

DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR THE WRITING OF ESP STUDY GUIDES

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**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy in English at the North-West University**

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May 2007

Potchefstroom Campus

Acknowledgements

A sincere thank you to:

My God and Saviour, Jesus Christ, who has given me the grace, knowledge and understanding to complete this study.

Professor Carisma Nel, for her friendship and encouragement and expert advice. Without you this study would never have been possible!

The Director of Academic Support Services, Prof. Paul du Plessis, for his knowledge and insight.

Dr. Willie van der Merwe and Dr. Caela Scott. Your knowledge and experience has taught me much.

The Director of the School of Languages, Prof. Wannie Carstens, for allowing me to conduct this study as well as all the lecturers and learners who were willing to participate.

Mrs. Almarie van Zyl for your patience, compassion and understanding. You are a role model.

My friend, Louisa, for all your help and encouragement. You are a blessing!

My parents, for giving me every opportunity that they possibly could. Thank you!

Abstract

Key words

Instructional design, interaction, second language acquisition, learning theories, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), instructional materials, study guide, perceptions, principles,

Teaching through specifically designed and produced learning materials is a widely used and accepted way of teaching in higher education both nationally and internationally. Although this kind of teaching is used mainly in the field of distance education, it has become increasingly popular at traditional universities in face-to-face methods of education. Developing language-learning materials that meets the needs of English for Specific Purposes learners is a process that requires meticulous planning as English for Specific Purposes courses are aimed at meeting the career needs of the learners.

An empirical study was conducted to determine the perceptions and concerns of learners using the ENGL 122 study guide at the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The results of the study indicated that the learners were positive that the study guide enhanced their learning process, but various concerns were also raised by the learners.

This study also aimed to create a framework for the writing of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) study guides. In order to achieve this, a literature study was done to provide information about the relevant theories and principles that apply to ESP study guide development. The literature study also included aspects that need to be taken into consideration when designing or planning the development of an ESP study guide.

Opsomming

Sleutelwoorde

Onderrig-leerontwerp, interaksie, aanleer van 'n tweede taal, leer teorieë, Engels vir Spesifieke Doeleindes (ESD), leermateriaal, studie gids, persepsies, principles,

Onderrig deur middel van spesifiek ontwerpte leermateriaal is 'n algemeen aanvaarde en gebruikte onderrigmetode in hoër onderwys op beide nasionale en internasionale gebiede. Alhoewel hierdie tipe onderrig hoofsaaklik in afstandsonderrig gebruik word, het dit toenemend gewild geword in tradisionele universiteite, veral waar leerders nog van aangesig tot aangesig onderrig word. Om leermateriaal te ontwikkel, wat die behoeftes van leerders wat Engels vir Spesifieke Doeleindes (ESD) studeer, te kan bevredig, is 'n proses wat deeglike beplanning verg om sodoende die loopbaan behoeftes van die leerders in ag te neem, aangesien dit die uiteindelijke doel van ESD is.

'n Empiriese studie is uitgevoer om die persepsies en besorgdhede van die leerders die ENGL 122 studie gids gebruik by die Noord-Wes Universiteit (Potchefstroom Kampus) te bepaal. Die resultate van hierdie studie het aangedui dat die leerders baie positief was oor die studiegids en dat dit hulle leerproses bevorder het, maar dat daar wel kommer was oor 'n paar aspekte.

Hierdie studie het ook ten doel gehad om 'n raamwerk te vorm vir die skryf van Engels vir Spesifieke Doeleindes studiegids. Om hierdie doelwit te bereik is 'n literatuurstudie gedoen om inligting te verkry aangaande die relevante teorieë en beginsels wat toegepas kan word op die Engels vir Spesifieke Doeleindes studiegids ontwikkeling. Die literatuurstudie het ook aspekte ingesluit wat die beplanning van die ESD studiegids beïnvloed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Problem statement

The current educational system in South Africa places emphasis on lifelong, active, autonomous, and self-directed learning (cf. Department of Education, 1997; Vahed & Rambharos, 2000; Greyling et al., 2002). It is in this context of our current educational paradigm that the problem of designing **interactive** paper-based study guides is addressed.

Based on the successful implementation of printed interactive study guides in the Telematic Learning Systems (TLS) programmes at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus), and the desire to develop more **independence** in undergraduates, a decision was also made to develop printed interactive study guides for the full-time programmes on- and off-campus (cf. Van Wyk, 2001). One of the reasons being that study guides offer flexibility in on-and off-campus teaching as well. The use of the materials by on-and off-campus students can reduce the content delivery requirements of lectures, and face-to-face contact time can be used to enhance learning in other ways.

Interactive study guides were developed with the aim of serving as "a management tool for students to manage their own learning" (Harden et al., 1999:22). Jorrison and Ferreira (1990:44) state that study guides are "an important teaching and learning intervention to structure and organise student learning to effect self study". In addition, in order to facilitate student learning study guides contain tasks and activities for learners to actively interact with the various components of the curriculum in order to develop the application of knowledge and skills in terms of outcomes - to learn by doing (cf. Rowntree, 1994). Study guides should also motivate and encourage learners to manage their own learning in order to develop into autonomous learners, so that learners know how to learn and recognise if they have learnt (cf. Harden et al., 1999:1).

According to Gachuhi and Matiru (1989), the design of effective interactive materials consists of a two-way process. That is to say, there is interaction between the writer's text and the learner. The learner is therefore actively involved in the learning process. A key challenge is ensuring that authors write in a way that is engaging and which actively involves the learners. New authors have a natural tendency to write for their peers, especially if they are academics who are used to writing for academic publication. They need to be convinced that their materials should read more like a tutorial than a lecture, with an emphasis on interaction (cf. Harden et al., 1999; Van der Merwe, 1999).

Harden et al. (1999:1) state that for study guides to be effective they require a balance among three aspects, namely the core information (i.e. the content), the tasks/activities for learners to actively interact with the various components of the curriculum in order to develop the application of knowledge and skills in terms of the outcomes, and to motivate and encourage learners to manage their own learning. According to Holsgrove et al. (1998:3), the content aspect is very often over-emphasised to the detriment of the other two aspects.

The study guide should, therefore, do more than merely present subject matter (cf. Vahed & Rambharos, 2000). It should contain directions and guidance for the learners in their study of the content and provide a structure for interaction between learners and lecturers. The author of the study guide must break free from the structure of the content and the structure of the text and use devices and techniques that assist the student to master the content (cf. Moore & Kearsley, 1996; Jorrison & Ferreira, 1990; Holsgrove et al., 1998; Van der Merwe et al., 2002).

Van der Merwe (2002:43) highlights a number of limitations of the interactive study guides developed at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus). These include: a textbook writing approach (one-way interaction), lack of interaction, limited guiding of students, limited feedback, incomplete provision of support structures in the study guide, limited or no guidance in terms of how to study autonomously, independently or the encouragement of self-directed learning, too little white space and too much information density. Similarly, Greyling et al. (2002: 117-119) indicate a number of limitations in the study guides developed at the Rand Afrikaans

University, namely no effort is made to develop higher order cognitive skills, the study guide consists mainly of “teacher talk”, almost no activities to monitor and/or develop the learners’ comprehension monitoring skills, limited development of self-regulatory abilities, and no evidence of the development of a positive attitude towards learning. In a study conducted by Vahed and Rambharos (2000) at the ML Sultan Technikon in Durban, they came to the conclusion that the majority of the lecturers needed training in the writing of study guides.

Study guides are informed by a particular philosophy of teaching and learning (cf. Vahed & Rambharos, 2000). According to Tomlinson (1998:6), what is needed when designing materials, including study guides, is a “compilation of learning principles and procedures which most teachers agree contribute to successful learning plus a compilation of principles and procedures recommended by most Second Language Acquisition researchers”. A combination of the two compilations could, therefore, produce a framework of principles and procedures that would provide a menu of potentially profitable options for lecturers when designing interactive ESP study guides.

Theories related to teaching and learning and which are also relevant to materials development include: *Ausubel’s* advance organizer model which states that students learn new materials in terms of what they already know, and that advance organizers serve as introductory material which is aimed at bridging the gap between what the student has already learnt to what he needs to learn and assimilate. *Bruner’s* discovery learning theory states that we should use a problem-solving approach when teaching new concepts and *Holmberg’s* theory of didactic conversation implies that materials should be structured in such a way that they resemble a guided conversation (cf. Brown, 1994; Gachuhi & Matiru, 1989).

Some of the basic principles of SLA relevant to the development of language materials include: materials should help learners feel at ease, materials should help learners to develop confidence, learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught, materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use, the learners’ attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input, materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve

communicative purposes, materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles, materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes, materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback, etc. (cf. Dulay et al., 1982; Krashen, 1985; Ellis, 1994; Allwright, 1984; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Tomlinson, 1998).

In this study the focus is on the designing of English for Specific Purposes study guides. ESP consists of English language teaching which is: designed to meet specified needs of the learner, related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities, centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to the activities of the discipline it serves, and differentiates between basic interpersonal skills and cognitive academic language proficiency (cf. Cummins, 1979; Strevens, 1988; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). When designing interactive study guides it will, therefore, be important to take the abovementioned issues into consideration.

The learners using the study guide will ultimately be the main critics of the material being designed. Tomlinson (1998:2) states that it is important to "pay more attention to what learners believe about the best ways to learn a language and also to what they want from the materials they use". The learners' feedback on the effectiveness of the study guide, therefore, forms an important focus in this study.

The following research questions need to be addressed:

- What theories are relevant to materials development for ESP courses?
- What principles of SLA are relevant, and how do they relate, to materials development for ESP courses?
- What are the perceptions and concerns of the learners with regard to the structure and usefulness of the interactive study guides used in an ESP course?
- What are the implications of the learners' perceptions for the design of interactive study guides for an ESP course?

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to:

- Determine what theories are relevant to materials development for ESP courses;
- Determine what principles of SLA are relevant, and how they relate, to materials development for ESP courses;
- Determine what the perceptions and concerns of the learners are with regard to the structure and usefulness of the interactive study guides used in an ESP course;
- Determine what the implications of the learners' perceptions and concerns are for the design of interactive study guides for an ESP course; and
- Develop a framework, based on reviewed literature, the analysis of the interactive study guides by Academic Services, and the analysis of the learners' perceptions of the interactive study guides, that can be used for the design of interactive study guides in ESP courses.

