CHAPTER III
PEDAGOGICAL POSTULATES

3.1 Introductory

3.1.1. ESP, as noted earlier, has developed alongside a new concern for the needs and purposes of the learner. It is a developing situation in which the purpose of the learner is made amenable to more systematic descriptions. The very notion of ESP is based on learner centred instruction, it implies that there is something specific to impart through explicit instruction. This development necessitates a review of our pedagogical postulates and, as a consequence, a reframing of our strategies. The principal stages of task analysis in ESP include a detailed analysis of learners' needs, preparation of suitable syllabuses, production of appropriate teaching materials, devising methodological procedures and techniques for the realisation of the predetermined objectives and, of course, the provision of orientation facilities for the ESP professionals. This shift in focus, it is widely claimed, is warranted not by the practice of the linguist but by the essential needs of the learner.

3.2 Needs Analysis

3.2.1 An analysis of the learners' needs is seen as a first step in the preparation of an ESP course design. Dealing not with structures alone but
incorporating the categories of meaning also the task becomes more complex. The uses to which a language may be put are very many. We can not teach all the 'functions' of English in the same way as we might teach all the structures through proper grading and selection. Some criterion of selection is needed which will identify these 'functions' which a particular group or groups of learners will find especially useful. Once identified, these can be taught excluding the less necessary ones. Views about the criterion of such a selection and the procedures for the identification of learners' needs vary greatly. Two significant theoretical studies in this area are, however, worth mentioning. The first belongs to the Council of Europe, particularly by Richterich (1973) who attempted to do this by looking closely at the language needs of certain groups of learners. In Richterich's words, language needs are the "requirements which arise from the use of language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of the individuals and groups"1. The key word in this definition is 'situation'. It is by looking at the situation in which our learners will want to use English that we shall be able to

decide which 'functions' and 'notions' and which language 'forms' associated with each will be most useful to teach. It involves an analysis of the different factors in the concept of situation and the identification of important or useful functions or notions and the corresponding forms, in other words, a careful selection of skills and language content to achieve the target communicative competence.

3.2.2 In another document contributed to the Council of Europe, Richterich and Chancerel (1978) suggest that the identification of learners' needs is undertaken by three separate bodies: the learner himself, the teaching establishment, and the user institution. They distinguish language activities (e.g., telephoning, writing letters etc.), language functions (e.g., asking for information, arguing, explaining etc.), language situations (e.g., face to face in a working group etc.) and the four language skills. They also provide a comprehensive survey of all the different sources of information for a needs analysis -- surveys, questionnaires and interviews through language and intelligence tests to attitude scales to job and content analysis. The obvious advantage of this approach, especially in ESP, is that it enables us to develop syllabuses sensitive to the needs of the different groups of learners. Various models based on this general paradigm have been developed and tried.

3.2.3 The second most extensive theoretical study of the learners' needs is that of Munby (1977 and 1978).
Munby's work represents a sociolinguistic model for defining the content of purpose-specific language programmes. The model aims to give a valid specification of the target level communicative competence of a student and operates in two stages: firstly by building up a profile of students' needs and secondly by converting the needs into syllabus content. Stated in terms of microskills and units of meaning from which detailed item banks have been devised, the model is an operational instrument which can be used practically to ensure the relevance and appropriateness of syllabus content for ESP.

3.2.4 Any real needs analysis is admittedly a difficult task and thus liable to suffer from a number of drawbacks, namely lack of a common language between the informant and the planner, gathering of information regarding job specification, nature of roles/activities involved etc. Perren (1974) is referring to the same problem when, in his introduction, he points out that identifying the learner's needs is a tricky business and we must beware of foisting on him needs which we think he should have but of which he himself is unaware. The teacher and the planner must, therefore, investigate the uses to which the language will be put in order to determine accurately what these specific purposes are. The three concerned agencies viz., the learners, the teaching institution and the employer, can fruitfully coordinate the efforts in this direction.
Two formal ways of gathering information, i.e., a questionnaire or a structured interview, can be effectively used to identify the real needs of the learners. But the means utilised should be rich enough to gauge the level and experience of the learner and calibrated to assess what the learner needs and what he needs it for.

3.3 Syllabus

3.3.1 Needs, once identified, must be realised in actual language forms by means of the specification of language skills needed and the language functions. Skills, functions and language forms together constitute a syllabus content. A syllabus is a chief instrument in the planning of language teaching. It embodies the content and sequence of what is to be taught. Principles of syllabus design have evolved through the application of different types of criteria. The primacy of needs analysis reinforces the role of the syllabus in establishing the content and sequence of teaching. The concept of ESP, becoming influential day by day, has been gaining strength from the wide ranging linguistic investigations in order to cater satisfactorily to the demands of the overseas market for English courses for specific purposes. Recent years have seen many exciting developments at the level of syllabus design. But the implications of the new development have not been, by any means, fully
explored. A general upsurge of interest in syllabus design appears evident at an ad hoc level, not so much in terms of theory. Various case histories of ESP courses are available but they offer little help in arriving at a consistent theoretical framework and the designer's concept of a syllabus has to be assembled piecemeal by the reader.

