CHAPTER 3

Course Design, Approaches and Methods of Teaching ESP
Chapter – 3

COURSE DESIGN, APPROACHES AND METHODS OF TEACHING ESP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

At present ESP is the most vibrant and innovative area of language teaching and research. ESP assesses needs and integrates motivation, subject matter and content for teaching of relevant skills. In an ESP program the teacher plays a vital role. An ESP teacher analyses the students need, helps them to develop their self confidence and motivates them towards language learning. While discussing about ESP practitioners Dudley- Evans & St. John (1998) added:

The ESP practitioners should play five important role: teacher, course designer, materials provider, collaborator, researcher & evaluator (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p.97).

Though the ESP curriculum is being designed by the teacher himself based on the needs of learners, still there are some issues that he/she should keep in mind while designing the course.

Course design is one of the most essential elements on the part of the ESP course developer. Designer Hutchinson and Waters (1987) highlighted some important factors affecting ESP course design, they are Language Descriptions, Theories of Learning and Needs Analysis; though these three factors seem to be three different entities, they are still independent and interlinked to each other in the process of ESP course design. Fig.5 on page no. 33 shows the relationships.
Factors affecting ESP course design

Fig. 5 Factors affecting ESP course design. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.22).
3.2 LANGUAGE DESCRIPTIONS

Language has been described in a number of ways by various developing schools of thought in Linguistics. It is the main concern of the course designer where language description can be properly and effectively used in developing the course of ESP learners. There are six major stages of development in language which affect ESP teaching.

3.2.1 Classical or Traditional Grammar:

This variety had a wide influence on the descriptions of English and other languages because they are based on the grammar of classical languages, Greek and Latin. Here language is described on the basis of the function of each word in a particular sentence:

ESP emerged after the classical form of description had been largely abandoned, hence its influence on ESP has never been strong (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.24).

3.2.2 Structural Linguistics:

In 1930 Bloomfield introduced structural linguistics where:

The grammar of the language is described in terms of syntagmatic structures which carry the fundamental propositions (statement, interrogative, negative, imperative, etc) and notions (time, number, gender, etc) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, P.24).

Structural syllabus facilitates language learners with systematic description of the generative core of the language, and with this limited variety of structures, the learner is able to produce different innumerable sentences. As this syllabus is being widely accepted in English Language
Teaching Ewer and Lattore also made use of ‘structural percepts’ in developing ESP syllabus.

3.2.3 Transformational Generative grammar:

The structural linguistics view was challenged by Noam Chomsky’s publication in 1957 of *Syntactic Structure*. Chomsky criticized structuralists view saying that it describes language only at surface level and it fails to explain: “relationships of meaning which were quite clearly there” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.26).

Chomsky further mentioned that language cannot be viewed in isolation, it is a process of human mind and hence a sentence possesses two levels of meaning. One is a deep level concerned with the organization of thoughts and a surface level where these thoughts are expressed through syntax of the language. Thus the grammar of the language is not the surface structure but the rules that enable the language user to generate the surface structure from the deep level of meaning. Chomsky asserted that language is rule governed. His idea to incorporate the relationship between language and form influenced ESP by making the difference between performance (i.e., the surface structures) and competence (i.e. the deep end rules) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.27). In its initial stages of development, ESP stressed more on explaining the performance needed for communication in target situation and ignored the competence behind it.

Hymes (1972) viewed competence as not only a set of rules for formulating grammatically correct sentences but also knowledge of when and how to communicate correctly. His communicative competence give rise to the next three stages of development termed as language variations and register analysis, language as functions and discourse analysis.
3.2.4 Language variations and register analysis:
Register analysis defines that language varies according to the context of use and it helps to differentiate formal from informal, written from spoken, self-sufficient language from context-dependent language. If language varies according to context it is easy to identify the kind of language associated with specific context, such as an area of knowledge or an area of use. Ewer and Lattore (1966) and Swales (1971) did remarkable work on register analysis based on the language of Science.

3.2.5 Functional or notional Grammar:
The next work on language as communication which influences ESP is functional and notional concept of language descriptions. Functions are concerned with social behavior and represent the intention of the speaker or writer whereas notions reflect the way in which human mind thinks. It is the type where:

The mind and thereby language divides reality. E.g. time, frequency, duration, gender number (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.31).

The catch behind the functional syllabus is that it appears to be based on language in use which is opposite to structural syllabus which reflects only on form.

3.2.6 Discourse (Rhetorical Analysis):
The next development that influences ESP is Discourse (Rhetorical) analysis. This language description highlights that:

An utterance acquires meaning by virtue of what utterances it precedes or follows (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.34).
The discourse analysis helps the ESP learners by making them more efficient readers, making them aware of the underlying structure of the text and the way in which language has been organised. The different developments discussed are not separate entities neither they are independent nor complete in itself, rather each description is based on the ideas of the former one and each has got its own place in the ESP course design. Various language descriptions are the different angles of looking at the same thing and reaching the same goal (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

3.3 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Another important aspect of language teaching is how students learn a language because language learning capacity is totally a process of human mind. So it is very essential to keep in view the language learning theories. The major theories related to language teaching and how they influence ESP learners are:

3.3.1 Behaviourism: learning as habit formation:

This theory is primarily derived from the work of Pavlov and Skinner. Behaviourist's school of language learning views that:

Language learning is a mechanical process of habit formation and proceeds by means of frequent reinforcement of stimulus response sequence (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.40).