1.3 Central theoretical statement

As one of the main "tools of the trade" in language teaching/learning, it is important to understand the nature of the materials with which lecturers and learners work. If interactive study guides are to fulfil an important function in facilitating learning in ESP courses, it is essential that a framework be developed based on learning theory and particular SLA principles. In the analysis of the interactive study guides the focus should be on materials as a pedagogic device, that is, as an aid to teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes.

1.4 Method of Research

A one-shot cross-sectional survey design was used. The framework developed by Academic Services (cf. Van der Merwe et al., 2002) was used to analyse the selected interactive study guides in the ESP course. The framework consists of six sections, namely outcomes, activities, subject content, manner and style of presentation, media selection and general. Each section consists of a number of questions, relating to the heading, which is used to analyse the study guide.

The questionnaire was subdivided into categories such as: "structure of study guide"; "administration of study guide" etc. A second questionnaire was developed in order to determine students' perceptions of the printed interactive study guides.

The questionnaire was subdivided into categories such as: "structure of study guide"; "administration of study guide" etc. All questionnaires were based on a comprehensive literature survey and have content and face validity.

The study guides were analysed by the researcher as well as two independent evaluators within the Academic Services department at the North West University Potchefstroom Campus. The data was analysed by means of descriptive statistics. Open-ended questions were reported as narratives.

1.5. Chapter outline

In chapter 2 the theories of teaching and learning, second language acquisition and materials development are reviewed and discussed. In chapter 3 the designing of interactive ESP study guides is discussed and chapter 4 contains the method of research. Chapter 5 presents the results and the discussion. Chapter 6 presents a framework for developing interactive ESP study guides, and chapter 7 presents the conclusion and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2

Theories and Principles Relevant to ESP

Materials Design

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Language teaching and language learning are complex processes that researchers and teaching professionals have attempted to describe and explain over the years. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a pedagogy in which the syllabus, contents and methods are determined according to the needs of the learners' specialised subjects (Duan et al., 2005:2). According to Basturkmen (2002:23), the teaching of language for specific purposes has been criticised for being all practice and no theory because there has been limited concern in the literature with fundamental ideas. Therefore, for an ESP course to be relevant and useful to the learners of a specific discourse community, it needs to have certain theoretical and practical principles underpinning it.

Such principles should not only reflect a theory of language learning and the kind of methodology it implies but also be grounded in research into learning theories such as behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism as well as SLA interactionist theories. According to Glew (1998:2), one of the goals of language course design is to provide "the occasions for the student and lecturer to find the discourse needed to negotiate both the expression and comprehension of meaning". ESP materials design should proceed by identifying the target situation first, and then carrying out an analysis of the linguistic features of the situation (Duan et al., 2005:2).

The purpose of this chapter is firstly, to highlight various theories that are relevant to ESP materials design and secondly, attention is paid to principles of second language acquisition relevant to language materials development.

2.2 THEORIES RELEVANT TO ESP MATERIALS DESIGN

A theoretical approach useful to ESP materials design is the various learning and second language acquisition (SLA) theories and research. These theories include behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, and interactionist theories such as the Interaction Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis etc. Classical instructional theory places emphasis on the idea of feedback where lecturers help learners understand their subject matter by offering appropriate comments or remarks on their written work. According to Moore et al. (1995:47), research on traditional classrooms has affirmed that increasing student-teacher interaction can improve both learner achievement and enhance their educational attitudes. It is essential that various theories relevant to ESP study material development is taken into consideration as no one theory can be isolated but an eclectic approach should rather be followed as various theories contribute to aspects relevant to the development of interactive ESP study guides. In this section the various theories relevant to ESP materials design are discussed.

2.2.1 Behaviourism

The learning theory dominant in the first half of the 20th century was behaviourism and it stayed influential throughout the 1950's and 60's. Behaviourism is an approach to psychology and learning that emphasises observable measurable behaviour. The theory of behaviourism focuses on the study of overt behaviours that can be observed and measured (cf. Good & Brophy, 1990). According to the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2005:2), the "task" of behaviourism is to specify types of association, understand how "environmental events control behaviour, discover and elucidate causal regularities or laws or functional relations which govern the formation of associations and predict how behaviour will change as the environment changes".

In behaviourism the mind is viewed as a "black box" in the sense that response to stimulus can be observed quantitatively, totally ignoring the possibility of thought processes occurring in the mind (Mergel, 1998:2-3). Lightbown et al. (1993:1) state that traditional behaviourists believed that language learning is a matter of imitation and habit formation. In behaviourism, the learner is viewed as passively adapting to his environment and learning is seen largely as a passive process in which there is no explicit treatment of or interest in the mental process. Some of the key players in the development of the behaviourist theory were Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike and Skinner.

A behaviouristic approach creates an artificiality of the stimulus in drills, which may give rise to a kind of structure speech which is marked by a lack of interaction in a real-life or authentic situation. The content presented by these meaningless drills may teach learners that listening is a waste of time. Language was seen as a form of behaviour and the stimulus-response-reinforcement could account for how humans learn language (Sole, 1994:1). According to Power (2006:1) behaviourists set out to minimise the role of understanding in order to focus on structure. Behavioural views were challenged for a number of reasons, including their failure to account for language learning (cf. Chomsky, 1959; Miller, 1965) and their difficulty in explaining complex human behaviour (e.g. problem-solving, expertise).

According to Cunningsworth (1984:31), the behaviourist theory everything but revolutionised foreign-language learning with the concept that language learning is essentially habit formation in response to external stimuli. With a simple stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence it was claimed learners could develop habits of use in the target language (L2). Learners, therefore, never really had to internalise rules but rather learnt the right patterns of linguistic behaviour and acquired the correct habits (Cunningsworth, 1984:31). Behaviourism started declining when cognitive psychology was developed and offered a so-called "objective" approach to the study of the human psyche.

2.2.2. Cognitivism

According to Driscoll (1994), the study of learning is based on two aspects. The first aspect concerns the nature of knowledge or how a learner comes to know things, and the other is how knowledge is acquired and represented in the mind. Unlike the behaviourist learning perspectives that are focused on stimulus-response outcomes and the constructivist perspectives that affirm that the mind constructs its own reality, cognitivist-learning perspectives indicate knowledge acquisition is not relevant unless the information is learned and understood in a meaningful way. The world and reality are interpreted, negotiated, and agreed upon through reason. Cognitivist principles feature the learner as a proactive participant in the learning process (Bates, 1999:1).

The interpretistic problems associated with behavioural perspectives and language shifted the focus away from stimulus-response learning and toward how learners process information. The birth of computers after World War II provided a means to

conceptualise human cognition. This meant that stimulus became input, response became output and whatever happened in between was called information processing. According to Good et al. (1990:187):

...cognitive theorists recognise that much learning involves associations established through contiguity and repetition. They also acknowledge the importance of reinforcement, although they stress its role in providing feedback about the correctness of responses over its role as a motivator. However, even while accepting such behaviouristic concepts, cognitive theorists view learning as involving the acquisition or reorganizing of the cognitive structures through which humans process and store information.

The return to a more cognitive approach reasserted the importance of the psychology of the individual as an autonomous, thinking being worthy of and entitled to respect from his/her lecturer. This enhanced the move away from language teaching to language learning (Cunningsworth, 1984:32). A cognitivist that played an integral part in learning is Ausubel.

2.2.2.1 Ausubel

Ausubel's theory is concerned with how individuals learn large amounts of meaningful material from verbal/textual presentations in a school setting. Ausubel (1962) theorised that learning is based upon the kinds of super-ordinate, representational, and combinatorial processes that occur during the reception of information. A primary process in learning is that new material is related to relevant ideas in the existing cognitive structure on a substantive, non-verbatim basis. Cognitive structures represent the residue of all learning experiences; forgetting occurs because certain details get integrated and lose their individual identity.

A major instructional mechanism proposed by Ausubel (1963:81) is the use of advance organisers:

These organizers are introduced in advance of learning itself, and are also presented at a higher level of abstraction, generality, and inclusiveness; and since the substantive content of a given organizer or series of organizers is selected on the basis of its suitability for explaining, integrating and interrelating the material they precede, this strategy simultaneously satisfies

the substantive as well as the programming criteria for enhancing the organization strength of cognitive structure.

Advance organisers are different from overviews and summaries, which simply emphasise key ideas and are presented at the same level of abstraction and generality as the rest of the materials. Organisers act as a subsuming bridge between new learning material and existing related ideas. According to Bin Mohamed Amin (2005:1), advance organisers “combine both the linguistic mode of learning (using words and phrases to describe) and the non-linguistic mode (using symbols and arrows to represent relationships)”.

Ausubel (1963:85) applied his theory of advance organisers to the learning of a second language where the learner may already have higher level concepts available from the study of the first language: sentence construction, parts of speech, tense of verbs, etc. According to Bin Mohamed Amin (2005:3), when English language materials inculcate advance organisers, learners will be more aware of the key concepts and relationships and the relationship between these concepts. Knowledge of these advance organisers will make lecturers more conscious of conveying a clear, holistic picture of the content and the relationship between different parts of the content to their learners in the study material. Different advance organisers serve different instructional purposes:

- Brainstorm: Generate ideas and concepts (e.g., create a vocabulary chart around the theme of “travelling”),
- Concept Map Sequencing: Arranging ideas/concepts in a sequential manner such as according to time or importance (e.g., placing sentences given in the correct sequence/order of importance),
- Spider map: For example, create a spider map by using the synonyms of the word “look”.

Bin Mohamed Amin (2005:3).

Once learners have constructed these graphic organisers, lecturers can also reinforce understanding, check learning, identify misconceptions and evaluate the learner’s learning. Graphic organisers are very useful strategies to help learners learn more effectively and retain the information longer.

2.2.3 Constructivism

Constructivists believe that learners construct their own reality or at least interpret it based upon their perceptions of experiences, so an individual's knowledge is a function of one's prior experiences, mental structures, and beliefs that are used to interpret objects and events (Mergel, 1998:7). Learners, therefore, do not simply take in and store information. They attempt to interpret their experiences and build on and test those interpretations. Constructive processes operate even when the learning task is simple (Perkins, 1991:20). Learning, therefore, happens in an idiosyncratic manner as each student uses his/her unique prior experience as the lens through which new information that creates dissonance is interpreted, and new knowledge is created. Perkins (1991:21) argues that if learning has a constructive character, then teaching practice must recognise this. According to Hein (1991:1), constructing meaning is learning and he states that the dramatic consequences of this view are twofold:

- i. There has to be a focus on the learner in thinking about learning not just on the subject or the lesson to be taught; and
- ii. There is no knowledge independent of the meaning attributed to experience constructed by the learner or a community of learners.

