostering awareness among employees and thus assisting them in comprehending diversity, nurturing constructive workplace attitudes, and alleviating their negative views towards the focus culture and other foreign cultures. Integrating an Approach to Culture in the ESP Context, Bennett (1986) highlighted that integrating culture into an ESP context can meet three primary objectives: cognitive, affective and behavioural. The cognitive objective seeks to enhance a learner's knowledge and skills, while affective focuses on changing the attitude of the trainee towards acceptance, tolerance, and awareness. Behavioural objectives include the ways in which the trainee acquires knowledge of the new environment's dos and don'ts and understands them fully. In this context, Ouakrime (1992) describes some of the specific objectives of including culture in ESP programme design. The most salient objectives are as follows:

1- Understanding the classification of organisations, concepts, customs, and the behavioural norms of member constituents of the target culture community.

2- Understanding the individual and institutional dimensions of the culture.

3- Understanding the target culture deeply enough to cultivate a respectful attitude towards its community.

4- To foster the recognition of cultural relativism.

5- To foster the ability to appreciate the implied messages when observing the behaviour or the outputs of the actions by the members of the target community.

6- To use the awareness of culture as a promoting factor to enhance the command of the language at a communicative level.

In short, the debates regarding the incorporation of culture into the teaching of ESP have sparked controversies among experts. Some researchers suggest that acquiring a language for ESP purposes includes understanding culture; conversely, some other scholars suggest culture serves only as a motivational factor, and one does not need to understand the cultural aspects of the language. Either way, using a language for academic or professional purposes entails both linguistic and cultural competences. This means that ESP students need to know the culture pertaining to their field because it forms an essential part of interpersonal interactions. For example, hotel staff routinely interact with clients from various countries and cultures. Thus, effectively managing cultural diversity, enhancing employees' cultural awareness, and ensuring that they can interact productively with people from different cultures is essential to sustaining hospitality industry success.

Activity One: Determine if each statement is true or false. For those you consider false, please give the correct information.

1. Specialized vocabulary is significant in ESP and should be taught meaningfully in professional settings.

2. Translation plays a minimal role in ESP and is not considered a necessary skill.

3. Cultural dimensions are explored in ESP to enhance communicative interactions among learners.

4. The unit aims to help learners engage effectively with their subjects through critical thinking about language challenges.

5. Vocabulary is regarded as a minor issue in the success of communication within ESP.

6. Grammar has been overlooked in the literature concerning ESP education.

7. The teaching of academic vocabulary is essential for understanding concepts in specific disciplines.

8. High-frequency vocabulary is considered irrelevant for ESP learners.

9. The integration of culture into ESP courses has sparked intense controversy among experts.

10. Proficiency in ESP requires a strong command of both vocabulary and grammar.

11. The teaching of translation has been completely abandoned in modern ESP practices.

12. Understanding cultural implications is not necessary for effective communication in ESP.

13. The use of the passive voice is common in ESP, particularly in discussing prior research.

14. Technical vocabulary has no overlap with general vocabulary.

15. The academic vocabulary list includes words that are only relevant for everyday conversation.

16. An ESP curriculum should incorporate both linguistic and cultural competences.

17. The role of grammar in ESP is limited to just writing skills.

18. ESP students may face challenges in understanding texts due to limited knowledge of academic vocabulary.

19. Cultural awareness is essential for employees to interact effectively in multicultural workplace environments.

<u>Activity Two:</u> Answer the following questions

1. What are the three fundamental elements, aside from vocabulary, that specialists in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) consider important in constructing ESP curricula?

2. How does the understanding of technical vocabulary differ from general vocabulary in the context of ESP?

3. According to the text, why is academic vocabulary considered crucial for students in specific disciplines, and what challenges might they face without it?

4. What roles does grammar play in ESP education, and how does it contribute to students' overall communication skills?

5. In what ways does culture intersect with language teaching in ESP, and why is it deemed important for learners in professional settings?

Needs Analysis in the Realm of ESP

Unit Aims:

- Recognising the significance of needs analysis in the development of effective ESP courses.
- Identify and differentiate the various types of needs (target and learning needs) in the needs analysis for ESP.
- Exploring different techniques and instruments for needs analysis, including surveys, interviews, and observational studies.
- Investigating the implications of the results of a needs analysis on curriculum design, material selection, and teaching methods in English for Specific Purposes.
- To assess case studies relating to needs analysis in various professions in order to ascertain practical applications and results.
- To foster an understanding of the implications of needs analysis on the success and engagement of learners in their particular domains.
- To emphasise the significance of ongoing NA in customising ESP programmes to align with the evolving requirements of the industry and the expectations of the learners.

These objectives will enable students to gain a thorough understanding of how needs analysis contributes to the design of effective ESP curricula focused on the specific needs of the learners.

4.1. Needs Analysis in the Realm of ESP

Needs analysis, often abbreviated as NA, is more than an academic buzzword for ESP practitioners; it shapes what, how, and why learners study language in targeted contexts. While educators sometimes use the terms needs analysis and needs assessment interchangeably, some scholars argue that the former suggests a deeper appraisal of the data collected during the latter. The emergence of NA became increasingly important with the introduction of ESP in the 1960s. It is an essential and complicated process that must be considered in any course designed around ESP.

The position of needs analysis is unquestionable, for it has characteristically formed the backbone of ESP course design. The determination of skill sets and communication

practices required by a given group of learners or employees is a crucial element for ESP. Therefore, in relation to a defined group within a discipline or profession, NA is the initial phase of course development. This stage focuses on pinpointing the exact requirements of the target group within the tailored field of study or employment.

4.2. Needs Analysis: Main Definitions

The term needs is commonly defined as what learners or workers have to acquire in order to function appropriately in a given role, whether academic or occupational. In fact, needs analysis plays an essential part in the design and delivery of any language course, be it an ESP or a GE, and this has been recognised by many researchers and curriculum developers. The concept of addressing learners' needs emerged in the 1970s with the concern to create language courses that catered to personal and societal requirements (Palacios Martínez, 1992, p. 135). This marks an important phase within ESP and its development is linked to the teaching of languages for specific purposes. As noted by Robinson (1991, p. 7), "NA is generally regarded as critical to ESP, although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it."

According to West (1994), language needs analysis is, in principle, a pragmatic exercise based on particular contexts; however, it rests on fundamental concepts like the nature of language and curriculum. Thus, within an ESP framework, NA assumes relative importance in identifying language skill(s) that are relevant within a specific context of instruction. Supporting these comments, Dudley-Evans et al (1998, p. 126) underscore three elements of NA. They point out that:

> First, needs analysis aims to know learners as people, as language users and as language learners. Second, needs analysis study also aims to know how language learning and skills learning can be maximized for a given learner group. Third, needs analysis study aims to know the target situations and learning environment so that data can appropriately be interpreted.

The primary function of an ESP course is to equip students with the competencies needed to function in academic, professional, or occupational contexts, and such courses are developed following a thorough needs analysis. Therefore, in the context of the ESP course objectives, the needs analysis framework dictates in detail what should be included

in the course content. Indeed, the significance of needs analysis within any given ESP course design is profound. As noted by Johns (1991), NA "is the first and most critical step in planning and implementing a language course, creating teaching and learning materials, developing a language test, and ensuring all activities undertaken in course design are relevant and valid" (p. 228). This is one of the reasons why scholars highlight the importance of NA in language course design.

Furthermore, Iwai et al. (1999) add that it is nearly impossible to create an ESP course tailored to a learner's needs without conducting a needs analysis first. This is a continual process whereby information is gathered to create a specific curriculum for students or employees within a given context and setting. This is because the principal aim of ESP is to assist this category in transitioning from A (current performance) to B (target performance). Supporting this view, Basturkmen (2010, p. 19) notes that:

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

In fact, the ambiguity surrounding NA stems from several stages of conception, and as Richterich (1983, p. 2) notes, language needs is such a vaguely defined term that it renders a consensus impossible. This is the reason why different linguists have tried to define NA from a variety of perspectives, often stretching the definition far too much. The most notable interpretations and definitions of NA will be presented in the following table:

Name of the Linguist	Definition
Munby (1978);	He introduced 8communication needs processor9 which is the basis of Munby' approach to needs analysis.
Chambers (1980);	Needs analysis should be concerned with the establishment of communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation 3 what I will refer to as target situation analysis.