ESP practitioners also apply this theory for learning by developing the pattern practice exercises.
3.3.2 Mentalism: Thinking as rule governed:

The behaviorist theory was criticized by Chomsky on the ground that:

There was a vague concept of generalization in behaviorist theory which is never classified rightly (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.42).

He viewed that thinking is a “rule governed behavior” and learning comprises not of forming habits but of acquiring rules. The mentalism theory says that mind does not respond to a stimulus, it uses the individual stimuli in order to find the underlying pattern or system. The theory of mentalism is very important because it gives rise to cognitive theory which plays an important role in ESP course design.

3.3.3 Cognitive code: learner as thinking being:

The mentalist idea of mind as a governing body in the learning process gave rise to the cognitive theory of learning. Cognitive view considers that the learner’s mind is the actual source of information (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). According to this theory the learner is an active participant in the learning process; he tries to make sense of the things presented to him, and learns through solving the exercises. The cognitive theory learning has had a vital effect on ESP teaching where language is taught through problem solving tasks.

3.3.4 The affective factor: learners as emotional being:

Though human beings think rationally or practically, they also have feelings and emotions, they are not just a thinking being but emotional in nature also. Thus the learning process is also influenced by human emotions. The affective factor stresses the emotional cues as an important part in language learning. The cognitive and emotional aspect if put together, lead to very important aspects in ESP learning and that is
motivation. Motivation of the student affects their learning the most (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

3.3.5 Needs Analysis:

The next important factor that affects the ESP course design is Needs Analysis. It actually determines the type of communication a learner requires to learn when they are put to perform in a specific situation. The need can be of two types, the target centred needs and the learning centred needs. The target need is that which focuses on the language use, i.e. what language or language skills learners need to perform in their target situation, where as learner centred needs is based on analyzing what skills of strategies learners are going to apply in order to achieve the target language (Hutchinson and Water, 1987).

3.4 ISSUES RELATED TO ESP COURSE DESIGN

Recently, Basturkmen came up with slightly different views in ESP course design. The four different issues involved are:

i. The topic of language varieties.

ii. The topic of need analysis.

iii. The topic of the syllabus.

iv. The topic of wide versus narrow angled course design.

(Basturkmen, 2006, p.15).

3.4.1 Varieties of language:

The term variety of language refers to registers of language use e.g. English in business, English in Academic Settings, English in Media and English for everyday conversation. Basturkmen (2006) argued “language
varieties are based in and extend from a common core of language” and “language varieties are self contained entities” (p.28).

3.4.1.1 The common core plus:

There is a common core of general language drawn in all areas of life and work. The figure given below shows a representation of common core language and its relationship to language varieties (Pitt Corder, 1993, as cited in Basturkmen, 2006, p.16). The inner section represents basic language which includes common words and sentence structures which can be used in all situations.

Fig. 6 Common core view of Language St. Pitt Corder: Introduction to Applied Linguistics; 1993.

Pitt Corder (1993) criticized this view and described it as an abstraction (cited in Basturkmen, 2006, p.16). He further commented that the utility of such a notion is rather doubtful. For example, if a learner intends to talk with a news editor in a foreign language, then only vocabulary which are part of media language cater to his needs; where many of them occurs very rare in language as a whole. To this Basturkmen (2006) suggested
the idea that, different varieties of English are based on common set of grammatical and other Linguistics characteristics have been widespread.

3.4.1.2 All language is specific purpose:

Another perspective in varieties of language is that there is no common core of language. The core is a very vital part of anyone of the numerous varieties of the language.

Bloor and Bloor (1986) commented:

All language learning acquired from one variety or another, even if it is; classroom variety. A language learner is as likely to acquire the language from one variety as from another, but the use of language, being geared to situation and participants, is learned in appropriate contexts (Bloor and Bloor, 1986, p.28).

Bloor and Bloor (1986) further say that, teaching specific variety of English (ESP) can start at any level including beginners. Moreover, learning from specific variety of English (e.g. English for Media, English for Doctors, English for Business Management) is highly effective as learners acquire structure in relation to the range of meanings in which they are used in their academic workplace or professional environment.

3.4.2 Needs Analysis:

According to Nunan (1988):

The needs analysis procedures made its appearance in language planning and became widespread in language teaching” in the year 1970. In its early stage it was used as “the initial process for the specification of behavioural objectives and later it explored different syllabus elements such as functions, notions and lexis in a more detailed manner (Nunan, 1988, p.43).
In ESP, language is learnt neither for its own sake nor for the sake of gaining a general education but to smoothen the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments (Basturkmen, 2006, p.17). Hence needs analysis is a key feature in ESP course design.