3.3.2 The tradition linked with the pioneering work of Harold Palmer and Michael West in the 1940s and 1950s merging with the principles of syntactic patterning and lexical grading implicit in Hornby's work which dominated language teaching at least up to the 1970s is being undermined and a new consensus is emerging. The phenomenon of the structurally competent but communicatively incompetent student has shaped recent trends in language teaching. There has taken place a movement away from grammatical syllabus and then situational syllabus to what can variously be described as notional, functional and communicative syllabuses. Another line of development has been influenced by the work in discourse analysis giving us useful information about the structure of interactions and texts. Other areas of recent research have approached language from still another direction, i.e., our attitude to error has been fundamentally changed. We now view errors as learner's response to his situation as illustrating stages in the process of learning.
3.3.3 In the wake of these developments one can discern a shift of focus from the traditional concept of the mastery of English structure achieved through 'a list of items' to teach, in other words, 'lists of structures to teach' to a question of mastering not only structures but also 'meanings' or 'uses'. Thus the new trend emphasising lists of meanings or uses has to be duly incorporated with the list of structures in a comprehensive syllabus design. The traditional view of syllabus as a list of structures alone becomes inadequate.

3.3.4 Wilkins (1972) proposes two categories - (a) meaning and (b) use, suitable for a syllabus design. The first category he calls 'semanto-grammatical' and this is akin to what we call 'concepts'; they are semantic categories because they are items of meaning. But Wilkins includes the word 'grammatical' in his label to recognise the fact that they relate fairly directly to grammatical categories. The second category is 'communicative function', i.e., the uses to which we put language. This has come to be popularly known as 'functions'. Functions do not relate directly to grammatical categories. Wilkins (1976) holds that we should include his semanto-grammatical and functional categories as the means of listing concepts and uses in our syllabus. He uses the term 'notional syllabus' to describe a syllabus containing such lists -- a cover term to refer to his two categories. Wilkins' proposal
(1972), a contribution to the Council of Europe work on the development of a language teaching system suitable for teaching all the languages in the Council's member countries, provides a framework for listing 'meaning' for the purpose of syllabus design. Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978) presents an exhaustive list of "micro-skills" from which the shorter lists of particular skills needed by a learner can be assembled. He gives a detailed inventory of "micro-functions", also from which the necessary selection can be made.

3.3.5 The development of notional/functional criteria or for that matter, even the communicative aims and procedures of language teaching have been subject to criticism. There is a feeling, and perhaps rightly so, that the attacks on traditional grammatical syllabuses have sometimes been overstated. Emphasis on methodological procedures which 'contextualise' and make the language 'meaningful' by plenty of activity in 'life-like situations' with suggestions about how to 'situationalise' the language material presented in the syllabus have not been taken very favourably (Brumfit, 1981). There can be no disputing the fact that the traditional grammatical syllabuses neglected non-grammatical features of communication but as Swan (1981 : 23) remarks, "the outright rejection of the conventional wisdom" is as mistaken as a thoughtless
embracing of the prevalent fashion. He asserts, "narrowly communicative syllabuses are unlikely to be any more effective than earlier syllabuses". Swan gives us the timely warning that if the earlier approaches emphasised 'form' at the expense of 'meaning' or 'use' the opposite should not be allowed to happen now. It is interesting to note that in the index to Munby's (1978) there are no entries for grammar or structure. The vital question, then, that engages our attention is what in the light of our present knowledge is the best way of shaping out proposals for new forms of syllabus design in order to achieve the practical purposes to which language teaching is directed today. We can convincingly argue that it would be wiser to utilise contemporary insights as an enrichment to the existing dimensions of language especially as a battle against 'communicative incompetence', and to reach communicative aims within a framework of a 'marriage of functions and structures'.