Brindley (1984);	Learner's wants, desires, demands, expectations, motivations, lacks, constraints and requirements.
Coffey (1984);	The application of learning and teaching which considers the linguistic and communicative needs of the learners.
Hutchinson and Waters (1987);	With the development of the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designers had to do was to operate it.
Nunan (1988);	Techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design.
Brindley and Berwick (1989);	They provide interpretations of various kinds of needs in addition to the problems and limitations when employing this term, including ways in which we should differentiate between needs identified by analysts and those expressed or experienced by learners.
Robinson (1991);	Present situation analysis may be posited as a complement to target situation analysis.
Johns (1991);	For Johns (1991), needs analysis is the first step in course design and it provides validity and relevancy for all subsequent course design activities.
Richards (1992);	The process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.
West (1994);	In his state-of-the-art article, West (1994) gives a thorough overview of needs analysis in language teaching, including its history, theoretical basis, approaches to needs analysis.
Brown (1995)	The systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation.
Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998);	Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) suggest, needs were seen as discrete language items of grammar and vocabulary.
Iwai et al. (1999);	The term needs analysis generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students.
Hamp-Lyons (2001);	He argues for the need to see needs analysis as a fundamental step to an EAP approach ...

Table 2.1. Main Definitions and Contribution of Scholars about Needs Analysis

In conclusion, courses based on NA are perceived to be more effective due to the fact that learners are active participants in the process and their needs, demands, lacks, wants,

views and ideas are considered. This enables course developers to address the disparity between the existing situation of a particular group and the target goals.

4.3. Significance of Needs Analysis in ESP Course Design

Different contexts, situations, and learners result in a myriad of diverse and multi-faceted requirements which authenticates the significance of NA in pinpointing learner specific goals. The distinct goals set by learners and professionals necessitate the crafting and implementation of any language course, be it ELP, EMP, BE or another English for Specific Purposes type, making NA one of the most commonly used methods. This has also been noted by a great number of scholars including Munby 1978, Hutchinson and Waters 1987, Berwick 1989, Brindley 1989, West 1994, Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, Iwai et al. 1999, Hamp-Lyons 2001 and Belcher et al. 2011.)

As an example, Long (2005, p. 1) stresses the importance of NA. He says that: "…..no medical intervention would be described before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching programme should be designed without a thorough needs analysis." Correspondingly, Robinson (1991, p. 8) proposes that needs analysis is not limited to the purpose of establishing "what and how of a language of teaching." She further recommends that the NA study be repeated so that it can be integrated into the formative process. This would create a valuable database containing the perspectives of learners, subject specialists, and, most importantly, ESP practitioners regarding the English language. Undoubtedly, taking into account the needs of the learners affects not only the content of the language course, but also what opportunities can be harnessed through delivering such a course.

Long (1996) identifies four rationales for conducting needs analyses:

(1) Relevance: to assess how the content aligns with the learners' contexts.

(2) Accountability: to defend the material's relevance from the perspectives of all stakeholders (teacher, learner, administration, parents).

(3) Diversity of learners: to address the differing requirements and preferences of learners.

(4) Efficiency: to develop a syllabus that fulfils learner requirements to the greatest extent possible, given the situational constraints.

Along the same lines, Richards (2001, p. 52) acknowledges the role of NA in language teaching and effective learning. He observes that NA is useful in trying to:

> (1) Establish what particular language competencies a learner requires to perform as a sales manager, tour guide, or university student;
>
> (2) Assess whether a given course is likely to meet the expectations of prospective students;
>
> (3) Assess which learners from a specific group need the most intervention in some particular language competencies;
>
> (4) Recognise a decision to change strategically what people in a reference group consider significant,
>
> (5) Recognise the disparity between the actual competencies of the students and the expected competencies;
>
> (6) Gather data regarding the defined difficulties which learners are encountering.

Given that Need Analysis is a fundamental aspect of tailoring an ESP course, Brown (2009) outlines three general stages, each comprising several steps, to be followed in conducting NA using a particular model.

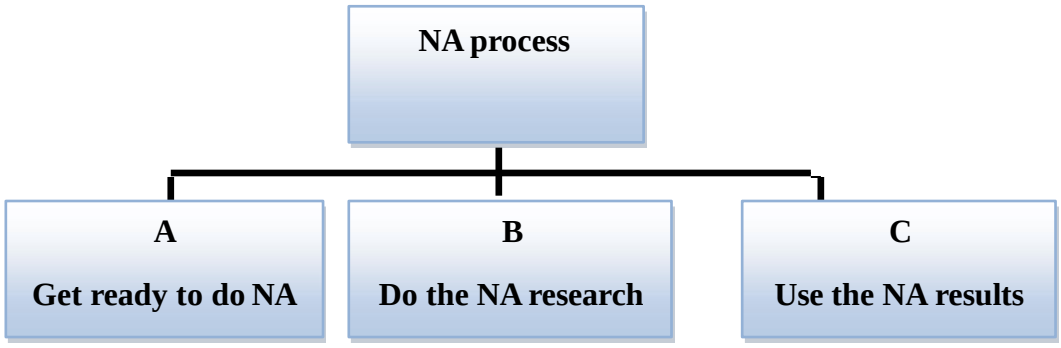

Figure 2.1. A framework for Doing NA (**Adopted from Brown, 2009**)

The diagram above illustrates the primary and overall phases of conducting a needs analysis. These phases are accompanied by ten specific steps:

A. Get ready to do NA

1. Define the purpose of the NA

2. Delimit the student population

3. Decide upon approach (es) and syllabus (es)

4. Recognize constraints

5. Select data collection procedures

B. Do the NA research

6. Collect data

7. Analyze data

8. Interpret results

C. Use the NA results

9. Determine objectives

10. Evaluate the report on the NA project What follows is a brief description and explanation of the ten steps in the process of doing NA (Brown, 2009).

Given that needs analysis (NA) is the initial step in developing an ESP course followed by curriculum design, selection of materials, teaching methodology, assessment, and evaluation, the phases ought to be viewed not as discrete steps but as interrelated overlapping tasks in a circular process (Dudley - Evans and St John, 1998).

4.4. Needs Analysis: Different Approaches

The historical development of NA in ESP is quite rich, and it continues to transform and redefine itself. Over the last thirty years, various models have been proposed and implemented to analyse the NA processes of a specific population to aid in more effectively tailoring the syllabus to the needs of learners or professional trainees. Jordan (1997) identified five major approaches to NA which are: Target-Situation Analysis, Present Situation Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis, and Means Analysis.

4.4.1. Target-Situation Analysis (TSA)

For many years, NA centred almost exclusively on grammar and vocabulary lists, as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) note. It was Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design

(1978), however, that shifted the emphasis to placing students' actual goals at the heart of the process. From that moment, target-situation analysis—or the socio-linguistic model of 1978—became a touchstone for course designers, guiding them to create specialised classes tailored to very particular contexts. This model acknowledges that learners operate in multiple environments, so a course must map onto the functions the language will serve in each setting. In this respect, Robinson (1991, p. 8) comments that an evaluation of students' progress after a programme could also be branded TSA. Further, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) add:

> Target situation analysis concerns the learners' future roles and the linguistic skills and knowledge they need to perform competently in their disciplines. This relates to communication needs rather than learning needs and involves mainly objective and product-oriented data: identifying the contexts of language use, observing the language events in these contexts, and collecting and analysing target genres.

Students will inevitably need to deploy the target language across a variety of contexts, whether in the classroom or in a professional environment. For this reason, a careful assessment of the communicative and linguistic demands characteristic of each intended situation is an essential preliminary step in curriculum design. Munby's needs processor offers a systematic framework—a set of parameters and step-by-step procedures—for identifying those target-situation requirements. His model remains widely regarded as a practical tool for outlining the content of purpose-specific language programmes. In the words of Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 54):

> With the development of the CNP, it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided; the entire course designers had to do was to operate it.

