



People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

**Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Ghardaia**



Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language

Lectures in English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

for Second Year Master « Didactics »

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English for Specific Purposes

Course Objectives:

This course that is taught for Master 2 students in Semester 3 aims to introduce ESP, English for Specific (Special) Purposes, and its importance nowadays to second year Master students. It starts with providing some definitions of ESP, then it sheds light on the factors that helped in its growth and the main phases of its development. Furthermore, it focuses on highlighting the main types of ESP. Besides, it casts light on needs identification and the main types of needs. It also stresses the importance of course design and other related topics.

Course Description

This course is taught for Master 2 students in semester 3. It includes ten lectures, and each lecture in this this course has a specific objective and accompanied by some questions or tasks. Some lectures also include assignments. Teachers can allow students to present the topics by assigning them exposés on different parts of lectures.

Course Evaluation

Students have two modes of evaluation: the tutorial and the examination which means 50% - 50%. The tutorial consists of a written test, the students' involvement and participation in the discussions besides the homework and different assignments. The latter can take forms of written summaries, graphic organisers or looking for additional information about the content, etc.

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Lecture One: Introduction and Definitions

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have comprehended the different and main definitions of English for Specific Purposes. Moreover, it stresses the common idea about ESP.

Introduction

Before talking about the different and important aspects of ESP, we need to define it as there exist many and a variety of definitions from a number of researchers.

1. Definitions

ESP stands for **English for Specific Purposes**. **ESP is goal-directed**, i.e. it is an approach to language teaching based on learners' goals and reasons for learning a language. Below are a number of definitions according to the literature.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 19) stated that, “ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reasons for learning”.

In this context, learners learn English in order to be able to read textbooks written in English that are relevant to their field of study, or to use English in work place.

Robinson (1991, p. 2) stated the following:

“Students learn English not because they are interested in the English language or English culture as such but because they need English for study or work purposes.”

Basturkmen (2006, p. 18) asserted that:

“In ESP, language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments.”

Conclusion

From the aforementioned definitions, it is clear that ESP is goal-directed and based on the learners' needs. In other words, there is a goal that should be reached and needs something from the English language, grammar, reading, speaking, writing, etc. depending on the goal.

2. Questions:

1. What is the aim behind learning English in ESP context?
2. Is English needed for study reasons only?

Lecture Two: Growth of ESP

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have found out and comprehended the different phases that helped in the growth of ESP.

Introduction

ESP has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching since 1960's. Its development is reflected in the increasing number of ESP courses offered all over the world.

Hutchinson and Waters stated that (1987, p. 6), “*ESP was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends.*”

The authors claimed that those trends have operated in varied ways around the world, and three main reasons that helped the emergence of ESP can be identified.

1. ESP Growth

As stated in Hutchinson and Waters’ (ibid), the growth of ESP then was brought about due to a number of important factors. **The end of the Second World War brought new perspectives and changes in scientific, technical and economic activity at an international level.** These changes resulted in the creation of a world unified, dominated by two major forces: technology and commerce. To meet the demands of these forces, “*English was at the right place at the right time*” (Crystal, 1997, p. 13). Therefore, the three main factors are as follows:

1. The Demands of a Brave New World predicted by an age of **enormous changes in all spheres of life: scientific, technical and economic on an international level. These changes required** a “restricted repertoire” Mackay and Mountford (1978) selected from the whole language that meets the learners' needs within a well-defined context.

2. **A revolution in linguistics** has led to a shift from presenting the language as a set of forms and defining the features of language usage to **discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication.** The idea was to design language courses that suit different and specific contexts since language varies from one situation to another.

3. **New developments in educational psychology contributed in the growth of ESP by emphasising the central role of learners, their motivations and needs from the language course ;** therefore, this orientation led to designing specific courses that better meet the learners’ needs.

Conclusion

Because of this fact, a new generation of learners needed to learn English and knew why they needed it. Consequently, a new trend of ELT emerged to suit different teaching situations and provide students of commerce, economy, medicine, biology...etc., with the knowledge of English they need to perform activities in their specific fields.

Questions:

- Why was ESP introduced in the Algerian universities and vocational institutions?
- Explain the following:

Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need.

Assignment:

Summarise the different factors that led to the growth of ESP.

Lecture Three: Branches of ESP and its Characteristics

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have distinguished EAP and EOP.

Introduction

ESP is divided into two main types: **English for Academic Purposes (EAP)** and **English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)** (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

1. According to Kennedy and Bolitho (1984), **EAP** is taught '*generally within educational institutions to students needing English in their studies*' (p. 4) such as the academic study of Finance, Business, Economics, and the like, whereas **EOP** '*in a situation in which learners need to use English as part of their work on profession*' (ibid, p. 4) such as the case of practising doctors. **EAP** is sub-divided into English for (Academic) Science and Technology, English for (Academic) Legal Purposes, English for (Academic) Medical Purposes and English for (Academic) Management, Finance and Economics (Dudley-Evans & St John, ibid).
2. **EOP** is devoted for work purposes, not academic ones (ibid). It includes English for Medical Purposes (English for Medical Purposes and English for Business Purposes) and English for Vocational Purposes (Pre-Vocational English and Vocational English). It is argued by Dudley-Evans (ibid) that **EOP** is related to '*professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations*' (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998 p. 7).

On the other hand, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that there is no clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP because people can work and study at the same time: “This is, of course, not a clear-cut distinction: people can work and study. Simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job” (Hutchinson and Waters, *ibid*, p. 16).



Fig 1: ESP Classification according to Dudley-Evans and Saint-Johns (1998)

ESP Characteristics

ESP is based on absolute and variable characteristics (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

➤ Absolute characteristics

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities (*ibid*, p. 4-5).

➤ **Variable characteristics**

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (ibid, p. 5).

Conclusion

ESP is a multi-disciplinary approach, and has a methodology that is different from that of EGP (English for General Purposes) (ibid). ESP courses do not necessarily focus on all aspects of language. They may concentrate on one aspect of language, say, grammar or one language skill, reading, for example. The distinction between ESP and EGP is ‘an awareness of need’ (Hutchinson & Waters, ibid, p. 53). In other words, it is the needs analysis which determines the kind of courses and subsequently the type of language, methodology, and teaching materials to be used.

Assignment:

1. In a short paragraph, mention the distinction between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational (EOP).
2. Discuss with your peer the characteristics of ESP.

Lecture Four: ESP vs EGP

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have made the distinction between ESP and EGP.

Introduction

Though ESP is based on needs of the learner, uses a specific methodology and is considered with the teaching grammar, the language skills, and the like, it is distinguished from English of General Purposes (EGP) in many points (Dudley-Evans & St John).

1. English for Specific Purposes vs English for General Purposes

ESP is different from EGP, and the main distinction is that in ESP, the need is specified, whereas in EGP, it is not. The other differences are cited below:

First, ESP focuses on training, whereas EGP is concerned with education.

Second, since, in most cases, ESP learners are adult learners, they bring with them their prior experience which integrates, but complements the use of English.

Third, ESP courses are based on a needs analysis of the learners since, as mentioned earlier, adult learners are aware of the purposes of taking a course.

Fourth, ESP courses may focus on one or a few aspects of language, say, grammar, reading skill, etc., whereas EGP deals with all of them: grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and the four language skills.

Fifth, ESP teaching courses are limited to a short period of time rather than EGP ones which last a number of years (seven years in Algerian schools, from the middle up to the secondary schools).

Sixth, the specific contexts in which English is taught imply a specialised vocabulary as in Accounting, Computer Science, Biology, and the like, resulting in many genres and registers. In fact, English is taught in contexts known by the learners. That is, it is embedded in their subject area, which facilitates the use of what they learn in their studies or work.

Assignment:

1. In a table, mention the main differences between ESP and EGP.
2. Look for other differences between ESP and EGP.

Lecture Five: Development of ESP

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have known the main phases of ESP development.

1. Introduction

ESP has witnessed five main phases of development: register analysis, rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills-centred approach, and learning-centred approach.

1. The concept of special language: register analysis (the 1960s and early 1970s)

This stage began mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s with the work of Peter Strevens (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964 as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 9). This concept revolved round the idea that English of a specific science is distinguished from other ones at the level of its grammatical and lexical features of the registers as the examples of Electrical Engineering which had a specific register different from that of Biology. So, the aim of the analysis was to identify the lexical and grammatical features of those registers. Register analysis in ESP was oriented to pedagogic purposes, i.e. to make the ESP course meet the learners' needs, in the main. Therefore, the main purpose of an ESP course, then, was to produce a syllabus which gave a high priority to the language forms students would meet in their fields of study rather than the language forms they would not meet.

Nonetheless, "register analysis revealed that there was very little that was distinctive in the sentence grammar of scientific English beyond a

tendency to favour particular forms such as the present simple tense, the passive voice and nominal compound” (ibid, p. 10).

In sum, register analysis focused on language forms not on meaning.

2. Beyond the sentence: rhetorical or discourse analysis (1974-1980s)

As mentioned in Hutchinson and Waters (1987), if in the first phase, ESP had focused on language at the sentence level, in the second phase, the development shifted to the level above the sentence: understanding how sentence were combined in discourse to produce meaning. So, ESP became closely involved with the emerging field of discourse or rhetorical analysis. The basic hypothesis of this stage is expressed by Allen and Widdowson (1974) when they mentioned that:

the difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English, but from an unfamiliarity with English use, and that consequently their needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice in the composition of sentences, but only by one which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts (in ibid, p. 10-11).

Rhetorical patterns of text organisation or text structures differed significantly between specialist areas of use. That is, the rhetorical structure of biology texts was viewed as different from that of Electrical Engineering.

To conclude, as cited in Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 12), the typical teaching materials based on the discourse approach taught students to identify and recognise textual patterns and discourse markers mainly by means of text diagramming exercises.

3. Target situation analysis (1980-1987)

The aim of this phase is to take the existing knowledge and set it on a more scientific basis, by establishing procedures for relating language analysis more closely to learners' reasons for learning (ibid). The purpose of an ESP course was to enable learners to function in situations in which the learners will use the language they are learning. To this end, the ESP course design process should proceed by, first, identifying the target situation and then carrying out the right analysis of the linguistic parts of that situation. According to the authors, the identified features will form the syllabus of the ESP course. Thus, this process is known as "needs analysis". Nonetheless, it was preferable to use the term "target situation analysis".

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that this stage did not add anything new to the range of knowledge about ESP, for it considered mainly the surface linguistic features of the target situation.

4. Skill and strategies

This phase did not consider only the language itself but also the thinking processes that underlie language use. That is, it looked below the surface. The significant works and figures were the ones of Françoise Grellet (1981), Christine Nuttall (1982), and Charles Anderson and Sandy Urquhart (1984) as they worked on the reading skill. The work on skills and strategies was done in

the National ESP Project in Brazil and the University of Malaya ESP Project. This phase was set up to cope with study situations where the medium of instruction was the mother tongue but students needed to read a number of specialist texts which are available only in English. As a result, it concentrated their efforts on reading strategies.

In this phase, the focus was not on the surface forms of the language but on the underlying interpretive strategies (e.g. Nuttall, 1982) which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms of the language as in guessing the meaning of words from context, etc. (ibid). obviously, this approach generally concentrated on reading or listening strategies, and the characteristic exercises enable the learners to think and analyse how meaning is produced and retrieved from written or spoken language.

5. A learning-centered approach (1987)

For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP is concerned with language learning rather than language use. According to them, the importance and the implications of the distinction between language use and language learning are clear. In fact, this stage was suggested by them, and it was the core of their book entitled: English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred approach

In sum, describing and exemplifying what people do with language will not automatically enable someone to learn it. Therefore, a valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of the language learning (ibid).

Conclusion

As stated in Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the emergence and growth of ESP was due to a number of factors and its development witnessed five main stages, beginning from register analysis and ending with a learning-centred approach.

Questions:

- Which of the stages mentioned above has Algeria experienced?
- What is the difference between language use and language learning?

Assignment:

Summarise the main phases of ESP development.

Lecture Six: Course Design

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have identified a course design and more specifically the building blocks of an ESP course design.

1. Introduction

ESP teachers are required to design courses that are appropriate for various groups. To do that, they need to ask general, specific, theoretical and practical questions. Some of the latter can be answered by research, and others will rely more on intuition and experience of the teacher.

The ESP teachers describe the language using different ideas, either explicitly or implicitly. They select theories of learning that suit those ideas. Then, they move to the practical aspect which is needs analysis that is divided into target needs (what the learner needs to do in the target situation) and learning needs (what the learner needs to do in order to learn) that should be distinguished.

2. What is a course design?

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 65) have defined a **course** as “An integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge.”

A **course design** refers to the planning and structuring of a course for achieving the needed goals. It is the outcome of a number of elements: the result of the needs analysis, the course designer's approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials (Robinson, p. 1991).

3. ESP Course Design

Munby (1978, p. 2) defines ESP courses as “Those where the syllabus and the materials are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner.” Again, this stresses the importance of the identification of learners’ needs which is the basis for any ESP course.

Thus, the ESP course takes into consideration not only the subject area of the learners, but also the lexical, semantic and structural aspects of the language characteristics of that specialised area.