Needs analysis was warmly welcomed by language for specific purpose teachers as an approach to course design. But needs analysis did not find its remarkable position and influence in LSP (Language for Specific Purpose) until Munby’s approach to needs analysis came into being (Phan le Ha, 2005).

Munby’s approach to needs analysis is now widely applicable in English Language Teaching. Munby’s Communicative Syllabus Design (1978) drew great attention from ESP syllabus designers. Hutchinson and Waters state that Munby’s work was a landmark in ESP since it provided a new vision on individual needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) further asserted that:

> With the development of CNP it seemed as if ESP had come of its age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designers had to do was operate it (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.54).

As Munby’s ‘Communicative Syllabus Design’ is based on needs it’s quite enthusiastic and encouraging for learners and they can realize the significance of what they are studying. Moreover ESP courses are time bound. A learner is required to gain subject specific knowledge of language of a target specialism within a limited period of time. Hence time management is very important in ESP class, which can be
effectively done through analyzing the learners’ need and designing a course based on that. To quote Basturkmen (2006):

The task of the ESP course developer is to identify the needs of the learner and design a course around them (Basturkmen, 2006, p.18).

Munby’s (1978) model consists of two stages:

Communication Needs Processor (CNP) and the interpretation of the profile of needs derived from the CNP in terms of micro skills and micro functions. The CNP is set out under eight variables that:

Affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other (Munby, 1978, p.32).

The CNP operates by looking at its input, the foreign language participant and information concerning the participant’s identity and language. Then it requires information on the eight variables: purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key. In the second stage of the model, the user must take the activities with their communicative keys and decide which alternative ways of processing them is appropriate. The alternatives are:

i. Specification of syllabus content by focusing on micro-skills.

ii. Specification by focusing on micro-functions.

iii. Specification by focusing on linguistic forms. (Phan le Ha, 2005).
Munby’s model for specifying communicative competence.

Fig. 7. Munby’s Communicative Syllabus Design (1978).
Munby (1978) through his model provides a detailed description of all the aspects related to learner's needs and language learning. The prime focus of his CNP is to find out all the possible linguistic forms an ESP learner is expected to use in his target situation.

Needs Analysis has been criticized time and again, because of this criticism its not being widely applied in language teaching and learning but to some extent needs analysis is valid in ESP course designing. The reason behind this is that, needs analysis investigates what language skills learners actually require when they are asked to perform in a target situation. ESP also analyses the purpose of language use. It is a language repertoire which trains learners to achieve a set target and this can be done only by examining what is the purpose of particular language learning and how it can be achieved, so in this case needs analysis is applicable in doing the same.

**Some of the criticisms and issues of needs analysis are:**

i. The information often comes from the institutions themselves, who already have definite expectations about what the students should be able to do and thus needs analysis serves the interest of the institutions often at the expense of learners (Auerbach, 1995).

ii. Learners are often asked for their perceptions of the needs but there may not be reliable sources of information about their own needs, especially if they are relatively unfamiliar with the job they are to perform or subject they are to study (Long, 1996).

iii. Language needs are not learning needs. Although learners will need to use certain language structures or features in their target environment, this does not mean that they are ready to acquire them (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).
iv. Perspective of needs vary and the needs analyst has to decide which perspective to take into account in designing ESP courses or synthesize divergent perspectives (Jasso-Aguilar, 1999).

v. Needs analysis is a means of filling outsiders into the communicative practice of linguistically privileged in groups. Needs analysis purports to be an institution to get others to conform to established communicative practices (Benesch, 2001).

vi. Needs analysis is not theoretically neutral. It can be argued that any system of needs analysis is related to the theory of the nature of language (West, 1994).

(Cited in Basturkmen, 2006, p.20)

3.4.3 Types of Syllabuses:

Another major issue in ESP course design is syllabus. The course designers have to decide what language has to be taught, and to specify the language items he/she has to refer to a syllabus.

Graves (1996) discussed “the language curriculum and syllabus”. She described the curriculum:

As broad statement of the Philosophy, purposes, design and a implementation of the entire language teaching program and the syllabus as a specification and ordering of content of a course (Graves, 1996, as cited in Basturkmen, 2006, p.21).

Syllabuses can be synthetic (language is segmented into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time) or analytic (language is presented in whole chunks at a time without linguistic control (Basturkmen 2006, p.21).

Things are different in case of ESP students:

It has been taken for granted that ESP teaching should focus on hard language functions rather than soft social functions (Basturkmen, 2006, p.22).
Halliday (1973) used the terms the referential and instrumental functions of language. The first refers to language which is used to express facts and knowledge; the second refers to language which is used to do a particular work. It has been considered that in ESP teaching social functions are less important as compared to referential or instrumental functions. Holmes (1999) as cited in Basturkmen (2006) claimed that certain recent applied linguistic research pointed out the fact that social functions in language are significant and are used in workplace situation.