Within this model, a profile of communication needs is presented, comprised of communicative events (e.g., discussing everyday tasks and duties), purposive domain (e.g., educational), medium (e.g., spoken), channel of communication (e.g., face-to-face), subject content and the level of English ability required for the communication. Then, the communication needs are developed into a specific syllabus. Thus, this model can be used to specify valid target situations. Furthermore, teachers of English, especially those who

are concerned with the teaching of ESP, highly use this approach to the analysis of needs and follow the model for specifying communicative competence.

It is important to note that Hyland (2006) asserts that TSA examines a learner's prospective professional responsibilities as well as the knowledge and skills he or she requires to function proficiently in the TSA, thus looking into the requisite communicative competence rather than the learning competence. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have offered a complete TSA framework which contains a set of interrogatives designed to determine learners' authentic situational communication needs. Relevant information can be gathered from field practitioners and scholars, former students, and documents related to the profession, as well as from their employers, colleagues, and specialists in English for specific purposes.

Why is the language needed?

- for study;
- for work;
- for training;
- for a combination of these;
- for some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion.

How will the language be used?

- medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc.;
-channel: e.g. telephone, face to face;

-types of text or discourse: e.g. academic texts, lectures, informal conversations, technical manuals, catalogues.

What will the content areas be?

- subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce, engineering;
-level: e.g. technicians, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school.

Who will the learners use the language with?

- native speakers or non-native;
-level of knowledge of receiver: e.g. expert, layman, student; -relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.

Where will the language be used?

- physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library;
- human context: e.g. alone, meetings, demonstrations, on the telephone;
- linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad.

When will the language be used?

- concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently;
- frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks.

Figure 2.2. Model of Target-Situation Analysis **(Adapted from Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 59-60)**

Although Munby's target-situation analysis work (1978) is a landmark in the history of ESP as it has paved the way for further developments and advances in NA, he has been criticized. Firstly, it is time consuming as it demands to write a profile for each student that encompasses various information and the total number of students is very high so that it could not easily be operated in practice. Secondly, it does not take the learning needs of students into account and neglect the distinction between wants, lacks and necessities. Consequently, several models and approaches to needs analysis appear to consider learners' present needs or wants such as deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis, language audits, etc.

4.4.2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Richterich and Chancerel (1980) introduced PSA as the second principal framework within NA. Robinson (1991, p. 9) explains that PSA aims to profile learners exactly as they enter a course, mapping both their strengths and weaknesses. In this sense, PSA acts as a companion to Target Situation Analysis by pinpointing initial learner needs at the beginning of the programme. While TSA focuses on needs, the present situation analysis tackles learners' gaps and ‘wants’ by highlighting the difference between their current language skills and the target proficiency by the end of the course. However, whatever methods are employed to gather data, the students, the language teaching institution, and the user-institution (the candidates’ workplaces and their sponsors) constitute the three primary sources for a PSA. Richterich and Chancerel (1980) advocate for the use of surveys, interviews, and attitude scales, suggesting that one or two data collection techniques are insufficient.

Although Munby (1978) identifies the PSA as a series of constraints—methodological, cultural, sociopolitical, administrative, and psycho-pedagogic—that inevitably shape syllabus design, he ultimately treats these considerations as a secondary check, to be weighed only after the target situation analysis has been completed and its findings tabulated. The resulting model is therefore marked by limited attention to learners' real-world demands and by an excessive dependence on what those learners think they need; yet, as Long (2005) cautions, students are seldom certain about their own goals. Agreeing with this critique, Robinson (1991) and Jordan (1997) argue that a genuinely effective needs analysis must draw on both TSA and PSA if it is to serve learners fully and advance the programme's aims. From this perspective, Robinson (1991, p. 9) concludes that needs analysis, understood broadly, overlaps TSA and PSA because teachers usually gather data from both domains at the same time.

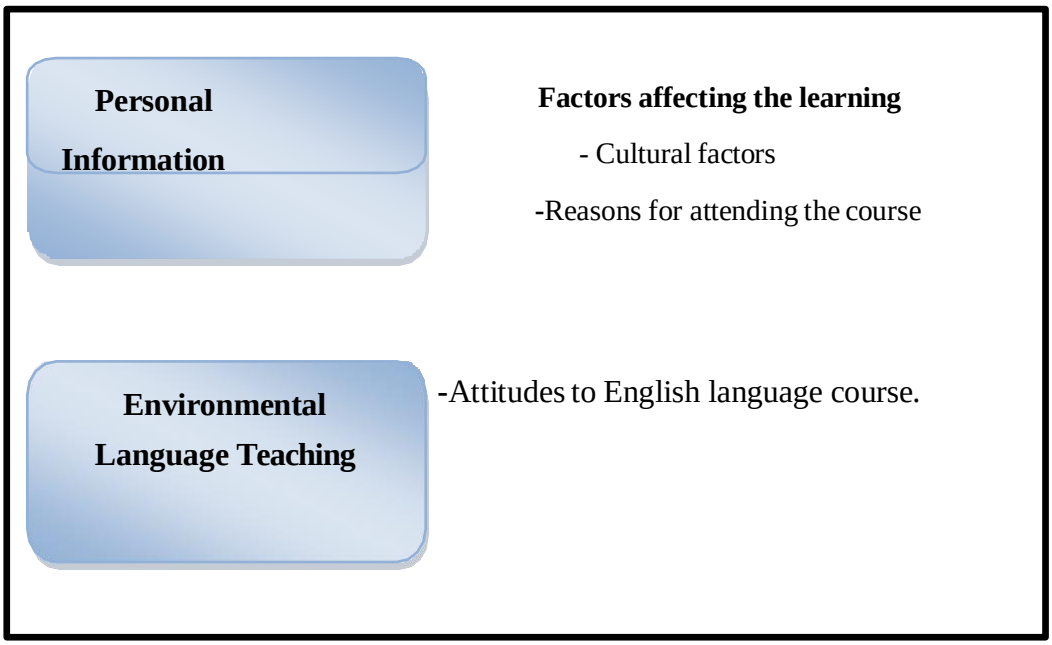

Figure 2.3. Aspects of Present Situation Analysis (**Adopted from Basturkmen, 2010)**

The course designer seeks to obtain responses to the following questions, which will inform future planning:

1. How long have learners been studying English?
2. What overall level of proficiency would they assign themselves?
3. What is their highest formal qualification to date?
4. Which language skills—reading, writing, listening, or speaking—are already strong?
5. Which skills still need more focus and practice?
6. How comfortable are they with grammar and vocabulary?
7. When during the week do they prefer to study?
8. What learning techniques do they currently rely on?
9. Would they benefit from targeted guidance in study strategies?
10.

4.4.3. Deficiency Analysis

Allwright (1982) asserts that approaches focused on learners' present needs or wants can be termed analysis of learners' deficiencies or lacks. DA is developed to address one of the shortcomings of TSA, which is its scant consideration of the learner's current level of language proficiency. The approach addresses students' weaknesses and considers their learning needs from the outset. This model may capture data regarding proficiency in a language, mastery of general education (GE), and even learning techniques. Lack analysis is claimed to form the basis of the language syllabus because it is the gap between TSA and PSA (Jordon, 1997). It, in other words, compensates for the disconnect between learners' current competencies—skills and language they can use—and what is expected of them by the end of the programme or the course, which is the tasks and activities learners will undertake using the language (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

4.4.4. Strategy Analysis (Learning Needs Analysis)

The title implies that this approach concerns itself with learners' auditory, visual, or kinesthetic preferences, as well as the strategies which they utilise in order to acquire a new language - the cognitive processes they engage with to learn the language (Nunan, 1988). He states that SA has as focus outcome "the methodology employed to implement language programmes" (p. 170). This bias seeks to answer the question: how do the students want to learn, instead of addressing what they ought to learn.

As addressed previously, TSA and PSA do not take into consideration the learners' perspectives on learning. In this area, Allwright (1982) was the first SA who differentiates between needs (the more relevant skills an individual perceives concerning himself or herself), wants (those needs prioritised in the context of limited time), and lacks (the gap between a learner's current skills and the target level of skills). In broad terms, Bowers (1980) quoted in Jordan (1997, p. 26) has underscored the importance of learning needs:

> If we accept…that a student will learn best if what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he either wants or needs to learn, it is clearly important to leave room in a learning programme for the learner's own wishes regarding both goals and processes.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) build upon Allwright's ideas by saying that learners' needs can be approached as target needs and learning needs. Target needs are defined as 'what the learner needs to do in the target situation'. These target needs can also be subdivided into three categories: necessities, lacks, and wants. Necessities (or objective needs) are defined as "what the learner must know to work in the given context effectively." (p. 55). Lacks are defined as "the gaps between what the learner knows and the necessities." (p. 56). Subjective needs are referred to as wants, and they are "what the learners think they need."