3.3.6 The concept of the syllabus is directly linked with certain objectives. We can not think of a syllabus without any aims behind it. An ESP syllabus must naturally have specific aims but it must be acknowledged that however specific or limited our purposes may be syllabus can not be specific to the same degree, it must include some general or non-specific objective. Moreover, there is no such thing as a single compact syllabus, communicative or
notional or structural or anyother. There can be various syllabuses corresponding to the various objectives and points of view from which language can be described, and a language teaching programme will contain elements drawn from some or all of them. A syllabus can be viewed as a multidimensional instrument in which the focus of attention is allowed to change as the course develops, and which is drawn from unidimensional syllabus inventories in accordance with learners' needs and purposes. Thus phonological, lexical, structural, notional, functional, situational, rhetorical, stylistic etc. constitute such syllabus inventories and contribute to a syllabus design. Some of these inventories appear to be essential to any course design while some of them could be totally excluded depending on the purpose, and some of them may appear to overlap in a certain syllabus. These inventories can lead to syllabuses of different orientations with structure and lexis as fundamental. It must be acknowledged that a semantic orientation does not replace or exclude a structural orientation. We must incorporate semantic insights into a syllabus design, but, as Swan (1981 : 27) categorically asserts, "structures will have to be learnt and they have not become mysteriously easier over the last few years".

3.3.7 A syllabus must make possible opportunities for both 'accuracy' and 'fluency', in other words,

system and use. A grammatical specification of syllabus is essential because syntax is the only generative system so far described for language and a generative system is more economical than a non-generative taxonomy of items. Brumfit (1981:65) very wisely stresses this point and suggests 'a cross fertilisation' between grammatical and functional categories but with the grammatical system fundamental to it, to base a syllabus on a 'genuine system' (i.e. syntax) and to use a list of basic functions simply as a checklist, to be integrated methodologically into the practical working out of the syllabus in teaching. This will make us view syllabus, in Brumfit's words as a "grammatical leader with a functional spiral around it"¹ and would be a sensible approach to take.

3.3.8 Some of the essential factors of an ESP course design which can serve as a general guideline can be listed as under:

(1) Sociological: information regarding the kind of learner and his requirement for learning the language; age of the learner, previous experience of English and level of attainment in English; learner's needs and uses, e.g., academic, job, profession etc. to which he will be required to put English.

(2) Linguistic: linguistic content of the variety of language to be used for particular purposes.
   a) Code features of the language system, e.g., vocabulary and syntax.
   b) Communicative features of language use, e.g., defining, describing, explaining, classifying, making deductions etc.
(3) Pedagogic: Particular tasks requiring particular skills, e.g., involving linguistic, functional, communicative skills; selection of skills and the sequence of their presentation. The very concept of ESP demands that each course must be different, each uniquely geared to the purposes and interests of the learners participating in it. Needs and purposes are undoubtedly the determinant of a syllabus design but sociological and linguistic features pertaining to each group of learners will have to be given due consideration. A group of learners may have common needs but their proficiency in English prior to joining an ESP course may vary. While the native ESP learner may preferably be given training in the specialist vocabulary of his designated area of study or vocation a non-native may require a reinforcement of the general vocabulary also. Again, among the non-natives the same yardstick will not be very suitable to apply. The levels of proficiency among the non-natives are bound to vary, e.g. a non-native with a poor or even nil attainment in English will require General English + ESP; a non-native with EFL level of proficiency may
be given 'Core course' in General English + ESP; similarly a non-native with ESL level of proficiency may sometimes be found fit for ESP alone. Assessment of the levels of proficiency, therefore, has to be kept parallel to the assessment of needs and purposes and the findings of these together will contribute to the design of a syllabus.

3.4 Materials

3.4.1 Syllabus specification is naturally followed by the production of appropriate teaching materials. Unlike general ELT where course books organised around general human interest topics, situations etc., could either be readily available to the teacher or produced by course book writers ESP demands that the materials will relate to the learner's subject-job specialism. ESP materials have thus a special feature; they can best be produced by those who are involved with the course directly and are fully aware of the requirements of their students not only in terms of the subject matter but also in terms of level, of functions and of skills.

3.4.2 Despite the growing number of published ESP textbooks any sort of theoretical framework for materials production is difficult to formalise, perhaps each case is very different from the other. Much helpful information can still be gleaned from an analysis of various important published materials, as with syllabus design. And this analysis will serve a twofold purpose. Firstly it may provide some sort of systematisation of the various approaches to
materials, a welcome step by itself, and secondly, it may reveal how far the claims of ESP are justified by the materials produced specially for the purpose.

3.4.3 The available ESP materials can be classified under two broad categories, viz., (a) several series of books (b) materials/textbooks defined by topic. We propose to offer a brief review and examine the aims of some of the significant materials from both the categories, and to arrive at certain conclusions as to the application of several approaches therein and their suitability for the projected aims.

3.4.4 Special English Series (Collier-Macmillan) introduces titles on a wide range of technical subjects, e.g., Air Travel, Advertising, Computer Programming, Nursing, Seafaring etc. Each volume, it is claimed, illustrates the special English of a particular trade or profession in both its spoken and written form. Aimed at students with a "good grounding in basic grammar and vocabulary" but who want to improve their English "within the framework of technical vocabulary, that is of interest, either privately or professionally", the series represents an interesting juncture of two dimensions of register analysis, i.e., technical vocabulary and colloquial or informal speech.

