Module: English For Specific Purposes (ESP)
Level: Master 2
Option: LLA
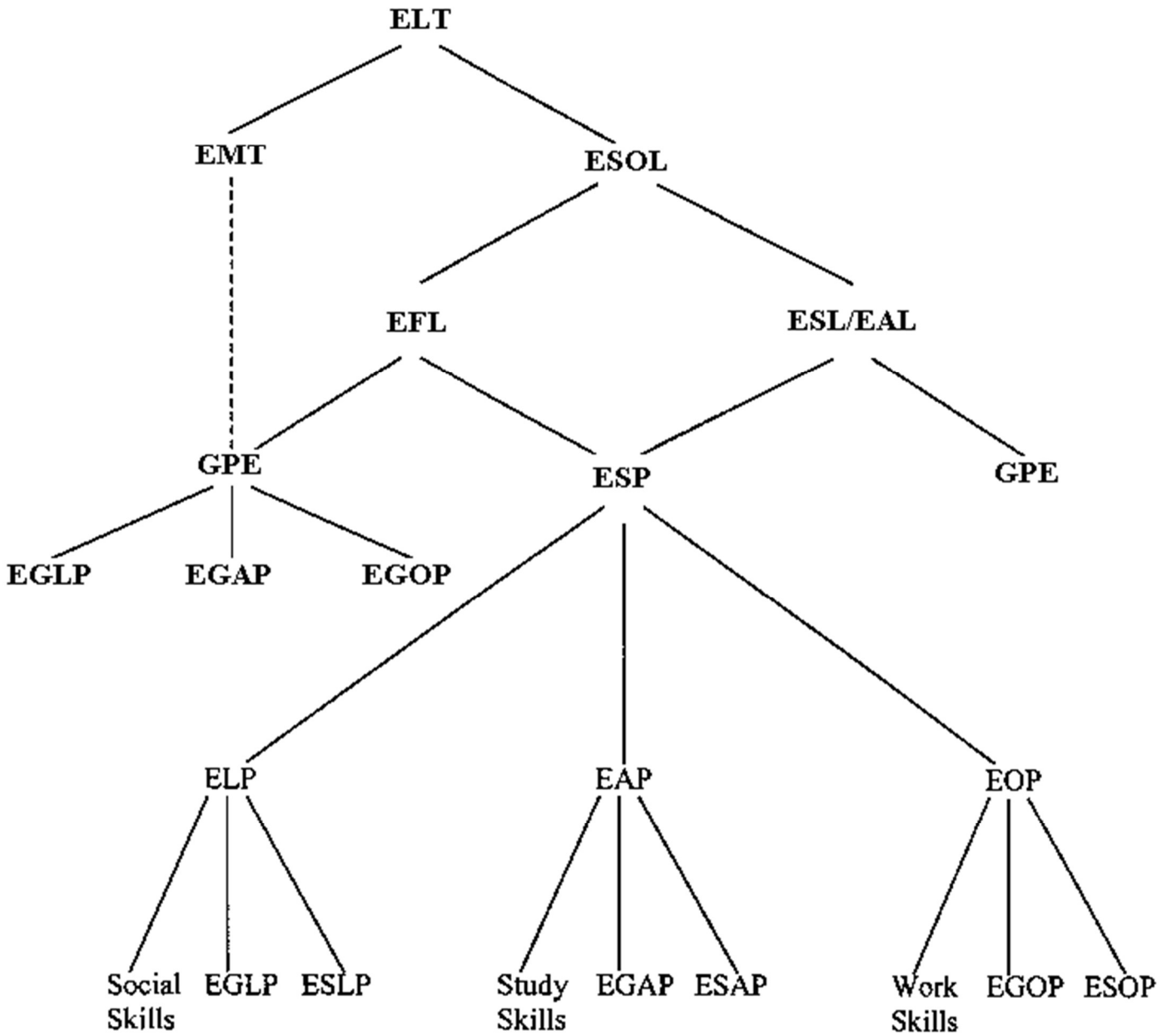**Semester:1**
Teacher: Dr. GHODBANE

The City of ELT

Once upon a time there was a city called **ELT**. The people of ELT led a comfortable, if not extravagant, life, pursuing the noble goals of literature and grammar. There were differences, of course: Some people preferred to call themselves EFL people, while others belonged to a group known as ESL. But the two groups lived in easy tolerance of each other, more united than disunited.

Now, it happened that the city was surrounded by high mountains and legend had it that the land beyond the mountains was inhabited by illiterate and savage tribes called Scientists, businessmen and engineers, Few people from ELT had ever ventured into that land. Then things began to change. Some of the people in ELT became restless. The old city could not support its growing population and eventually some brave souls set off to seek their fortune in the land beyond the mountains. Many in ELT were shocked at the prospect. It was surely no place for people brought up in the gentle landscape of English literature and language.

But, as it turned out, the adventures found a rich and fertile land. They were welcomed by the local inhabitants and they founded a new city, which they called ESP. The city flourished and prospered as more and more settlers came. Soon there were whole new settlements in this previously and uncharted land. EST and EBE were quickly followed by EAP and EOP (the latter confusingly, also known as EVP and VESL). Other smaller groups took on the names of the local tribes to find a host of new towns called English for Hotel Staff, English for marine engineers, English for medical science and so on. A future of limitless expansion and prosperity looked assured.