	Objective (i.e., as perceived by course designers)	Subjective (i.e., as perceived by learners)
Necessities	The English needed for success in economics studies)	To reluctantly cope with a 8second-best9 situation
Lacks	(Presumably)areas of English needed for econimcs studies	Means of doing economics studies
Wants	To succeed in economics studies	To undertake economics studies

Table 2.2. Necessities, Lacks and Wants (**Adapted from Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)**

4.4.5. Means Analysis or Constraints Analysis

As we discussed earlier, Munby's communicative needs processor model faced criticism under four categories: complexity, learner-centredness, constraints, and language. In this sense, means analysis seems to be a new approach to NA (needs analysis) trying to address those issues that Munby's model overlooks, which are more to do with the practicality and workability of the language course (West, 1998). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 124) state that means analysis is concerned with the natural surroundings of the course, as it gives information about the environment where the course is going to take place, thus attempting to make the ESP course designed integrate constructively.

This approach rests on the premise that what is effective in one context may not be effective in another context due to differences in needs. This is why Jordan (1997, p. 28) refers to this approach as 'Environmentally-Sensitive Approach.' Therefore, the local

factors must be recognised before designing and tailoring construction language or any courses to fit diverse cultures, education, professions, and workplaces.

As noted by West (1994, p. 71-72), there are four primary issues that a curriculum specialist must pay attention to if one hopes to design successful courses:

- Classroom culture/learner factors: the possibilities and limitations within a given educational culture or tradition.
- Staff profiles/teacher profiles: the possibilities and limitations of the given staff in terms of headcount, language proficiency, LSP background, training, etc.
- Status of language learning/institutional profiles: considering the status of LSP within the institution, what is not feasible regarding the timetable and resources.
- Change agents/change management: an evaluation of what innovations are required, or deemed possible, to be implemented in order to achieve an efficient LSP programme.

4.4.6. Language Audits

This term was coined by Pilbeam in 1979 who suggests that language audits are conducted to assess the role of foreign language within an industrial enterprise with a view to providing situational data on language requirements in the given sector. In fact, this approach focuses on defining the language needs of businesses, regions or countries which does not concern EAP contexts. Additionally, it is used in business and industry language training to evaluate staff needs by defining learning objectives and closing the gap between actual performance and desired performance in the designated language. Nelson (2000) explained that this approach seeks to identify the advantages and disadvantages a company possesses in regard to the communication process undertaken in a foreign language, such as the activities people engage in during their work, for instance, interpersonal dialogues, official meetings, presentations, and so forth. This approach attempts to assist the government in formulating a comprehensive strategy that could require several months or years to realise.

It is stated that “language audits take institutions as the unit of analysis and that they are usually conducted through a quantified general survey” (Long, 2005). From this perspective, most ESP/EAP practitioners should not be overly concerned with this

approach because ESP/EAP contexts are small to medium scale in nature; whereas "language audits are large-scale research in examining language needs" (Jordan, 1997, p. 28) like a corporation or the policy of a ministry. This approach focuses on all the tiered levels of NA that have been identified previously:

- The languages to be acquired along with potential priorities relating to those skills within the languages;
- The gaps identified in the proficiency benchmarks for students exiting secondary education and enrolling in LSP programmes;
- Consideration of the accepted current teaching practices within the context of different teaching strategies used elsewhere;
- An appraisal of the benefits that could be gained from the implementation of efficient LSP policy alongside the resource costs of implementing such a policy.

4.4.7. Pedagogic Needs Analysis

This approach is proposed by West (1994) as an umbrella term to cover deficiency analysis, strategy analysis and means analysis with the hope to compensate all shortcomings of the above-mentioned approaches. West indicates that the main shortcoming of target NA, which is collecting data about the learner rather than from the learner, should be compensated by collecting data about the learner and the learning environment through the use of different instruments. However, in some of these cases, this approach does not work at all. All in all, the following table summarises the most important stages that the process of needs analysis has gone through.

Various Stages of Needs Analysis				
Stage	**Period**	**Focus**	**Scope of analysis**	**Examples**
1.	Early 1970s	EOP	Target situation Analysis	Richterich,1970/1980 Stuart & Lee,1972/85
2.	Later 1970s	EAP	Target situation analysis	Jordan& Mackay,1973 Mackay,1978
3.	1980s	ESP and general language teaching	Target situation analysis Deficiency analysis Strategy analysis Means analysis Language audits	Tarole & Yule,1989 Allwright 1977 Allwright,1982 Holliday & Crooke,1982 Pilbcam,1979
4.	1990s	ESP	Integrated/computer based analysis Material selection	Jones,1991 Nelson,1993

Table 2.3. Evolution of Needs Analysis (**Adopted from West, 1994**)

In conclusion, numerous scholars have attempted to create distinct approaches to needs analysis. These approaches differ concerning the criteria which information will be taken into account for the basis of an ESP syllabus design. As a result, every approach aims to shed novel theoretical and pedagogical offers for ESP practitioners and researchers, such that various types of needs analyses do not stand in isolation from each other but serve, in their totality, to provide building blocks for one another through the application of various tools.

4.5. Instrumentation in Needs Analysis

In the realm of ESP, Needs Analysis is a systematic procedure of gathering data concerning learners' needs because it is assumed that various learners have unique language requirements. In fact, NA must be undertaken to achieve a thorough profile of the language needs of learners or employees. For an effective analysis, a systematic set of techniques and tools is required for the collection of information that addresses different linguistic aspects of the given situation and its needs. In this vein, Jordan (1997) lists thirteen methods which include: prior documentation; language assessment; self-evaluation; classroom observation; supervision; assessment of lesson-specific tests with attention to common errors; comprehensive surveys and questionnaires; unmodified

interviews; learner-constructed diaries and journals; case studies; collection of summative assessments; comprehensive feedback scrutiny; follow-up studies and archival investigations. As such, Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) specify the primary methods which could be employed for data collection. For Needs Analysis, one may use a questionnaire, carry out structured interviews, make observations, perform analysis of authentic verbal and written materials, and participate in discussions and evaluations.

4.5.1. Questionnaires: Unlike other procedures, they are the most common and efficient instrument of needs analysis. A variety of questionnaires have been developed to include topics, professional skills, and even language and literacy applications to ascertain the learner's needs. More structured than interview schedules, they may be conducted over the phone, via mail, or personally given to respondents for collection after completion. When used properly, questionnaires provide a cost-effective and timely method for gathering large-scale information.

4.5.2. Interviews: Regarding NA, interviews may be advantageous since they are in-person and allow for probing deeper responses. Interviews permit open-ended exploration of issues, gathering reactions, explaining ambiguities, monitoring nonverbal communication, and asking for further explanations from one person (interviewee) within a range from structured to semi-structured to unstructured formats. An effective interview relies on two skills: appropriate questioning and attentive listening. Non-native speakers and those struggling with phrased written queries may benefit from interviews, though they can take longer to conduct.

4.5.3. Group Discussions: These interview types include more than one participant, unlike traditional one-on-one interviews. A leader or facilitator is almost always helpful to guide the discussion covering many topics while ensuring that all participants get an opportunity to speak when there are no clear time boundaries or a fixed sequence. The discussion needs to be balanced, or else two or three people will have too much influence on what is said.

4.5.4. Meetings: Meetings are helpful in collecting data since they allow the intended audience a chance to express their views and also respond to other people. Hence, the researcher is able to collect the data in a single meeting instead of multiple ones. Nevertheless, the meeting still needs to be organised which can be time-consuming and without offering something in return requires an incentive to get attendees.

4.5.5. Observations: What appears realistic and could be quite fruitful is assessing workers by using their audio-visual data to analyse a given situation or challenge. This calls for the observer to focus on particular social actions of individuals or groups in their usual environment by going to the designated area, observing the events and social relations among the people involved, and noting down the results. However, the primary limitation of this tool is that the observation data is inaccurate because it is tainted with artificiality for the reason that human beings tend to respond positively when they know observation is taking place.