Constructivism, therefore, has important implications for instruction. Hein (1991:3-4) highlights eight constructivist aspects that are important for instruction:

- i. Learning is an active process where the learner uses sensory input and constructs meaning of it. This entails that the learner cannot be passive in his/her learning experience but become actively involved and therefore engaging with the world.
- ii. People learn to learn as they learn. Thus, learning consists both of constructing meaning and constructing items of meaning.
- iii. Constructing meaning happens in the mind. Instruction needs to provide tasks that employ both the hands and the mind. This can also be called a reflective activity.
- iv. Language influences learning as language and learning are intertwined.
- v. Learning is a social activity. Much of the traditional education is directed at isolating the learner from all social interaction and it perceives learning as a one-on-one relationship between the learner and the material to be learned.

Constructivist learning, on the other hand, recognises the social aspect of learning and uses conversation, interaction with others, and the application of knowledge as an integral part of learning.

- vi. Learning is contextual. Learners do not learn isolated facts and theories in isolation but in relationship to prior knowledge and affective factors such as fears, prejudices etc.
- vii. Learners need prior knowledge to learn. It is not possible to assimilate new knowledge without prior knowledge. The more the learner knows, the more he/she can learn, and therefore any effort to develop instruction must be connected to the learner's prior knowledge and must provide a path into the subject matter based on this prior knowledge.
- viii. It takes time to learn. If the learner reflects on anything he or she has learned it is the product of repeated exposure to the subject matter.

Gagnon et al. (2000:2-4) introduce a constructivist learning design which emphasises six important elements for instruction: situation, groupings, bridge, questions, exhibit and reflections. These elements are designed to provoke lesson planning and the process of learning. The lecturer will develop the *situation* for the learners to explain and select a process of *groupings* of materials and learners. The lecturer then builds a *bridge* between what learners already know and what is to be known. The lecturer then anticipates *questions* to ask and answer without giving away an explanation. The learners are then encouraged to *exhibit* a record of their thinking by sharing it with other learners and then request learners' reflections about their learning (Gagnon et al., 2000:2-4).

Constructivists concur with positivist, outcome-orientated empirical approaches to learning. They emphasise that real learning is neither rational, nor objective, but circuitous, responding to trial and error attempts at understanding, and that is firmly embedded in a social-emotional context. It is important to note that the constructivist approach not only recognises the cognitive but also the affective domain. According to Stepp-Greany, (2003:3), "student feeling may be enhanced not only through opportunities for collaboration but also for autonomy and self-regulated learning." Self-regulated learning activities should include error recovery activities that allow reasoning to flow out of a mistake, resulting in a positive feeling of empowerment, rather than the negative feeling that may result when students are simply given a correction with a judgement. It is imperative that learners are given the

encouragement to guess at solutions and to feel some level of ambiguity about a given topic in a constructivist environment.

Constructivism, therefore, has various implications for how lecturers teach and how learners learn. Two of the key players in constructivism are Jerome Bruner and Borje Holmberg and their contributions to constructivist learning are briefly discussed.

2.2.3.1 *Bruner*

A major theme in the theoretical framework of Bruner is that learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current or past knowledge. The learner then selects and transforms information and constructs hypotheses, and makes decisions relying on a cognitive structure to do so. The whole idea is 'to discover and to describe' formally the meanings that human beings created out of their encounters with the world, and then to propose hypotheses about what meaning-making processes were implicated. It focused on the symbolic activities that human beings employed in constructing and making sense not only of the world, but also of themselves (Bruner, 1990:2).

For Bruner (1990:8), an understanding of mind must include mental states like believing, desiring, intending, grasping a meaning, and must consider the mediating effects of culture and language. Scientists should not continue studying cognition in isolation, because the symbolic systems that individuals used in constructing meaning were systems that were already there, deeply embedded in culture and language. One of Bruner's assumptions is that the outcome of cognitive development is thinking. The intelligent mind creates from experience. "We are 'information processors' who manipulate mental representations of the world, and this enables us to 'go beyond the information given' to us by our sensory systems."

In place of information processing, Bruner offers to construct a mental science around the concept of meaning and the processes by which meanings are created and negotiated within a community (Bruner, 1990:11). Concepts are mental categories for objects, events, or ideas that have a common set of features; they allow us to classify objects and events. When learning a concept the emphasis is on one of the relevant features rather than the irrelevant, in other words what are its crucial features? Bruner believed we develop a strategy of testing these concepts

by trial and error. These concepts or categories help us incorporate and assess incoming information to provide us with a meaningful map of the world.

Bruner formulated a particular perspective of constructivism (the theory that learners construct their own knowledge). His constructivist theory is a general framework for instruction based upon the study of cognition. Regarding education Bruner advocated that if students were allowed to pursue concepts on their own they would gain a better understanding. He urged discovery learning which involves the lecturer providing guidance or scaffolding, organising the curriculum in a spiral manner so that the students are continually building upon what they have already learnt. This involves the lecturer teaching the same content in different ways depending on the students' developmental level.

Bruner (1966:53) states that a theory of instruction should address four major aspects:

- students' predisposition towards learning;
- the ways in which a body of knowledge can be structured so that it can be most readily grasped by the learner;
- the most effective sequences in which to present material; and
- the nature and pacing of rewards and punishments.

Bruner (1966) notes that language is the most important tool for cognitive growth. He investigated how adults use language to mediate the world for children and help them to solve problems.

2.2.3.2 *Holmberg*

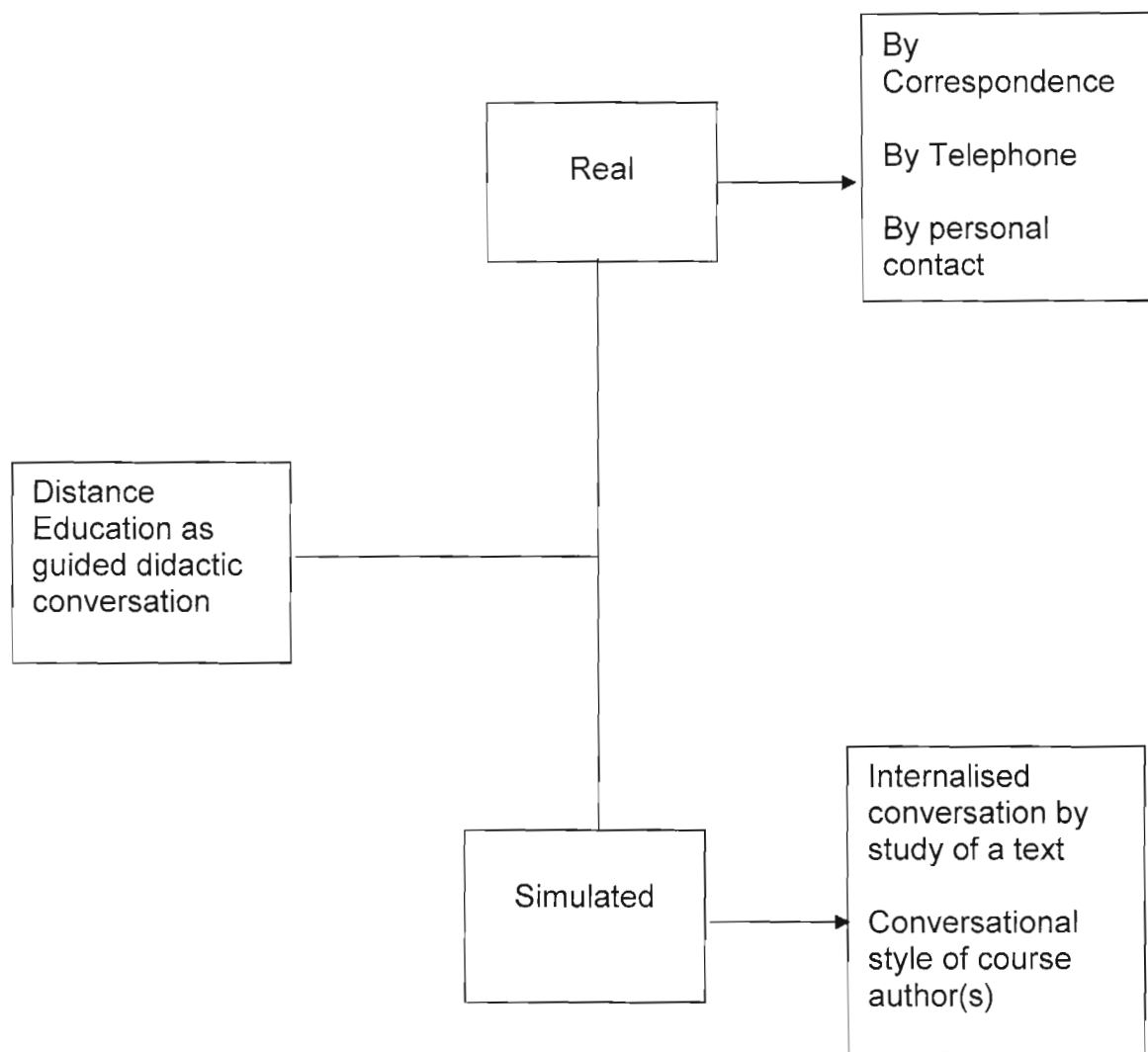
According to Hulsmann (2006:4), early distance education was based on printed materials. The only means of communication between the learner and the lecturer was correspondence. Classroom teaching or academic seminars allowed short periods of presentation and dialogue. This concept was called *guided didactic conversation* which was developed by Holmberg (1989). Holmberg bases his theory of guided didactic conversation on his conviction that the only important thing in education is learning by individual learners and that administration, counselling, teaching, group work, enrolment, and evaluation are of importance only in so far as

they support individual learning (Holmberg, 1989:43). Holmberg (1986:123), states that his theory “seems to have explanatory value in relating teaching effectiveness to the impact of feelings of belonging and cooperation as well as to the actual exchange of questions, answers and arguments in mediated communication”.

Distance education is particularly suitable for individual learning because it is based on personal work by individual learners more or less independent from the direct guidance of tutors (Gunawardena et al., 2006:6). The distance learner is, therefore, placed in a situation where he/she has much greater chances than the conventional learners by individually selecting what he/she is to partake of and what he can ignore with regard to face-to-face instruction, television programmes, tutorial comments on assignments, etc. The learner benefits from the interaction with his tutors and other representatives of a supporting organisation. It is this relationship between the learner and the supporting organisation that Holmberg characterises as guided didactic conversation.