Since ESP course is very specific and time constraining, it is hard to teach all aspects of language under a single course. Hence the course designer needs to be selective and while selecting what to teach, the language teachers often show:

Their notions of what language is and their beliefs as to what is important in language learning (Basturkmen, 2006, p.23).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) commented that specifying course content is quite important and it also describes the notions of what language actually is and how language is learned effectively.
The figure below reflects the views of learning and course content.

**Fig. 8. Views of learning and course content.**

In EAP teaching, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) list the following types of syllabus:

- Lexico grammatical (organized around structures and vocabulary).
- Functional – notional (organized around functions and notions).
- Discourse-based (organized around aspects of text cohesion and coherence).
- Learning-centred (organized on what learners have to do in order to learn language items and skills, not the items and skills themselves).
- Skills-based (organized around particular skills).
- Genre-based (organized around conventions and procedures in genres as units of analysis).
- Content-based (organized around themes).
which informs a range of topical areas of use and can be realized in pedagogic terms by variety of different topics. In this case the topics are selected for their effectiveness in implementing the objectives of the course without regard to their immediate relevance to eventual aims:

Narrow-angled courses are devised for learners with very similar needs and are highly specialized. Wide-angled ESP courses are devised for learners with needs that are only somewhat similar and less specialized (Basturkmen, 2006, p.15).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) commented when the needs are limited or concerned within a small area, a narrow angled course design is best suited, where the course can focus on few target events and use contents or topics from a single discipline. But if the needs are not specified and cover a broad area, the course can focus on wide range of topics and events from numerous disciplines.

There is a general argument that ESP courses:

Should be as narrow-angled as possible” whereas others criticized that this view “is not practical or that it is unnecessary as learners can transfer what they learn from a more general course to their own highly specific area at a later stage (Basturkmen, 2006, p.28).

3.5 SPECIFIC AND SPECIFIABLE ELEMENTS IN ESP

Needs analysis in ESP aims on the techniques learners require to study work efficiently in their target situation.

In analyzing needs, ESP curriculum designers identify the micro skills from a general pool of skills used across a range of environments that are important for a particular group of ESP learners (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 28).
Presently, task based syllabus is in practice and is welcomed by most language practitioners. The task based syllabus contains:

A list of tasks (e.g. giving instructions or following directions) that students will perform (Basturkmen, 2006, p.24).

The tasks facilitate learners with a means for:

Using language meaningfully and that through struggling to use language to complete the tasks, students acquire language (Basturkmen, 2006, p.24).

Prabhu (1987) explained that:

Task-based teaching operates with the concept that, while the conscious mind is working out some of the meaning content, a subconscious part of the mind perceives abstracts or acquires (or recreates as a cognitive structure) some of the linguistics structuring embodied in those entities, as a step in the development of an internal system of rules (Prabhu, 1987, pp. 69-70).

According to Long and Crookes (1992) task based syllabuses in ESP specify ‘real world tasks’. In General English Language teaching tasks are chosen for pedagogical value:

In ESP they are chosen probably for their relevance to real world events in the target environments (Basturkmen, 2006, p.25).

3.4.4 Narrow and Wide Angle Course Design:

Narrow angle course emphasises on schematic knowledge, i.e. the competence to be acquired, they would be located at more specific end of the spectrum and accordingly be more training-oriented whereas a wide angle course is based on a set of general frame of references and routines
Table 1 shows Specific or Specifiable Elements in ESP curriculum design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language system</th>
<th>Specifiable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language use</td>
<td>Specific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language skills</td>
<td>Specifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content (conceptual &amp; cultural)</td>
<td>Specific</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Specific and Specifiable Elements in ESP curriculum. (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 28).

ESP instruction is oriented to help learners become more aware of language use and conceptual content (including cultural content) critical in the workplace, academic and professional environments and disciplines to which they are headed (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 28).

In the target situation certain language forms and features generally appear more frequently than the rest. These elements can be classified but are not absolute to the target situations or disciplines, referred to as specifiable elements (Basturkmen, 2006).

3.6 METHODS OF TEACHING ESP

Needs analysis is an important strategy used for teaching ESP. The flourish of Communicative Language Teaching movement plays a significant role in ESP teaching methods. Munby (1978) states that ESP courses are:
Those where syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of communication needs of the learner (Munby, 1978, p.2).

The prime concern of ESP courses and Communicative Language Teaching approaches are more or less same. Both are based on a key factor, that to enable the learners to communicate effectively in a given situation. It also tends to bring the real life situation in language classroom. This helps to bridge the gap between language learning and communication. Hence ESP teaching methodology is widely influenced by Communicative Language Teaching.

ESP classes are convened with the specific needs of students and ESP teaching uses a learner centred and context/content approach, there are no set materials and distinctive methodology for teaching ESP. The course teacher develops his own methodologies and curriculum design based on the specific needs of learners. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that an ESP teacher develops his own teaching materials based on the student’s immediate needs rather than depending on other commercial books or materials.