4.5.6. Document review: This tool helps gather background information which may not be visible or noted through other means. Such data is found in documents, including reports, historical accounts, letters, and records. Before collecting new data, some assessment should be performed on what is already available. Despite the possibility of saving time and money, existing information might be outdated, unavailable, or disorganized.

4.5.7. Case studies: Examining an individual or a group as a model is an effective strategy for projecting a particular image externally. They encapsulate individuals' experiences regarding programme input, industry, process, and results. Although a case study provides an in-depth, comprehensive inquiry and yields a significant amount of information for evaluation, it lacks representativeness.

Moreover, Long (1996) points out that when carrying out a NA, it is necessary to consider three major elements.

a. Sources: Primary sources for conducting needs analyses as outlined previously are previous needs analyses, applied linguists, domain experts, and many more.

b. Triangulation: To enhance the credibility of the needs analysis, the verification step using information from three or more sources above is essential.

c. Multiple Methods: An understanding of the target situation can be achieved through realistic methods of obtaining information from different sources.

<u>Activity One:</u> Define the following terms: TSA, LSA and PSA. Give examples to each definition.

<u>Activity Two:</u> Determine if each statement is true or false. For those you consider false, give the correct information.

1) Needs analysis is a critical step in the design of ESP courses.

2) Needs assessment and needs analysis are completely interchangeable terms in the context of language learning.

3) Target-Situation Analysis focuses on identifying the future roles and linguistic skills required by learners.

4) Present Situation Analysis is primarily concerned with the learners' future needs rather than their current skills.

5) Deficiency Analysis focuses on identifying the gaps between learners' current competencies and the expected competencies.

6) Strategy Analysis prioritizes the methods of learning over the actual content that learners need to acquire.

7) Language audits are primarily used in academic contexts to assess language needs.

8) Means Analysis considers the practicality and workability of the language course in specific contexts.

9) The integration of multiple methods in needs analysis can improve the credibility and effectiveness of the process.

10) According to Long (1996), the rationales for conducting needs analyses include assessing the relevance of course content to learners' contexts.

11) Needs analysis is considered a critical step in the design and delivery of ESP courses.

12) Needs analysis and needs assessment are interchangeable terms that refer to the same processes.

13) Target-Situation Analysis focuses primarily on the grammar and vocabulary lists required by learners.

14) Present Situation Analysis profiles learners' strengths and weaknesses as they enter a course.

15) Deficiency Analysis specifically addresses the gaps between learners' current competencies and the expected competencies.

16) Strategy Analysis focuses solely on what students ought to learn, disregarding their learning preferences.

17) Language audits are primarily concerned with defining language needs in academic contexts.

18) The Means Analysis approach considers the practicality and workability of the language course in specific contexts.

19) The integration of multiple methods in needs analysis enhances the credibility and effectiveness of the process.

20) According to Long (1996), one of the rationales for conducting needs analyses is to assess how course content aligns with learners' contexts.

<u>Activity Three</u>: Answer the following questions

1) How does needs analysis inform the design and delivery of ESP courses, and why is it considered a critical step in the course development process?

2) What are the key differences between needs analysis and needs assessment, and how do these concepts contribute to understanding learners' requirements in specific contexts?

3) In what ways does the process of needs analysis help identify the competencies and skills necessary for learners to succeed in academic or professional environments?

4) How does needs analysis help in identifying the specific goals and requirements of diverse learners within different contexts in English for Specific Purposes?

5) What are the four rationales outlined by Long (1996) for conducting needs analyses, and how do they contribute to the effectiveness of language courses?

6) In what ways does the integration of learners' perspectives into the needs analysis process enhance the relevance and accountability of language teaching programs?

7) How does needs analysis enhance the relevance and effectiveness of ESP courses in meeting learners' specific goals?

8) What are the main differences between needs analysis and needs assessment, and how do these differences influence the understanding of learners' requirements?

9) In what ways does Target-Situation Analysis guide course designers in creating specialized language courses tailored to specific contexts?

10) What are the four rationales outlined by Long (1996) for conducting needs analyses, and how do they contribute to successful language course development?

11) How does the integration of learners' perspectives in the needs analysis process improve the accountability and relevance of language teaching programs?

ESP Course Design and Materials Teaching

Unit Aims:

- To comprehend the concepts relevant to the design of courses within the framework of English for Specific Purposes, particularly in relation to alignment with student requirements and integration within professional contexts.
- To examine how to create effective syllabuses inclusive of appropriate language skills and field-specific objectives.
- To comprehend carrier content and real content in ESP and their functions in language learning.
- To explore instances of carrier content across different ESP contexts, including Medical English, Technical English, and Business English, in order to demonstrate its use in instruction.
- Fostering critical thinking regarding the selection of suitable content for ESP courses and their appropriateness to learners' needs and professional situations.
- To evaluate how various content formats influence learner engagement and achievement in developing advanced language skills.
- To examine how authentic materials function within the scope of ESP instruction and the ways in which they improve learners' engagement and the utility of language in real-world contexts.
- Recognising different approaches to choose and modify materials fitting the needs of various groups of learners and individuals.
- To assess instructional materials, textbooks, online resources, and multimedia tools for effectiveness in ESP contexts.
- Encouraging the use of technology in ESP course design for innovative teaching practice.
- To develop and nurture the ability to think critically about the challenges and the best approaches to evolve and execute the ESP curricula and materials.
- Cultivating and sustaining the capacity to analyse the difficulties and optimal strategies for the evolution and implementation of the ESP curricula and materials.

5.1. ESP Course Design

ESP stands for English for Specific Purposes, a teaching philosophy that uses English to help defined groups study and work in their own fields. Rather than offering a general curriculum, ESP practitioners craft lessons that equip learners with the vocabulary, structures, and communication strategies they need in contexts such as engineering, business, or nursing. To move from need to action, an ESP instructor first gathers information about users' goals, tasks, and current language skills, then chooses, orders, and tests materials that match those findings. In the words of Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 65),

> Course design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge.

Experts almost unanimously assert that any effective ESP syllabus begins with a clear analysis of what learners actually do with English at work or study—hence, the corollary that all decisions about content, sequencing, and assessment should stem from that analysis. Munby (1978, p.2) captures this idea when he describes such courses as "those where the syllabus and the materials are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner." The same rationale underpins Kennedy and Bolitho's (1984, p. 2) claim that the learner, and the learner alone, must sit at the centre of course design if educators wish to avoid irrelevant practice and wasted class minutes. Once needs are documented, teachers translate them into usable goals, and from there a coherent sequence of lessons—labelled pedagogical items—may finally be built. A thorough course design proceeds by answering a core set of practical questions, and these questions provide a reasonable foundation for the later work of drafting the syllabus:

1. Why does the student need to learn?
2. Who is going to be involved in the process?
3. Where is the learning to take place?
4. What potential does the place provide?
5. What limitation does the place impose?
6. When is the learning to take place?
7. How much time is available? How will it be distributed?

8. What does the student need to learn? What aspects of language will be needed and how will they be described?
9. What level of proficiency must be achieved?
10. What topic areas will need to be covered?
11. How will learning be achieved?
12. What learning theory will underlie the course?
13. What kind of methodology will be employed? (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 21-22)

At this level, it is worth noting that Robinson (1991, p. 34) observes that ESP course design results from several interacting elements—the findings of needs analysis, the designer's stance toward syllabus structure, and the materials available. In addition to Hutchinson and Waters' parameters, Robinson adds two further factors: the teacher's personal theory of syllabus design and the instructional methodology actually practised in the classroom. To create an effective ESP course, Dudley-Evans and John (1998) recommend that planners consider several key factors, including:

- Whether the course is extensive or intensive;
- Whether learners' performance will be formally assessed or not;
- Whether the content is meant to address immediate or delayed needs;
- Whether the focus is on a narrow subject area or broader theme;
- Whether the materials are drawn from a common core or tailored specifically;
- Whether learners form a homogeneous group or a more heterogeneous one.