But as with all things the reality proved less rosy. A number of people at the frontiers were forced to abandon their settlements and return to the larger cities. Many settlers, who had come to the newly developed land because ELT could no longer provide them with a living, longed for the comforts and certainties of the old city. Others were confused as to where their loyalties lay:were they still citizens of ELT? Was EAP an independent city or a suburb of ESP? Did the people of English for medical science owe allegiance to EAP, EOP or ESP? Worst of all, there were even examples of groups from ELT being transported against their will to the new territories. Added to all this, the scientists businessmen and other tribes were becoming more demanding. The future in short began to look, if not gloomy, then a little confused and uncertain for the brave new world of ESP.

Figure 1: An ELT Family Tree

English for Medical Studies

English for Technicians

English for Economics

English for Secretaries

English for Psychology

English for Teaching

English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

EOP

EAP

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

EAP Courses often have a study skills component

EOP is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language).

EAP

EOP

English for Business and Economics (EBE)

English for Social Sciences (ESS)

English for Science and Technology (EST)

Adult
Tertiary
Secondary (US:High School)
Primary

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

GE is usually studied for exam purposes.

General English (GE)

various branches

ESL can be divided in the same way as EFL

English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

English as a Mother Tongue (EMT)

English as a Second Language (ESL)

English Language Teaching (ELT)

In American ELT the dominant branch is ESL.
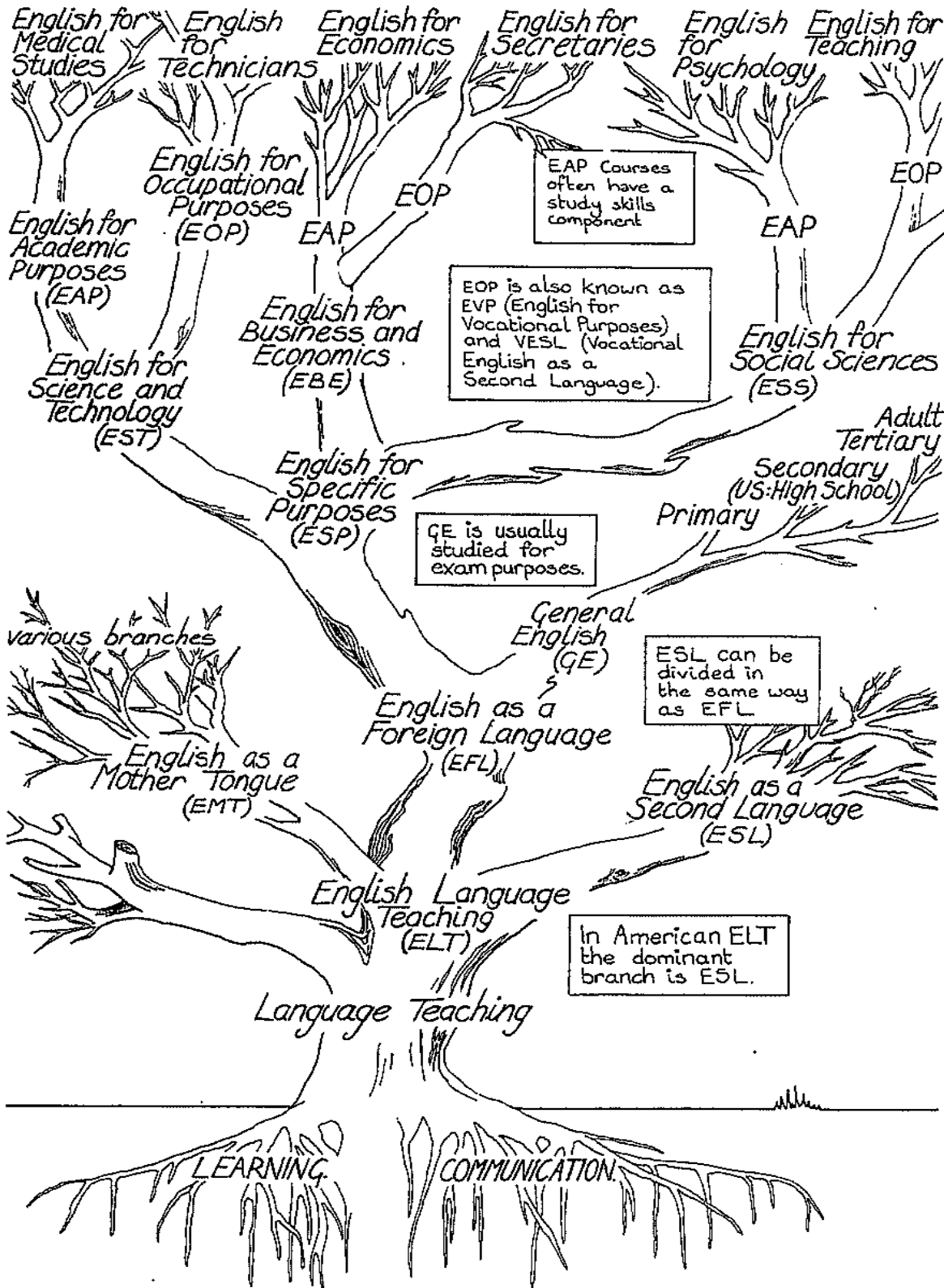
Language Teaching

LEARNING

COMMUNICATION

Figure 3: The tree of ELT

What is English for Specific Purposes (ESP)?

The field of ESP (or English for Special purposes, as it was originally known) was, and still is, very fashionable in many parts of the world because English is the language "par excellence» of science and technology. Since the 1960s, ESP has been at the cutting edge of both theory development and innovative practice in applied linguistics, making a significant contribution to our understanding of the varied ways language is used in particular communities.