Holmberg (1989:44) emphasizes simulated conversation, which is the interaction of individual learners with texts and the conversational style in which pre-produced correspondence texts are written. According to his theory of didactic conversation, which he developed while seeking an empathy approach to distance education, study materials developers are responsible for creating simulated conversation in self-instructional materials. The role of the lecturer is largely simulated by written dialogue and comments.

This guided didactic conversation can be either real or simulated (cf. Figure 1):



(Keegan, 2002:4-5).

Figure 2.1: Holmberg's Guided Didactic Conversation

A distance education system necessitates the presentation of course materials as one-way traffic only as well as activities such as counselling, didactic communication at the initiative of students. Holmberg (1982:24), in reviewing several course development approaches, suggests that when course structuring is decided upon by the institution alone, these efforts tend not to be learner-centred. When analysing the interaction or conversation between the lecturer and the learner, Holmberg emphasises that the conversation includes both non-contiguous conversation between the live lecturer and the learner and also learning activities, such as thinking, processing information and other cognitive processes. These processes take place when the learner interacts with the pre-prepared learning material as well as with the "built-in tutor" (Holmberg, 1960:22). Holmberg (1983:36) believed that within the context of formal education, learners learn by engaging in guided didactic conversations with their lecturers. The learners express their ideas, and then the

instructor guides the learner in elaborating, correcting or redirecting those ideas. Guided-didactic conversation promotes a personal relationship between the instructor and the learner, therefore creating greater motivation in the learner and increased learning outcomes.

Holmberg (1960:34) states that central to learning and teaching are personal relations between the parties concerned, study pleasure and empathy between learners and those representing the supporting organisation. These feelings of empathy are conveyed by lucid, problem-orientated, conversation-like presentations of the learning matter which expounds the course literature whether it be simulated by means of conversational text or real by means of technology, for example telephone, contact etc. (cf. Figure 1).

Holmberg (1986:123) offers seven "background assumptions" for his theory:

- i. The core of teaching is interaction between the teaching and learning parties; it is assumed that simulated interaction through subject-matter presentation in pre-produced courses can take over part of the interaction by causing learners to consider different views, approaches and solutions and generally interact with a course.
- ii. Emotional involvement in the study and feelings of personal relation between the teaching and learning parties are likely to contribute to learning pleasure.
- iii. Learning pleasure supports learner motivation.
- iv. Participation in decision-making concerning the study is favorable to learner motivation.
- v. Strong learner motivation facilitates learning.
- vi. A friendly, personal tone and easy access to the subject matter contribute to learning pleasure, support learner motivation and thus facilitate learning from the presentations of pre-produced courses, i.e., from teaching in the form of one-way traffic simulating interaction, as well as from didactic communication in the form of two-way traffic between the teaching and learning parties.
- vii. The effectiveness of teaching is demonstrated by learners' learning of what has been taught.

These assumptions, Holmberg believes, are the basis of the “essential teaching principles of distance education” (1986:125). Holmberg's (1982) theory is, therefore, designed to suggest procedures, which are expected to be effective in facilitating learning.

A theory of learning provides a summary of vast amounts of knowledge relevant to the laws of learning in a concise manner. Learning theories do not only explain how learning takes place but also why learning occurs. These theories provide the lecturer developing English language materials with a relevant conceptual framework for interpreting the language learning processes. It is important that the language lecturer developing materials note that there is a place for each theory within the development of an ESP study guide, depending on the situation and needs analysis.

Specifically designed language learning materials can contribute remarkably to the success of the learning materials if it satisfies specific demands and is characterised by specific features. One of the features of language learning materials is that it has to promote interaction between the learner and his/her educational context within the scope of assisting the language learner to acquire the language. The following section focuses on various interactionist theories relevant to English language learning materials development.

2.2.4 Interactionist theories

According to Rodgers (2001:1) language teaching came into its own as a profession in the last century. Central to this phenomenon was the emergence of the concept of “methods” of language teaching. Richards et al. (1986:15) describe “methods” as “the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language”. *Approach* refers to theory statements, which includes theories of what language is and how language is learned and more specifically, theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). These theories are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives or outcomes, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials etc. Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in environments where language teaching and learning take place (Rodgers, 2001:2).

According to Richards et al. (1986:17), the interactionist view sees "language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals." Interactional language theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation, and interaction found in conversational exchanges. The *Interaction Hypothesis* emphasizes the joint contributions of the linguistic environment and the learner's internal mechanisms in language development.

Theorists place different values on the role of interaction in second language acquisition (SLA). The *Interaction Hypothesis* suggested that, language acquisition occurs in conversations when meaning is negotiated (Bergenholtz, 2004:24). Negotiation of meaning involves the repairing of breakdowns in communication and is also called interactional modifications (Ellis, 1994:4). The general claim of the Interaction Hypothesis is that engaging in interpersonal, oral interaction, in which communication problems arise and are negotiated, facilitates language acquisition (Ellis, 1994:4).

Pica (1994), Long (1985), and others emphasize that conversational interaction facilitates SLA under certain conditions. According to Lightbown and Spada (1999:122), "When learners are given the opportunity to engage in meaningful activities they are compelled to 'negotiate for meaning,' that is, to express and clarify their intentions, thoughts, opinions, etc., in a way which permits them to arrive at a mutual understanding. This is especially true when the learners are working together to accomplish a particular goal."

Pica (1994:25) defines negotiation as "modification and restructuring that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility". Negotiation that involves the restructuring and modification of interaction may occur when second language learners and their interlocutors have to work to achieve comprehensibility by "repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways" (Pica, 1994: 494). A variety of modifications, which may involve linguistic simplification as well as conversational modifications such as repetition, clarification, and confirmation checks, may be used to gain understanding. The interaction hypothesis of Long and Robinson (Blake, 2000:35) suggests that when meaning is negotiated, input comprehensibility is usually increased and

learners tend to focus on salient linguistic features. Cognisance of these language forms and structures is seen as beneficial to SLA.

Krashen's (1985) theory became a predominant influence in both second language teaching practice and later theories. Krashen (1994) hypothesizes that SLA is determined by the amount of comprehensible input, that is, one-way input in the second language that is both understandable and at the level just beyond the current linguistic competence of learners. Krashen (1985) sees the relevance of social contextual factors as conversational gambits in securing more input for the learner, which eventually relate to the notion of an affective filter that determines what input gets through to the brain's central language acquisition mechanism (Allwright, 1995:57). According to Krashen (1994:45), acquiring language is predicated upon the concept of receiving messages learners can understand.

Although theorists adhering to interactionist thought consider both input to, and input from, the learner as important, output is often viewed as secondary. Swain (1985) stresses the crucial role for language production in second language development apart from comprehensible input. Swain (1995:46) in her "comprehensible output hypothesis" asserts that output is also critical and hypothesizes that it serves four primary functions in SLA: (1) enhances fluency; (2) creates awareness of language knowledge gaps; (3) provides opportunities to experiment with language forms and structures; and (4) obtains feedback from others about language use. Comprehensible output assists learners in conveying meaning while providing linguistic challenges; that is, "... in producing the L2 (the second, or target language), a learner will on occasion become aware of (i.e., notice) a linguistic problem (brought to his/ her attention either by external feedback or internal feedback). Noticing a problem 'pushes' the learner to modify his/ her output. In doing so, the learner may sometimes be forced into a more syntactic processing mode than might occur in comprehension" (Swain & Lapkin, 1997:2). From this perspective, comprehensible output plays an important role in interaction.

Hamzah (2004:5) states that second language learners may benefit from the feedback they receive based on their output. This includes positive evidence, direct negative evidence and indirect negative evidence. Positive evidence can be in the form of either modified input or models of the target language provided to the language learner (Hamzah, 2004:5). Negative evidence is information to the learner about what is inappropriate or not possible in the target language (Long, 1991:87).

Hamzah (2004:5) states that feedback can be provided pre-emptively (by giving, for example, grammar rules) or reactively (to repair errors after they occur). Reactive negative evidence highlights differences between the target language and a learner's output.

"Focus on form" is a term introduced by Long (1991) to reflect the approach that induces a learner to attend to linguistic form while maintaining an overall emphasis on communication and meaning within a meaningful context. Long (1991:80) states that "focus on form" refers to

...how attentional resources are allocated, and involves briefly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements (words, collocations, grammatical structures, pragmatic patterns, and so on), in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication, the temporary shifts in focal attention being triggered by students' comprehension or production problems. The purpose is to induce...noticing, i.e. registering forms in the input so as to store them in memory.

Long (1991:76) argues that instruction that specifically draws the learner's attention to linguistic form in some meaningful contexts has a more positive effect on the level of attainment in second language proficiency and ultimately, on the rate of acquisition. Some kind of attention to form is necessary for learners to notice structures in incoming messages and to allow learners to stretch their interlanguage abilities to the maximum (Long, 1991:78). It is clear that Long's focus on form is motivated by his interaction hypothesis. In focus on form, forms are determined by the learner's developing language system, not by a predetermined external linguistic description

Other interactionist theorists apply Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory of human mental processing to define the role of interaction in SLA (Lightbown & Spada, 1999:33) and hypothesize that second language learners gain proficiency when they interact with more advanced speakers of the language. Scaffolding structures such as modelling, repetition, and linguistic simplification used by more proficient speakers are believed to provide support to learners, thus enabling them to function within their zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962:56).

In summary, interactionists elaborate upon the innatist notion of comprehensible input explaining that interaction, constructed via exchanges of comprehensible input and output, has at least an enhancing effect when meaning is negotiated and support structures are used. Based on this premise, second language learning courses should be designed to provide interaction that includes negotiation of meaning where comprehensible output results from input.

Ellis (2005:2) states that there are various controversies that reflect the complexity of instructed second language acquisition but suggests that there is a need to draw together a set of generalisations that might serve as a basis for language instruction. In the following section the focus is on using SLA theory and research in the design of ESP study guides.

One of the goals of the new language curricula is to provide “the occasions for the learner and lecturer to find the discourse needed to negotiate both the expression and comprehension of meaning” (Lange, 1990:79). Participation in interaction involving negotiation may facilitate second language acquisition as it can draw the language learner’s attention not only to second language form but also to meaning. Exploration into interaction in ESP learning materials could give not only a greater insight into the types of interaction that transpire between the lecturer and learner but also a better understanding of what occurs between them in interaction.

A better understanding of L2 learning can only be pursued in an organised and productive way if lecturers’ efforts are guided by some form theory. Based on a review of the literature, SLA interactionist theories provide a framework to assist English language lecturers in writing language-learning materials. With careful planning, lecturers can design ESP courses that encourage comprehensible input, output, interaction and negotiation of meaning which are all characteristics identified by interactionist theorists as crucial for SLA. . These aspects will determine the type of tasks and feedback needed in the study guide. Not only are interactionist theories essential for language materials but also various types of interaction.