Identifying learners' goals and needs within a particular field remains the essential first step in any ESP design process. Course planners often ask, "Which design model fits my situation best?" In reality, the choice depends on the target setting, audience, and learning purpose. Thus, the next section will review the main design models used in ESP work today.

5.2. Approaches to Course Design

Since ESP research began in response to the distinct requirements of targeted language learners and professionals, course designers have constructed programmes that vary according to each group's objectives and real-world context. Over time, three widely-

recognised design frameworks—language-centred, skills-centred, and learning-centred—have emerged, and each emphasises different principles, including linguistic features, communicative competencies, and cognitive processes, that must be considered before building an effective course.

5.2.1. Language-Centred Approach

The language-centred approach seeks to establish clear, direct links between an examination of the learners' professional context and the material covered in an English for Specific Purposes course, thereby connecting the two in a meaningful way. It begins by pinpointing what students must be able to do with English in their own field, moves through several analytical steps to draft a syllabus, selects classroom materials, and ends with testing how well the learners have mastered the prescribed content. By conducting a thorough needs analysis that uncovers students' strengths, weaknesses, and real-world demands, this model places them in scenarios they are likely to encounter. The diagram below aims to summarise that progression visually.

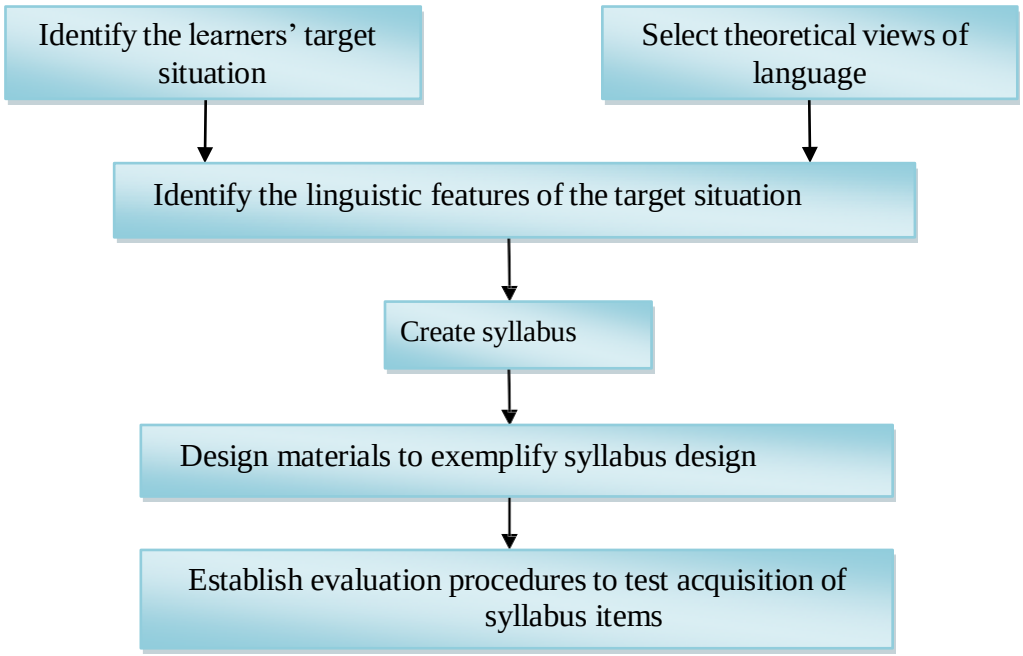

Figure 5.1. A Language- Centred Approach to Course Design

(Adapted from Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)

While this method of course design may be common, it does have negative aspects. This method seems to be a learner-centred approach, but it is not because the learner is not

a major component of the syllabus but is just a reference point through which the target situation is outlined. Consequently, given that the different learning needs of the students are not considered at all, the approach tends to be very superficial. It also does not say much about the ability that lies beneath the performance. Additionally, it has been criticised for being overly systematic, for being a rigid and unbending procedure, for lacking spaces for feedback, and for not tolerating errors in the case of unanticipated situations (e.g., Wrong Initial Analysis). This perspective overlooks the variability in learners' needs of learning the language across different discourse communities.

A language-centred approach concentrates exclusively on linguistic forms and ignores other instructional elements. Basturkmen (2010, p. 59) observes that by systematically analysing and presenting the features of a specific genre, this method creates orderly, predictable learning. Another appealing aspect of this particular model is that it seems overly systematic. Yet, the value of systematisation in the process of learning is far more complex, and the language-centred approach does not necessarily assure the systematic mastery of the language.

5.2.2. Skill-Based Approach

While the language-centred approach tends to focus on surface data collection and analysis, the skill-based approach aims to depart from surface performance data and studies the competence that performance conceals. Maciel et al. (1983) illustrate this distinction with a Brazilian ESP syllabus for library-science students:

- General Objective (i.e., performance level): The student will be able to catalogue books written in English.
- Specific Objective (i.e., competence level): The student will be able to skim a text to extract its gist.
- Pull relevant data from key sections of a book.

In a skills-oriented framework, needs analysis therefore acts as a diagnostic tool revealing the knowledge and abilities students already bring to the ESP classroom. Aware of the equal weight of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, programme designers then concentrate on the underlying strategies and mental processes learners will need in their

academic or professional lives. Such an orientation rests on two guiding principles- theoretical and pragmatic.

The theoretical orientation grounds any linguistic activity in the pairing of receptive and productive abilities, which learners mobilise to interpret or generate spoken and written texts; the pragmatic angle, meanwhile, separates goal-oriented from process-oriented instruction, as Widdowson proposed in 1983. Within that framework, an English for Specific Purposes class exists to equip participants with specific tools and strategies they can deploy once formal instruction ends. From this standpoint, a syllabus blends communicative and professional skills, deliberately framing outcomes in open-ended terms so that each student walks away having accomplished at least one identifiable gain. In short, the skills-centred path unfolds in the following sequence:

- Clarify the circumstances in which the target language will be used;
- Establish a theoretical model of language and a model of learning;
- Dissect the discrete skills needed for competence in that circumstance;
- Draft a coherent syllabus aligned with those skills;
- Develop instructional materials that practise each item in the syllabus;
- Design assessment tasks that mirror the real-world use of those skills. (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 71)

This method has placed greater focus on the learner, yet it remains imperfect since it emphasises the learner as a language user rather than as a language learner. Simply put, a skills-centred approach addresses the language use processes rather than the language learning processes.

5.2.3. Learning-Centred Approach/ Learner-Centred Approach

This approach is widely considered important in the area of ESP teaching because it takes into account all the variables concerning the learners at all levels of planning the course and strives to unite all aspects and elements of the course in the learning context and the target context. Differing from the preceding methodologies, the learner-centred approach concentrates primarily on the learners' prior knowledge, their proficiencies, and their motivational disposition regarding the language. Additionally, it can incorporate

feedback loops to address emerging issues, showing its adaptable and responsive quality. Collaboration between instructors and students concerning course content, pedagogy, and decision-making is yet another distinguishing feature that enhances the efficacy of this approach.

In this model, the learner takes an active, central role in the course design. This is because an in-depth Needs Analysis (NA) research study must be conducted for the learners, their prospects, and unique learning contexts. Robinson (1991, p. 40) addresses the earlier posed question and claims all approaches must be viewed as available at the same time, and each one must be tailored to a given context because, quite simply, there is no one model for an ESP course. Therefore, each approach needs to be refined, not discarded.

Activity One:

1. ESP stands for English for Specific Purposes, which focuses on general English language skills.

2. ESP practitioners design courses based on learners' specific goals and communication needs in their professional fields.

3. A thorough needs analysis is unnecessary in ESP course design, as the content is predetermined.

4. According to Hutchinson and Waters, course design interprets raw data about learning needs to create integrated teaching experiences.

5. All decisions about content, sequencing, and assessment in ESP should stem from a clear analysis of learners' needs.

6. The language-centred approach focuses primarily on the learner's personal interests and motivations.

7. The skills-centred approach emphasizes the underlying strategies and mental processes required for effective language use.

8. A learner-centred approach integrates feedback loops and encourages collaboration between instructors and students.

9. In the skills-centred approach, needs analysis is solely about surface performance data and does not consider underlying competencies.