Robinson (1991) argued that methodology in English Language Teaching and ESP have very little difference and its hard to say whether general ELT has borrowed ideas for methodology from ESP or whether ESP has borrowed ideas from general ELT. Robinson identified two characteristics of ESP methodology. ESP can design activities based on students target area or ESP activities may contain actual purposes based on students target needs.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) stated that ESP methodology makes the use of tasks and activities reflecting students’ specialist areas.
Basturkmen (2006) asserted that methodology of teaching ESP involves four different strategies. They are:

i. Predominantly input

ii. Input to output

iii. Predominantly output

iv. Output to input

The methodology of teaching ESP is organized around the concepts of input and output.

3.6.1 Input Based Strategies:

Input based strategies is based on the idea that learning primarily occurs through exposure to language input in the form of written or spoken texts or language descriptions. Repeated exposure to comprehensible input enhances the language learning and it also makes the learner acquire linguistic features. After numerously noticing linguistic items the learners became more aware of the forms and the features of language. Along with linguistic accuracy the learners are also able to develop their fluency and communicative skills. Input based strategy is quite helpful for a target group because it helps students to improve their ability to notice different language forms and enhance their knowledge of language use and communication in a particular discipline.

Example 1:

Vocabulary used in commercial advertisement slogans.

This activity is designed to make the students aware of subject specialist text. It is basically a prewriting activity. The special focus is on vocabulary and techniques of how words are arranged and related to each other in written slogans. Here students are exposed to subject specialist
text for comprehension activities. Linguistic items like choice of vocabulary and techniques of special text writing are being highlighted through this activity. It trains the learners to use appropriate words through practice writing.

Level: Intermediate to advance

Time 50 minutes

Aims and Objectives:

i. To focus on the use of words in a given text ideally from students specialism.

ii. To enable the students attention to find out how words functions in a text and how are they related to the main idea.

iii. To prepare the students for writing slogans using correct form of words.

Materials:

Some printed handouts of written slogans taken from old issue of the magazine.

STAY FIT ...... LIVE HEALTHY

GRAND EXOTICA: best price, highest satisfaction

La Femme!!!!!!!!! Discover yourself.

“WOW OFFER” Go get your trip now

BOOKMART the key to success.
Refresh your drink!!! .... BOOST YOUR ENERGY

E-ZONE for intelligent minds.

Women's Pride ......... boutique next door.

24/7...... SUPERMARKET NEXTDOOR!!

LIVE SAFE: with city security.

Go get cool this summer "FUNKY COLLECTIONS"

EAT HEALTHY AND TASTY: NEW CUISINE IN TOWN

GLORIANA: Refresh yourself

Paradise Home.... Breathe Fresh

Fabulous Fashion: Men's First choice
Procedures:

i. Distribute the printed handouts to the students.

ii. Ask them to read the handouts very carefully.

iii. Tell the students to mark how an idea is generated and is presented through limited words.

iv. Also ask them to analyze the techniques of writing slogans.

3.6.1.1 Predominantly input:

In this strategy, language learners are primarily provided with language input with much exposure to it and it is understood to promote learning. Learning comes about as students see evidence of how language works and how language is used in different target situations. Here students need not be pushed to immediate production in order to learn.

This input strategy can be related to ideas of language learning suggested by Krashen (1982). Krashen argued that learners develop their linguistic abilities without any form of outside instructions, rather these instructions enables learners to develop the ability to monitor the production of language. Conscious study leads only to learning but the ability to produce language is derived from acquisition, unconscious and gradual development of language through exposure to comprehensible input.

Teaching provides positive evidence about how language works or is used by exposing students to authentic texts or materials and engaging them in comprehension activities. Teaching can also go beyond “exposure to language input” and guide students to note and learn specific language features or forms in it through the use of “awareness-raising activities” (Basturkmen, 2006, p.115).
Through the use of these activities the teacher can shift students attention to targeted forms or features:

There are various techniques of awareness raising activities e.g. input flooding (exposure to multiple sample of the features) and input enhancement (the feature is highlighted in the text) (Basturkmen, 2006, p.115).

Example 2:

Vocabulary of news report.

This activity is based on a predominantly input strategy. Here the students are allowed to notice various language descriptions and written texts. The prime concern is to focus on words used for report writing. And learning occurs as students see the examples of how language works or used in real communication and in target situations. This is a prewriting activity which enables the learners to improve their vocabulary used in report writing.

Level: Pre intermediate to advance.

Time: 40 minutes.

Aims and Objectives:

i. To raise awareness of report writing strategy through a look at news paper report of back issues.

ii. To enhance student’s knowledge of vocabulary of a particular discipline.

iii. To make the students aware how different concepts and ideas are expressed through professional words.

iv. To develop student’s writing ability and practice report writing.
Materials:
Students notebook to write, newspaper articles of back issue.