3.4.5 English Studies Series (Oxford University Press) is one of the older ESP series covering mostly academic areas in social, physical and applied sciences.
Aimed at university students as a kind of help in their reading and writing each book contains 20-30 extracts from authentic texts simplified but graded by difficult level, demonstrating a range of styles, followed by comprehension and other language exercises. Some of the exercises deal with elementary points of grammar, e.g., articles and prepositions, assuming it to be an area of common mistakes, and also include relative clauses, verb/tenses, modals, and some advanced structures. Vocabulary exercises are generally of the one-word substitution type and discriminating between near synonyms. The series perhaps helps more in a general consolidation in English than it helps the requirement of a special subject area.

3.4.6 English for Careers Series (Regents, New York), a large series mainly on the technical side, aims to give "a general introduction to both the opportunities and problems" involved in different professional and vocational fields covered, e.g., tourism, air travel, hospital services, banking and accounting etc. The emphasis is on vocabulary exclusively. The learners are assumed to have acquired most of the structural patterns of English..."his or her principal goals as a learner should be to master vocabulary, to use the various structural patterns in a normal mixture and to improve his or her overall ability to communicate in English". It is not clear, however, how students are
to improve their 'overall ability to communicate (as no skills are referred to) with vocabulary lists and slot filling vocabulary exercises provided.

3.4.7 English for Special Purposes Series (Evans Brothers) is a fairly new series, all with accompanying cassettes and includes titles like English for Bank Cashiers, English for Hotel Staff as also Listening and Note-taking, Reading Scientific Texts etc. The material used is mostly authentic and exercises focus on vocabulary, and on the manipulation of structural patterns different in form but similar in function. Specialist vocabulary items are practised within contextualised dialogues. The different units are short and linked to the taped material. They can conveniently be used for self-study.

3.4.8 Nucleus-English for Science and Technology: (Longmans) presents a corebook General Science and related books for different subject specialisms, e.g., Biology, Engineering, Chemistry, Geology, Medicine, Agriculture, Mathematics, Nursing Science etc. Each book is accompanied by Teacher's Notes, and cassette material. The series is aimed at "beginning students in higher education who...have some knowledge of General English but who need to reactivate this knowledge and apply it to the comprehension of written and spoken discourse". It aims to introduce the learner to the uses of English which are essential to
scientific and technological communication. The core-
book presents and practises language which is shared
by the various branches of science and technology with
a focus on, (a) vocabulary items of general use and
semi-technical items and (b) essential grammar items
such as passive, modals, sentence connectives etc.
Each special subject textbook follows the same concept-
tual sequence as the corebook but uses more specialised
language. The texts are generally short and non-authentic.

3.4.9  *English in Focus Series* (Oxford University
Press) aims to develop in students who are entering
higher education "an ability to handle the kind of
written English that they will be concerned with as
an integral part of their specialist subjects...the
purpose is to make students aware of the way English
is used in written communication and thereby to help
them develop techniques of reading and to provide them
with a guide for their own writing. The Focus Series
is significant in that it is organised around the concept
of communicative teaching. Allen, one of the editors
of the series holds, "in preparing the focus series we
have consistently taken the view that an EST programme
should aim to give effect to a communicative view of
language."

Widdowson, the other editor supports him
by stating that "a concern with ESP/EST necessarily
entails a concern with communicative competence".

tice, British Council.
In pursuance of these general objectives the Focus books contain reading passages with the following exercises focussing on aspects of it as a 'text'. The textbooks exemplify an interest in connectives and in cohesion and also in the structuring and sequencing of rhetorical functions. 'Relationship between statements' for practising the use of connectives and 'rephrasing', searching in the text for synonyms of words given in the exercise for vocabulary consolidation, are generally thought useful. Grammar exercises focus on the familiar structures of most books in scientific English, e.g., short form relative clauses, noun+noun constructions, -ing structures and the passive. But many of these exercises are traditional, mechanical, re-writing types. "Information transfer" exercises, i.e., writing a piece from a diagram or producing a diagram to explain a piece have been much admired. Inspite of the manifold virtues the Focus series is generally regarded as theoretically sound but pedagogically weak.

3.4.10 ELTDU Materials (Oxford University Press) do not form a series but on the basis of certain similarities they can be treated as a group. They cover commercial and technical fields in a non-academic way. The materials are aimed at or near the intermediate level, providing a mixture of traditional and modern ideas. Each course contains a certain amount of grammar presented through traditional drills alongwith free-ranging role-play exercises and other devices to promote
discussion. Thus ELTDU materials incorporate the national/functional components into the grammatical exercise types, a mixture which appears to succeed. The methods of data collection and selection are not explained by the course writers but the texts appear to be both realistic and relevant.