10. Robinson suggests that there is only one ideal model for ESP course design that should be universally applied.

Activity Two: Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words or phrases based on the provided text about ESP Course Design.

1. ESP stands for **.....**, a teaching philosophy that uses English to help defined groups study and work in their own fields.
2. Instead of offering a general curriculum, ESP practitioners craft lessons that equip learners with the ....., structures, and communication strategies they need.
3. To move from need to action, an ESP instructor first gathers information about users' ....., tasks, and current language skills.
4. According to Hutchinson and Waters, course design interprets raw data about a learning need to produce an ..... series of teaching-learning experiences.
5. Effective ESP syllabi begin with a clear analysis of what learners actually do with English at ..... or study.
6. Munby describes courses where the syllabus and materials are determined by the prior analysis of the ..... needs of the learner.
7. The learner must sit at the **.....**of course design to avoid irrelevant practice and wasted class minutes.
8. A thorough course design proceeds by answering a core set of practical **.....**.
9. It is essential to identify learners' goals and needs within a particular **.....**in the ESP design process.
10. The choice of design model depends on the **.....** setting, audience, and learning purpose.
11. Three widely-recognised design frameworks in ESP are..... **..-, skills-centred, and learning-centred** approaches.

12. The language-centred approach establishes clear links between learners' professional context and the ..... covered in the course.

13. A skills-centred approach focuses on the underlying strategies and mental **.....** required for effective language use.

14. The learner-centred approach considers all variables concerning the learners at all levels of..... the course.

15. Robinson suggests there is no one model for an ESP.....; each approach must be refined to fit the context.

5.3. Types of Content in ESP

5.3.1. Carrier content

Carrier content refers to the subject matter that is used to teach the language. It acts as a vehicle for language learning, helping students acquire both language skills and specific knowledge related to a field. **Example:** In a medical English course, the carrier content might include topics like anatomy, diseases, or medical procedures. The language learned through these topics includes medical terminology and communication skills relevant to healthcare. As explained by Dudley Evans, St John's "refers to the subject matter of an exercise; it is contrasted with real content, which is the language or skill content of an exercise." (p.11).

5.3.2. Real content

Real content refers to the authentic materials and situations from the specific field that learners will encounter in their professional lives. It focuses on actual practices, documents, and contexts used in the profession. **Example:** In the same medical course, real content might include reading medical journals, writing patient reports, or participating in case discussions. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) distinguish between real content and carrier content as follows: ‘‘In ESP, language instruction is dependent on the content, and any pedagogical endeavour is carried out within the framework of a context.”

In task-based lessons, an authentic activity is often chosen to serve as the context, or the vehicle, that transports the real language work-forward forms and patterns. For instance, if students practise preparing and giving an injection, the step-by-step task itself becomes the surface activity, while sequence language—first, second, next—is the deeper focus.

In this way, carrier content lifts real content along, and teachers silently track the grammar or vocabulary while learners attend mainly to the practical job. Because the task is relevant, it captures students' interest and speeds acquisition, turning dry rules into useful tools almost without them noticing.

Key Differences

- **Purpose**: Carrier content is primarily focused on language learning, while real content emphasizes practical application in professional contexts.

- **Nature**: Carrier content can be more structured and educational, whereas real content is often derived from actual practices and materials used in the field.

In summary, carrier content helps students learn the language within a specific context, while real content provides them with authentic experiences and materials relevant to their future careers.

Sample of Carrier and Real contents

Carrier Content

Title: Introduction to Civil Engineering

Civil engineering encompasses the identification of water supplies, the construction of buildings, roads, bridges, and the maintenance of other infrastructure. It deals with both the planning aspect of the infrastructure as well as the construction phase. A civil engineer applies principles of mathematics, physics, and materials science to design structures that achieve efficiency and safety within budget.

Besides designing, civil engineers hold responsibility for the construction and maintenance of structures. This includes supervision of the construction procedures, handling of materials, and ensuring that the project is finished within the set deadlines and does not exceed the budget. Civil engineers also need to take into account the environment and do everything possible to mitigate harm.

Real Content

Language Skill: Passive Voice

Example sentence: The bridge was designed by a team of civil engineers.

Explanation: In the example sentence, the author chooses passive voice to highlight the act of designing the bridge instead of who actually carried it out—the engineering team. Such phrasing is routine in technical documents, including project reports, because it puts the outcome front and centre while keeping individual contributors in the background. Aspiring civil engineers need to grasp this practice so they can write and speak clearly on site, in the lab, or in the classroom. Here the Carrier Content refers to civil engineering itself, while the Real Content points to the grammatical tool—the passive voice. By working through this passage, students pick up both discipline-specific insights and the language habits that will help them convey technical ideas with confidence. (Ouarniki, 2023)

6.2. Materials in ESP teaching

In certain situations, especially when English is a foreign language rather than a second language, the ESP classroom might serve as the sole source of English. At this stage, learners are in particular need of being provided with adequate materials that fully incorporate the English language, both in terms of content and depth. Therefore, such materials must aim to accurately represent the language in its authentic form, and in the context in which it is needed.

The primary questions to consider when choosing the materials are:

1. Will the materials encourage and motivate learners?
2. How well are the materials aligned with the learning objectives and goals?
3. To what degree will the materials facilitate that learning?

Moreover, materials are incorporated in every single classroom instruction. In the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), four reasons for utilising materials appear to be particularly important:

- as a source of language;
- as a learning support;
- for motivation and stimulation;
- for reference.

First, as a source of learning support, the materials need to be reliable, that is, to have some consistency in working, as well as some recognizable pattern. That does not imply a strict unit design; there would not be a standard structure. In order to improve the learning processes, language resources should engage the learners in critical thinking and utilization of language. The tasks must engage cognitive processes rather than mechanical ones. The learners also need to have a sense of meaningful progress.

To stimulate and motivate, materials need to be presented in a manner that they help provide fresh ideas and information, offer fun and creativity while also being personally achievable. The two elements essential within the input are: familiarity with existing concepts or knowledge and the ability to offer something new to create a reason to interact. The use of the resource for exploitation needs to correspond with how the resource would be applied beyond the learning context, while also considering the learner's language learning requirements.

Whether for independent study or classroom reference, instructional materials must be complete, logically arranged, and easy to understand at first glance. Learners typically appreciate resources that pair clear explanations and diagrams with practice tasks and answer keys. Preparing such resources often demands several hours of careful work. Among English for Specific Purposes circles, a persistent myth suggests that every instructor must write their own materials, an assumption that wrongly equates material-writing skill with teaching competence. In reality, comparatively few talented teachers also excel at crafting materials that truly enhance learning. A dependable materials provider therefore needs to:

- identify reliable resources for the target context;
- adapt existing content in fresh, useful ways;
- tailor activities to specific learner profiles;
- add supplemental tasks when coverage is thin. (Ouarniki, 2023)

Activity: Exploring Carrier and Real Content in ESP

Objective: This activity aims to help students understand the differences between carrier content and real content in ESP and to apply these concepts in practical scenarios.

Instructions:

1. **Read the Provided Text:** Review the sections on carrier content and real content in ESP.

2. Group Discussion: In small groups, discuss the following questions:

- What are some examples of carrier content and real content in your specific field?
- How do these types of content complement each other in language learning?
- Why is it important to use both types of content in an ESP course?

3. Fill in the Gaps Exercise: Below is a fill-in-the-gaps exercise based on the concepts of carrier and real content. Complete the sentences with the correct terms.

a. Carrier content serves as a vehicle for language learning by helping students acquire both language skills and specific ..... related to a field.

b. In a medical English course, an example of real content could include reading .....journals or writing patient reports.

c. The primary purpose of carrier content is to focus on.....learning, while real content emphasizes practical application.

d. Carrier content can be more structured, whereas real content is often derived from actual ..... used in the field.

e. An example of carrier content in civil engineering includes the identification of water supplies, while real content involves using the .....voice in technical writing.

References

References

Adler, R. B., & Elmhorst, J. M. (1999). *Communicating at work: Principles and practices for business and the professions*. McGraw Hill Singapore.

Allwright, R. L. (1982). Perceiving and pursuing learners' needs. In M. Geddes & G. Sturtridge (Eds.), *Individualisation*. Oxford University Press.