ESP Acronym

In the course of time, the "S" of ESP has taken on different values. In the1960s to mid-1970s, the gloss that prevailed was "English for Special Purposes", thereby implying a fundamental distinction between what was regarded as 'general 'or 'everyday ' English and the 'special' language of particular academic disciplines and professional areas. A major Landmark in That move from general, literary-oriented courses to programs involving a larger degree of subject-specificity is the well- known article by Peter Stevens "Alternatives to Daffodils"(1971}, which opens with the following crucial observation:

> Among the many millions of people who have learned English as a second or foreign language, an ever-increasing proportion wishes or need to use it in connection with science or technology. Yet, they complain that having' learned English' in the sense of having been through one of the standard routines for organized instruction in English at school or college, is largely inadequate for their needs.

Such a call for courses more closely geared towards the learners' needs and objectives, was at the origin of a shift in focus from 'special language' to 'specific purposes', the 'S' of 'ESP' establishing itself firmly as 'specific'. In 1974, Perren noted that there is a confusion that arises between two notions: special language and specialized aim, which are two entirely, different terms.

Definitions of English for Specific Purposes

There are almost as many definitions of ESP as the number of scholars who have attempted to define it. Many others have tried to define ESP in terms of what it is not rather than in terms of what it really is, but we will concentrate on finding out what ESP really means.

Laurence (1997) noted that there have been considerable recent debates about what ESP means despite the fact it is an approach to language teaching. Therefore, it is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for specific purposes. It is also an approach to language learning based on learner's needs its foundation lies in the question 'why does this learner need to learn a foreign language '? Also, it has been referred to as 'APPLIED ELT' as the content and aims of any course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners. Some people described ESP as simply being the teaching of English

for any purpose that could be specified. Others; however, were more precise, describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies, or professional/vocational purposes.

Mackay and Mountford (1978, p.2) defined ESP as the teaching of English for a "clearly utilitarian purpose". The purpose they refer to is defined by the needs of the learners, which could be academic, occupational, or scientific. These needs in turn determine the content of the ESP curriculum to be taught and learned. MacKay &Mountford also defined ESP and the special language that takes place in specific settings by certain participants; they stated that those participants are usually adults "why?"

Furthermore, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19) defined ESP as 'an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning". However, Strevens'(1988) definition of ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics. He makes a distinction between four (04) absolute and two (02) variable characteristics:

Absolute Characteristics.

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

1. Designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
2. Related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
3. Centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
4. In contrast with General English.

Variable Characteristics

ESP may be, but is not necessary:

1. Restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. Reading only);
2. Not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. (pp.1-2)

Ten years later, Dudley-Evans (1997-2010) described it as an 'ATTITUDE OF MIND'. This definition echoes that of Hutchinson and Waters (1987). At a1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans set out in his one-hour speech to clarify the meaning of ESP by offering a modified definition. The revised definition he and St. John postulate is as follows:

Absolute Characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
3. ESP is centered on the language (grammar, Lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

Variable Characteristics

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (1998, pp. 4-5).

This definition, offered by Dudley-Evans, is clearly influenced by that of Stevens (1988); although, he has improved it substantially by removing the absolute characteristic that ESP is "in contrast with 'General English'", and has revised and increased the number of variable characteristics. The division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics "why?". From the definition, we can see that ESP can but is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range. ESP should be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching'. In other words, ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is likely to be used with adult learners, although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting.

In sum**,** most definitions of what ESP concurs on three key topics: the nature of language to be taught and used, the learners, and the settings in which the other two would occur. These three aspects of ESP are closely connected to each other, and can be combined to establish that ESP is the teaching of specific and unique English (specialized discourse) to learners (adults in their majority), who will use it in a particular setting (laboratory, mine, police station, hospital, etc.) in order to achieve an utilitarian goal or purpose (communicate linguistically correct), which in turn will fulfil additional personal goals(promotional, economical, etc.) What ESP specialists do not seem to agree on is <u>what</u> type of language should be taught (vocabulary, register, jargon, etc.) and <u>how</u> to teach it (in context with content knowledge, communicatively, collaboratively, etc.). However, even though there is this agreement and discrepancy among ESP scholars, it is important to note that their many definitions are unequivocally linked to how ESP has developed since it was first spoken of in the 1960s.

Origins of ESP

Certainly, a great deal about the origins of ESP could be written. Notably, there are three reasons common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The Demands of a Brave New World

The end of the Second World War (WWII) brought with it an " ... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale"· This expansion created a world unified and dominated by two forces -*technology and commerce*- which in their relentless progress soon generated a demand for an *international language*. For various reasons, most notably the *economic power* of the United States in the post-war world, this role fell to *English*.The effect was to create a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the *pleasure or prestige* of knowing the language, but because English was the *key* to the international currencies of technology and commerce. Previously the reasons for learning English (or any other language) had not been well defined. English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically *why they were learning a language* - businessmen and -women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbooks and journals only available in English. All these and many others needed English and, most importantly, they knew why they needed it.

Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English. The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers.(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.7)

A Revolution in Linguistics

At the same time as the demand was growing for English courses tailored (designed) to specific needs, influential new ideas began to emerge in the study of language. Traditionally the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usage, that is, the grammar rules. However, the new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication (Widdowson, 1978). One finding of this research was that the language we speak and write varies considerably, and in a number of different ways, from one context to another. In English language teaching this gave rise to the view

that there are important differences between, say, the English of commerce and that of engineering These ideas married up naturally with the development of English courses for specific groups of learners. The idea was simple, if language varies from one **situation** of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners' course.Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers.