Procedure:

i. Distribute the article to the students and ask them to read it carefully and mark the difficult portion and underline the new words.

ii. Ask them to translate these work into their own L1.

iii. After they finish reading explain difficult words and discuss important parts and explain the ways difficult parts are connected together.

iv. Through this kind of exposure to the text the learner acquires the knowledge of report writing.

3.6.1.2 Input to Output:

In this strategy students are first exposed to language forms and features and then they are asked to use them in their own production. These inputs just acts as an example and these examples enable the students to identify their own lacking in the ability to practice language. Production or output is important part of this strategy. It is different to predominantly input based strategies on the ground that it expects immediate production after supplying the students with various comprehensible inputs. This strategy failed to gain proper amount of users. It was being criticized on several grounds. Here the main focus is on students seeking knowledge of pre-selected language items. Language teachers choose the target linguistic forms or features for delivering the instructions, teachers then focus on teaching items and make students practice different activities where they can produce these items. The input can be in different forms like:
Language descriptions, analysis of genre or teacher-led discussion of features in a text (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 119).

These inputs provide examples of how language works and are used in different target environments. Through this students realize the gap between their current understanding or use of linguistic forms and equivalent features in target language use. The teacher allows the student to produce the items being learned within the same lesson or the following lesson.

In ESP, input to output based strategy can be used for teaching different aspects of language, including genre knowledge.

**Example 3:**

Vocabulary used in television interview.

This activity is based on input to output based strategy. Here students are exposed to the language description and language use through showing them various clips of related interviews. It allows the students to view very closely the use of language and choice of vocabulary in a target situation. This strategy is to improve the oral communication of the students where there is a verbal interface with an interviewee. This activity is to establish the fundamental interviewing technique.

Level: Advanced

Time: 1 hour (20 minutes for giving inputs and 40 minutes for completion of task, evaluation and feedback).

**Objective:**

i. To focus on various aspects of language like professional language skill, question forms, active speaking skills and note taking.

ii. To practice framing questions to be asked in an interview.
iii. To reinforce understanding of vocabulary used for interview.

Materials:
Students notebook, clips of related interviews, laptop and projector.

Procedures:

i. First ask the learners to watch every clip twice or more.

ii. Ask them to mark several sections very carefully. i.e. 'how to greet?', 'what should be the gesture', 'which questions to be asked at a particular point of time' etc.

iii. Then divide the whole class into a group of three.

iv. Assign every group a task of designing an interview and ask them to write down some systematic questions to be asked to the interviewee.

v. After the completion of the task evaluate all.

vi. Post evaluation, take some good task and show it to the students, ask them to compare their work and improve the shortcoming in their own task.

vii. The feedback acts as an improving agent for the task.

3.6.2 Output Based Strategies:

Output based strategies help beginners to communicate in the target language. There are two sub-strategies of output-based instructions. The first (predominantly output) is based on the idea that language (producing output) is sufficient for learning and the second (output to input) is based on students output followed by some form of input (Basturkmen, 2006). It is a task based strategy and students acquire language while they perform task in a real workplace situation.
Example 4:

Magazine’s cover story and practice use of words in it.

This activity is based on output strategy. Here the learners are directly put to a workplace situation. No inputs are being supplied as a pre task activity. They are expected to acquire directly while performing in real life situation.

It is an interactive process and allows students to work in peers or groups. Half of the task is an outclass activity where students move out to collect information and data related to their specialism. This activity involves use of language in which the result of the task and use of professional vocabulary in workplace setting is the main focus.

Level: Advanced

Time: 2 hours (1 hour for out of class task and 1 hour for in classroom activity).

Objectives:

i. To practice concrete writing of the cover story for magazine on a given topic.

ii. To promote group work and motivate students to work in real situation.

iii. To make the students ready to carry forward a given task or job which allows them to develop their professional language skill.

iv. To reinforce vocabulary acquisition through practicing with professional workplace situation.

v. To enable the students acquire language through verbal interaction and negotiation of meanings.
vi. To develop fluency, note taking and peer listening.

Materials: Questionnaire for survey.

Procedure:

i. Give the students a topic to write cover story, for example on football league to be held in the town.

ii. Get the students in pairs or groups.

iii. Ask them to prepare a questionnaire based on the supporter’s opinions, likings, disliking and suggestions regarding the match, to be held in the town.

iv. Out of the class, the team or pair visits the match venues and various sites to meet the supporters and collect information and data.

v. In classroom activity they may discuss the techniques of developing cover story with their fellow mates.

vi. Then they are required to use their data to develop their individual story.

vii. They are also required to make a catchy heading because the subject matter is to be printed on the cover page of the magazine.

3.6.2.1 Predominantly Output:

In this strategy learners are put into a certain environment where they are asked to perform certain tasks away from a lesson or activity. And this task production activity makes students realize where their “inter language (developing language system)” is enough to perform in a workplace and where it is actually lacking (Basturkmen, 2006, p.124).
Basically output stressed the idea that learning takes place through the struggle to communicate.