3.4.11 Next to the series of books, as indicated above, are materials defined by topic which can be placed under subject-specific categories, viz., social sciences, physical sciences, technology, medicine, commerce and lastly study skills. Since the number of published books under each category is fairly large it is proposed to consider briefly some of the significant and well known titles from different categories.

3.4.12 Social sciences are rather poorly represented in ESP. Some textbooks are, however, available in the fields of law, economics and journalism etc. which seem to focus on the teaching or listing of vocabulary. Mc Arthur's work for students of economics is a fairly lively book with plenty of grammar and vocabulary exercises, aimed at practising reading comprehension. Textbooks on the physical sciences represent a wide range of approaches and aims, intended for various levels - advanced, intermediate, and even the beginner. Thus Ewer and Latorre's (1969) A Course in Scientific English, and Croft and Brown's (1965) Science Readings for Students of English as a Second Language, draw
upon frequency studies in the selection of materials whereas Swales' (1971) Writing Scientific English is a result of the analysis of various types of scientific texts and is aimed specifically at writing. The BBC course 'Scientifically Speaking' with its focus on vocabulary is thought to introduce spoken language.

3.4.13 ESP materials on technology can be located in both EAP and EOP. Thus engineering as a subject of study in higher education is served by several textbooks with an academic bias. The practical needs of the engineer on the job as well as other technical workers are served by a number of publications. For all the levels the emphasis is mostly on the vocabulary and reading. Textbooks on medicine (of which a detailed review will be made in a later chapter) are mostly general grammar consolidation, with or without vocabulary work. They concentrate mainly on reading, with very little on speaking or even listening.

3.4.14 There is a large number of textbooks in the area of commerce, particularly in the general field of office practice and business management. Most of these works are intended for beginners and near beginners, pursue the traditional structural syllabus practising all the language skills with a specialist vocabulary, guiding to write business letters concentrating on layout and basic grammar points.

3.4.15 Study skills is still an underdeveloped area in ESP in terms of published materials. Most
of the work is in the form of articles. This is an area where the needs of foreign and native learners are seen to overlap. Mention must be made of Purvis' (1978) Read and Note: English Study Skills for Science and Medicine, a significant study which is specially valuable for the practice of note-taking. Note taking is not necessarily an academic skill but also used by secretaries and other people in commercial situations. Listening to lectures, reading strategies, use of libraries, essay and thesis planning, writing in general are areas receiving attention of many scholars in the field of study skills.

3.4.16 Some of the main features of the materials reviewed above can be summarised as under:

a) Both structural and notional/communicative approaches have been adopted in the preparation of ESP materials. ESP is considered by many to belong more appropriately to the communicative approach but much requires to be done in the expression of that theory in materials.

b) Very few textbooks are based on any kind of register analysis although a number of them in the area of science make reference to the supposed importance of passive. Some course writers refer to the value of language used by people in work situations and using that language or work based on it for their courses.
c) Most textbooks have been prepared for adults although some of the newer ones are for use in schools. Most of the books assume an intermediate level of competence. A great many, including those aimed higher, include some general, even remedial grammar as well as work on the special grammar of the subject area. Many course writers have their own set of working assumptions in the treatment of specialist grammar.

d) Many reading courses use authentic texts. Opinions, however, differ on the use of authentic texts. Much objection has been levelled in recent years against authentic texts.

e) Lastly but most significantly, vocabulary appears to be a key issue in ESP materials. Materials belonging to various subject specialisms ranging among diverse levels draw upon a heavy component of vocabulary. Some of the course writers use it indirectly and at times even claim that this is not what they are concerned with. Approaches to vocabulary teaching, testing and rehearsing, however, vary greatly. Still, majority of course writers treat vocabulary within the registral framework with plenty of traditional drills.

Much remains to be done in the area of ESP materials especially with regard to the treatment of specialist vocabulary and specialist grammar, modes of lexical and grammatical explanations, the amount of language
to be given to the learner, the incorporation of communicative strategies and the provision of an activity based language for subject/job specific courses. Appropriate and relevant materials will yield better results.

3.5 Methodology

3.5.1 During the last fifty years or so there has been a tremendous emphasis on methodological procedures of language teaching. Exciting new procedures and techniques that have been developed are sometimes seen as a reaction to the old and outdated practices. The publication in 1933 of Leonard Bloomfield's *Language* marks one of the most important events of the first fifty years of twentieth century linguistics not only academically but in many fields of applied linguistic enquiry. Bloomfield and his disciples, in their attacks on traditional school grammars, pioneered the development of new techniques of native and foreign language teaching. Bloomfield's analysis of language as a set of identifiable 'signals' described within a system of signals with little or no overt reliance on meaning was a work well attuned to its day. He preached a grammar of observed structures and advocated study of language by an analysis of the distribution of the elements identified.