Focus on the Learner

The emergence of ESP was also influenced by a new idea, which is Focus on the Learner. In other words, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language. In this approach, the learners became the central element for they were seen to employ different learning strategies/styles, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and; therefore, on the effectiveness of their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which "relevance" to the learners' needs and interests were paramount. The standard way of achieving this was to take texts from the learners' specialist area - texts about Biology for Biology students, etc. The assumption underlying this approach is that the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learners' motivation and thereby make learning better and faster.

Description of Language in ESP

Register Analysis (RA)

Changing approaches to linguistic analysis for ESP involve not only change in method, but also changing ideas of what is to be included in language and its description (Robinson, 1991). One of the earliest studies carried out in this area focused on vocabulary and grammar (the elements of a sentence). This stage took place mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s and was associated with the work of Peter Stevens, Jack Ewer, and John Swales. The main motive behind register analysis was the pedagogic one of making the ESP course more <u>relevant</u> to learners' needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Register analysis, also called "lexico-statistics" by Swales (1988, as cited in Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998) and "frequency analysis" by Robinson (1991, p. 23), focused on grammar and "structural and non-structural"vocabulary (Ewer & Latorre, 1967, p. 223, as cited in West, 1998). Also, it operates only at word and sentence levels and does not go beyond these levels. Lee (1976) considered two aspects in the study of register. First, a lexical analysis of the language to deal with frequency of occurrence of items and their presence or absence in the language used in specific settings and for specific purposes. Second, he referred to the syntactic analysis of that language. Robinson (1980) suggested that ESP must imply special language or special register.

Criticism

The criticism on register analysis can be summarized as the following:

1. it restricts the analysis of texts to the word and sentence level (West, 1998);

2. it is only descriptive, not explanatory (Robinson, 1991); and

3. most materials produced under the banner of register analysis follow a similar pattern, beginning with a long specialist reading passage which lacks authenticity (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Also, Spencer (as cited in de Grève, 1972), criticized register studies because they were text oriented and suggested a shift to the use of role activities where, according to Candlin (1978) language can be used to achieve communicative purposes. Widdowson (1979) advocated a shift from a quantitative approach (the analysis of register and Lexis) to a more qualitative approach (the development of learners' communicative competence as they perform language in role plays.) He also argued that such a qualitative approach needed to be perfected and advocated an emphasis on discourse analysis and what has been called the communicative approach to the teaching of languages.

Discourse Analysis (DA)

Since register analysis operated almost entirely at word and sentence level, the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence and tried to find out how sentences are combined into discourse (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Also, West (1998) said that the reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register. The pioneers in the field of discourse analysis (also called rhetorical or textual analysis) were Lackstorm, Selinker, and Trimble, whose focus was on the text rather than on the sentence, and on the writer's purpose rather than on form (Robison, 1991). In practice, according to West (1998), this approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions.

Robinson (1980) defined register as a group of words spoken or written that had to be analyzed in terms of cohesion. Widdowson suggested that such groups of words should be called text and not discourse because text would allow for the visualization of devices that signal structuring above the sentence level. The devices Widdowson referred to are complex grammar structures and linguistic rhetorical devices that put together make up the text ESP learners would usually encounter in their fields of specialization. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) generalized the meaning of discourse to include considerations of "rhetorical functions for communicative purposes" (p. 20).

- **Criticism**

One of the shortcomings of the discourse analysis is that its treatment remains fragmentary, identifying the ***functional units,*** of which discourse was composed at sentence/utterance level, but offering limited guidance on ***how*** functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text (West,1998). There is also the danger that the findings of discourse analysis, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse,fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Genre Analysis (GA)

Discourse analysis may overlap with genre analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 87) give a clear distinction between the two terms:

Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of a sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraphs, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts - any text-work. This is applied discourse analysis. Where, however, the focus of text analysis is on the regularities of structures that distinguish one type of text from another, this is genre analysis and the results focus on the differences between text types, or genres.

The term 'genre' was first used by Swales (1981, as cited in Robinson,1991). His definition of genre is:

> A more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than apersonal or social setting. (Swales, 1981, pp. 10-11, as cited in Robinson, 1991)

He means by it 'a system of analysis that is able to reveal something of the patterns of organization of a "genre" and the language used to express those patterns' (Dudley-Evans, 1987, p. 1).

A general definition of genre might explain that:

Genre is a text or discourse type which is recognized as such by its users by its characteristic features of style or form, which will be specifiable through stylistic and text-linguistic/ discourse analysis, and/or by the particular function of texts belonging to the genre.   Bhatia, who is one of the researchers in the field of genre analysis has his definition of 'genre analysis' as 'the study of linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional setting (Bhatia, n.d).   In his article, Bhatia distinguishes four areas of competence that an ESP learner needs to develop so as to get over his/her lack of confidence in dealing with specialist discourse, these four areas are:

1. **Knowledge of the Code,** which is the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in specialist or even everyday discourse.

2. **Acquisition of Genre Knowledge** which is the familiarity with and awareness of appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community.

3. **Sensitivity to Cognitive Structures**, that is, since certain lexical items have special meanings in specific professional genres, a number of syntactic forms may also carry genre specific restricted values in addition to their general meanings codified in grammar books. Thus, it is imperative that the specialist learner becomes aware of restricted aspects of linguistic code in addition to the general competence he or she requires in the language.

4. **Exploitation of Generic Knowledge**, that is, it is only after learners have developed some acquaintance or, better yet,expertise at levels discussed above, that they can confidently interpret, use or even take liberties with specialist discourse.

Genre-analysis approach goes two steps beyond register analysis and one step beyond discourse analysis (though it draws on the findings of both). As Bhatia (n.d.) states the main benefit of a genre-based approach to the teaching and learning of specialist English is that the learner does not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts, but is encouraged to make the relevant connection between the use of language on the one hand and the purpose of communication on the other, always aware of the question, why do members of the special discourse community use the language in this way?