2.2.4.1 Defining Interaction

In order to identify desirable activities that will enhance course interaction it is important to identify the definitions of the terms used in literature. Wagner (1994; 1997) defines “interaction” as an interplay between and exchange in which

individuals and groups influence each other. Interaction is when there are “reciprocal events requiring two objects and two actions” (Wagner, 1997:20). Interactivity, however, seems to have emerged from “descriptions of technological capability for establishing connections from point-to-point...in real-time” (Wagner, 1997:20). Cowley et al. (2002:1) state that the goal of interaction is to lead students to a point of reflection that causes them to evaluate existing assumptions and then choose to integrate or discard the new information. Interaction in itself has no value unless the learner is involved in active engagement with something. Active engagement is defined by reflection and validation of the content being explored. Effective interaction, therefore, is a process of awakening a student’s internal reflective processes (Cowley et al., 2002:1).

Second language acquisition is considered to be the result of interaction between the learner’s mental abilities and the linguistic environment (Hatch et al., 1979; Hatch et al., 1986; Long, 1996). The learner’s focus on form must occur in conjunction with, but not interrupt communicative interaction” (Doughty et al., 1998:114). Long (1996:414) proposes “that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner’s developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning.” He suggests that second language development may be facilitated through the provision of negative feedback that is obtained by the learner during interaction involving negotiation. Lyster and Ranta (1997:58) propose that “the negotiation of form involves corrective feedback that employs either elicitation, meta-linguistic feedback, clarification requests, or lecturer repetition of error, followed by uptake in the form of peer-or self-repair, or student utterances still in need of repair that allow for additional feedback.” It is evident that opportunities for instructional interaction and negotiation may be determined by the types of interaction that lecturers and learners engage in as well as the lesson content presented.

2.2.4.2 Types of Interaction

Moore and Kearsley (1996) describe three types of interaction that should be integrated in ESP study guides. An overview of each category is provided and reference is made to complementary SLA literature that supports the interactionist SLA view.

2.2.4.2.1 Learner-Content Interaction

According to Moore and Kearsley (1996:128), a major role of the lecturer who designs materials, is to present appropriate content and to promote interaction between this content and the learner in ways that will cause the learner "to construct knowledge through a process of personally accommodating information into previously existing cognitive structures". Such interaction should induce the learner to develop new or modified knowledge and skills. According to Kanuka (2005:1), "good pedagogical practice will include instructional strategies that support learner interaction with the content."

Learner-content interaction cannot occur if learners do not understand the content; therefore, a critical design feature for second language learners includes comprehensible input. This stems from the widely held claim that input that is understood by the learner constitutes primary data for SLA (cf. Hatch, 1983; Krashen, 1980, 1982; Long, 1983, 1985; Pica, Young & Doughty, 1987). The effect of the input that is provided to the learners, the interactions, which the learners engage in, and how the input and interactions facilitate comprehension and foster SLA are of particular interest to SLA researchers (Park, 2005:1). Creed and Koul (1993), among others, developed two models, the concurrent model and the integrated model that make the meaning of text more accessible in materials for non-native speakers. Components of the concurrent model include attention to vocabulary selection, text form and rhetorical structure, and learner support. The integrated model calls for the use of illustrations, explications, and a variety of genres to provide motivation and increase accessibility.

Learner-content interaction can occur through cooperative learning activities. In Blake's study (2000), findings indicated that the cooperative learning strategy called "jigsaw" is superior to information gap, decision-making, and opinion tasks. Jigsaw activities combine learner-content interaction with learner-learner interaction. Content interaction in education can be provided in many forms including study guides (course notes or workbooks), readers (reprints, manuals and related articles), and textbooks (Kanuka, 2005:2).

Readers and textbooks are one-way print-based materials that have been the most prevalent teaching technology in face-to-face and distance education (cf. Bates, 1995; Moore & Kearsley, 1996; Willis, 1993). They have many advantages such as

low delivery cost, ease of use and they are non-threatening to learners and instructors. Textbooks and readers have the disadvantage of only presenting one viewpoint that is passive and there is no or very little opportunity to provide feedback. Kanuka (2005:3) states that “study guides can provide an opportunity for the instructor to move the content from a passive textbook presentation to an interactive presentation between the learner and the instructor whereby the instructor can deliberately attempt to elicit responses, opinions, and critical dialogue from the learner through the material presented.”

The interaction between the learner and the content or subject of study is a defining characteristic of an effective study guide and of learning. Without it there cannot be education, since it is the process of intellectually interacting with content that results in changes in the learner's understanding, the learner's perspective, or the cognitive structures of the learner's mind. It is this type of interaction that partly involved in what Holmberg (1986) calls the "internal didactic conversation" when learners "talk to themselves" about the information and ideas they encounter in a text, television program, lecture, or elsewhere.

Learner-content interaction results from students examining/studying the study guide's content (Moore & Kearsley, 1996) and from participating in class activities. Part of the learning process includes how learners interact with the content presented in the study guide. Studies on learner-content interaction were not always easy to discern and may have been tied to other variables such as learner-learner interactions or learner-interface interactions. The study guide should provide varied activities that assist the learner in interacting with the content. The study guide should “speak” to the learner as a lecturer does in a classroom. Questions should be asked that helps the learner to engage with the content, for example,

Interviews

In this section we consider the interview situation from the point of view of both interviewer and interviewee.

Preparing

Think of the last interview you participated in and discuss these questions:

- Did you prepare for the interview, and how?

- What was the best thing about the interview?
- What was the worst thing about the interview?
- What difficult questions were you asked?
- Why do you think you were successful or unsuccessful?
- If you could go through the interview again, what would you do differently?
- Do you always have to be honest during an interview?
- What impression do you try to give in an interview?

There are no right or wrong answers. The purpose is for you to discuss the issue with your fellow students and colleagues and to determine how you should go about preparing for interviews. Each answer is personal and unique.

Note down some advice you would like to give a friend or colleague who has to go for an interview.

Not only is it important to define and distinguish the types of interaction that can occur in a study guide, but also it is equally important to carefully design interaction into the learning environment so that all relevant types of interaction are represented (Berge, 2002; Dabbagh, 2004; Gunawardena, 1999; Zheng & Smaldino, 2003). Interaction does not just happen; it must be facilitated by intentional efforts on the part of the designer. Careful design can affect both attitudes and performance (Hirumi, 2002).

2.2.4.2.2 Learner-Instructor Interaction

Learner-instructor interaction plays an important role in both distance education and face-to-face education. According to Serhan (1997:3), this interaction is believed to individualise instruction so that learners have valuable, relevant learning experiences. Moore and Kearsley (1996), emphasise that most learners regard learner-instructor interaction as essential. The instructor's role is to present content and then maintain the learners' motivation and interest, while assisting them as they interact with the content. Individualized attention is essential because it addresses

the needs, motivation, and performance of each individual learner. The instructor's responses to learners' application of content are seen as especially valuable, as they provide constructive feedback concerning learners' achievement of learning outcomes.

The instructor acts as facilitator, providing guidance and support while presenting content in ways that encourages engagement. Creed and Koul (1993) recommend that the instructor help to make linguistic features and content comprehensible. Repetition, comprehension checks, and other strategies can be used in learner-instructor interactions to negotiate meaning. Even though techniques may be embedded in course design and strategies explicitly taught to learners, some learners might need additional assistance in order to increase their understanding and reduce anxiety. Vygotsky (1962:78) stated that the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is "...the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". This gives a direct interactive role to the lecturer in SLA. ZPD offers learners an interactive role, which in conjunction with the lecturer's interactive role goes towards the creation of inter-subjectivity.

This second type of interaction is regarded as essential by many educators, and as highly desirable by many learners. In an interactive study guide the lecturer attempts to achieve aims held in common with all other educators. First having planned or been given a curriculum, a program of content to be taught, they seek to stimulate or at least maintain the learner's interest in what is to be taught, to motivate the learner to learn, to enhance and maintain the learner's interest, including self-direction and self-motivation. Then lecturer makes presentations or causes them to be made. These may be presentations of information, demonstrations of skill, or modelling of certain attitudes and values.

Next lecturers try to organize learners' application of what is being learned, either the practice of skills that have been demonstrated, or manipulation of information and ideas that have been presented. Lecturers organize evaluation to ascertain if learners are making progress, and to help decide whether to change strategies. Finally, instructors provide counsel, support, and encouragement to each learner, though the extent and nature of this support varies according to educational level of

the learners, the teacher's personality and philosophy, and other factors (Moore et al.1996:45).

The lecturer is especially valuable in responding to the learners' application of new knowledge. Whatever self-directed learners can do alone for self-motivation and interaction with content presented, they are vulnerable at the point of application. They do not know enough about the subject to be sure that they are 1) applying it correctly, 2) applying it as intensively or extensively as possible or desirable, or 3) aware of all the potential areas of application. It is for reality testing and feedback that interaction with a lecturer is likely to be most valuable. The interaction that transpires between the learner and the lecturer is intended to help reinforce learner understanding of the material or elucidate meanings. Interacting with lecturers can help learners clarify nebulous points and reinforce correct interpretation of course information. In the traditional classroom setting, oftentimes learner-instructor interaction can occur in a face-to-face, physical meeting. In the study guide it can occur in the form of content, activities, feedback and self-evaluation exercises with feedback. The learner can also interact with the lecturer in the form of discussion which is incorporated into the ESP study guide.

2.2.4.2.3 Learner-Learner Interaction

Moore and Kearsley (1996:131) describe learner-learner interaction as "inter-learner interaction, interaction between one learner and other learners, alone or in group settings, with or without the real time presence of an instructor". In order for effective learning to occur, four types of peer behaviour are necessary during interaction for interaction to take place: (a) participation, (b) response, (c) provision of active feedback, and (d) short, focused messaging. According to Thurmond et al. (2005:3), learner-learner interaction is intended to promote understanding of the course content and stimulate critical thinking. Different types of learner-learner interaction should be thoughtfully planned to address goals. For example, inter-learner discussion can promote reflection about content, while group settings are appropriate for other types of collaborative projects.