3.5.2 Quick, easy and permanent learning has often attracted the attention of educationists as
well as psychologists. All the theories of learning started from both educational practice and psychological research. Of the different theories evolved at different stages the most significant are those known as behaviouristic and cognitive. The behaviourists hold that mental processes can not be measured as such; they can be measured only in terms of behaviour and habit formation. The cognitive approach, on the other hand, claims that everything can not be simplified in terms of behaviour, we must take into account the cognitive powers of the mind. Behaviourists' contribution to the psychology of learning can briefly be enumerated in the works of some representative figures, namely Thorndike (law of readiness, law of exercise, law of effect etc.), Pavlov (conditioned reflex), Skinner (S-R: stimulus - Response), Tolman (purposive behaviour), Hall (S H R: Stimulus - Habit - Response); and then the Gestalt psychologists who found Similarity, Proximity, Closure as fundamental principles underlying all learning. The neuro-physiological school represented by Penfield and Hebb emphasises the associative capacity of the human brain as distinct from the merely sensory of the animal brain.

3.5.3 Bloomfield's proposals for a structural grammar are closely linked with the behaviouristic psychology as characterised by scholars like Watson and Skinner. The influence of Bloomfield was carried
onward through the forties and the fifties by Fries, Francis, Roberts and Levin. The authoritarianism of old traditional courses and Bloomfield's overstated case of structuralism would have resulted in a state of anarchy in the language classroom had not Chomsky, Halliday, Lyons, Lamb and others presented theoretical viewpoints which reasserted the notional basis of grammar and rejected Bloomfield's mechanistic structuralism on scholarly grounds. It is this movement which seemed to have restored some measure of balance but it must also be admitted that this situation caused considerable confusion for the language teacher and reminded him of the need for a cautious eclecticism in all the approaches to theory, particularly the theory dealing with the nature of language and language teaching.

3.5.4 More recently, however, the premises of earlier models of language learning are being attacked and new sources of power and influence aided with applied linguistic research in language teaching theory, materials and syllabuses are appearing in the English language teaching area. The conscientious teacher is faced with a dilemma either to carry on with his personal modification of the earlier tradition or to follow new slogans. He is being tossed about in a sea of conflicting advice. Hence the need for certain general principles to be established in the field of methodology.
3.5.5 Methodology grows out of a synthesis of various ingredients like the psychology of learning, organisation of teaching materials and the context of teaching. While the first is unchangeable, the second under the control of the teacher, the third may be either known or unpredictable. A consistent methodology is more than just a collection of techniques. It requires an underlying set of principles in the light of which specific procedures can be evaluated, related and applied. Research both experimental and observational, an essential pre-requisite of an efficient educational system helps in assessing the effectiveness, or otherwise, of the system and informing us about the alternatives. Thus method can broadly be defined as some overall means of achieving the general objectives of a course; a method will be realised as the carrying out of a set of procedures or activities chosen by the teacher because they together relate coherently to the way in which it is hoped to achieve the course objectives. A method is thus seen as a set of procedures, the procedures themselves involve the use of specific techniques to ensure their success. The success of a method will naturally depend on how effectively it provides to synthesise the various elements in a teaching situation.

3.5.6 The three vital elements of the teaching situation are obviously the teacher, the pupils and the demands of the subject matter. While the pupils will be judged in terms of aptitude, attitude, motivation, age, previous language experience etc., the
criterion for teachers will normally entail such factors as training, use of resources, methodology chosen and techniques applied. Some other internal as well as external factors affect the encounter between the teacher and the pupils in the classroom situation, viz., national educational policy for language teaching, social situation which causes particular languages to be taught, local situational factors like the size of the class, time allotted and the quantity of instruction allowed, resources like materials, syllabuses, textbooks, audio-visual aids etc., available to the teacher. A successful method will be one which seeks to establish the most productive relationship between the teacher and the pupils to cope with the demands of the subject matter.

3.5.7 Changes in the methodology of English language teaching usually come from two main sources: changes in our attitude to language under the influence of advances made in linguistic research and secondly, changes in the social demands made on the language. The concept of ESP has emerged under both these influences. This development poses a vital question - do we need to evolve an absolutely new type of methodology for ESP? There seems to be a general feeling that the methodology of ESP instruction both in the classroom and in the textbook should be somewhat different from what has gone before. Hesketh (1974) stresses
the need for "a teacher who is flexible and adaptable". Similarly, Drobnic (1978) emphasises the importance of flexibility in an ESP course especially regarding books and materials. The value of a modular course, not relying on one textbook alone but using a variety of materials has also been stressed upon. ESP has thus been treated as a system in its own right and not simply 'something extra' which can be tagged on to the body of conventional practices and assumptions subsumed in general ELT.