Introduction

ESP begins with the learner and the situation; whereas, General English begins with the language (Hamp-Lyons, 2001, p. 126). As is suggested in the above citation, a good starting point for designing an ESP course is an understanding of students' needs. To do this, a research method called 'Needs Analysis' (NA) is used. Flowered and Peacock (2001), for instance, state "there is a general consensus that needs analysis, the collection and application of information on learners' needs, is a defining feature of ESP". It is the necessary point of departure for designing a syllabus, tasks and materials.

Needs Analysis (NA)

One of the greatest contributions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to language teaching has been its emphasis on careful and extensive needs analysis for course design (John, 1991). Needs analysis (needs assessment) was firmly established in the mid-1970s, especially after the publication of Munby's book "Communicative Syllabus Design", 1978. NA shifted towards placing the learner's purposes in the central position; it generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting and gathering information that will serve us in developing a curriculum, a syllabus, and a course relevant to meet the learner's needs and purposes. It is the first step in organizing any course. Accordingly, many terms are emerged, such as Present Situation Analysis (PSA), Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Strategy Analysis (SA), etc.

Richards and Platt (1992, pp. 242-243) state that NA is the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. In doing this, they illustrate, needs analysts gather information about the learner in order to know the objectives for which the language is needed, the situation in which the language will be used, with whom the language will be used, and the level of proficiency required. In another definition of needs analysis, Nunan (1988, p. 13) focuses more on the information-gathering process; he states that "techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design are referred to as needs analysis".

Researchers have realized that it is not practical to attempt to teach the whole of a foreign language, as this will require more time and effort than is practically possible for the majority of learners and teachers alike (Maley, 1983). Accordingly, focusing on the reasons why learners need to learn the foreign language will better enable language teaching professionals to cater for their learners specified needs and save a lot of wasted time and effort. The seminal work of Munby (1978) has led researchers, especially in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), to propose various NA taxonomies and suggest various ways in which students' needs may be analyzed (e.g., Hutchinson and Water, 1987).

According to Hutchinson and Water (1987), needs analysis started mainly in the field of ESP. Nevertheless, they argue that, as far as needs analysis is concerned, there should not be any difference between ESP and General English (GE). They state that: It is often argued that the needs of the general English learner, for example the schoolchild, are not specifiable.

In fact, this is the weakest of all arguments, because it is always possible to specify needs, even if it is only the need to pass the exam at the end of the school year. There is always an identifiable need of some sort. What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such, but rather an awareness of the need. (Hutchinson &Waters 1987, p. 53)

Similarly, Richards (1990, as cited in West, 1994, p.13) believes that "most of the literature on needs analysis originally came from the realm of TESP but needs analysis procedures have increasingly come to be seen as fundamental to the planning of general language courses". In order to practically support this argument, Seedhouse (1995) presented an example of how NA procedures could be implemented in the GE classroom. These procedures enabled the researcher to improve the language teaching curriculum so as to fulfil his students' psychosocial needs, something that is much more sophisticated than providing students with a certain set of lexical items or grammatical structures.

Consequently, it seems plausible to argue that any course should be based on an NA of the learners, as this is how the procedures of ESP could be beneficial to general English. This argument serves as a focal point for the purpose of this article. In the subsequent part of this paper, I will briefly introduce two NA taxonomies that should give the readers an idea of how NA has been approached and delineated by various researchers.

NA Taxonomies

Under the general heading of NA, Hutchinson and Water (1987) identify the following divisions:

Target Needs (TNs)

They believe that target needs is an umbrella term that hides a number of important distinctions. They look at the target situation in terms of necessities, lacks and wants as follows:

a. **Necessities.** It is "the type of need determined by the demand of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" (p. 55).

b. **Lacks**. The authors believe that identifying the necessities alone is not enough and that we also need to know what the learner knows already, as this helps us decide which of the necessities the learner *lacks*. In other words, we need to match the target proficiency against the existing proficiency, and the gap between them is the learner's lacks.

c. **Wants.** Learners' wants and their views about the reasons why they need language should not be ignored, as students may have a clear idea about the necessities of the target situation and will certainly have a view as to their lacks. Actually, this might be a problem as the learner's views might conflict with the perceptions of other interested parties, e.g. Course designers, sponsors, and teachers.

Learning Needs (LNs)

Learning needs explain how students will be able to move from the starting point (lacks) to the 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 add that the target situation alone is not a reliable indicator, and those the conditions of the learning situation, the learners? Knowledge, skills, strategies, and motivation for learning are of prime importance. The authors then offer a target situation analysis framework that consists primarily of the following questions: Why is the language needed? How will the language be used? What will the content areas be? Who will the learner use the language with? Where will the language be used? When will the language be used? They also offer a similar framework for analyzing learning needs that comprises the following questions: why are the learners taking the course? How do the learners learn? What resources are available? Who are the learners? Where will the course take place? When will the course take place? Finally, the writers offer various ways for gathering Information about the target needs such as: questionnaires, interviews, observations, data collection, and informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others. Starting from Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) classification of needs analysis, West (1994) propounds the following delineation:

1. **Present Situation Analysis (PSA),** it may be posited as a complement to target situation analysis. If target situation analysis tries to establish what the learners are expected to be like at the end of the language course, present situation analysis attempts to identify what they are like at the beginning of it. The term PSA (Present Situation Analysis) was first proposed by Richterich and Chancerel (1980). Needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA.

2. **Target Situation Analysis (TSA)**: it identifies the necessities, i.e. the demands of the target situation or, in other words, what the learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation.