The ESP courses are to prepare the learners in accordance with specific skills and vocabulary needed in their own field in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation. To achieve these aims, a number of parameters have to be taken into consideration namely:

- The identification of needs
- The syllabus Design
- The learning objectives
- The teaching methodology
- Materials production
- Evaluation and assessment

4. The Syllabus

A syllabus is a statement of a plan. It tells what will be taught. As a matter of fact, there are several types of syllabuses:

- The evaluation syllabus
- The organisational syllabus

- The materials syllabus
- The classroom syllabus
- The learner syllabus

Why should we have a syllabus?

Some of the reasons for having a syllabus according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) are:

- We cannot teach the raw material. Language must be broken in manageable units.
- A syllabus provides moral support to both the teacher and learners, for it makes the language learning task appear manageable.
- A syllabus gives an idea to both the teacher and learners about the content and how to get into it.
- A syllabus provides a set of criteria for materials selection and/or writing.

Conclusion

Any ESP course design should include the building block mentioned above: the identification of needs, learning objectives, syllabus design, materials production, teaching methodology and evaluation and assessment. .

Questions:

1. What are the building blocks of an ESP course design?
2. How did Munby (1978) define an ESP course design?
3. What is the advantage of having a syllabus.

Lecture Seven: Approaches to Course Design

Objective: By the end of this lecture, student will have had understood and distinguished the three approaches to course design.

Introduction

Course Design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences. The aim of course design is to lead the learner to a particular state of knowledge. This involves the use of the theoretical and empirical information available to produce a syllabus, to select, adapt or write materials in accordance with the syllabus, to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), there are three main types of course design: **Language-centered course design, Skills-centered course design, and Learning-centered approach.**

1. Language-centred Approach

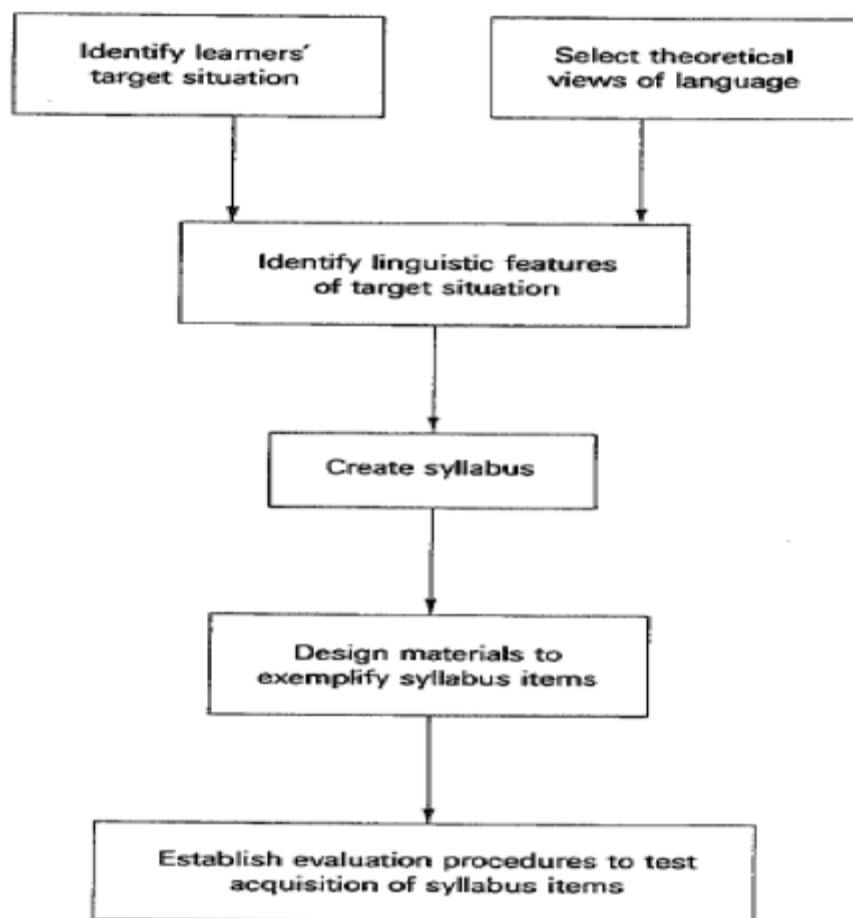


Figure 2. Language-centred Approach

2. Skills-Centred Approach

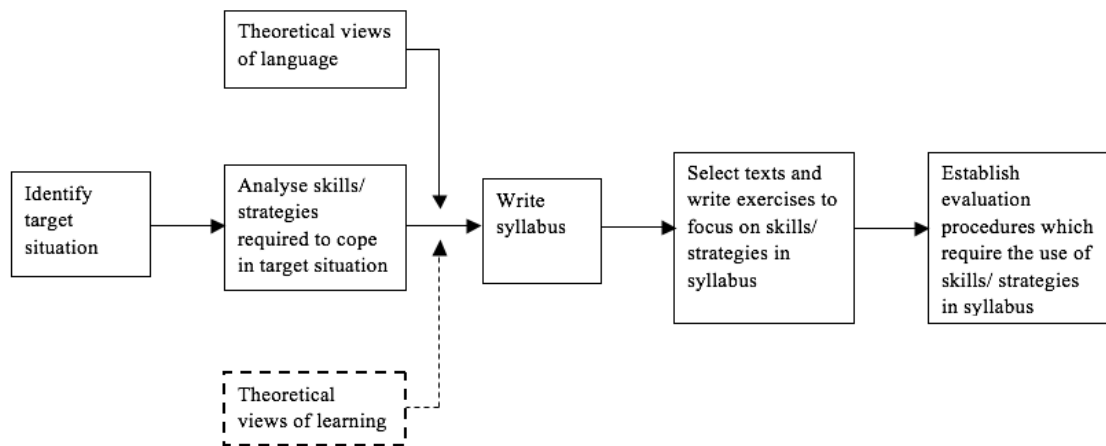


Figure 19 : A skills-centred approach to course design

Figure 3: Skills-centred Approach

3. Learning-Centred Approach

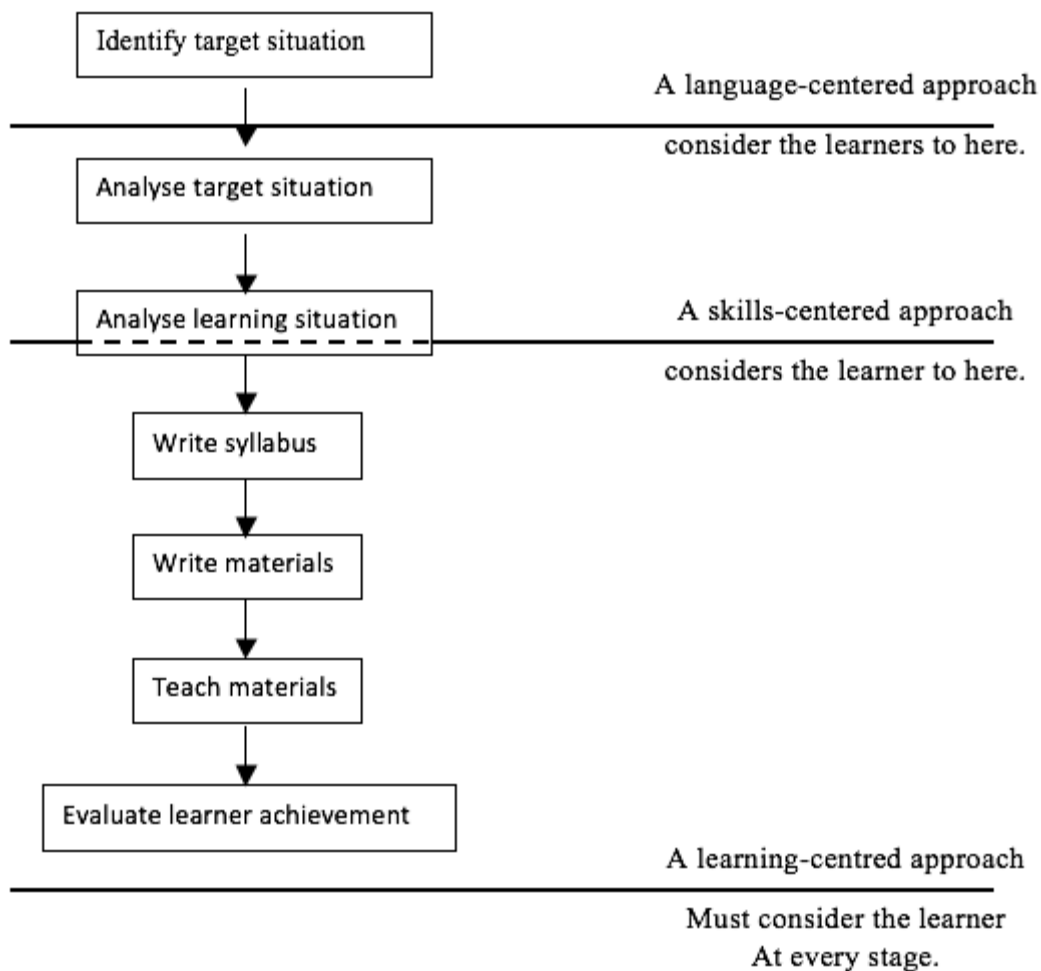


Figure 4: Learning-centred Approach

In brief, the three approaches are summarised below:

1. Language-Centered Approach: (Performance)

This approach is the simplest one and the most familiar. In this approach, you can:

- draw direct connection between target situation and the content of ESP course.
- produce accurate use of language.
- identify learners' linguistic features of target situation and select the theoretical views of language.
- design materials to exemplify syllabus items after creating it.

- establish evaluation procedures to test acquisition of syllabus items.

This approach is:

- not learner – centred.
- decontextualised, static and inflexible.

2. Skills –Centered Approach: (Competence)

This approach is a process of language use not of language learning.

In this approach:

- teach some specific skills that are necessary or useful in using a language.
- make the learners better processors of information by providing knowledge about the language.
- take into consideration to build the learners' confidence by developing gradually.
- objectives are presented in terms of both performance and competence.
- develop learners' skills even after the course.
- discover the ESP learners' experiences.

3. Learning-Centred Approach: (Competence)

In this approach, the learner is the main focus.

- Learning is an internal process which is crucially dependent on the knowledge of the learner and their ability and motivation to use it (affective filter).
- The learner is present in all the stages of preparing and teaching the course.
- It depends on the questionnaire of the needs analysis.

Conclusion

From above, the type of approach to course design depends on the objectives set for the course based on the needs analysis process.

Assignment:

In a graphic organiser, summarise the three approaches to course design.

Lecture Eight: Needs' identification and Types

Objective: By the end of this lecture, the students will have learnt about the needs and how to identify them and made the distinction between their types.

1. Needs' identification

Needs analysis is an essential characteristic of any ESP syllabus and course design. The awareness of the need, as stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), for learning English is a further important characteristic that differentiate ESP courses from general English ones. To this end, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 53) stated that “What distinguishes ESP from general English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need.”

Needs analysis is a crucial characteristic in an ESP course design, McDonough (1984, p. 29) mentioned that “Needs analysis reflects the key assumption that the learner is at the heart of any teaching programme”. He continued saying that “The idea of analyzing the language needs of the learner as a basis for course development has become almost synonymous with ESP” (ibid). In this way, the process of needs analysis in ESP teaching is the basis for establishing all programmes, courses and the required teaching materials.

Therefore, needs analysis is central to ESP as the ESP students do not aim at learning all the aspects of the language. That is why, ESP course designers should be equipped with English knowledge they need in a very short period of time.

2. Types of needs

Before focusing on the types of needs, it is necessary to define the term needs. So, what are “needs”?

In fact, needs are defined as being the requirements that the students have in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation. They are also defined as what the students need to learn to acquire the language.

The above definitions imply the existence of two main types of needs that the ESP course designer has to take into consideration while establishing his/her syllabus: Target needs and Learning needs.

2.1. Target needs

Target needs refer to what the learners need to do in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation. Viewing the definition as such the meaning is likely to be closest to the term Objectives; this is why further divisions were made to differentiate between Necessities, lacks and wants.

-Necessities: represent the final objectives; they show what the learners are able to do at the end of the English course.

-Lacks: refer to the proficiency level and background of the learners; they also refer to what the learners lack in order to reach the required level of proficiency.

-Wants: are the personal aims that the learners like to obtain from the language course.

2.2. Learning Needs

Learning needs show how the students will be able to move from the starting point (lacks) to the final destination (necessities). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claim that it is naïve to base a course design simply on the target objectives, and that the learning situation must also be taken into account. They added that the target situation alone is not reliable indicator, and that the conditions of the learning situation, the learners' knowledge,

skills, strategies, motivation for learning, the setting and the time load are of prime importance.

Once the learners' needs are identified, the ESP course designer can move on to the following step that is, syllabus design. As maintained by Munby (1978, 40) who says: “syllabus specification in ESP can only take place after the prior and necessary work has been done on needs.”

Questions

1. How can we identify ESP learners' needs?
2. What are the two main types of needs?
3. Summarise the lecture.

Lecture Nine: ESP Materials

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have learnt about how to evaluate and design materials.

Introduction

After having completing the needs analysis process and designing the course, the following step is to focus on materials: materials evaluation and materials design and the combination of the two. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 96), there exist three ways of turning the course designing into real teaching materials:

- Select from existing materials: materials evaluation.
- Write your own materials: materials development.
- Modify existing materials: materials adaptation.