When interaction between learners occurs, negotiation sequences have the potential to provide learners with opportunities to access linguistic data about what is acceptable and not acceptable in the target language. Feedback that is given when conversational partners signal a communication difficulty can be found in several

forms. It may be a modified version of all or part of the trigger utterance and therefore provide the trigger participant with the target language data for attempting a modified version of the utterance (Bitchener, 2003:2). The opportunity to modify problematic output is the second way in which negotiation can contribute to L2 acquisition. According to Schmidt (1990; 1994), learners first have to notice the gap between their inter-language output and the target language version provided in the feedback if the negotiation process is to facilitate acquisition. A review of the research (cf. Pica, Holliday, Lewis & Morgenthaler, 1989; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Berducci & Newman, 1991; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos & Linnell, 1996) has shown that learners can and do notice features of the target language when negotiating for meaning, with native speakers and non-native speakers, and that some of their L2 data needs are met as a result (Bitchener, 2003:2).

Lamy and Goodfellow (1999:54) also found that for interaction to be effective amongst L2 learners, they needed linguistic skills that enabled them to produce texts that:

Are well formed and unambiguous not only linguistically but also as pieces of interactive discourse [and] move the topic on in a way that takes account of what precedes and creates curiosity for what might follow, that is, that contains the combination of familiarity and unpredictability typical of "contingent interaction".

Designers of ESP courses should consider learner, pragmatic, and linguistic goals in planning learner-learner interaction tasks. Chapelle (1997) states that the type of learner goal affects the interaction. Communicative goals focus on the construction and interpretation of linguistic meaning, while non-communicative goals focus strictly on form. Embedding language function and linguistic objectives in interaction offer learner's opportunities to develop linguistic and communicative competence.

Learner-learner interaction in a study guide can be an activity between one student and another or between several students. Teamwork, or collaborative learning, involves students working together in groups to complete academic assignments (Alavi, 1994; Palloff & Pratt, 2001). This form of learner-learner interaction is intended to promote understanding the course content and stimulate critical thinking.

Collaborative projects in the study guide may lessen feelings of isolation and promote a sense of a learning community (Abrahamson, 1998; Palloff & Pratt, 2001) in the Web-based classroom.

Language learning is an interactive process, in which the learner receives input from the teacher, other learners and various sources of material. Moore and Kearsley's (1996) three categories of interaction are important for ESP study guide development. They inculcate the essence of interaction in terms of what happens interactionally in a language classroom i.e. between the learner and the content, between the learner and other learners and between the learner and the lecturer. The amount of interaction built into the study guide will depend on what the lecturer plans to do in the language-learning classroom and whether or not new content will be introduced to the learners that is not inculcated in the study guide. If all the content is available in the study guide the lecturer can focus on interactivity between him/herself and the learners or between learners in terms of problem solving or a discussion about a certain topic.

The main weakness of a paper-based study guide is its commitment to only one type of medium. When there is only one medium it is probable that only one kind of interaction is permitted or done well. While correspondence gives superior learner-content interaction and good, though slow, learner-instructor interaction, it gives no learner-learner interaction. The teleconference group is excellent for learner-learner interaction, and for some types of instructor-learner interaction, but is frequently misused for instructor presentations that could be done better by print or recorded media. In the time saved by avoiding such presentations, a teleconference could stimulate and facilitate learner-learner interaction that has been difficult or impossible to achieve in distance education until now.

What some fail to realise is that interactivity, as we have come to understand and define it, is not the sole domain of multimedia. Many textbooks for example contain quizzes and questions that users are required to complete. The success of the activity can then be judged according to responses in the form of answers provided in some other location in the book. Interactions and interactivity tend to be considered characteristic features of multimedia materials. The forms of interactions that are supported by learning materials are many and varied and serve many

different purposes (Moore, 1989:5). Some interactions are designed as part of the learning materials and as such are best seen as elements of content. Other interactions are present to enable the user to control and manage the materials and are elements of the interface. Yet another form of interaction is used to locate and access the content. This form of interaction is tied directly to the organisational structure of the materials. When interactions are considered in this broad context, it is evident that rather than being discrete elements within instructional materials; they become characteristic of the complete package. In considering the value of interactions from a learning perspective, the key attribute is not the function or form of the interaction but rather the nature of the thinking it encourages in the learner. An effective study guide requires interactions that provide a context and setting in which students can explore and inquire (Moore, 1989:7).

Language learning in a traditional university is normally face-to-face and interactive and keeps the learner motivated. However, if the face-to-face contact time is lessened, the study material that is developed will have to become more interactive in order to promote language acquisition. The study guide, in essence, takes the place of the lecturer and should promote interaction between the content and the learner. Language learning tasks will also play an important role in interactivity as it will promote negotiation of meaning between learner and learner as well as learner and content. Not only are all the abovementioned aspects of interaction essential for ESP study material (e.g. study guide) development, but also second language acquisition theories.

Second language acquisition theories have been concerned mainly with the comparison of syntactic development between first and second language learners, the universal nature of language acquisition, the influence of a first language on second language development, the role of language universals in second language acquisition, and social and affective variables which influence the acquisition of a second language. Not only have these aspects been important but also the influence of the learning environment on the learners' developing competence in a second language, focusing on input to the learner and the interactions in which the learners engage. There are certain principles in these second language acquisition theories that are relevant to language learning materials development and should be taken into consideration when developing the ESP study guide.

2.3 PRINCIPLES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RELEVANT TO LANGUAGE MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

There are certain general principles, based on second language acquisition research and theories of language learning and teaching that should be taken into consideration when designing learning materials for language learners. These principles are now discussed.

2.3.1 *Materials should achieve impact*

Tomlinson (1998:7) states that "Impact is achieved when materials have a noticeable effect on learners, that is when learners' curiosity, interest and attention are attracted". If this is achieved there is a better chance that some of the language in the materials will be taken in for processing. Cunningsworth (1984:6) supports this by stating that learning materials can help to stimulate the learner to learn the target language if the subject matter is intellectually stimulating and if the learners can relate to it personally. A study guide or learning materials should, therefore, be something that is going to interest a learner, and should contain something that the learner wants to learn about or involve himself in apart from the language itself. English should come over as a means of conveying messages of consequence and relevance and as a means through which the learner's experience is enriched and widened (Cunningsworth, 1984:59).

It is, therefore, essential that the language learning tasks in the learning materials are comprehensible and achieve impact through:

- a) Novelty (e.g., unusual topics, illustrations and activities);
- b) Variety (e.g., breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity; using many different text types taken from many different types of sources);
- c) Attractive presentation (e.g., use of attractive colours; lots of white space; use of photographs); and
- d) Appealing content (e.g., topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories; universal themes; local references).

(Tomlinson, 1998:7)

It is essential that if the materials are to have an impact on the learners, it needs to meet their specific needs. Cunningsworth (1984:5) states that instruction and

instructional materials must have a consideration of what the learners need to learn. The more varied the choice of topic, texts and activities the more likely the achievement of impact.

2.3.2 *Materials should help learners to feel at ease*

According to Krashen (1988:29), there seems to be a consistent relationship between various forms of anxiety and language proficiency in all situations, formal and informal. Research (cf. Carrol, 1963; Gardner, Smythe, Clement & Glicksman, 1976; Naiman, Frohlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978) indicates that anxiety level may be a very potent influence on the affective filter and that there is a significant correlation between low anxiety and language acquisition. Rivers (1987:53) suggests that exercises and tasks in language learning materials should enable the learners to overcome this initial feeling of being overwhelmed by new material. The best way to possibly do this is to design exercises that draw the learners' attention to things in the text that require prior knowledge for example identification of number, gender, singers of popular songs or the characterisation of a type of text such as a poem, novel etc.

Tomlinson (1998:8) suggests that most learners:

- Feel more comfortable with materials with lots of white space than they do with materials in which lots of different activities are crammed together on the same page;
- Are more at ease with texts and illustrations that they can relate to their own culture than they are with those which are culturally exotic;
- Are more relaxed with materials, which are obviously trying to help them to learn than they are with materials which are always testing them.

Tomlinson (1998:8) states that "conventional, language learning materials are devoiced and anonymous and are usually written in a semi-formal style and reveal very little about the personality, interests and experiences of the writer". This seems to be a problem in learning materials, as there is rarely any personal contact between the learner and the learning materials with regard to revealing their own preferences, interests and opinions. What Tomlinson (1998:9) suggests is that the writer should try and achieve a personal voice by ensuring what they say to the learners contain features of orality such as:

- Informal discourse features (e.g., contracted forms, informal lexis etc.);
- The active rather than the passive voice;
- Concreteness (e.g., examples, anecdotes); and
- Inclusiveness (e.g., not signalling intellectual, linguistic or cultural superiority over the learners).

2.3.3 *Materials should help learners to develop confidence*

Krashen (1988:21) states that attitudinal factors that relate to second language acquisition will be those factors that perform one or more than one function. He argues that these attitudinal factors will be factors that encourage intake and factors that enable the learner to utilise the language heard for acquisition. The learner must, therefore, not only understand the input but also be "open" to it. One of these attitudinal factors that need to be addressed is that materials should develop self-confidence in the learner.

Tomlinson (1998:9) states that most materials developers recognise the need to help learners to develop confidence but many of them attempt to do so through a process of simplification. He argues that this may lead to the learner becoming aware that he or she isn't really using his or her brain and that his/her apparent success is an illusion. Stepp-Greany (2003:3) states that learners' confidence may be enhanced not only through opportunities for collaboration, but also for opportunities for autonomy and self-regulated learning. She furthermore states that the latter should include "error recovery activities that allow reasoning to flow out of a mistake, resulting in a positive feeling of empowerment, rather than the negative feeling that may result when students are simply given a correction with a judgment" (Stepp-Greany, 2003:3).

A careful choice of the units of study to include in the language curriculum can go a long way in promoting self-esteem and developing confidence in the learner if the units' focus on recognising and integrating previously learned skills and knowledge and emphasises the positive aspects of the learners' cultural and ethnic backgrounds. The value of engaging the learners' minds and utilising their existing skills seem to be becoming increasingly realised in countries which have decided to

produce their own materials through textbook projects rather than to rely on global course books which seem to underestimate the abilities of their learners.

2.3.4 What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful

A language-learning task can be regarded as a springboard for learning work. Johnson (1989:188) states that tasks need to be developed that will be more sensitive to learners and their situation. Every task is, in essence, a means for learning and its purpose is to provide an opportunity for language learners to move from their present state of knowing and capability towards a new aspect of knowledge and specific skills and abilities. A task in learning materials should directly address criteria within the learners' communicative knowledge and abilities, which can be both prospective and retrospective. Nunan (1989:40) calls tasks that are relevant and useful to the learner "real-world" tasks. These tasks require that the learners' progress toward learning outcomes are realised by undertaking exercises in ESP study materials that require them to practise repeatedly the target real-world activities. Widdowson (1987:22) calls these "real-world" tasks the "rehearsal approach to language development". In Long's (1985) approach to course design, tasks start out as pedagogic, but gradually work towards the in-class simulation of real-world behaviours. Although some of these exercises that are written into the learning materials look artificial they may, on analysis, be practising enabling skills such as fluency, discourse, and interactional skills, mastery of phonological elements and mastery of grammar (Nunan, 1989:44).