3. **Deficiency Analysis (DA) or LACKS**: it is, as mentioned earlier, the gap between what the target trainees know at present and what they are required to know or do at the end of the program. Other aspects of deficiency analysis investigate whether students are required to do something in the target language that they cannot do in their native language.

4. **Strategy Analysis (SA)**: it mainly identifies the learners' preferred learning styles.

5. Obviously the focus here is on methodology, but there are other related areas such as: reading in and out of class, grouping   size,   doing homework,   learning   habits, correction preferences, etc.

6. **Means Analysis (MA)**: it is mainly concerned with the logistics, practicalities, and constraints of needs-based language courses. West (1994) points out that some analysts believe that instead of focusing on constraints, it might be better if course designers think about how to implement plans in the local situation.

ESP vs. GE

One may ask 'What is the difference between the ESP and General English approach?' Hutchinson et al. (1987, p.53) answer this quite simply; "in theory, nothing, in practice a great deal".

1. The major difference between ESP and GE lies in the learners and their purposes for learning English. ESP students are adults who already have some familiarity with English and are

2. learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP program is; therefore, built on an assessment of purposes and needs the functions for which English is required.

3. ESP is part of a larger movement within language teaching away from a concentration on teaching grammar and language structures to an emphasis on language in context. ESP covers subjects ranging from computer science to tourism,business, management, etc. The ESP focus means that English is not taught as a subject divorced from the students' real world; instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners.

4. EFL and ESP differ not only in the nature of the learner, but also in the scope of the goals of instruction. Whereas in EFL all four language skills are stressed equally, in ESP a need assessment determines which language skills are most needed by the students, and the program is focused accordingly. An ESP program, might, for example, stress the development of reading skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in engineering; or it might stress the development of conversational skills in students who are studying English in order to become tour guides.
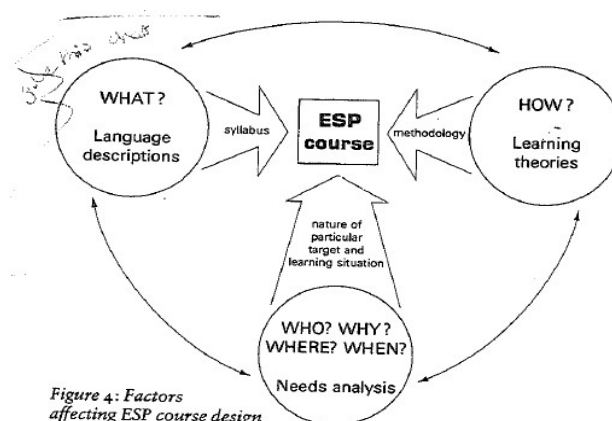
ESP Course

Figure 4: Factors affecting ESP course design

An ESP course can be carried out at three levels: the learners, the teacher and the teaching materials.

a. **Learners**: In an ESP course, the majority of learners are adults (or young adults) who have already developed a specialty, thus, know their fields. They are, usually, highly motivated because they have an immediate need of the language, either for occupational or academic needs.

b. **Teacher:** The ESP teacher, who is primarily a language teacher and not a science teacher, must have some knowledge in the particular subject he is teaching. Unlike his colleagues in a "general English class", he must rely on his students for information on the subject taught, because they have more authority than him in the field. In addition to being familiar with the topic, he also needs to take account of developments in linguistics and learning theory.

c. **Teaching Materials:** ESP teaching materials are usually one of three types:

1. *Genuine or Authentic materials:* they are materials taken directly from a printed source and presented without alteration. If we want to use this material, one needs a group of learners with a fairly solid background in English.
2. *Adapted Materials:* these materials allow the teacher to stress the features that s/he wants to work with, but are quite **difficult to construct.**
3. *Synthesized or Created Materials*: they are the most **popular among ESP** teachers; these materials result from the process of taking "genuine materials" from two or more sources, deleting the unwanted items and fusing the remaining information into a continuous text. The advantage is that they give the teacher more control over the grammatical and lexical features.

Characteristics of an ESP Course

ESP course is characterized by (Strevens, as cited in Robinson 1980, p.12)