3.5.8 Some writers on methodology, on the other hand, take pains to demonstrate that familiar equipment and methods which might be thought inappropriate for ESP can in fact be used for it, for example, simple audio-visual aids and language laboratory. Swales (1970) describes some lively language lab drills for use on a service course, such as a sequence of 'listen to instructions -- draw a diagram following the instructions -- write a paragraph describing the diagram', etc. These exercises could equally well be used on a


general language course. As a matter of fact, the success of an ESP course will depend on a selection of procedures tried and tested over the years incorporating, of course, the new insights available to the present age. Any new methodology does not destroy all that has gone before. It should rather endeavour to evolve an organic synthesis of all that is most useful in the language teaching world today. Moreover it is the appropriateness of the linguistic content which is more important than methodological techniques, as the latter are determined with reference to the former and adapted to the varying requirements of the teaching situation. Ewer's (1976) categorical remark supports this line of argument:

Contrary to a surprisingly common misapprehension ESP does not rely for its implementation on some new and magic system of classroom methodology but on all the methods evolved over the decades by conventional ELT.¹

3.5.9 Other possible features of an ESP methodology derive from its association with communicative and functional approaches to language teaching. Some of the exercise types have definitely arisen with ESP (e.g., use of games, projects, role-play etc.) because of its greater attention to 'relevant' language practice, to students' motivation and needs.

and to the efficiency of teaching and learning. But we must, at the same time, consider the fact that the new exercise types can not be declared entirely inappropriate for general ELT.

3.5.10 Another type of methodology with which ESP is specially associated is that involved in the use of authentic materials. The second Isfahan Conference on ESP suggested that "methodology...must... at some stage involve stimulation, role rehearsal, approximation of real-life language usage and a concern with authentic information." This approach emphasises role performance on the part of an ESP learner, i.e., conducting an experiment mending a water pump, audit some accounts etc. Thus we find courses where some or all of the teaching is done in a laboratory or workshop. An opposing view is taken by Widdowson (1976) who attacks the direct confrontation of learners with authentic material on the ground that this confuses terminal or target behaviour with the means to obtain it. He observes, "the pedagogy of any subject aims at guiding learners towards their terminal behaviour by the contrivance of appropriate intervening stages." And these intervening stages are to be manipulated not for exposing the learner to genuine instances of discourse in his subject specialism but for developing

1. Documents from the 2nd Regional Conference on ESP, Isfahan, Iran, 6th-10th Nov., 1977, British Council.

an awareness of the conventions of communication. "We do not begin with authenticity; authenticity is what the learners should ultimately achieve" (Widdowson, 1979:166). Opinions on the use of authentic material differ. It also produces a dilemma for the teachers and designers of ESP courses. Recently, there has developed a tendency among ESP practitioners to try to de-emphasise authentic subject matter from specialist areas. A British Council conference on ESP in 1980 upheld that it was not particularly important to draw upon the students' specialist subject area. Elsewhere, Huthinson and Waters (1980) suggest that the subject matter required by ESP students, especially those of EST, is in fact general background material. In the event, we would be well advised to make our selection from the specialist discourse, narrow it down to the relevant level of instruction by simplifying the content extracted from the source, i.e., the kind of texts that the learner will eventually have to read. We need to typify a kind of discourse and this is possible without using full length instances.

3.5.11 In ESP we are primarily concerned with developing a methodology which will reconcile rhetorical conventions with the teaching of the linguistic conventions of the code. Formal models of linguistic description can be of immense help in this direction but we have to develop pedagogic descriptions to design effective methodologies. The main responsibility for achieving best results and for leading the
learner towards the required terminal behaviour ad-
mittedly rests on the shoulders of the teacher of
English.

3.6 Teacher Training

3.6.1 Teaching of English has meant several things
to different people and institutions at different
times -- from the teaching of grammar, rhetoric
followed by literary master-pieces to a vague concern
for the aesthetic and moral development of the pupils
under the care of the English teacher. Recently,
however, a thoroughly desirable change took place
reflecting a wide variety of motives for which English
is taught and learnt. Many institutions now offer
courses with the word 'language' in the title, recog-
nising that it is becoming something of a vogue
area. A large number of institutions do seem to be
concerned to deal with 'language work' but feel that
this should be done in a general and non-theoretical
way. Perhaps general language courses need more care-
ful considerations as they must certainly be geared
to the needs of the 'general student' who always
constitute the majority.