According to Cunningsworth (1984:71), learners need to feel that the material from which they are learning has relevance to the real world and at the same time relates positively to aspects of their inner make-up such as age, level of education, social attitudes, intellectual ability, and level of emotional maturity. Ellis (2005:36) states that teaching grammar explicitly is only of value if it can be shown that learners are able to utilise this type of knowledge in actual performance. Tomlinson (1998:10) states that in ESP materials it is relatively easy to convince learners that the teaching points are relevant and useful by relating them to known learner interests and to "real-life" tasks which the learners need or might need to perform in the target language. An example of this might be a topic in a study unit in the learning material such as "The Weather all around the World", where various exercises are built into the learning materials. Learners then have the opportunity to communicate in the

target language by getting to know each other and as well as what the weather is like and the different seasons in their countries. The weather is a relevant topic that all people share in no matter what their country of origin and people are seldom at a loss for something to say when the topic of the weather comes up in the discussion. These types of topics and the various relevant communicative and linguistic tasks in the learning materials will prove to be relevant and useful to learners.

Perception of relevance and utility can also be achieved by relating teaching points to interesting and challenging classroom tasks and by presenting them in ways which could facilitate the achievement of task outcomes desired by the learners (Tomlinson, 1998:10). This is a much more difficult task for the lecturer than the conventional approach of teaching a pre-determined point first and then getting the learners to practise and then produce it but it can be valuable in creating relevance and utility for the teaching point. This can be achieved by means of referring learners to "help" pages or by getting learners to make decisions about strategies they will use in a task and then referring them to "help" pages.

2.3.5 Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment

Breen and Candlin (1980:110) suggest that:

The role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities, which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way.

Nunan (1989:80) states that learners should develop an awareness of themselves as learners. Activities can be included in learning materials, which encourage learners to think about the nature of language and ways of learning which implies a more critical and reflective learner role than those in which the learner is memorising or manipulating language. Nunan (1989:83) argues for the use of self-instruction and the development of independent learning skills in language learning. Language learning materials should encourage self-directed learning, which consists of the learner determining what the objectives or outcomes are that need to be achieved

and the application of meta-cognitive strategies in the language learning process by the learner.

2.3.6 *Materials should encourage self-directed language learning*

Self-directed learning occurs when the learners control both the learning outcomes and the means of learning (Morrison, 2002:1). Learners engage in self-directed learning by making their own decisions about what and how they are going to learn (Lowry, 1989). Learning materials should, therefore, be flexible in terms of individual learning styles and the various strategies that learners wish to incorporate or apply within the specific tasks in the learning materials. Morrison (2002:1) states that when learners take on a self-directed learning project, they gain more than new skills or knowledge - they may also develop motivation, independence, discipline, and confidence. Tomlinson (1998:11) states that it would seem that learners profit most if they invest interest, effort and attention in the learning activity. Learning materials can help them to achieve this by providing them with choices of focus and activity; by giving them topic control and engaging the learners in learner-centred discovery activities and in this way facilitate learner self-investment.

Learning materials should encourage learners to explore ideas through peer discussions and personal interests without the threat of formal evaluation. Even if they make mistakes while doing so, the activities will sustain their interest, transcend frustration, and eventually break barriers to achievement (Abdullah, 2001:3). In order to establish the habit of self-monitoring, learning materials should encourage learners to reflect on what they did and help them to revise attempted work through meaningful exercises (Abdullah, 2001:3). This process is called metacognition and is a vital part of Second Language Acquisition and learning materials development and is briefly discussed.

2.3.7 *Metacognition, SLA and materials development*

According to Anderson (2002:1), metacognition can be defined as thinking about thinking. Flavell (1976:232) defines metacognition as the learners' knowledge of the variables that influence his learning and motivation and his control over these variables. Metacognition can be defined as the actual ongoing processes and strategies that a person uses when processing information (Meichenbaum, 1985:412). Learners who are metacognitively aware know what to do when they don't know what to do. These learners, therefore, have strategies for finding out or

figuring out what they need to do. Understanding and controlling cognitive processes may be one of the most essential skills that learning materials can help second language learners develop. Graham (1997:42-43) states that:

The distinctions between cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are important, partly because they give some indication of which strategies are the most crucial in determining the effectiveness of learning. It seems that meta-cognitive strategies, that allow students to plan, control, and evaluate their learning, have the most central role to play in this respect, rather than those that merely maximize interaction and input...Thus the ability to choose and evaluate one's strategies is of central importance.

Learning materials can help to focus the language learner to think about what happens during the language learning process instead of focusing solely on learning the language and this, in turn, can help the learner to develop stronger learning skills. According to Anderson (2002:2-3), metacognition combines various attended thinking and reflective processes and it can be divided into five primary components: (i) preparing and planning for learning, (ii) selecting and using learning strategies, (iii) monitoring strategy use, (iv) orchestrating various strategies, and (v) evaluating strategy use and learning.

(i) *Preparing for learning*

Preparation and planning are important metacognitive skills that can improve learner learning (Anderson, 2002:2). Learning materials should provide outcomes in order that learners can prepare or plan what they need to master or acquire and how they would go about accomplishing it. The learning materials should, however, guide the learner in setting his own learning goals and the more clear set the goals the easier it will be for the learners to measure their progress. Scott (1991:38) states that "learning goals are typified by the wish to increase competence in order to understand or master something new". The learning materials might set the goal or outcome as that of mastering the vocabulary and the learner might set the goal for himself of being able to answer the comprehension questions at the end of the chapter.

(ii) *Selecting and using learning strategies*

The metacognitive ability to select and use particular strategies in a given context for a specific purpose means that the learner can think and make conscious decisions about the learning process. Anderson (2002:2) states that "meta-cognitive instruction should explicitly teach students a variety of learning strategies and also when to use them". This is also relevant for learning materials, as the tasks given to the learner should encourage the learner to select a specific learning strategy, which can be applied to the task at hand.

(iii) *Monitoring strategy use*

Learners are better able to keep themselves on track to meet their learning goals by monitoring their use of learning strategies. Ellis (1999:153) suggests that learners question themselves (self-questioning), as it constitutes a way in which learners can check their understanding of what they are busy with. Self-questioning can be implemented in learning materials by means of self-evaluation questions that address the issues at hand. Learners can then be asked in the learning materials, as an activity or exercise, to formulate self-evaluation questions relating to the task they are busy with.

(iv) *Orchestrating various strategies*

Knowing how to orchestrate the use of more than one strategy is an important metacognitive skill. The ability to coordinate, organise, and make associations among the various strategies available is a major distinction between strong and weak language learners (Anderson, 2002:3). Research (Chamot et al.,1989; O'Malley et al., 1990;Oxford et al., 1993; Oxford, 1990; Thompson et al., 1993) supports the effectiveness of using language-learning strategies and has shown that successful language learners often use strategies in an orchestrated fashion (Oxford, 1994:2). Learning materials should, therefore, make learners aware of the multiple strategies available to them.

(v) *Evaluating strategy use and learning*

According to Anderson (2002:3), language learners are actively involved in metacognition when they attempt to evaluate whether what they are doing is effective. Learning materials should encourage the language learner to ask the following questions:

1. What am I trying to accomplish?

2. What strategies am I using?
3. How well am I using them?
4. What else could I do?

Responding to these four questions integrates all of the previous aspects of metacognition, allowing the language learner to reflect through the cycle of learning (Anderson, 2002:3).

Metacognition is not a linear process but a process where various aspects interact with each other. This attribute of metacognition can make it difficult for the lecturer but careful consideration of the various language learning strategies and the needs of the learners can enhance the metacognitive activities that should be built into the learning materials.

2.3.8 Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) determined that grammatical structures are acquired only when learners are mentally ready for them. Meisel, Clahsen and Pieneman (1981) developed a Multi-dimensional Model in which learners must achieve readiness in order to learn developmental features (e.g., word order) but can make themselves ready at any time to learn variational features (e.g. those which are free - e.g., the copula "be") (Tomlinson, 1998:12). Krashen's "Natural Approach" to Second Language Acquisition encourages learners not to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to lecturer commands and questions in other ways (Richards et al., 1986:136). Richards et al., 1986:136 state "When learners are ready to begin talking in the new language, the lecturer provides comprehensible language and simple response opportunities". The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input and is, therefore, challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to his/her input through active use of context and extralinguistic information. The learner can then decide when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking.

Krashen (1985) argues the need for roughly-tuned input which is comprehensible because it features what the learners are already familiar with but it also contains the potential for acquiring other elements of the input which each learner might or might not be ready to learn (Tomlinson, 1998:12). Krashen names the (i + 1) in which i represents what has already been learnt and I represents what is available for

learning. Readiness can be achieved in learning materials, which create situations requiring the use of variational features not previously taught and by materials which roughly tune the input so that it contains some features which are slightly above each learner's current state of proficiency (Tomlinson, 1998:12).

2.3.9 *Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use*

According to Ellis (1999:249), of crucial importance is the nature of input learners are exposed to and that there is little sense in exposing learners to unmodified input in the name of "authenticity". "What matters for acquisition is not whether the input contains the kind of language that native speakers use when communicating with each other but whether the learners are able to process the input both for comprehension and for acquisition" (Ellis, 1999:249). Schwarzer et al. (2002:4) state that language is learned best when learners use authentic materials, for authentic purposes and with authentic audiences. The way in which learners learn a second language may be enhanced by using real-life literature in study materials not developed for the language class (Schwarzer et al., 2002:4). Materials can provide exposure to authentic input through the advice it gives, the instructions for the activities and the spoken and written texts it includes (Tomlinson, 1998:13). According to Guariento et al. (2001:347), authentic materials increase learners' motivation for learning, and expose the learner to "real" language. According to Richard (2001:54), the main advantages of using authentic materials are:

- They have a positive effect on learner motivation.
- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They provide exposure to real-world language.
- They relate more closely to the learners' needs.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching.