1. Materials Evaluation

In brief, evaluation is “a matter of judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose” (ibid). A careful evaluation can save a great deal of money. Besides, a thorough assessment of published courses can support requests to sponsors or members of an ESP team for funding to purchase materials or time for writing them.

2. How do you evaluate materials?

Evaluation is a matching process. It matches needs to available solutions. To be objective, this matching requires looking at the needs and solutions separately. An ESP textbook, according to Hutchinson and Waters (ibid), has to

suit teachers, students and sponsors, so it should not be selected based on subjective factors.

The evaluation process can be divided into two major steps:

1. Objective analysis
2. Matching

If you decide to write your own materials, you can benefit from the existing materials as they are a good source of ideas and techniques.

3. Materials Design

Writing materials is one of the most characteristic features of ESP in practice as it takes much time from the ESP teacher contrary to General English teaching.

Hatchinson and Waters (1987, p. 107-108) stated the following reasons:

1. A teacher or institution may wish to provide teaching materials that will fit the specific subject area of particular learners and these may not be available.
2. Sometimes the suitable materials are available, but they cannot be purchased because of the currency or other restrictions.
3. ESP materials may be written for non-pedagogical reasons
4. Sometimes ESP teachers write their materials at home for the students of their institutions only.

4. Defining Objectives

There are some principles which will guide us in writing the materials, based on Hutchinson and Waters (ibid).

- a) Materials provide a stimulus to learning. They encourage learners to learn. Thus, good materials contain the following:
- Interesting texts
 - Enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities
 - Opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills
 - Content which both learner and teacher can cope with
- b) Materials help to organise the teaching-learning process in that, good materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide both teachers and learners through various activities to increase the chances of learning. In fact, this structure helps the teacher in planning lessons and motivate the learners to progress in learning.
- c) Materials should reflect what you think about the learning process.
- d) Materials reflect the nature of the learning task.
- e) Materials can have a very useful function in widening the basis of teacher training by introducing teachers to new techniques.
- f) Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

5. A Material Design Model

A model consists of four elements: input, content focus, language focus and task.

- a) **Input:** Input may be a text, dialogue, diagram, video-recording, depending on the needs defined in your analysis. The input provides the following:
- **Stimulus material for activities**
 - new language items
 - correct models of language use
 - a topic for communication

- opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills
 - opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter
- b) **Content focus:** Language is a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Moreover, non-linguistic content should be exploited to yield meaningful communication in the classroom.
- c) **Language focus:** learners have the opportunity to break the language into pieces and study how it works and practise putting back together again.
- d) **Task:** Materials should be designed to lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 108-109)

Conclusion

It should be noted that writing materials should be the last resort and an ESP teacher may use the existing materials if this suits all parties including students and sponsors. Sometimes, ESP teacher can adapt existing materials depending on the type of learners they teach in terms of language proficiency.

Questions:

1. What is the purpose of evaluating materials?
2. On what principles or criteria should ESP teachers select materials?
3. When is it possible for an ESP teacher to design his materials?
4. When should ESP teachers adapt existing materials?

Lecture Ten: Language Descriptions

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have had an idea about the various language descriptions, mainly traditional grammar, structural linguistics, Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG), etc.

Introduction

Any ESP course makes use of explicit or implicit ideas about the nature of language. Language can be described by many ways (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The ESP teacher needs to recognise that the various approaches are different ways of looking at the same thing.

1. Classical or Traditional Grammar

Description of English and other languages were based on classical languages grammar, Greek and Latin (ibid). They were based on analysing each word in the sentence. Though English had become a word-order based language, the concepts of cases are still the basis of any language.

2. Structural Linguistics

The structural description of languages has had a great influence on most language teachers since the Second World War (ibid). The grammar of the language structurally described is based on syntagmatic structures; that is to say, by varying the words within the structural frameworks (basic system), sentences with different meanings can be generated.

This way of linguistic analysis led, in ELT, for example, to the development of the substitution table as a symbolic means of explaining grammatical patterns (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Another application of structural linguistics was the structural syllabus.

It is the most enduring and very powerful means of selecting and sequencing language items. The idea here is to generate infinite number of novel utterances by giving learners a finite range of structures.

3. Transformational Generative Grammar

The grammar of a language, according to Noam Chomsky, is not the surface structures from the deep level meaning but, for ESP, the distinction between performance and competence is still valid though it was narrowly based (ibid).

4. Language Variation and Register Analysis

The concept of language variation gave rise to the type of ESP which was based on register analysis (ibid). The language varies according to context. However, register cannot be used as a main basis for selection.

5. Functional/Notional Grammar

Another major work that has influenced ESP has concentrated on functions and notions. The functional/notional-based syllabus appeared in the 1970s as an attempt from the Council of Europe 'to establish some kind of equivalence in the syllabuses for learning various languages' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 31). This equivalence was never easy to establish on formal grounds as the languages' formal structures show a great amount of variation.

However, on functional/notional syllabuses some equivalence can be achieved since notions and functions do not vary across languages (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Functions are related to the humans' intentions, speakers or writers, such as, describing, advising, explaining, etc. Notions refer to 'the categories into which the mind and thereby language divides reality, for example, time, frequency, duration, gender, number, location, quantity, quality, etc.'.

Conclusion

ESP has witnessed the use of different linguistics schools; nonetheless, it is the nature of the course that determines which language description to be adopted.

Assignment:

Summarise the different language descriptions in a graphic organiser.

Lecture Eleven: Learning Theories

Objective: Any ESP course is based on a learning theory, which is what student will have learnt through this lecture.

Introduction

In ESP, the main concern of the research and the materials is on the language analysis. The better way in learning language is actually not based on the analysis of the nature of the language but more on the understanding of the structures and processes in the mind (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). However, it still has difficulties because we only know a little about the way people learn something. The techniques, method, and content of language learning just only can be improved by the action in the classroom. Language that we learn must have the theories, and in this case, we must describe the theories in the development of language according to the needs of the learners.

After the establishment of psychology as the respectable subject of scientific enquiry in the early twentieth century, we can identify six main stages of the development of language.

1. Behaviourism: learning as habit formation

According to Hutchinson and Waters (ibid), it is the first theory of learning by Pavlov in Soviet Union and Skinner in the United States. It provided the theoretical underpinning of the Audiolingual Method of the 1950s and 1960s. In this theory, learning is the connection process of habit formation and given value by quality of the frequent action of continuous stimulus response.

This theory has the large impact on learning psychology and on language teaching. This method is based on the behaviourist stimulus response concept and secondly on an assumption that second language learning should reflect and imitate the perceived processes of mother tongue language. The processes are according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987):

1. Never translate
2. New language should always deal with these processes: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.
3. Frequent repetition is essential to effective learning.
4. All errors must be immediately corrected.

The basic exercise technique of behaviourist methodology is pattern practice in which the language that is being used is in the form of language laboratory drills. Such drills are still used in ESP. These is an example of language from scientific English:

- a. The liquid was heated. When the temperature reached 100° C, the heating was stopped.

The liquid was heated until the temperature reached 100° C.

2. Mentalism: thinking as rule-governed activity

From the Audio-lingual method, there was considerable empirical evidence among language teachers because the method was not delivering good results (Hutchinson & Waters). The reason why they argued that because in the language learning process, the learners still translate things, asked for rules of grammar, found repeating things and sometime failed to learn something even though they already learn the thing so many times.

There was the time when Chomsky criticised the behaviourist theory because there was a vague concept of ‘generalisation’ in it that he could not explain. So, he dismissed this concept. His conclusion of the theory was that thinking must be rule-governed: a finite, fairly small, set of rules enables the mind to deal with the potentially infinite range of experiences it may encounter.

3. Cognitive code: learners as thinking beings

In behaviourist theory, the learners pretend to be passive receivers of information, but in cognitive theory, the learners are being the active processor of information (ibid). The learning process and using a rule make the learners to think and use their mental power to understand the rule from the mess data and find the appropriate time or situation to use the application of rule. Therefore, in cognitive theory, learning is a process in which the learner tries to make a sense of data. Learning can also mean that the learner has managed to force some sort meaningful interpretation or pattern on the data. In other word that we learn by thinking and trying to make sense of what we see, feel, and hear.

In cognitive theory, the basic technique teaching that usually used is the problem-solving task. These are the example of problem solving task:

More recently, the cognitive view of learning has had a significant impact on ESP through the development of courses that teach reading strategies. The ESP projects have made the students aware of the reading strategies theory so the learners will easy understand the text in a foreign language.

Cognitive view has solved the problem that appeared in the behaviourist theory because now the students are the focus of the learning process. But, actually cognitive view is not enough yet, because if we want to complete the process, we need an affective view too.

4. The Affective Factor: learners as emotional beings

The importance of the emotional factor is easily seen if we consider the relationship between the cognitive theory that argues that learners will learn when they actively think about what they are learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). But this cognitive factor presupposes the affective factor of motivation. Before learners can actively think about something, they must want to think about it. The emotional reaction to the learning experience is the essential foundation for the initiation of the cognitive process. How the learning is perceived by the learner will affect what learning, if any, will take place.

The relationship between the cognitive and emotional aspect of learning is, therefore, one of vital importance to the success or otherwise of a language learning experience. This brings us to a matter which has been one of the most important elements in the development of ESP – motivation. The most influential study of motivation in language learning has been Gardner and Lambert's (1972) study of bilingualism in French speaking Canada. They identified two terms of motivations instrumental and integrative.

Instrumental motivation is the reflection of an external need. The learners are not learning a language because they want to (although this does not imply that they do not want to), but rather because they need to. The need may derive from varying sources, the need to sell things to speakers of the language; the need to pass an examination in the language; the need to read text in the language for work or study. The need may vary, but the important factor is that the motivation is an external one.

Integrative motivation, on the other hand, derives from a desire on the part of the learners to be members of the speech community that uses a particular

language. It is an internally generated want rather than an externally imposed need.

Gardner and Lambert's conclusion was that both forms of motivation are probably present in all learners but each exercises a varying influence, depending on age, experience and changing occupational or social needs.

5. Learning and Acquisition

Much debate has recently centered on the distinction made by Stephen Krashen (1981) between learning and acquisition. Learning is seen as a conscious process, while acquisition proceeds unconsciously. For the second language learners, both processes are likely to play a useful part and that a good ESP course will try to exploit both.

Conclusion

There are learning theories that fulfill different learning objectives. All this depends on the learners' needs.

Assignment :

In a table, summarise each learning theory with exemplification.

Lecture Twelve: Genre Analysis

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have had expanded their knowledge on the concept of “genre” and how it has been given much importance in ESP texts.

Introduction

The concept of genre has dominated the ESP era, mainly ESP writing. This is the focus of this lecture.

1. Genre Definition

Genre refers to categories of texts that share the same features: they are organised and worded in a similar way for the same audience and with the same purpose. Poems, news articles and lab reports are all different genres of writing. Genres are not limited to written texts.

For example, horror films are a genre. Horror novels belong to the same genre as horror films because they share similar organization and language, the same audience and have the same purpose...to scare you.

An essay on a horror film, however, is a different genre because it has a different audience (academic) and a different purpose (to educate/inform) than the film or novel.

2. Genre Analysis Definition

Genre analysis is the study of how and why a text in a certain genre has been written or spoken (Harmer, 2012). It is a process of considering many samples

of a particular genre for the aim of analysing their similarities and differences in purposes, macrostructure and language choice.

According to Halliday (1973), genre analysis is the study of how the contextual parameters, discourse structures and language interrelate.

As a matter of fact, genre analysis is a research procedure of analysing all aspects of the samples of a particular genre with three major purposes:

- To understand the social contexts in which genre occur.
- To reveal the typical patterns of organization and language features of the text of a genre in question.
- To explain how social factors influence the structure and language features of the textual realization of a particular genre.

3. The Moves in Genre Analysis

Move analysis is a top-down approach for genre analysis developed by Swales (1990) to describe the organisational patterns of research articles. Move analysis has stimulated substantial research on the rhetorical structures of academic and professional texts (Biber et al, 2007). Its goal is to identify structural and linguistic regularities characterising genres by analysing a selection of texts representing a particular genre (Tardy & Swales, 2014).

Move analysis describes the communicative purposes of a text by classifying units of discourse into rhetorical moves (Biber et al, 2007). A move refers to a section of text that performs a specific communicative function. Moves have individual functions; however, they also contribute to the overall purpose of the genre (Biber et al, 2007). This purpose constitutes the genre's rationale, which "shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style" (Swales, *ibid*, p.58). Some move types occur more

frequently than others. If a move appears in over 60% of texts, it is deemed obligatory; if it appears less, it is considered optional (Can et al, 2016). Moves can contain multiple elements, which work collaboratively to execute a move. These elements are referred to as steps (Swales, 1981) or strategies (Bhatia, 1994).

Some genres have simple move structures, whereas others consist of complex move structures. Although related genres share common move types, each has their own characteristics, reflecting the genre's specific functions (Biber et al, 2007). For example, research article abstracts and conference abstracts have similar but not identical move structures.

➤ **Example of a Genre**

Nunan (1993) illustrates by saying that an article is different from a recipe, and a recipe is different from a casual conversation. The difference may lie in the structure, grammar and physical appearance. An article, for example, has a quite consistent structure, and the sections are organised as follows:

- Introduction (which identifies a problem and states the purpose of the text)
- Materials and methods (that describes how results have been attained)
- Results (that describes what has been found out)
- Discussion (that analyses the importance of the results and their implications)

Swales (1981, 1985, and 1990) and Bhatia (1993) claim that the communicative purpose of a text is the most important feature that is related to

genre (In Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) which confirms what has been aforementioned.