a. restriction: to those basic skills that are needed,

b. selection: of vocabulary, grammar, etc.,

c. themes and topics: those required, none other, and

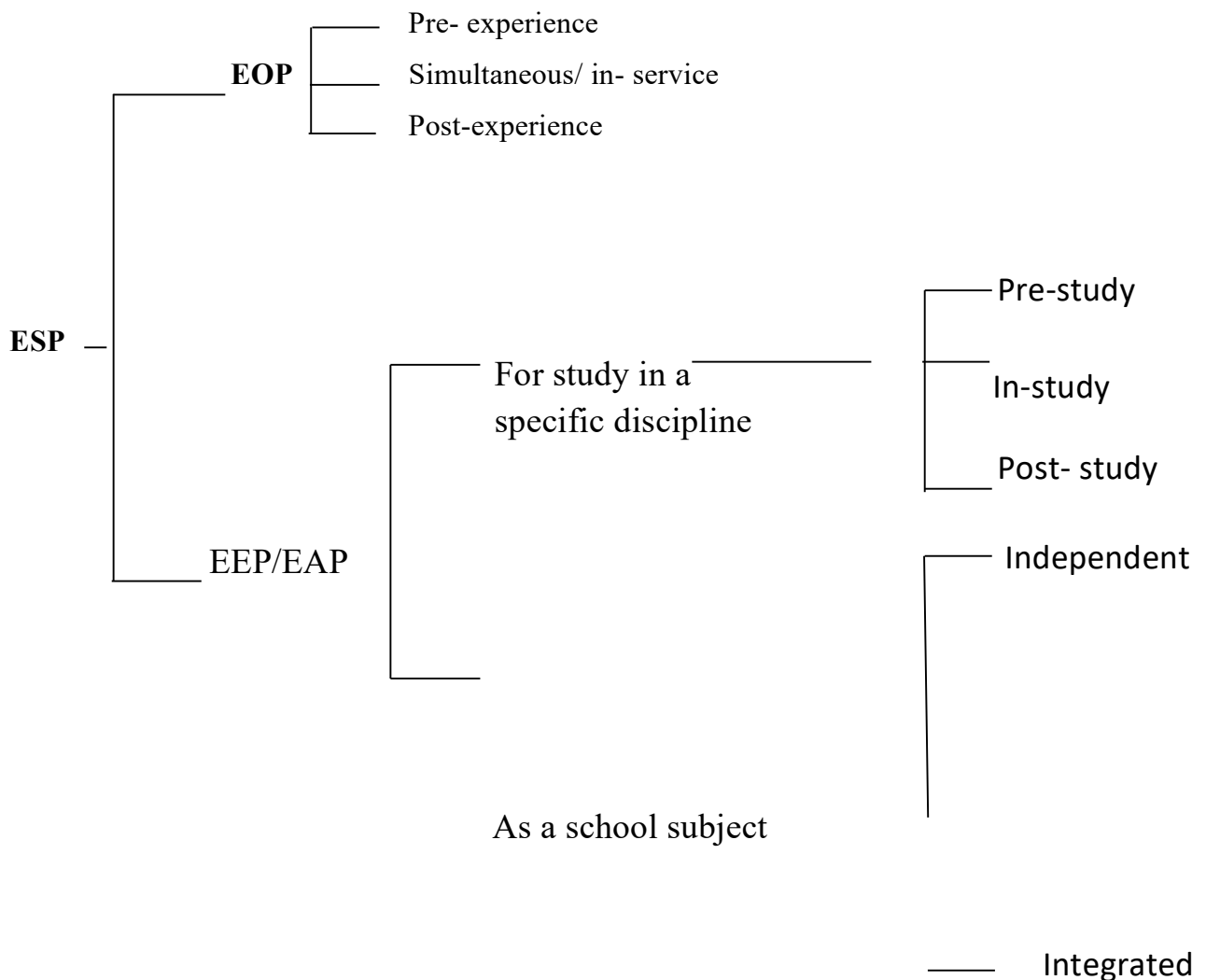d. communicative needs: only the ones required by the learner's purposes are included in a course

ESP course is characterized by (Robinson 1991, p.2) (NB not all ESP courses have all these features)

a. goal directed,

b. based on a needs analysis,

c. clearly specified time period for the course,

d. adult students,

e. students are not beginners in English,

f. homogeneous groups. Care: to what extent homogeneous, e.g., all employees in a company may be required to study English, they will have the shared knowledge and values of the company, but have different jobs to do,

g. may include special language, and

h. more important, may include special activities.

ESP Branches

The term "Languages for Specific Purposes" is actually an umbrella term that applies to several different categories of courses which differ according to the learner's needs.

ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).This classification is generally presented in a tree diagram as in Figure l (Robinson, 1991, pp.3-4)

ESP —
- EOP
  - Pre- experience
  - Simultaneous/ in- service
  - Post-experience
- EEP/EAP
  - For study in a specific discipline
    - Pre-study
    - In-study
    - Post- study
  - As a school subject
    - Independent

—— Integrated

Figure. l   ESP classification by experience

The diagram has as well as the division into EAP and EOP, a useful division of courses according to when they take place.

Another typical diagram for ESP, which divides EAP and EOP accord to discipline professional
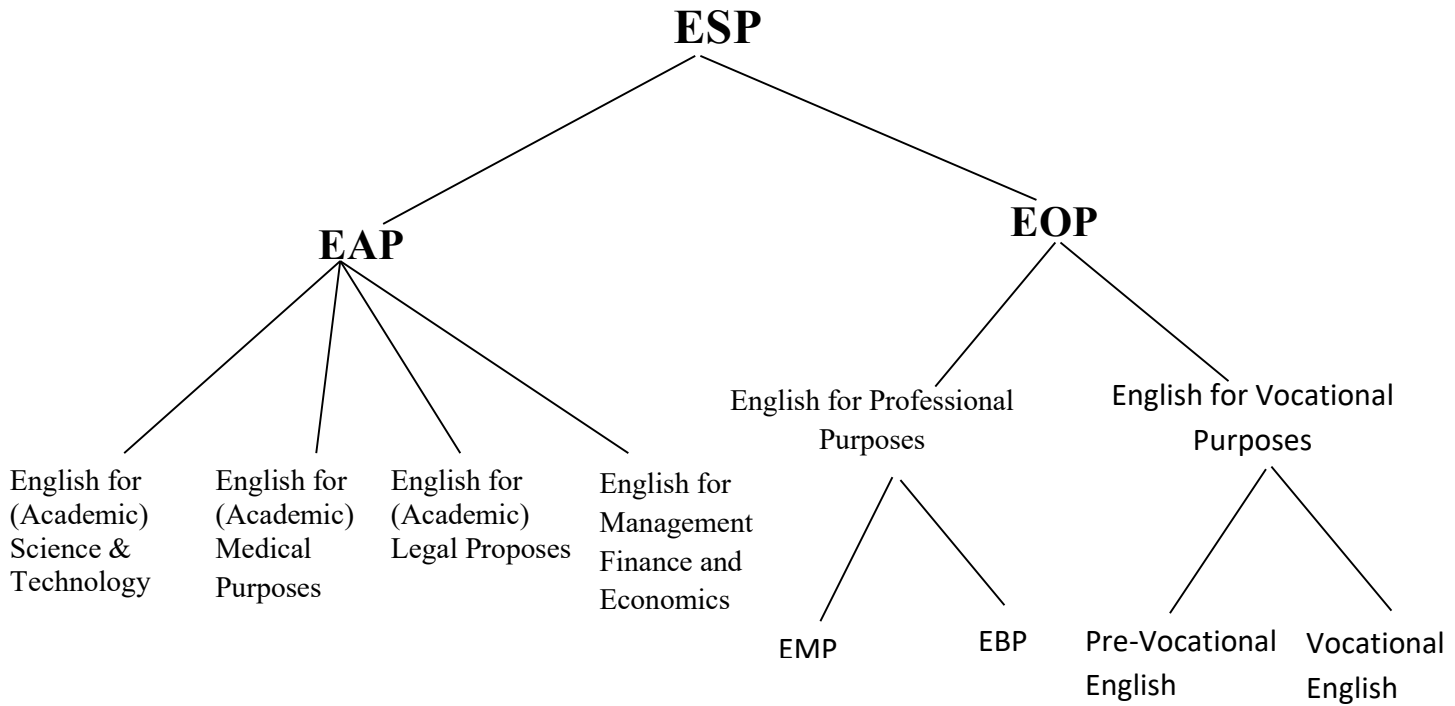
area, is shown in Figure 2:

ESP

EAP

EOP

English for Professional
Purposes

English for Vocational
Purposes

English for
(Academic)
Science &
Technology

English for
(Academic)
Medical
Purposes

English for
(Academic)
Legal Proposes

English for
Management
Finance and
Economics

EMP

EBP

Pre-Vocational
English

Vocational
English

Figure. 2   ESP classifications by professional area

Johns (1991) provides the following model, Figure 3, for instruction in English, one that is widely used in the US:
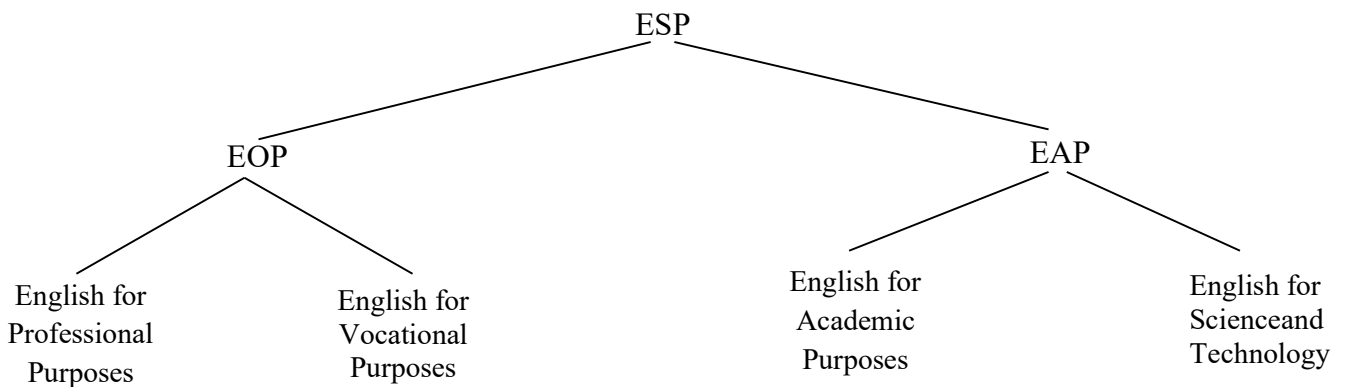
ESP

EOP

EAP

English for
Professional
Purposes

English for
Vocational
Purposes

English for
Academic
Purposes

English for
Scienceand
Technology

Figure. 3 subcategories of English for specific purposes

English for Specific Purposes; therefore, encompasses two types of instruction: EOP and EAP Courses in English for Occupational Purposes train individuals to perform on the job, using English to communicate. This type of course would be useful for airline pilots, or hotel staffs who need English to perform their professional duties. English for Academic Purposes, on the other hand, features primarily a common core element known as "study skills" such as academic writing and listening to lectures, note-taking, making oral presentations, which enable one to succeed in English-language academic setting.

So, most researchers speak about two or three major divisions of ESP. Robinson (1991) described two great distinctions: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) with English for Science and Technology (EST) cutting across the two of them. Kennedy and Bolitho (1985) see EST as a third major division in the ESP family tree. They say that it is important to recognize that EST has contributed to the development of ESP because scientists and technologists needed to learn English to deal with linguistic tasks common to the nature of their professions.Celce-Murcia (2001) said that the division of ESP is far from being exhausted and mentions ESP courses even for the incarcerated.

She added that a diversity of curricula and settings is what helps to make ESP courses virtually adaptive according to the contexts and needs of the learners. She went on to classify EST as a branch of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) along with English for Business and Economies (EBE), English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for the Law (ELP).

She called the other big branch English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and lists two branches under it: English for Professional Purposes. (EPP), subdivided, in turn, into English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Business Purposes (EBP). She called the other branch Vocational ESL (VESL) having Pre- Employment VESL, Occupational Specific VESL, Cluster VESL and Workplace VESL as its subdivisions. This classification set forth by Celce-Murcia seems to be the most detailed. This is based on the truth that the continuous developments of the sciences and humanities have led to the creation of new areas of human knowledge. This knowledge is in turn used by specific people in specific settings through specific language to carry out specific tasks.