Swain (1998) as cited in Basturkmen (2006) argued that in being pushed to produce, language learners notice certain shortcomings in their linguistics repertoire and this stimulates learning of language to overcome these shortcomings.

Ellis (1990) identified three key points in Swains argument for the role of output in advancing levels of grammatical language accuracy. They are:

i. The need to produce output (pushed language use) that is precise, coherent and appropriate during negotiation of meaning encourages learners to develop the necessary grammatical resources.

ii. During output, learners can try out their hypotheses about language. Production, as opposed to comprehension, may force learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing. It is possible to comprehend a message without any syntactic analysis of the input it contains.

iii. Production is the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to the means of expression.

**Example 5:**

Report on user response to recently launched product in the market.

This activity is grounded on predominantly input based strategy. Learning takes place when the students are communicating in work place situation. Learning also occurs when they use the linguistic resources they have at their disposal. It is a task based strategy and that task create conditions for language acquisition through negotiation of meaning. Vocabulary
knowledge is acquired while communicating directly in workplace situation.

Level: Advanced

Time: 3-4 hours (2 hours for conducting the survey and 1 and a half hours to complete in classroom activity).

Objectives:

i. To enhance verbal interaction and practice language skills when working in target situations.

ii. To enable the students develop their skills on how to deal with the clients of a particular product.

iii. To motivate team works.

iv. To improve accuracy in report writing.

v. To make the students acquire language while talking with peers while making final report.

vi. To enable them to learn professional English vocabulary used in Media.

Materials: Tape recorder, list of questions

| i. | Which products are you using presently? |
| ii. | Why you switched to the new one? |
| iii. | How did you find it? |
| iv. | Would you like to add some comments? |
| v. | Please give some feed back. |
Procedure:

i. Divide the whole class into group of three.

ii. Allow them to search on net what are the products recently launched in the market.

iii. Ask the students to do homework on what information to be extracted from the product users.

iv. Instruct the students to prepare a list of questions to be asked to the product users like: ‘Say something about the product you use?’, ‘Did you find it good?’, ‘Would you like to leave any feedback or suggestions for production company?’

v. Then ask the students to do a door to door survey or tell them to visit some common places like markets or malls to collect data and user’s views on a particular product.

vi. Also tell them to record the views of the product users.

vii. Back in the classroom tell the students to listen to the recordings and cross examine the user’s response before preparing any report.

viii. Tell the students to interact with members of other groups and discuss the techniques of report writing.

ix. Finally make them prepare a detailed report.

3.6.2.2 Output to Input:

Output to input based instruction is placed on the idea that learners acquire new language when they realize a lacuna in their linguistic repertoire and are provided with a solution to the problem in the form of feedback or suggestion. With the feedback they can analyze weaknesses
in their own output and thus they create the meta-cognitive state necessary for input.

Swain (1998) as cited in Basturkmen (2006) criticized that sometimes students fail to identify what is lacking in the target language “noticing a hole in one’s inter language”. This strategy does not focus on pre-specified linguistic items. While giving feedback the teacher is free to give instructions on language forms, he or she is not restricted to select any particular language item. Teachers note the errors or interesting aspects of language use that take place during the production stage and use them to give feedback to individual students, pairs or groups.

While designing ESP courses, one should follow the issues and strategies discussed in this topic, but it cannot be ignored that an effective and flexible ESP course design can be derived from the teacher’s own practical experimental knowledge and from students themselves.

**Example 6:**

Vocabulary of newspaper headlines.

This activity is based on output to input based strategy. In this method learning occurs in two stages. First, while performing the task and second after the task is being completed the students receive information in the form of feedback. This language learning activity is helpful in the form of highlighting the vocabulary of professional field.

Objectives:

i. To practice writing newspaper headline.

ii. To analyze how language functions in a text of given specialism.

iii. To review and learn vocabulary.

iv. To focus on choice of language while writing headlines.
v. To reinforce two stages learning, first while performing the task and second post task the information they receive in the form of feedback.

Procedure:

i. Directly ask the students about newspaper headlines and tell them to prepare a demo of how to write newspaper headline.

ii. Then give them some topic and ask to write headlines for the given topic.

iii. After the task is being completed examine the answers, and identify the errors and shortcomings.

iv. Finally give feedback to the learners to improve their writing skills.

**Some headlines:**

President to quit.

Government cut taxes.

China backs Korean plan.

Police discover key witness.

New bid for fighting global warming.

MNC’s to axe 300 employees.

Terrible snow storm mows down 2.

Gang breaks into the bank through the window.

Train disaster kills 3 and injures 7.

Outclassed in quarters: Peter demolished by John.

Weeping parents curse the shooter.

Bomb threats left the city unrest.
3.7 CURRENT TRENDS IN TEACHING ESP

As time passed on there have been various changes in viewing the course design and methodology of teaching ESP. There is an emergence of several outlooks and trends in teaching ESP with recent researches and works by different language experts.