Move analysis is also useful for exploring the linguistic characteristics of genres. Lexical elements, such as fixed phrases and collocations, feature prominently in certain genres. For example, phrases frequently used to introduce research include: “This study reveals/investigates/compares”, whereas phrases used for discussing the results of research are: “The results of this study indicate/show/prove”. Collocations are also commonly used to good effect. Other lexical elements to note are the use of discourse markers, which can signpost moves, such as “however” and “in conclusion”. Hedging is another significant feature. This may be achieved through the use of modal verbs (“may” and “might”) and cautious language (“suggesting that” and “results imply”). When dealing with academic genres, the register will be formal and texts are likely to contain citations and considerable jargon.

Table: Example of “Move Analysis”

Move	Definition
Move 1: Reason for studying medicine	The writer explains reasons for pursuing the proposed study
Step 1: Academic/intellectual interests	The writer gives reason for academic or intellectual interests in medicine/dentistry
Step 2: Understanding of the field	The writer describes his/her understanding of medicine/dentistry
Step 3: Personal/family experiences	The writer explains the motivation to become a doctor/dentist due to personal or family experiences
Move 2: Credentials	The writer establishes credentials related to the fields of medicine/dentistry
Step 1: Academic achievements	The writer lists academic achievements related to medicine/dentistry
Step 2: Research experiences	The writer reviews relevant research experiences
Step 3: Professional experiences	The writer discusses professional experiences (volunteer and exposure) in clinical settings
Move 3: Relevant life experiences	The writer discusses life experiences valued by the field of medicine/dentistry, for instance, community volunteering
Move 4: Future career goals	The writer states future career goals
Move 5: Personality	The writer describes personality either through explicit statement or through the use of examples

4. Steps for Analysing Genres

Follow the order given in the outline above

- Collect legitimate and diverse samples of a specific genre (not too broad).
- Clearly define each aspect of the genre's rhetorical situation.
- Analyse rather than summarise patterns found within that genre.
- Make a complex claim about the genre and the rhetorical tools it uses.
- Explain its stakes, or why a genre's argument or goal matters.
- Summarise, paraphrase, or quote from an outside text whenever necessary.
- Demonstrate an understanding of the principles and learning outcomes we have covered in class (namely Outcomes 1, 2, and 3).
- Give a clear and articulate presentation that's engaging for the listeners.

5. The Significance of Genre Analysis

1. It assists us learn more about communication in various contexts of life and social roots of writing.
2. It provides a tool of investigation of all characteristics of written texts
3. It allows us to reveal genre conventions of texts, that is their predictable, recognisable and repeated features.
4. The knowledge of genre conventions can help us better understand and evaluate written texts.

6. Genre and Register

Many authors consider either genre or register in dealing with written discourse, whereas a text functions at the level of both genre and register. Biber (2006) argues that authors should not consider either of them and disregard the other one. Analysing written discourse necessitates taking into consideration the ‘genre’ and ‘register’ approaches. The aim of this section is to shed light on the importance of both genre and register in analysing a piece of written discourse.

Johns (2003) claimed that

In the case of written discourses, many factors, including the purposes or functions of a text, the roles and relationships of readers and writers, the context in which the text is produced and processed, the formal text features, the use of content, and even what the text is called are determined in and by the culture or community in which these texts are produced or processed (p. 196).

As noticed, there is no agreement on the genre definition. Each school has provided a specific definition depending on their foci.

➤ **Register**

Register reflects the level of formality of an instance of discourse. It has been defined as follows. According to Crystal (1991) a register is “a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations” (Cited in Biber, 1994, p. 4). For Johnstone (2002), a register is “a set of lexical (vocabulary) and grammatical features that accompany and help to identify discourse that occurs in a particular recurrent situation” (p. 147). In this case, the term ‘register’ relates discourse types to particular situations. In fact, ‘register’ is sometimes used as synonymous to ‘style’, while for some sociolinguists such as Labov (1972a), the two terms are different (As cited in Johnstone, 2002). Labov (ibid) claims that a person’s style when speaking among peers is different from his style when reading aloud in front of a stranger. Nonetheless, other researchers such as Chrystal and Davy (1969) favour the term style rather than register (As cited in Allen & Corder, 1973).

Register entails knowing the linguistic structures that occur only in a situation, ones that occur frequently in a situation and those that co-occur there.

Conclusion

Genre analysis is a useful instrument in unfolding and connecting the linguistic features of a genre to their function and purpose. It provides a technique to identify moves and linguistic features found in genres.

Questions:

- 1.** Define genre and genre analysis.
- 2.** Why is genre analysis important?

Lecture Thirteen: ESP Texts

Objective: In this lecture, students are going to find out the criteria of ESP text selection and answer some questions.

Introduction

Texts in ESP settings should be selected according to a certain number of criteria, namely suitability, exploitability, readability. Moreover, it is advisable that they should be authentic which means they are not written for pedagogical purposes.

1. Text Selection Criteria

Selecting texts is not an easy task. There should be a number of criteria to be taken into consideration. Nuttall (1996) recommends three criteria that influence the choice of texts: suitability of content, exploitability, and readability.

- **Suitability**

Suitability is the most important criterion, in that the teacher selects the text that interests both the students and the teacher (Nuttall, 1996). In other words, Nuttall (ibid) pointed out that “interesting content makes the learner’s task far more rewarding” (p. 170). The author claims that if teachers are training students for academic studies, they may get better results when they begin with simple and more motivating material to (Nuttall, 1996).

- **Exploitability**

The most important criterion after interest, according to many researchers, is exploitability. Nuttall (ibid) argues that it has to do with the use of a text to

“develop the students’ competence as readers” (p. 171). She stressed on the fact that a text which cannot be exploited is useless, even if students enjoy reading it (ibid). The focus in the reading lesson as she claims should be on both language and content, for the primary aim is that students learn language better when they focus on the meaning and on the purpose of the text (ibid). Nuttall (ibid) continued arguing that exploitability implies developing interpretive strategies, the use of authentic texts, and considering the length of texts.

• **Readability**

Readability is an important feature of text. It is an essential criterion for text selection (Davies, 1995). Irwin’s (2007) research on readability has demonstrated that comprehension can be affected by word familiarity and sentence length. For Nuttall (ibid), readability refers to the structural and lexical difficulties encountered in texts, in educational settings (ibid). The former, structural difficulty, is not easy to assess, but in case the text is comprehensible, new grammatical forms such as tenses, structural words, and the like will often cause no problem (ibid). However, long and complex sentences do (ibid). The latter, which is lexical difficulty, has to do with vocabulary (ibid). This means that vocabulary can be assessed straightforwardly when the teacher knows his/her students by making lists which include new words or phrases with the addition of new idiomatic expressions and the use of familiar words such as phrases and verbs (ibid).

There exist other criteria for selecting texts such as text variety and whether texts are common-core or subject-specific.

• **Text variety**

For classes with a specific purpose for learning the language, a variety of texts is more preferred by students, which makes the reading course more interesting and the response better. A variety of texts can be even used in one

lesson, especially for activities which do not necessitate a complete understanding such as prediction, skimming and so on (ibid). However, there is a benefit in using texts that deal with similar topics, which ensures the recycling of vocabulary (Nuttall, 1996).

- **Common-Core Texts or Subject- Specific Texts?**

ESP teaching and learning requires the use of subject-specific texts rather than common-core ones. However, in many situations, as the authors explain, where there are heterogeneous classes, in terms of their subject specialties or lack of numbers of teachers who teach various specialisms, a subject-specific approach is not appropriate (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984). Rather, a common-core approach is the best solution, in that semi-technical texts may be selected, including some general topics that suit all these specialties and that make students' activities based on semi-technical vocabulary, some skills, structures and functions (ibid). Nevertheless, in some other situations where no teaching or administrative constraints exist, a subject-specific approach is more desirable and feasible, in that specific topics are more relevant and more demanded by the learners themselves (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984). In this vein, ESP teachers untrained in subject-specific texts, then, are in need of a training programme, if not, a common-core approach should be used (ibid). The role of specialists in many disciplines, who have less difficulty with vocabulary than language teachers do, is to focus on discourse markers, structures, and the like.

2. Text Authenticity

Authenticity of texts has been under discussion for a long time. Though many researchers claim that authentic texts are the ones that are not written for pedagogic purposes (Edge & Garton, 2009; Harmer, 2007; Wallace, 1992), Widdowson (1979) views authentic texts as ones reconstructed on each occasion of their use along with the reader's purpose. Put simply, authenticity lies in the interaction between text and reader, which calls for specially written texts

(Wallace, *ibid*). To this end, Kennedy & Bolitho (1984) argue that ESP teachers should consider the L2 learners' level.

Authentic materials, which are most of the time reading texts, can be used if the learner's conceptual knowledge is higher than his /her linguistic level (*ibid*). Contrariwise, simplified texts lose some meaning as they are artificially written for language teaching purposes (Davies, 1995; Dudley - Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Kennedy & Bolitho, *ibid*; Nuttall, 1996; Silberstein, 1994; Wallace, *ibid*). Despite this fact, simplified materials assist learners in developing their reading abilities (Davies & Widdowson, 1974 cited in Allen & Corder) and are to be used when "both concepts and language are at a low level" (Kennedy & Bolitho, *ibid*, p. 48). In this line, Allen and Widdowson (1971) point out that it should be looked at a target situation (ESP/EAP) text as whether it fits the learning purpose or not (cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Conclusion

Teachers should select texts based on the criteria mentioned above. Texts that are interesting to students should be better used in class. The authenticity of texts depends on the linguistic and cultural awareness of the learners.

Questions:

1. What are the main criteria of text selection?
2. When do ESP teachers resort to common-core texts?

Lecture Fourteen: Reading in ESP Contexts

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have learnt in the main about reading comprehension strategies and characteristics of good readers.

Introduction

Reading in English has become a necessity to many people, especially educated ones, since most informational references in many areas of study are in English. For FL learners studying English in ESP settings to read better and comprehend texts in English, they need to use reading comprehension strategies, for English references are written with the native speaker in mind.

Pre-, During-, and Post- Reading Strategies Framework

Good reading requires the readers to be strategic. That is, readers establish goals for any reading task, apply a number of well-practised reading strategies at hand in efficient combinations, monitor comprehension appropriately, recognise miscomprehension, and repair miscomprehension problems effectively (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Teaching strategies “promotes students’ active engagement with text” (Wilkinson & Hye Son, 2011, p. 365). To this end, reading comprehension strategies should be implemented in the three stages of a reading lesson, namely pre-, during-, and post-reading stages (Davies & Pearse, 2000) each of which plays an important role in text comprehension. Besides, these strategies should be taught and modelled by the teacher so as to enable the students to do the same (Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Janzen, 2002). Moreover, Koda (2004) finds modelling assist students in understanding what it means to comprehend a text and monitor comprehension. By thinking aloud, the teacher demonstrates how understanding ‘materializes from the text’ (Koda, *ibid*). In the following, we expose some characteristics of good readers, then we shall shed

some light on the most recognised strategies namely the ones used before, during, and after reading.

1. Characteristics of Good Readers

Comprehending a text involves the presence of all the factors mentioned above. That is, the reader should have a linguistic threshold as recommended by Alderson (2000). He/she should acquire good decoding skills, vocabulary, and grammar. However, this is not sufficient. There should be other factors that assist students in making sense of text. And this is what distinguishes good readers from poor ones. In this case, good readers have a certain number of characteristics. Before reading, good readers make a plan for reading, they set a purpose for reading, preview the text, activate background knowledge and predict the content of the text. When engaged in a text, according to Pressley (2002a, 2002b, and 2006), use the following strategies:

1. They read selectively according to goals.
2. They read carefully in key places.
3. They read as appropriate.
4. They monitor their reading continuously and they are aware of whether or not they are comprehending the text.
5. They identify important information.
6. They try to fill in gaps in the text through inferences and prior knowledge.
7. They make guesses about unknown words.
8. They use text-structure information to guide understanding.
9. They make inferences about the author, key information, and main ideas.
10. They attempt to integrate ideas from different parts of the text.
11. They build interpretations of the text as they read.

12.They build main-idea summaries.

13.They evaluate the text and the author and, as a result, form feelings about the text.

14.They attempt to resolve difficulties.

(Grabe, 2009, p. 228)

Good readers, after reading, check their comprehension, summarise and evaluate the text and integrate the information in the text with their background knowledge (ibid).

2. Pre-, During- and Post-Reading Strategies

Researchers indicate that RC should be handled within a pre-, during- and post-reading strategies framework. “In the process of comprehending a message for a particular purpose, each reader utilizes different strategy and skill components” (Alderson, 1991, in press; Alderson & Lukmani, 1989 as cited in Hudson, 1991, p. 79). Carrell (1984) claims that “Strategic reading is a prime characteristic of expert readers because it is woven into the very fabric of reading for meaning, and the development of this cognitive ability” (Cited in Ediger, 2006, p. 307). Goldenberg (2011) claims that “readers can improve their comprehension by using comprehension strategies” (p. 697).

2.1. Pre-reading strategies

Before they begin to read, L2/FL readers come with a purpose in mind. The following steps are previewing the text, activating background knowledge, forming questions, predicting, and skimming. By doing so, learners will be prepared for reading the text (Davies & Pearse, 2000).