3.6.2 The course planners and the teachers of a
language course must surely make certain that it
reflects what we know systematically about language,
not merely passing on traditional myths but legiti-
mate interpretations of the current state of our
knowledge. Common sense alone is insufficient to
answer many of the problems which will arise in considering the complexities of language. One can, no doubt, build up one's own framework but there already exists a fair wealth of experience which we can consult. There is in existence a core of knowledge and theory about language to draw up and those involved in it must be acquainted with it. What is necessary is a programme of re-education at all levels of the system and the programme must be planned. The over practical 'tips for teacher' approach is liable to create confusion because even the most specific 'tip' must relate to some theoretical position and the teacher must be able to relate theoretical position to the requirements of classroom practice. Obviously the theories behind practices are important and require to be known.

3.6.3 With regard to ESP the problem of trained teachers is rather more acute. The provision of an adequate supply of teachers is a serious problem for ESP courses in many parts of the world. In most cases the people teaching and administering ESP programmes have themselves received no special training in ESP. The report on an ESP seminar held in Manila in 1978 notes that most of the participants are 'university teachers who had found themselves thrust willy-nilly into ESP and Service English programmes in their institutions.' many of the teachers handling both 'general'

and specific purpose' language courses have a traditional literary background. Although the number of teachers with recognised TEFL/Applied Linguistics qualifications has increased in recent years we must admit that their training may not have included a component on ESP teaching. To overcome this situation Moody (1975) suggests that there is an argument for a "conversion course to methods of material writing and teaching for ESP."¹

3.6.4 A vital component of any teacher training programme, for ESP in particular and for general ELT in general appears to be a change of attitude of the teachers towards 'language' and towards some of the other subject specialisms more particularly science. Most of the English teachers generally academically trained in the literary tradition are reluctant and feel uneasy about teaching 'language', a job reserved for the few specially qualified for TEFL in the department. When it comes to science and other subject specialism even the TEFL qualified teachers get bored and do not feel concerned with the special linguistic features contained therein. Swales (1975) points out that when asked to teach EST they experience "a crisis of confidence and tend to treat a scientific text as they would a literary one, ignoring many relevant and

useful types of exploitation."\(^1\) ESP clients are usually identified by their subject/job specific subject matter and an apathy to the source is likely to spoil their motivation and their needs not fully catered for.

3.6.5 Ewer (1976) suggests that there are five problems for teachers when considering EST - first is the problem of attitude as mentioned above, second is conceptual, i.e., difficulty in grasping the concepts of science, a third problem is a linguistic one, i.e., special lexical and structural features of scientific English. Fourthly, there may be a problem with methodology as most EST courses are concentrated at the late secondary or tertiary level. Finally, there is the organisational problem of how to set up an EST programme.\(^2\) Ewers' analysis is quite comprehensive and can be utilised for a phased orientation course for teachers of ESP. The demands ESP makes on teachers are considerably greater than those in the traditional general ELT programmes, and the necessary changes in attitude and performance will only be achieved by means of systematic in-service training and gradual adjustment and accommodation made by practising teachers in the light of their own experience.


3.6.6 An effective teacher training programme would be one which concentrates on the components vital to the teaching of language in general and to ESP/EST in particular. It should be based on a selection of insights from the whole range of theoretical and descriptive studies of language incorporating a process of adaptation to the requirements of teaching. It must provide a guidance in the form of a set of basic pedagogic principles which the teachers bring to bear on particular teaching situations. The language teacher needs an explicit conceptual framework with which he can devise particular teaching strategies. What we can hope to do is to illustrate useful approaches and to put the trainee in a better position to make his own choice. It is important to distinguish between education and indoctrination. There is no one model of language which has the monopoly on the truth. It is the teacher's model which is relevant to his purpose.

3.6.7 Alongside the usual components of an orientation course in linguistic theory and applied linguistic techniques directed towards language learning and language teaching the ESP trainee teachers need to be exposed to the special lexical, structural and rhetorical features of the language of science and the subject specialisms, including symbols and abbreviations. The trainees' 'conceptual vacuum' is filled in by readings on science and technology, by visits to
to scientific and technical institutions and by building up the portfolios of informative material and visual aids. The trainee teachers should be given lectures on scientific data and methodology, taught by the subject specialist as recommended by the Isfahan Conference (1977)\textsuperscript{1} also. Contact with subject specialist teachers offers substantial help in understanding the complexities of subject specialist discourse as well as in assessing the language requirements of the would-be specialist learner. Still another part of the training programme will deal with the production of teaching material from specialist texts.

3.6.8 The recent enormous increase in sophistication of materials and techniques has not been matched, and perhaps can never perfectly be, in the teacher training courses. Recognition of this gap is a joint responsibility of the trainers and trainees. Classroom methodology is dynamic and must keep pace with continual developments. Teachers' education is also a continuing process. "The best trainers of teachers are teachers themselves" (Strevens, 1980: 45).

\textsuperscript{1} See 3.5.10.