Anthony, L. (1997). Preaching to cannibals: A look at academic writing in engineering. In *The Japan Conference on English for Specific Purposes Proceedings*.

Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Basturkmen, H. (2013). Needs analysis and syllabus design for language for specific purposes. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Blackwell.

Belcher, D., Johns, A. M., & Paltridge, B. (Eds.). (2011). *New directions in English for specific purposes research*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Bennett, J. M. (1986). Modes of cross-cultural training: Conceptualizing cross-cultural training as education. *Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*, 117-134.

Bowers, R. (1980). The individual learner in the general class. In H. B. Altman & C. V. James (Eds.), *Foreign language teaching: Meeting individual needs* (pp. 66-80). Pergamon Press.

Brown, G. (1990). *Listening to spoken English*. London: Longman.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. New York: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Brown, J. D. (2009). Open-response items in questionnaires. In J. Heigham & R. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Brindley, G. (1984). Needs analysis and objective setting in the adult migrant education program. Sydney: Adult Migrant Education Service.

Bukhart, J. (1996). *Communication on the job*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Candlin, C. N. (1978). Discoursal patterning and the equalizing of interpretive opportunity. In H. G. Widdowson (Ed.), *Explorations in applied linguistics* (pp. 93-116). Oxford University Press.

Chaney, A. L., & Burk, T. L. (1998). *Teaching oral communication in grades K-8*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis in ESP. *The ESP Journal, 1*(1), 25-33.

Chen, Z. (2016). Grammar learning strategies applied to ESP teaching. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 6*(3), 617-621.

Coffey, B. (1984). ESP - English for specific purposes (State of the art). *Language Teaching, 1*(17), 2-16.

Cohen, A., Glasman, H., Rosenbaum-Cohen, P., Ferrara, J., & Fine, J. (1979). Reading for specialized purposes: Discourse analysis and the use of student informants. *TESOL Quarterly, 13*(4), 551-564.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*, 213-238.

De Grève, P. M. (1972). *The linguistic analysis of scientific English*. Mouton.

Duff, A. (1994). *Translation: Resource books for teachers*. Edited by A. Maley. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T. (2001). English for specific purposes. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T., & John, M. (1998). *Development in English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ewer, J. R. (1976). Teaching English for science and technology: The specialized training of teachers and programme organizers. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Teaching English for science and technology*. Singapore University Press.

Ewer, J. R., & Latorre, G. (1969). *A course in basic scientific English*. Longman.

Farrell, P. (1990). Vocabulary in ESP: A lexical analysis of the English of electronics and a study of semi-technical vocabulary. *CLCS Occasional Paper*, 25, Trinity College.

Fehaima, A. (2022). *An introduction to language for specialty: Third-year "licence level"* [Handout]. Ain Témouchent University.

Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional notional approach from theory to practice*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Goh, C. (2005). Second language listening expertise. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *Expertise in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 64-84). Palgrave Macmillan Basingstoke, England.

Goh, C., & Hu, G. (2013). Exploring the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening performance with questionnaire data. *Language Awareness*, *23*(3), 255-274. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.769558.

Gonzalez, A. (1995). The cultural content in English as an international auxiliary language (EIAL): Problems and issues in M. L. Tickoo (Ed.), *Language and culture in multilingual societies*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching*. Essex: Longman.

Harding, K. (2007). *English for specific purposes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Higgins, J. J. (1966). Hard facts. *ELT Journal*, *21*(1).

Holme, R. (1996). *English for specific purposes: The last twenty years*. Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity into specific purposes: How far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes*, *21*(4), 385-395.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes*. New York: Routledge.

Iwai, T., Kondo, K., Limm, S. J. D., Ray, E. G., Shimizu, H., & Brown, J. D. (1999). Japanese language needs analysis.

Johnson, H., & Johnson, K. (1998). *Encyclopedia dictionary of applied linguistics: A handbook for language teaching*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Jordan, R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kennedy, C., & Bolitho, R. (1984). *English for specific purposes*. London: Macmillan.

Lee, H. K. (1976). Doctors in casualty: Specialist course design from a data base. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 14*(3), 245-273.

Lee, W. (1995). Authenticity revisited: Text authenticity and learner authenticity. *ELT Journal, 49*(4), 323-328.

Long, M. H. (1996). Course on task-based language learning. *The ESP Forum, 14*(6), 9-12.

Long, M. H. (2005). *Second language needs analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mackay, R., & Mountford, A. (1978). *English for specific purposes: A case study approach*. London: Longman Group Ltd.

Martin, A. V. (1976). Teaching academic vocabulary to foreign graduate students. *TESOL Quarterly, 10*(1), 91-97.

Mo, H. (2005). A brief review of English for academic purposes (EAP). *US-China Foreign Language, 3*(7), 62-67.

Mudraya, O. (2006). Engineering English: A lexical frequency instructional model. *English for Specific Purposes, 25*(2), 235-256.

Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Navaz, A. M. M. (2016). Challenges faced by students in English medium undergraduate classes: An experience of a young university in Sri Lanka. *Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*. http://dx.doi.org/10.18843/rwjasc/v7i4(1)/19

Nichols, R. G., & Stevens, L. A. (1990). Listening to people. *Harvard Business Review*, 95-102. In R. B. Adler & J. M. Elmhorst (1999). *Communicating at work: Principles and practices for business and the professions*. McGraw Hill Singapore.

Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Omaggio, A. (2001). *Teaching language in context*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Ouakrime, M. (1992). Formal and deep culture for EFL students: A course proposal. Faculty of Letters, Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdallah University, Fes.

Ouarniki, O. (2023). *An introduction to the didactics of teaching English for specific purposes* [Handout]. Ziane Achour University of Djelfa.

Palacios Martínez, I. (1992). An analysis and appraisal of the English language teaching situation in Spain from the perspectives of teachers and learners. Ph.D. dissertation. Universidade de Santiago de Compostela.

Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2013). *The handbook of English for specific purposes*. UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Perren, G. E. (Ed.). (1969). *Teachers of English as a second language: Their training and preparation*. Cambridge University Press.

Porter, D., & Roberts, J. (1981). Authentic listening activities. *ELT Journal, 36*, 37-47.

Richards, J. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., & John, P. (1992). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Essex: Longman.

Richterich, R. (1983). *Case studies in identifying language needs*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Richterich, R., & Chancerel, L. (1980). Identifying the needs of adults learning a foreign language: Collected information taking into account the needs of the learner in a

European unit/credit system for language learning by adults. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Robinson, P. (1980). English for specific purposes: The present position. Oxford; Elmsford, N.Y.: Pergamon Press.

Shuib, M. (2009). Grammatical awareness among primary school English language teachers. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies, 9*(1), 35-46.

Simion, M. O. (2012). The importance of teaching English in the field of tourism in universities. *Annals-Economy Series, 2*, 152-154.

Sally, O. (1985). Listening comprehension: A lecture-based approach. *ELT Journal, 39*(3), 187-192.

Strevens, P. (1977). New orientations in the teaching of English. Oxford University Press.

Strevens, P. (1977). Special purpose language learning: A perspective survey article. *Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics Abstracts, 10,* 145-163.

Strevens, P. (1980). Teaching English as an international language. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Strevens, P. (1988). ESP after twenty years: A re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), *ESP: State of the art*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Centre.

Swales, J. (1971). *Writing scientific English*. Thomas Nelson.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J., & Mustafa, H. (1984). *English for specific purposes in the Arab world*. Birmingham: University of Aston in Birmingham Language Studies Unit.

Tudor, I. (1996). Teacher roles in the learner-centered classroom. *ELT Journal, 47*(1), 22-31.

Trimble, L. (1985). *English for science and technology: A discourse approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. M. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action*. New York: Routledge.

Watson Todd, R. (2003). EAP or TEAP? *English for Academic Purposes*, *2*(2), 147-156.

West, M. (1953). *A general service list of English words*. London: Longman.

West, R. (1994). Needs analysis in language teaching. *Language Teaching*, *27*(1), 1-19.

Wilkins, D. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. London: Arnold.

Wingard, P. (1981). Some verb forms and functions in six medical texts. In L. Selinker, E. Tarone, & V. Hanzeli (Eds.), *English for academic and technical purposes: Studies in honor of Louis Trimble*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford University Press.