- Previewing

This strategy allows students to determine the general topic of the reading, relevant vocabulary (though not necessary for advanced learners), etc. This can

be done by examining distinguishing features of the text such as the title, subheadings, drawings, and illustrations (Grabe & Stoller, 2001).

- Activating prior knowledge

Activating prior knowledge facilitates recall of information among students. It is an aid to better comprehension of the text, especially when students are provided with specific reading guides for texts (Grabe, 2009). However, less background knowledge does not necessarily lead to miscomprehension. It has been proved that students with a high level of proficiency in L2/FL and with limited background knowledge can learn more from a text than less-skilled ones (ibid).

- Forming questions

Question-forming strategy, most of the time, requires training students in how to generate appropriate questions that relate to a text. This strategy improves “memory for text information, the identification of main ideas, and accuracy in answering questions” (Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996 cited in 2009, p. 209-210).

- Predicting

Predicting is important in making sense of texts. After the background knowledge has been activated and questions have been formed, the reader, then, predicts the content of the text by forming hypotheses (Duffy, 2009). This strategy is also used during reading to anticipate the next chunk of language.

- Skimming

Skimming is identified by researchers as a quick reading. The reader uses this strategy to identify the main idea of the text by having a glance at the first and

last paragraphs, and the topic sentence of each paragraph (Grabe & Stoller, 2001).

-Scanning

Scanning a text is crucial since readers are required to answer questions. Scanning means looking quickly through the text but for a specific piece of information (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Grellet, 1981). The reader starts reading and once s/he finds the needed information, s/he looks at the surrounding text. If s/he gets what s/he is looking for, s/he stops reading. If not, s/he continues scanning until s/he spots that information (Aebersold & Field, *ibid*). Scanning can also be used as a during-reading strategy whereby students can have a glance at the text to look for specific piece of information, with students having already read the text (*ibid*).

2.2. During-Reading Strategies

During reading, L2/FL readers are engaged with a text by using both bottom-up and top-down strategies to comprehend the text. The bottom-up strategies help in building sentence-by-sentence comprehension. The top-down ones assist the reader in comprehending large pieces of text such as a paragraph. In short, efficient reading involves both types of strategies whereby the reader moves from one to the other as s/he reads (Aebersold & Field, *ibid*). Some of during-reading strategies are: inferencing, comprehension monitoring, predicting, and using text structure awareness.

- Inferencing

Inferencing is a very important and useful strategy to comprehension. It permits the reader to retrieve the intended information by using what is

mentioned in the text such as syntax, logical and cultural clues, etc (Grellet, 1981). According to King (2007),

Writers generally leave some material implicit in their text as they assume that the reader will easily figure out (infer) from the text. This “figuring out” of implicit information is called *inferencing* and is considered to be a central of the comprehension process (p. 269).

Inferencing depends on the student’s prior knowledge, reading strategies, vocabulary knowledge, text-structure awareness and so on.

- Comprehension Monitoring

It is a major reading strategy that improves comprehension. More than that, it is viewed as an important metacognitive process (Grabe, 2009). This strategy implies many other strategies such as relating text to background knowledge, recognising text structure, etc (ibid).

- Predicting

During reading, good readers anticipate the following paragraph in a text and predict its main idea before reading it based on what is being said and dealt with in the present paragraph. This prediction is going to be either confirmed or revised and in this way new information will be added to the prior knowledge.

- Using Text Structure Awareness

It is a very useful and important strategy for making text comprehension and recall of information better. Grabe (ibid) states that many studies dealing with expository prose have demonstrated that students who are aware of text structure and who utilise the resources of text structure in their summaries such as discourse-signalling systems which include, for instance, rhetorical patterns of organisation, and the like, improve their reading comprehension.

- Other During-Reading Strategies

There are other strategies used during reading such as checking predictions, forming questions about the text, finding answers to posed questions, taking notes, skipping words, distinguishing main ideas from supporting details, distinguishing fact from opinion, connecting one part of the text to another, rereading, guessing the meaning of words from contexts, highlighting /underlining difficult parts of a text, and checking comprehension (Grabe, *ibid*; Grellet, 1981; Jordan, 1997).

2.3. Post-Reading Strategies

After reading and understanding a text, proficient L2/FL readers are able to paraphrase and summarise the text in a form of a paragraph or in graphic organisers, evaluate the author's point of view or make a personal response. Post-reading strategies include mainly "summarisation" and "the use of graphic organisers".

- Summarisation

Summarisation is an important post-reading strategy. According to Grabe (2009), though there is scant research on the effect of this strategy on L2 reading, summarising texts leads students to better comprehension. In studies conducted by some researchers like Trabasso and Bouchard (2000), it has been found that summarisation training has led students to better summarising of reading texts, which reflects better texts comprehension (Grabe, 2009).

- Using Graphic Organisers

The use of graphic organisers, in L2 contexts, such as Venn diagrams, KWL charts, matrices and the like assists readers in recognising text structure and focus on main points and ideas and their relations with supporting details.

- Dialogic Discussions

Dialogic discussion is a post-reading classroom event which allows all students to participate and give interpretations to text. Almasi (2002) states that “discussion is defined as a dialogic classroom event in which students and teachers are cognitively, socially, and affectively engaged in collaboratively constructing meaning or considering alternate interpretations of texts to arrive at new understandings” (Cited in Almasi and Garas-York, 2009, p. 471). This means that students may shape or reshape their interpretations of texts.

Conclusion

Reading comprehension strategies should be taught to students in combination while focusing in some of them depending on the objective set by the teacher.

Questions:

1. In a graphic organiser, summarise the reading comprehension strategies framework.
2. Do you know other useful comprehension strategies?

Lecture Fifteen: Writing Skill in ESP Contexts

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have recognised the importance of the writing skill in ESP settings and how to improve it through different ways and how to overcome any difficulties.

Introduction

There are always problems in teaching reading and writing to students, for both activities are concerned with written texts, not with spoken ones. The similarities are at many levels such as the signaling words, while the difficulties lie, for example, in the fact that reading requires knowledge of text structures, whereas writing is concerned with the production of texts. In this essence, reading is necessary for any writing task since a writer must consider the structure of the text. To this end, learners must be exposed to a number of text structures so that they can produce similar ones.

1. Coherence

Some adult ESP learners do not have too many problems with coherence because the ability to write in a coherent way is transferred from the mother tongue, while its absence in an adult learner learning English is not welcome as it may signal the lack of practicing writing coherently in any language (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984). In this case, the teacher has to decide whether he makes some remedial work as writing is essential in any language programme.

2. Purpose and Relevance in Writing

As reading has a purpose, so writing has, too. The writer must be aware why he is writing and to whom he is writing. This is very important because the form

and content of a piece of writing change when his readership changes. An article is written for a specific readership of scholarly colleagues who will expect an article's structure and who will have some high degree of shared knowledge about the topic.

However, at lower levels, the purpose and readership can be unclear. The purpose will be, for example, training students in the scientific discourse writing.

3. Report Writing

A common form of writing that is associated to ESP is the writing up of experiments. In fact, a number of books have focused on the writing training such as Swales and Fanning (1980) and Dudley-Evans (1984). Reports of experiments have the following structure:

- the aim of the experiment
- a description of the apparatus used, with diagrams where appropriate
- the method or procedure
- the results, and
- the conclusion

(Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984, p. 88-89)

When a student is beginning science, the aim of writing is often as in: "Is Iron a better conductor of heat than Copper?":

- The section that describes the apparatus used may consist of a list of items.
- The method or procedure describes what was done.
- This section is linked to the past tense (e.g. We heated the metal) and describes a sequence of events which requires the use of markers such as for example, then, after that, finally.
- The results section uses the past simple and describes what actually happened.

- The conclusion is often short and written in the present simple.

(Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984, p. 89)

4. Notetaking

Notetaking is a difficult skill to master even for English native speakers; it requires much practice. Notetaking is a process of three stages:

Stage 1:

The reader or listener must comprehend the message he is receiving. This stage must be successfully completed before the next one begins.

Stage 2:

The reader or listener selects what is relevant to the purpose, neglects additional information and writes down the content of the message in the form of notes.

Stage 3:

The notes are used for the final purpose which can be to deliver a speech, to revise for an examination or to expand and incorporate the notes into an essay.

5. Academic Writing

One of the major concerns for ESP/EAP students is writing tasks. Jordan (1997) stated that the writing difficulties encountered by overseas postgraduates included the following:

- Vocabulary 62%
- Style 53%
- Spelling 41%
- Grammar 38%
- Punctuation 18%
- Handwriting 12%

The obtained results necessitate that those students should improve their writing skill. In fact, there exist two main approaches to writing (Jordan, 1997): the product approach and the process approach.

5.1. The Product Approach

In this approach, a model is provided and the students are required to produce a similar text. The product approach has been linked to the functional approach since the advent of the Wilkins' Notional Syllabuses in 1976, much focus has been on language functions, text structures, cohesion and other grammatical aspects and academic styles. Some books were organised on topics/themes, whereas other on language functions. Therefore, the books that were organised on language functions included the following:

- Description (including processes and sequencing)
- Narrative
- Instruction
- Explanation
- Definition
- Exemplification
- Classification
- Comparison and contrast
- Cause and effect
- Expressing: purpose, means, prediction, expectancy, reservation, result
- Generalisation and specificity
- Discussion and argumentation (problem and solution)
- Drawing conclusions. (ibid, p. 165)

Moreover, academic writing must be acceptable to the host academic institution. Thus, the primary focus should be on academic discourse genres and

academic writing tasks, which aimed to help socialise students into the academic context.

The types of genre that students should be familiar with include the following:

- essays
- reports
- case studies
- projects
- literature reviews
- exam answers
- research papers/articles
- dissertations and theses

5.2. The Process Approach

This approach focuses on meaning rather than form. It encourages students to be more responsible for their learning. In this approach, students can make decisions about the direction of their writing by the means of tasks, discussion, drafts and feedback. The latter, feedback, is very essential in the process approach to writing. Keh (1990) discussed three main types of feedback:

- peer evaluation,
- conferences (i.e. teacher-student interaction) and
- written comments.

According to the researcher, each feedback has its advantages and uses. In this approach, students, as mentioned above, are encouraged to draft and revise in order to make improvements in writing.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that ESP students need more improvements on writing skills besides learning vocabularies and grammar; they should know how to deal

with a variety of professional texts using the target language since they often have difficulty developing writing skills.

Questions:

1. Summarise the main points in the lecture.
2. Provide more effective ways that help ESP learners in improving their writing skills.

Lecture Sixteen: Speaking skill in ESP Contexts

Objective: In this lecture, students will learn about the speaking skill in ESP contexts, its aspects and production skills besides other related topics.

Introduction

Speaking is one of the main language skills that should be given much importance in both general and specific settings; it is considered by researchers as a productive skill in that a learner produces sentences, participates in conversations and discussions, and the like. For Saville-Troike (2006), ‘speaking is very important area of activity for L2 learners if they will be using the language for interpersonal purposes, whether these are primarily social or instrumental’ (p. 166). EFL students including ESP ones in different Algerian universities, in fact, speak for different reasons and they should be enabled to develop this skill. Jordan (1997) that the biggest difficulties for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students is expressing themselves in speech. In fact, this is what has been noticed in many specialities in the module of English in the Algerian universities. They encounter difficulties in speaking. In the main, the following will focus on teaching speaking in ESP/EAP settings by suggesting a number of activities. To this end, we shall define the speaking skill, stress its importance, focus on speaking as a skill, state and describe the difficulties related to it and provide some solutions for improving it.

1. Speaking Definition

There are various definitions to the verb to ‘speak’ and the term ‘speaking’. according to the Reader’s Digest Oxford Complete Wordfinder (1993, p. 1489), speaking is ‘the act or an instance of uttering words etc’. Bygate (1987) viewed speaking as a skill that requires attention in both first and second language. Speaking is also equated to oral communication. According to Luoma (2004),

speaking is viewed by teaching and testing experts as one of the skills that should be developed by learners. It is what individuals do and part of ‘the shared social activity of talking’ (ibid). Nunan (1993) states that the ‘ability to produce discourse that extends beyond a limited number of utterances, and in which information is conveyed clearly, needs to be consciously learned. It can also benefit from explicit teaching, and should therefore form part of the school curriculum’ (p. 107).

2. Speaking Importance

Nunan (1999) relates success in language learning to the ability to build conversations in the target language. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), any misunderstanding in oral communication is the result of any of the following problems:

- The speaker does not have full mastery of the target language knowledge and produces unacceptable forms (in terms of grammar, phonology or lexical choice).
- There is no shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer.
- The speaker may violate the sociocultural rules of appropriacy because of pragmatic transfer from L1 (first language).

Two main aspects of speaking are accuracy and fluency. The first has to do with the ability to speak using correct grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and intonation whereas the second is related to the ability of the speaker to produce a flow of speech spontaneously without hesitations.

3. Speaking Difficulties

Some of the difficulties encountered by EAP students in seminars or academic discussions include the following:

- Comprehension of spoken English
- The pressing need to formulate a contribution quickly

- Shyness about the value of a contribution
- Inability to formulate an idea in English
- Awareness that a given function may be realised in various ways
- Frustration about being unable to enter the discussion

4. Factors that help Language Improvement

The following factors help EAP students, mainly the ones studying in English speaking countries improve their speaking skill:

- Talking to native speakers informally
- Listening to the radio, watching TV, etc.
- Attending lectures, seminars, etc. in department
- Attending in-session English classes
- Individual language learning
- Talking to other non-native speakers

5. Speaking Functions

Language and speaking specifically serves two main functions: transactional and interactional. The first one is the communication of information (Brown & Yule, 1983; Nunan, 1991) whereas the second one is to establish and maintain social relationships (ibid).