Very recently, Belcher (2004) reviewed the trends in teaching English for Specific Purposes. This new trend is based on three different theories – the socio-discoursal, socio-cultural and socio-political approaches to language learning. For the socio-discoursal approach to ESP, genre theory and genre informed pedagogy are highlighted, for socio-cultural theories, situational learning and their practical corollaries are focused on, for the socio-political theories, theory and applications of critical pedagogy are emphasized (Belcher, 2004, p.165).

Various critics of ESP pointed out the drawbacks of ESP approach to English Language Teaching. They viewed that,

It teaches learners enough English to survive in certain narrowly defined venues but not enough to thrive in the world at large (Belcher, 2004, p.165).

A very general dissatisfaction is that the texts which deal with ESP courses are very impractical, it lacks real life context that learners target (Belcher, 2004).
Spack (1988) commented that another very general accusation is that many ESP teachers fail to teach the “Especial Language” of ESP course, for example, an arts teacher teaching technical students.

Penny Cook (1997) is of the view that ESP is much more inclined towards accommodationism or vulgar pragmatism. The reason is ESP provides learners with the facility to fit into rather than contest existing socio economic and political structures no matter how inequitable their power of distribution may be (cited in Belcher, 2004, p.166).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) viewed ESP as a learner centred approach; it identifies the needs of learners and teaches language that enables them to deal with specific target situation. But the question is does ESP actually do the same? The ESP course designer analyzes the actual needs of learners based on learners’ needs, they develop efficient materials and teach them effectively to enable learners to achieve their goals. Somewhere, all these processes lack an underlying theory that affects learning and helps learners to face their target situation.

ESP is criticized because "of its very pragmatism” to deal with specific needs of learners which lacks a well developed identifiable theoretical base (Belcher, 2004, p.166).

In its early stage of development ESP neglected social context but now ESP is shaping a corner for “social situatedness”. This view gave rise to three different new approaches.

3.7.1 The Socio-Discoursal Approach: situated genre analysis:

As Hyland (2003) comments that both ESP and genre studies investigate the discourse of specific speech communities, with attention to the types of written and oral texts or Structured communicative events (Belcher, 2004, pp.166-167).
The North American New Rhetoric and the Australian Sydney School are the two major bodies which provided ESP with missing perspectives on genre. New Rhetoric such as Adam and Artemeva (2002), Bazerman (2002), Prior (1998) with the influence of Bakhtin (1981) added a new perspective on discourse as:

Always utterance, i.e. dialogic or contributing to a dialogue and characterized by heteroglossia or multi-vocality also known as intertextuality i.e. filled with the voices of others (Belcher, 2004, p.167).

To Bakhtin’s concept of dialogism Russell (1997) asserted that,

It allows a more dynamic and interactive or ecological approach”, going “further than social constructionism towards solving the problems of relations among language; the individual and social (Russell, 1997, p.2, as cited in Belcher, 2004, p.167).

Like the New Rhetoricians, the Sydney School also viewed “genre” as more than the combination of its smaller parts.

Discourse is seen through the lens of field (ideational content), tenor (interpersonal context) and mode (textuality). At present, teachability of genre is found in ESP pedagogy which was missing earlier. This view of genre is not as complex as that of New Rhetorics provided the competency to genre is skilled through immersion in a particular setting (Belcher, 2004, p.167).

3.7.2 The Socio-Cultural Approach: Situated Immersion:

Vygotsky, Leont’ev and other recent theorists stress “the fundamental roles of situated learning and scaffolding” in ESP situation. (Lave and Wanger, 1991, as cited in Belcher, 2004, p.170). The New Rhetorics have their own view and they strongly argue for immersion in the target
situation. Most ESP theorists comply that immersion is very beneficial, but side by side on-site learning is quite important and advantageous for ESP learners (Belcher, 2004, p.171). Holding classes on-site enables learners to perform then and there in their work place settings. In ESP pedagogy on-site learning and teaching is well honoured and studied since a long period of time. The merits of teaching on-site are that learners are aware of their needs, teachers can personally observe situated interactions and work place realia readily available for class room simulations (Belcher, 2004, p.173).

3.7.3 The Socio-Political Approach: Overcoming the “Limit-situation”:

This approach is also termed as Critical Pedagogy. Master(1988) was the first to “call for a Critical ESP that would be more self-reflexive in its role in the global spread of English and its readiness to meet learner’s needs as defined by what the institution or workplace needed of them ( Master,1998:724, as cited in Belcher,2004,p.174). The critical pedagogy asks whose needs are served in ESP and why? Critical pedagogists argue that academic and occupational survival should not be disregarded but that language learners need more communicative competence and functional literacy. They need voices that will speak for them well enough to make a difference in their own and others’ lives. Critical pedagogy entered ESP classroom by several different means ‘by critically redefining traditional needs analysis as rights analysis, moving beyond collaborative learning to collectivist action and revisioning text as not just situated in a context but the hybrid product of multiple contexts, i.e. as a site for negotiation of personal and social identities of home, academic or personal values.
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