6. Speaking Criteria

Speaking is viewed as reflecting an individual's competence in using language. It involves an interactive communicative approach in which the speaker uses a number of sub-skills, specifically linguistic, discourse and sociocultural competencies. In other words, a learner's speaking competence is measured by his/her ability to express himself/herself appropriately (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, Shumin, 2002 ; Widdowson, 2007). Speech production contrary to writing is less planned, more contextualised and more

informal ; however, it shares the same parameters as writing which are presuppositions, sociocultural rules and speaker intention. Brown and Yule (1983) argued that the speaker:

- has a wide range of quality effects besides facial expressions, postures and gestures.
- controls the production of the communicative systems and processes that production under more demanding circumstances.
- must monitor what he is saying and determines whether it harmonises with his intentions.
- is under the pressure because he has to continue speaking in the allotted time.
- can observe his/her interlocutor and modify what he/she is saying to him/her besides monitoring the listener's reaction to what he/she, the speaker, says.

For Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), the aforementioned linguistic, discourse and sociocultural competencies ensure better learners' oral communication and include the following prerequisites:

- a. knowing the vocabulary relevant to the situation
- b. ability to use discourse connectors such as well, Oh I see, okay
- c. ability to use suitable 'opening phrases' and 'closing phrases' such as Excuse me or Thank you for your help
- d. ability to comprehend and use reduced forms (reducing vowel sounds is particularly important in English)
- e. knowing the syntax for producing basic clauses in the language
- f. ability to use basic intonation – or tone – patterns of the language
- g. ability to use proper rhythm and stress in the language and to make proper pauses

- h. awareness of how to apply Grice's maxims in the new language
- i. knowing how to use the interlocutor's reactions and input
- j. awareness of the various conversational rules that facilitate the flow of talk

The maxims of cooperation suggested by Grice (1975) are important in oral communication as they ensure the flow of exchange between the participants:

- a. Quantity: it refers to the effective speaker making the right decision with respect to the amount of information imparted – not too much and not too little.
- b. Quality: it refers to the speaker's conviction and belief that s/he is stating the truth.
- c. Relevance: it refers to the fact that the speaker needs to make sure that the hearer sees the relevance of what is being to what s/he knows about the situation and the goal of interaction.
- d. Manner: it refers to the delivery of the message. The speaker is expected to produce a coherent, well-presented utterance that does not make it difficult for the hearer to carry out the interpretation process

(Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 171-172)

The idea behind the maxims is that the speaker wants to be understood and interpreted correctly, and the hearer wants to decode effectively the message s/he receives.

7. Speaking in ESP Settings

Speaking activities and tasks in the classroom should focus on enabling students to using all the prerequisites mentioned above for effective communication. Harmer (2007) states that 'Good speaking activities can and should be extremely engaging for the students' (p. 123). Ur (1981 in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) suggested a number of group task-centred activities to foster the use of the spoken language by providing authentic opportunities for

the students to become better users of knowledge they have in the second or foreign language.

7.1. Reasons for Speaking Activities in ESP Contexts

Harmer (2012) mentions four reasons why students are asked to do speaking activities in class:

- To retrieve and use the language they already know
- To give students a desire to speak for a communicative purpose while the content is as important as the language
- Not to tell students what language they should use
- To have an idea about how well students are doing

7.2. Some Speaking Activities

According to Jordan (1997), speaking for academic purposes is done in various academic settings and it is formal and neutral and adheres to the conventions related to the genre or activity. He stated the following situations or activities:

- Asking questions in lectures;
- Participation in seminars/discussions;
- Making oral presentations; answering ensuing questions/points;
- Verbalising data, and giving oral instructions, in seminars/workshops/laboratories. (p. 193)

Speaking activities can be introduced from easier to more difficult. Some of these activities found in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) are:

a. Role play

This activity plays a major role in stimulating real communication that fits experiences outside the classroom (Bygate, 1987). In this type, students make

use of their knowledge of vocabulary, intonation, turn taking, and so forth provided that they have sufficient information about the participants, the situations and the background for the simulated situation. These elements make the activity meaningful.

b. Group discussions

This is an effective speaking activity especially in a large class. Students in the L2/FL should be encouraged and given the opportunity to take part in group discussions and in any activities that require from them producing even a single word or term. An important amount of classroom time should be devoted to this type of speaking activities so as to facilitate the spoken production of each student, and this is going to prepare them for more autonomous speaking activities. According to Harmer (2012), discussions can be very motivating and successful when they are well organised.

c. Using the target language outside the classroom

This is an activity where students are given homework assignments such as collecting information from offices, stores, restaurants, etc. This is about the target language spoken in second language contexts. The students' job is to report and present them in class as oral presentations.

d. Using the learner's input

Using the learner's input for creating meaningful speaking activities assists in making the activity authentic and relevant to the student. This involves giving the opportunity to students to talk about topics of their own and discuss them in class in pairs then in groups.

e. Feedback

Feedback is important in any speaking activity in that it encourages students to develop their communication skills. It should be noted that teachers are required to provide feedback on the oral performance and point out the good use of vocabulary, stress, and intonation on the part of students. It is not an opportunity to only focus on individual difficulties.

f. Looking at authentic speech in the form of written transcripts

Written transcripts including authentic speech can help the students have an idea about and be aware of features of oral discourse. These transcripts may include feedback techniques, useful expressions, connectors and other details that better attract the students' attention in the written form rather than when they are listened to.

Peer feedback can be used in an effective way when emphasis is on performance. To this end, feedback can be done in pairs or even in groups. It is important that it should be constructive.

g. Self-evaluation and self-analysis

Self-evaluation and self-analysis can be a useful instruction technique that improves the students' spoken delivery in a second or foreign language. Teachers record their students, or students record themselves using videotaping, and this allows them to make self-analyses. The latter will enable those students to improve their oral deliveries.

7.3. The Teacher's Role in Speaking Activities

Teachers should encourage their students develop and improve their speaking skill when they play the following roles (Harmer, 2012):

- The teacher is a prompter who pushes the students forward by suggesting things they might say next and by encouraging them to speak.
- The teacher can be a participant in an activity provided that he does not dominate the activity.

- The teacher gives feedback highlighting both positive and negative points, as mentioned earlier.

An important pedagogical question asked by researchers is whether a strategy-based instruction can improve oral communication in a second or foreign language context. Results of a strategy-based instruction carried out by Cohen (1998) on fifty-five French and Norwegian students at University of Minnesota who were grouped in experimental and control groups demonstrated its efficiency. The results also suggest that integrating this strategy instruction with the language instruction in the language classroom can foster the learner's ability to communicate orally (Cohen, 1998 in Celce-Murcia, 2000, p. 175).

Conclusion

To conclude, the speaking skill needs to be taken care of by teachers in that they should plan for what to select as best and suitable activities though teaching the spoken language is a hard task. Teaching speaking from a discourse perspective involves making a shift from focusing on linguistic performance to focusing on a more pragmatic perspective (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). In this case, contextual features of spoken interaction must be in classroom activities. Speaking is an important skill in ESP settings. It needs to be developed through different ways and strategies. The role of the teacher is to help the learners improve it.

Questions:

1. Summarise the lecture in a paragraph and/or a graphic organiser.
2. Is there any difference between speaking activities in ESP contexts and General English ones?

Lecture Seventeen: Oral Presentations in ESP Contexts

Objective: By the end of this lecture, students will have had knowledge on oral presentations and how to improve them.

Introduction

In seminars, students are asked to give a short talk on some or many aspects of their studies. This is referred to as oral presentations. The following will develop the oral presentation topic.

1. Definition

An oral presentation is a kind of talk prepared to be delivered in front of an audience, often about an aspect or part of a teaching programme.

2. Stages of an Oral Presentation

Price (1977) suggested teaching the language that is appropriate for sequencing ideas and identified five stages in presenting a topic:

1. general introduction
2. statement of an intention
3. information in detail
4. conclusion
5. invitation to discuss

Nesi and Skelton (1987) emphasised the careful organisation of material in oral presentations, while they do not give much importance to total accuracy or fluency (in . The strategies suggested by the authors were within a course that consisted of an initial short lecture by the tutor. This gives an idea about the oral presentation and sets as an example of the organisation, style and use of aids needed for a successful presentation. Therefore, information is given on:

- a) logistical problems, e.g. standing, positioning, looking

b) structuring and signalling:

1. Introduction

State: what you will do (content)

how you will do it (procedure)

2. Body

List of points

Frame or focus each point

3. Conclusion

Summarise

c) visual material: especially use of the OHP.

Presentation Skills

According to Anderson et al. (2004), to make a presentation interesting, you have to consider the following:

1. Appropriate objectives and precisely defined message

- Select the content that is relevant to the audience's interest and appropriate to their level of knowledge.
- You should know what precisely the main message of your presentation is.

2. Clarity of communication

- Make sure you deliver the message clearly.
- Remember that a clear presentation is a pleasure to listen to.

Make the overall structure of your presentation clear to the listeners

Do this by:

- preparing a logical planned outline of main points

- stating the precise topic clearly at the start
- giving a preview of the outline in the introduction
- signalling when you move from point to point in the outline
- summarising your main points in the conclusion

Make your points clear as you speak

Do this by:

- giving examples
- using visual aids
- using language signals, indicating examples, contrast, additional points, and so on
- grouping words into meaningful units
- using your voice for emphasis of selected points. (p. 113)

3. Making it vivid

Now, you can make your presentation more interesting by doing this:

- providing surprising statistics
- telling a personal anecdote
- giving vivid examples related to everyone's experience
- suggesting an analogy not from your subject field
- quoting from a famous author. (p. 114)

Note that these techniques are sometimes used at the beginning of a presentation for attracting the audience's attention. For academic presentations as our point of focus, it is advisable to begin with a simple, clear start.

According to Anderson et al., (2004), research has demonstrated that audiences' s attention is very high at the start of a presentation, then it

decreases, and then it increases when they hear the conclusion's signal. This means that the vivid techniques should be placed in the middle to keep the audience's attention.

The Benefits of Oral Presentations

Oral presentations in the classroom have many benefits. Some of them are:

1. They are student-centered.
2. They improve students' interaction and use of English.
3. They require the use of all four language skills, eye contact and body language.
4. They provide students with realistic language tasks.
5. They improve students' motivation towards learning.

4. Difficulties in ESP Oral Presentations

- Anxiety
- Lack of confidence
- Blankness
- Problems in understanding the topic
- Organizing the ideas
- Teacher's expectations
- Time management

Conclusion

Giving an oral presentation is a challenging, but a rewarding task. Teachers can make their ESP classes more communicative and successful by scaffolding powerful oral presentations. This is done by encouraging students to “take initiative, think beyond the mandated textbook, and use language creatively, purposefully, and interactively.” (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010, p. 227).

Questions:

1. Mention the five main benefits from using oral presentations in an ESP classroom.
2. Look for other difficulties that ESP encounter and how to overcome them.

**Lecture Eighteen: Language Assessment and Evaluation in
Teaching English for Specific Purposes**

Introduction

It is obvious that teachers not only do they teach, but also assess; that is, they need from time to time to check how well their learners are mastering and digesting the different aspects of the English language course. To this end, they select many ways to achieve their set objectives through different types of assessment. Testing in ESP contexts is part of assessment and most of the time, teachers neglect the other types and focus only on testing. However, testing is not really understood properly by teachers, because of either lack of awareness of its importance in English language teaching or lack of knowledge of what testing is exactly and its requirements.

1. Teaching, Testing and Evaluation

In this section, we should stress the relationship between teaching and testing. Moreover, we should highlight the difference between testing and evaluation. Teaching and learning should be evaluated.

➤ Teaching and testing

Although there exists an intimate relationship between teaching and testing, they are not considered as equivalents. However, according to Davies and Pearse (2000), some teachers transform teaching into a continuous test. Davies and Pearse (ibid, p. 169) provide the following example:

Teacher: Where did you go in the holidays, Sofia?

Learner 1: I didn't go anywhere.

Teacher: Very good, very good. And you, Giovanni. Where did you go?

Learner 2: I go to Scotland.

Teacher: no, no, Giovanni, no.

From the above conversation, it seems that the teacher is not teaching but testing.

Teaching should be directed towards building up the learners' ability and confidence in using English for effective communication. "Especially when you are trying to develop fluency, it is very important that learners should not feel that they are being tested all the time" (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.170), for this does not allow them to achieve fluency. Most teaching should not be seen as a test by the learners. However, you should evaluate performance and progress of the learners and your own teaching constantly. Therefore, evaluation is essential in teaching.

➤ **Testing and Evaluation**

The two concepts of 'testing' and 'evaluation' are used interchangeably; however, they should be distinguished, and the distinction in English is important.

As a matter of fact, 'evaluation' is more general than 'testing'. You can evaluate teaching, teaching materials, tests and learning (ibid). Also, you can evaluate learning in several ways, not only with the formal tests given to the learners.

➤ **Tests and Testing**

When we talk about testing, it is necessary to define it and explain what a test is and make a distinction between tests and examinations.

2. Language Testing Definition

Testing is the use of tests, or the study of the theory and practice of their use, development, evaluation, etc. Hedge (2000) states that testing is a term "that is not always used precisely" (p. 378). She defines it as "the specific procedures that teachers and examiners employ to try to measure ability in the language,

using what learners show they know as an indicator of their ability” (ibid). Carter (1993) defined language testing as “a process by which a student’s ability, knowledge, performance or progress in language use can be measured” (p. 68).

➤ **Test Definition**

A **test** is a measuring device which we use when we want to compare an individual with other individuals who belong to the same group. For example, you may use a language test for comparing them in terms of their mastery of a foreign language.

Tests ... invite candidates to display their knowledge or skills in a concentrated fashion, so that the results can be graded, and inference made from the standard of performance in the test about the general standard of performance that can be expected from the candidate, either at the time of the test or at some future time (Ingram, 1974, p. 313)

3. Tests vs Examinations

The difference between tests and examinations is in the marking (Ingram, ibid); that is, in an examination, the marker must use his judgment, whereas in a test, the marking does not depend on the judgment of any individual. However, some of applied linguists such as Pilliner (1968) states that the only objective thing is the marking, i.e., it is subjective (ibid).

A test is carefully designed for a specific purpose whereas evaluation may be spontaneously and handled very flexibly. A test consists of one or more exercises or tasks, each with clear objective, learning’s evaluation “usually employs formal tests, but it may also include other options”. When the evaluation of learning is based on class participation, progress tests, homework,

and projects rather than final tests alone, this is referred to as ‘assessment’ or ‘continuous assessment’.

Despite this fact, Hedge (2000) states that

tests are the main instruments for evaluation of learning in most teaching situations. “Good tests provide the opportunity for learners to show how much they know about language structure and vocabulary, as well as how they are able to use these formal linguistic features to convey meanings in classroom language activities through listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Tests of this type may be used as part of an integrated assessment system (p. 378).

4. Why testing

The purpose of testing is related to the objectives of the course, and requires from teachers test their learners.

5. Basic Aspects of Testing

When talking about testing, it is important to have an idea about the different types of tests, the criteria of testing and testing challenges.

6. Types of Test

The purpose of English language tests is to gather reliable evidence of what learners can do in English and what they know of English. This information may be required to different reasons, and these reasons govern the type of tests used. According to Davies and Pearse (2000) and Harmer (2012), Hutchinson and

Waters (1987) and other researchers, there are five common types of test, each with a specific purpose. The following table summarises them.

Purpose type of test	Purpose
Placement test	To place new students in the appropriate course or level. These are essential in large institutions that frequently receive new students.
Diagnostic test	To find out learners' strengths and weaknesses at the start of a course. They allow the teacher to adjust his or her teaching to the needs of the group and individual learners. They are especially useful with mixed – level groups.
Progress tests (short-term achievement tests)	To check how well learners are doing after each lesson or unit, and provide consolidation or remedial work if necessary. They usually focus on language that has recently been introduced and practised.
Course tests (longer-term achievement tests)	To check how well learners have done over a whole course. These are the commonest basis for the marks teachers give learners at the end of each course. They are also the main concern in testing for most classroom teachers.
Proficiency tests	To determine learners' levels in relation to generally accepted standards. These are useful for the objective evaluation of learning, and also for the indirect evaluation of course design and teaching. The two best known systems of international proficiency tests are the UCLES exams and the TOEFEL tests.

7. Designing Achievement Tests

When designing tests, teachers should consider a number of parameters, namely validity and reliability (McNamara, 2000). Professional test development and management involve “validity” and “reliability”, and the relationship between them.

Achievement tests are associated with the process of instruction at the end of a semester or a year (Harmer, 2012; McNamara, 2000). They aim at, as mentioned above, checking how well learners have done over a whole course. These 7. tests can be considered to have validity if:

it contains only forms and uses the learners have practised in the course.

it employs only exercises and tasks that correspond to the general objectives and methodology of the course.

Harmer (2012) illustrates as follows:

Tests need to have validity. This means that if we tell the students that we are going to assess their writing, we shouldn't make it dependent on a lot of reading because they were not expecting a reading test. When we make achievement tests, we need to test things that the students have been learning (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), and we have to be sure that we use the same kinds of test items and tasks as the ones they have been using in their lessons (p. 195).

As mentioned above, a valid test, in short, should consist of:

things that students have been learning and

the same kinds of items and tasks they have been using in their lessons.

8. Validity Types

According to the literature, there are three main types of validity: content, construct and face, as follows.

8.1. Content Validity

This means that the grammar, vocabulary, and functional content of a test should be carefully selected on the basis of the course syllabus. For example, if the students have not practised the present perfect test, they should not be tested on it. “the language content of the test should go outside the syllabus only when it is not significant in the exercise or task: for example, in a reading comprehension test, where the learners may actually have been encouraged to ignore incidental they do not know or to guess its meaning from context.

8.2. Construct Validity

This means that the exercise and tasks in a test should be similar to those used in the course and correspond to the general approach of the course. If the learners have never practiced translating on the course, they should not have to translate a passage in the test. If the main aim of the course has clearly been to use grammar in natural discourse such as conversations, the grammar should not be tested only through grammar manipulation tests.

8.3. Face Validity

According to McNamara (2000), face validity refers to “its surface acceptability to those involved in its development or use” (p. 50). In fact, face

validity is about the extent to which a test appears to measure what it is intended to measure. In this case, if a test meets those expectations, we could say that it has strong face validity.

In sum, if a test conforms to these principles, it will probably be seen as fair by the teachers and the learners. If it does not, it will probably be considered unfair, and justifiably so.

9. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of the scores that teachers give to learners (McKay, 2006). The idea is that we need to check that students get the same scores whether we or other assessors would give them for the same activity or question. Reliability, actually, refers to how far we can believe or trust the results of a test. As a teacher, you may question the reliability of a test when two of your own groups that you consider very similar in ability and achievement get very different results in the same test, one group doing well and the other badly.

According to Ingram (1974) a measuring device (test) should give the same results every time it is used on the same objects or individuals, regardless of who is giving and marking it. No results are reliable unless they are stable. The stability of a test is measured by giving the test to a group of people, giving it to them again a short time later and then correlating the scores. Correlation is a statistical technique for comparing two sets of scores to see how far they correspond to each other. In this case, we would have a “test re-test” or “stability correlation of reliability”. Another kind of reliability used by statisticians is the “reliability of equivalence”. The results one gets from one kind of measuring device should be closely comparable to the results one would have got if one had used another, equivalent, measuring device.

A specific test exercise or task is normally reliable when:

the instructions are clear and unambiguous for all learners.

the exercise or task controls to some extent how learners respond, for example, it should be clear in ‘fill the gap’ exercises whether a single word or phrase is required.

there are no errors in the test, for example, if the learners have to ‘select the best answer—a, b, c, d’ , there should not actually be two or more acceptable answers.

(Davies & Pearse, p. 173)

The reliability of a test also depends partly on how far it can be marked objectively. Multiple choice exercises, where the learners have to select the best answer from a choice of three or four, are purely objective by nature. One-word fill-in exercise—completion of a text with one word in each space---are purely objective when only one word is possible. But when many different words are possible, they are fairly subjective, requiring teachers to use their personal judgment. Composition marking is by nature highly subjective.

The reliability of a test also depends on its length and on how it is administered. A long test is usually more reliable than a short one. Any test provides a sample of learners’ English, and a small sample of something is less reliable than a large one.

One group is given much more time than another.

One group is helped by the teacher and another is not.

Invigilation is strict in one group and not in another, so that there is a lot of copying or other types of cheating in the second group.

10. Balancing Validity and Reliability

A valid test for a course with communicative objectives should consist of exercises and tasks in which the learners use language in realistic contexts. For example, they could complete a dialogue, write a letter, and role-play an interview. These tasks would test (1) their ability to use specific grammar and vocabulary (the dialogue completion), (2) to use written English effectively (the letter-writing), and (3) understand and produce effective spoken English (the interview).

However, there is often a conflict between validity and reliability. The most reliable types of questions are multiple-choice. The learners produce no English themselves, but only recognize correct language. Their answers can actually be marked by a computer, with no need for any subjective human judgments. The least reliable types of task include precisely the letter-writing and the interview role-play proposed above. These have to be marked subjectively by human beings.

The solution reached by many teachers and institutions is a compromise. Some exercises in the tests are of an objective, recognition type, for example, multiple-choice. These can cover a range of grammar and vocabulary as well as listening and reading comprehension. Other exercises and tasks are of a more subjective type, involving production and the communicative use of include the possible answers for fill-in and completion exercise, and criteria for marking composition and interview. This compromise also makes tests more practical. Multiple-choice exercise can usually be answered faster by learners and marked faster by teachers than production exercise and tasks.

11. Writing and Evaluating Achievement Tests

As a teacher, you may have to use course tests provided by your institution, or you may produce your own course tests. If the course tests are provided by the

institution, you may still have opportunities to comment on them and make suggestions for modification. In addition, you may want to produce a number of short progress tests. The following ideas should help you write, modify, or give opinions on tests.

Tests should normally be designed for specific teaching-learning situations:

- Some situations may call for more objective language exercises such as ‘true’/‘false’.
- Others may call for more communicative tasks.
- Some situations may permit quite long tests,
- Other ones may require short, easily administered tests because of a lack of time.

Nonetheless, as Harmer (ibid) points out, before you start writing a test, you need to list the following:

- what it is you want to measure and how to do it

For example, for testing syntax, we may use ‘reordering sentences’ items, and ‘putting pictures in order’ for testing comprehension. However, ‘reordering sentences’ does not test comprehension, and ‘putting pictures in order’ does not test syntax.

Another point is the balance of items (ibid). That is, you need to think about whether you want to include *discrete items* that test only one thing at a time such as a verb tense in all the questions, or you want to include more *integrative* tests such as ‘using a variety of items’ or where students should read and write.

One of the major points to be taken into consideration is rubrics. Rubrics or instructions should be written carefully and easily understood by the students (ibid). that is, each question should be accompanied by an example that will help students in answering the questions. For example:

Rewrite each of the following sentences using the word in parentheses so that they have the same meaning.

Example:

Adam was late, so he took a taxi. (because)

Adam took a taxi because he was late.

Another point of great importance and which does not happen except for research purposes is piloting. That is, tests can be piloted or tried out by giving them to colleagues or to students who are not going to do the tests afterwards (ibid). This process is going to show any change that could be made before the tests that take place.

12. Testing Challenges

- Many teachers are unaware of the importance of language testing.
- Many teachers lack knowledge of why to test, what to test and how to test.
- Some teachers misuse some testing methods. For example, in multiple choice questions, they give more than three choices, which is not appropriate. Only one of three choices must be correct.
- Some teachers use only one question for the whole test while neglecting so many points of the syllabus uncovered. It should be noted that the more a test includes many and a variety of questions, the more it is reliable. It is unfair to concentrate on only one lesson or part of a lesson. Teachers should give the opportunity to students to demonstrate their language ability and content comprehension.
- Some teachers argue for composition writing in examinations while they neglect the time constraints especially in the COVID-19 era. Moreover,

according to many studies, composition writing is subjective on the part of the corrector. Furthermore, when some teachers favour composition writing, what action are they going to take? Are they going to give feedback to their students, and then help them reduce mistakes or do they just correct and submit the papers to the administration?

Another challenge is online testing mainly in the pandemic era as the criteria of testing such as fairness, authenticity will be doubted. The educational system should reconsider the electronic assessment hindrances teachers are struggling with.

The allotted time for examinations has also had a negative impact on the results' expectations. A one-hour exam is never sufficient if we consider the majority of students in terms of individual differences.

Those are some of the challenges that should be thought of and reconsidered by all parties, the administration and teachers.

Conclusion

Because of its great importance, language testing needs to be reconsidered mainly by English language teachers. In reality, there is a lack of awareness and lack of knowledge on the part of English language teachers. In fact, they are required to gain knowledge and get benefited from the great available body of research. Many researchers have investigated the issue of language assessment in general and language testing in particular.

Assignment:

- What is the difference between testing and assessment in ESP and EGP settings?
- What are the main criteria of language testing?

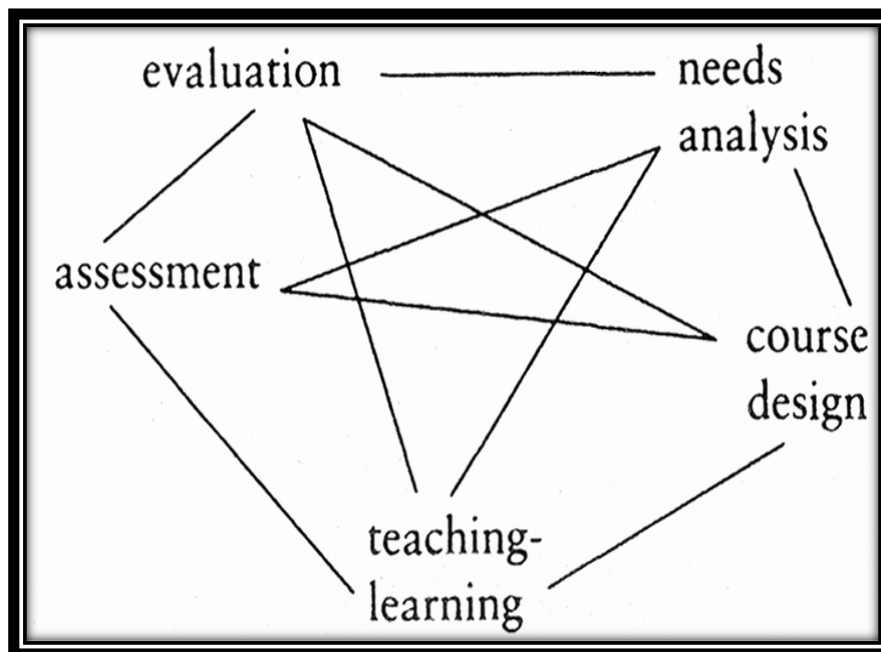


Figure5: Stages in the ESP process (Dudley-Evan and St. John, 1998, p. 121)

Lecture Nineteen: Challenges met in Designing Business English Courses in Academic Settings

Objective: In this lecture, students will discuss the challenges met in designing business English courses.

Introduction

For designing ESP courses, teachers need to ask general, specific, theoretical and practical questions. Some of the latter can be answered by research, and others will rely more on intuition and experience of the teacher. The ESP teachers describe the language using different ideas, either explicitly or implicitly. They select theories of learning that suit those ideas. Then they move to the practical aspect which is needs analysis. The latter is divided into target needs and learning needs that should be distinguished. However, in some Algerian universities and many ESP contexts, it is not possible to identify and analyse learners' needs because of many factors.

1. Course Design in a Business English Class

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 65) have defined a course as “An integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge.”

A course design refers to the planning and structuring of a course for achieving the needed goals. It is the outcome of a number of elements: the result of the needs analysis, the course designer's approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials (Robinson, p. 1991).

2. ESP Course Design

Munby (1978, p. 2) defines ESP courses as “Those where the syllabus and the materials are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner.” Again, this stresses the importance of the identification of learners’ needs which is the basis for any ESP course. Thus, the ESP course takes into consideration not only the subject area of learners, but also the lexical, semantic and structural aspects of the language characteristics of that specialised area.

The ESP courses are to prepare the learners in accordance with specific skills and vocabulary needed in their own field in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation. Basturkmen (2010) confirms this fact by saying that “ESP courses are narrower in focus than ELT courses” (p. 3). To achieve these aims, a number of parameters have to be taken into consideration, namely:

- identification and analysis of needs
- syllabus design
- the learning objectives
- teaching methodology
- materials selection and development and
- assessment

The question that should be asked is as follows: Are ESP courses designed following what has been aforementioned?

The following section is going to provide an answer to this question.

3. ESP Teaching in a Business Context

It is not a surprise to tell that teaching in ESP contexts as in the Accounting and Finance Department is challenging. It is challenging mainly in the Pandemic era because :

- There is no official course nor a specific syllabus.
- The majority of teachers are part-time teachers and are not trained in ESP teaching.
- It is difficult to administer a needs analysis questionnaire or survey, for students have only one session per three weeks and for only one semester as is the case of Third Year Licence in all Economics specialities.
- Distant learning in the two weeks is not really effective as it is devoted to only sharing written documents and videos links, and students rarely interact.
- As mentioned previously, teachers, mainly the experienced ones rely more on their experience as teachers and their intuition in designing relevant courses.

To this end, teachers can do the following :

- They can guess the students' level from the beginning by asking simple questions, then complex ones.
- They can detect whether students are connected with the module through asking about what they have already seen as content.
- They can check whether the students are interested in the course or not through observing their behaviours.
- They can locate the weaknesses and strengths of the students.

This information is going to lead the teacher to design a course that fits the students, taking into account that many students are not aware of why having English in their specialities.

4. Designing a Business English Course

In designing a business English course, many elements should come into play. We shall focus on them one by one.

4.1. The Learning Objectives

Behind each business English course, there are objectives. These objectives are based on information gathered during a needs analysis. For example, and depending on the level of students, teachers may set the following objectives :

- Improving business letter writing
- Learning to write memos, emails, curriculum vitae, etc.
- Learning specialised vocabulary
- Improving reading comprehension
- Summarising written texts in paragraphs and/or in graphic organisers
- Learning some useful business expressions

Those objectives are further divided into a number of aims. These aims when achieved, they lead gradually to fulfill the set objectives.

In our case, no course has been suggested or sponsored. It is the teacher's initiative to design a course and rely on available published courses in order to achieve the set objectives.

4.2. Needs' Analysis and Identification

Needs analysis is essential in any ESP course design. The awareness of the need for learning English is an important characteristic that distinguishes ESP course from any other general English course. To this end, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 53) mention that, "What distinguishes ESP from general English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need." In fact, the acknowledgment of the importance of needs analysis as a crucial

characteristic in ESP course design since the learner is at the heart of any ESP teaching programme. To this end, needs analysis in ESP teaching provides course designers with core information that assist them in designing courses and programmes and the required teaching materials. It is also crucial to mention that needs analysis is central to ESP, for ESP students do not target all aspects of the English language. In this case, ESP course designers should equip those students with only the knowledge of English they need in the target situation.

The process of needs identification can be done through needs analysis questionnaires, surveys, and even through discussions and questions on the part of the teacher. To this end and according to the situation explained above, the teacher relies on his intuition and experience and the questions and discussions in class in the first encounter with students.

4.3. Syllabus Design

Any course should include a syllabus that is designed based on needs analysis. A syllabus is “a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 80). There are many types of syllabi depending on the most important aspect of language learning. It should be noted that one of the main purposes of a syllabus “is to break down the mass of knowledge to be learnt into manageable units” (ibid, p. 85), and this breakdown is to be broken down based on certain criteria.

4.4. The Teaching Methodology

Any course relies on a learning theory. To this end, teachers can select any theory that fulfills the course objectives; nevertheless, they can make use of the eclectic approach in that they can select tasks and activities that are based on a behaviouristic principle such as memorising or repeating new language or rules, and others on the cognitive code such as teaching reading comprehension

strategies. They can also rely on the mentalistic view in asking students to build new sentences following a sample. Teachers should also motivate and encourage students during this journey.

4.5. Materials Selection and Development

Concerning the materials, there exist many ready-made materials in the market such as coursebooks of Market Leader series and others which are very useful. Teachers can select a variety of texts and activities from the different levels of these series. Even if these are not always available in libraries, there are many options. The teacher can develop his/her own materials; he/she can also rely on the internet to design his/her courses.

➤ Coursebooks

There are many coursebooks that can help business English teachers. Of course, teachers can select what really fits their learners' needs and the courses' objectives. Moreover, as Frendo (2005) argues, most coursebooks are professional, and include a comprehensive teacher's guide and resources, supplementary materials, audio resources, etc. Examples of coursebooks are the ones entitled Market Leader Business English (2011), in company 3.0 ESP series (2010), Pearson Longman Vocational English series (2012), etc., which are very useful and allow teachers to select a variety of materials of different levels.

➤ Authentic vs Adapted Materials

Selecting authentic or adapted or artificial materials such as written texts depends on the learners' linguistic level. Teachers can also write the texts and activities if they have enough knowledge of the speciality. At the beginning, it is advisable to begin with adapted, simple texts, lessons and activities. Teachers may use authentic texts such as the ones of Financial Times with First year Master students when these students show improvement in analysing texts. It should be noted that the cultural aspect must be taken into consideration; that is,

teachers should select what is culturally suitable to their learners in terms of content, mainly, for ESP texts, for example, are written with the native speaker in mind.

➤ **Types of Business English Materials**

In the main, teachers can begin their courses with conversations on business contexts and through audios if possible, and introduce some of the famous business expressions, followed by practice. They can also teach some grammar. For example, they can revise indefinite and definite articles and plural nouns. They can also do activities like “*Reorder the words to get meaningful sentences*” or “*Fill in the gaps with words*”... In the following sessions, teachers can introduce written texts of an acceptable length and that include simple sentences and economic terms. Teachers can teach students some comprehension strategies that help them comprehend texts. They can also teach them how to summarise texts in graphic organisers ... It all depends on the set objectives. Actually, the business English publications such as Market Leader series that include a variety of simplified text types that suit the students. These range from CVs, reports, informal and formal emails up to business letters. Also, English for Banking and Finance series (2012) which is part of Pearson Longman Vocational English series includes a number of topics and texts that suit those learners in terms of grammatical structures and vocabulary. There are other publications such as “in company 3.0” (Pegg, 2017), “Accounting and Finance Market Leader” (Helm, 2010), “English for International Banking and Finance” (Corbett, 1990), Upper Intermediate Market Leader (Cotton et al., 2011).

➤ **Examples of Business English Activities**

Reading:

INVESTING YOUR MONEY

Investment means using money to buy something (an asset) with the aim of making a profit by selling that asset at a higher price some time in the future. There are many different types of investments. Some people put their money in art, stamps, or collectibles. Other people invest in shares and become part owners of a company. Not only can they make a profit by selling those shares at a higher price than they paid for them, but they can receive a dividend – a share of the profits which the company gives to its shareholders every year. People often ask about the difference between *savings* and *investments*. Sometimes the two terms appear interchangeable, but there is a big difference. Quite simply, investment involves some kind of capital risk. There is no guarantee that you will make a profit. In fact, the price of your assets may fall and you may not even get back your capital, the money you put in. Some banks call their savings accounts ‘investment accounts’, but this is misleading. The only risk of savings accounts is that inflation will reduce the value of the money you put in them. There is no risk of losing your capital.

(In Richey, 2012, p. 36)

The teacher can exploit the above text in achieving many purposes. He can train the students to use reading comprehension strategies (Grabe, 2009) such as previewing, predicting, activating background knowledge, using text structure awareness, etc. He can also train them to summarise the text in a paragraph or a graphic organiser.

Grabe and Stoller (2001, p. 194), for example, suggested the following activities for academic purposes:

1. Identifying the sentences that convey the main ideas of texts

2. Examining headings and subheadings in a text and then deciding what each section is about
3. Adding information to a partially completed outline until all key supporting ideas are included
4. Underlining transition phrases and, when they signal major sections of the text, describing what the next section covers
5. Explaining what a set of pronouns refers to in prior text
6. Examining an inaccurate outline and adjusting it so that it is correct
7. Reorganizing a scrambled paragraph and discussing textual clues used for decisions
8. Creating headings for a set of paragraphs in the text, giving a label to each, and discussing the function each paragraph.
9. Identifying clues that indicate major patterns of organization (e.g., cause-effect, comparison-contrast, analysis).

Listening and Speaking:

In the same series, there are CDs that include audios such as conversations between employees and customers. The teacher selects some of them, and asks the students to complete them or to match speaker 1 and 2 to sentences (a-c) , for example. An example of a listening activity from Rosenberg (2012, p. 7):

-Listen to two telephone conversations and match speakers 1 and 2 to sentences a-c. There is one extra sentence.

- a) This customer has a question about interest.
- b) This customer wants to invest in a company.
- c) This customer needs a mortgage.

Grammar:

Besides, there are many grammar lessons and activities that foster the knowledge of tenses. Here is an example from Rogers (2012, p. 37):

-Rewrite the sentences using the verbs in brackets.

1. We are going to visit the trade fair. (plan)
.....
2. We are sure we will make a profit within three years. (expect)
.....
3. We are going to launch a new product range next summer. (intend)
.....
4. We will beat our competitors before long. (hope)
.....

Vocabulary:

Vocabulary activities are very important in business English. Here is an example from Helm (2010, p. 30):

-Match these words from the article (1-6) with their meanings (a-f).

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Broke | a) without buying other businesses |
| 2. (to grow) organically | b) bankrupt |
| 3. Liquidity | c) size |
| 4. Breakneck | d) bank |
| 5. Lender | e) cash |
| 6. Scale | f) extremely fast |

Writing:

There are many types of writing activities, depending on the students' level. Here is an example from Lansford (2012, p. 36) :

-Your manager at work has asked if you can recommend your English course to other employees. Write an informal report (140-160) describing the English course you have just completed.

Include this information:

- number and length of lessons
- number of people in the group
- course book topics
- exercises and activities

In short, there exist a wide range of tasks and activities, and the teacher's duty is to select the most appropriate ones, taking into account the students' level and the cultural aspect of materials.

4.6. Assessment

There is an intimate relationship between teaching and testing, but they are not the same (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 169). The teaching process should be directed towards building up the learners' ability and confidence in using English for effective communication. When the teacher is intending to develop fluency, it is very important that learners should not feel that they are being tested all the time" (Davies & Pearse, *ibid*, p.170), for this behaviour does not allow them to achieve fluency.

Most teaching should not be seen as a test by the learners' performance and progress and your own teaching constantly. Nonetheless, testing is just part of assessment. As a matter of fact, assessment includes besides tests class participation, progress tests, homework, and projects. Teachers can assess the progress and improvement of their students according to what is happening in class and through oral and written tests. Of course, tests should include what students have seen and done during the course and should adhere to the criteria of assessment: validity and reliability.

Conclusion

Though there is no official syllabus nor clear objectives for the English course in business English departments like Accounting and Finance, teachers can design courses using and relying on their intuitions and experience and on the available coursebooks in the market. And even if the sessions are not numerous, teachers can do the minimum with their students. Once the teacher sets clear objectives, they can design their courses accordingly. Another challenge is the students with linguistic deficiency that should be encouraged and motivated by the teachers. They can show the minimum of interest and involvement by taking part in the different tasks and activities.

Questions:

1. What are the building blocks of any ESP course?
2. In an essay, tackle the major points discussed above.

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