According to Dumitrescu (2000:1), authentic materials, when appropriately selected and implemented in learning materials, can be used to develop tasks that depart from formulaic language learning and provide a bridge between the linguistic skills of the learners and their knowledge goals. Nunan (1989:54) supports this by stating that if learners are to comprehend aural and written texts in the real world, then the learners need opportunities for engaging in these real-world texts in class. Ideally materials at all levels should provide frequent exposure to authentic input that is rich

and varied. The input should therefore vary in style, mode, medium and purpose and should be rich in features, which are characteristic of authentic discourse in the target language. The materials should also stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it (Tomlinson, 1998:13).

2.3.10 The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features in the input

According to Ellis (2005:35), no language learning can take place without a conscious attention to form. According to Nunn (2005:2), tasks given to learners in ESP study guides should be based on real-world activities and with a high emphasis on meaning. Long (1991) introduced the *focus on forms* approach in English language tasks as a possible solution. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Ellis (2005:35) defines *focus on form* as three things. Firstly, it is general orientation to language as form, secondly, it suggests that learners need to attend only to the phonetic aspects of linguistic forms, and thirdly, it might be assumed to refer to awareness of some underlying, abstract rule. Nunn (2005:2) identifies two types of *focus on form*: proactive and reactive.

Proactive *focus on form* emphasises tasks that are designed in advance to ensure that opportunities for learners to use forms that they have trouble with will arise while communicating a message. Reactive *focus on form* requires that the lecturer has tasks already prepared to bring the learners' attention to problematic forms when persistent errors arise. According to Poole (2005:1), *focus on form* instruction is a type of instruction that, on the one hand, holds up the importance of communicative language teaching principles such as authentic communication and learner-centeredness, and on the other hand, maintains the value of the occasional study of problematic grammatical forms.

Ellis (2005:35) states that instruction and therefore, English for Specific Purposes study materials, can cater for a proactive *focus on forms* approach in a number of ways:

1. Through study units in a study guide that "teaches" specific grammatical features by means of input- or output processing. An inductive approach to language instruction applied in study materials is designed to encourage the

"noticing" of pre-selected forms and a deductive approach seeks to establish an awareness of the grammatical rule.

2. Through focused tasks (i.e., tasks that require learners to comprehend and process specific grammatical structures in the input).
3. By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options are (a) the provision of time for strategic planning, and (b) corrective feedback.

2.3.11 *Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes*

Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis claims that learners will acquire an L2 when they have access to comprehensible input and when their "affective filter" is low (i.e., when they are motivated to learn and are not anxious) so that the comprehended input is made available to the internal acquisitional mechanisms for processing. Nolan (2001:2) states that there are three key elements to Krashen's input hypothesis. Firstly, language is acquired, not learned, by the learner receiving comprehensible input that has structures just beyond the learner's current level of mastery (i+1). Secondly, speech should be allowed to emerge on its own. There is usually a silent period and "speech will come on when the acquirer feels ready. The readiness state arrives at different times for different people" (Krashen, 1994:55). Thirdly, the input should not deliberately contain grammatically programmed structures. According to Glew (1998:2) opportunities need to be created for target language use. Learners also need to be pushed in their negotiation of meaning in order for comprehensible output to be produced. Swain (1985:252) states that comprehensible output provides "opportunities for contextualized, meaningful use, to test out hypotheses about the target language, and to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it". The implementation of communicative interaction and negotiation tasks in English study materials could have a significant impact on the language development of ESL learners.

Using language for communication involves attempts to achieve a purpose in a situation in which the content, strategies and expression of the interaction are determined by the learners (Tomlinson, 1998:15). Rivers (1987:9) supports this by stating that real interaction in the target language in the classroom requires the lecturer to "step out of the limelight, to cede a full role to the student in developing

and carrying through activities, to accept all kinds of opinions, and be tolerant of errors the student makes while attempting to communicate". Communicative interaction can provide opportunities for picking up language from the new input generated, as well as opportunities for learner output to become an informative source of input (Tomlinson, 1998:15). Ideally teaching or learning materials should provide opportunities for such interaction in a variety of discourse modes from planned to unplanned (Ellis, 1990:191).

Study material can help with comprehensible input that the learner is going to receive (Wilson, 2005:4). Tomlinson (1998:15) suggests that interaction in learning materials can be achieved through:

- information or opinion gap activities which require learners to communicate with each other and/or the lecturer in order to close the gap;
- post-listening and post-reading activities which require the learners to use information from the text to achieve a communicative purpose;
- creative writing and creative speaking activities such as writing a story or improvising a drama;
- formal instruction given in the target language either on the language itself or on another subject.

2.3.12 *Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles*

The idea of learning style comes from the field of psychology. It refers to the characteristic ways in which individuals orientate to problem-solving. Ellis (1994:499) defines learning style as:

the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment...Learning style is a consistent way of functioning, that reflects underlying causes of behaviour.

Research (cf. Holec, 1987; Little & Singleton, 1990) indicates that it is possible to help learners to explore their own learning preferences and to shape their learning approach to suit the requirements of a particular task. Learners differ in their

preferred approach to L2 learning and it is impossible to say which learning style works best. Ellis (1994:508) suggests that it is quite possibly the learners who display flexibility who are most successful. This also applies to learning materials. The greater the variety of learning style support in the study materials, the greater the possibility of the learners being successful with the linguistic features that need to be acquired. Tomlinson (1998:17) suggests that activities included in the learning materials should cater for all learning styles and that an important aspect to be taken into consideration when developing learning materials, is that assumptions shouldn't be made that all learners can benefit from the same approaches that are used for the "good language learner".

2.3.13 *Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes*

Affective attitudes that relate to second language acquisition will be those that perform one or both of two functions. They will be factors that *encourage intake* and they will be factors that will enable the *performer to utilise the language* heard for acquisition. "Simply hearing a second language with understanding appears to be necessary but it is not sufficient for acquisition to take place. The acquirer must not only understand the input but must also, in a sense, be 'open' to it" (Krashen, 1988:21). Research (cf. Bailey, 1980; Ellis, 1994; Schumann et al., 1977) has shown that learners react to the learning situations they find themselves in. Learners need to feel secure and to be free of stress before they can focus on the learning task (Ellis, 1994:479).

Tomlinson (1998:18) states that each class of language learners using the same materials will differ from each other in terms of long-and short term motivation and of feelings and attitudes about the language, their lecturers, their fellow learners and their learning materials. It will be a very difficult task for the lecturer who develops materials to cater for all these affective variables but it is important that the lecturer takes cognisance that there will be inevitable affective differences of the users of the materials. These affective variables imply that the lecturer who writes the study guide will have to "diversify" the language instruction as much as possible based on the variety of cognitive styles (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) and the variety of affective attitudes likely to be found among a typical class of learners. Ways of doing this include:

- providing choices of different types of text;
- providing choices of different types of activities;
- providing optional extras for the more positive and motivated learners;
- providing variety;
- including units in which the value of learning English is a topic for discussion;
- including activities which involve the learners in discussing their attitudes and feelings about the course and the materials;
- researching and catering for the diverse interests of the identified target learners; and
- being aware of the cultural sensitivities of the target learners.

(Tomlinson, 1998:18-19)

2.3.14 Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice

Traditionally, a focus-on-forms approach has involved giving learners the opportunity to practise. Ellis (1994:643) identifies a number of features of language practice from the lecturer's perspective:

- i. There is some attempt to isolate specific grammatical features;
- ii. Learners are required to produce sentences containing the targeted structure;
- iii. They must do so repetitively;
- iv. They are expected to do so correctly; and
- v. They receive corrective feedback.

Ellis (1994:643) furthermore states that practice doesn't necessarily result in learning and that practice is not related to the accuracy with which learners perform in communication and that this may be related to the fact that learners may not be ready to learn the features they are being taught. Tomlinson (1998:21) states that controlled grammar activities feature significantly in popular course books and are considered to be useful by many lecturers and by many learners. In analysing the course books Tomlinson (1998) found that nine out of ten of the course books contained more opportunities for controlled practice than they did for language use and that learners may be wasting their time doing drills and listening to and repeating dialogues.

2.3.15 Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback

The role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has been extensively debated (cf. Ellis, 1994; Mackey et al., 2002). Research (cf. Long, 1991; Tomasello & Herron, 1989; Lightbown & Spada, 1990) suggests that corrective feedback, when it occurs in response to naturally occurring errors or in the context of ongoing efforts to communicate, is helpful to L2 acquisition. Feedback which is focused first on the effectiveness of the outcome rather than just on the accuracy of the output can lead to output becoming a profitable source of input (Tomlinson, 1998:21). Lyster et al. (1997:58) suggest that "the negotiation of form involves corrective feedback that employs either elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, or lecturer repetition of error, followed by uptake in the form of peer-or self-repair, or student utterances still in need of repair that allow for additional feedback".

Learning materials developers should, therefore, take into consideration that feedback that focuses on the effectiveness of outcomes rather than on the accuracy of the output need to be achieved by the learners in the learning materials. Language production activities incorporated in the learning materials should have intended outcomes rather than just practising language (Tomlinson, 1998:22).

Second language acquisition principles are essential for ESP study materials (e.g., study guide) development. When the ESP study guide inculcates aspects that lessens anxiety in the learner, provides opportunity for feedback, takes the learners affective attitudes into consideration etc., it is moving one step ahead in the learner acquiring the necessary language skills and knowledge. It is crucial that the learners' current stage of language development also be considered and the tasks included are appropriate for the learners' stage of development and that the learner's career needs also be taken into consideration when developing the ESP study guide.

2.4 CONCLUSION

According to Siderova (2005:167), materials writing is one of the most characteristic features of ESP and that the reason is that ESP materials must fit the specific subject area of particular learners. For ESP learning materials to be relevant and useful to the learners, it needs to have certain theoretical and practical principles underpinning it. These principles should not only reflect a theory of language learning and the kind of methodology that it implies but should also be grounded in

what the learner needs and the previous knowledge and language learning experience.

Well-designed ESP learning materials can enhance the learner's interest levels by extending on the types of tasks and subject matter used. In deciding how to develop ESP learning materials two essential elements have been discussed: theories relevant to materials design and second language acquisition theories. As part of the discourse of educational research, SLA theory has been said to either have a direct or indirect effect on instructional routines and procedures of language teaching. With careful planning, lecturers can design ESP learning materials (e.g., study guides) that encourage input, output, interaction and negotiation of meaning that are crucial for SLA.

There will never be a perfect study guide for language learning as many variables (e.g., age, culture, learner-needs) influence and direct the learning materials developer, but language learning materials developers should take into account what Second Language Acquisition research has exploited and apply these theories and principles as best as they can whilst developing language learning materials.

Chapter 3

Designing English for Specific Purposes

(ESP) Study Guides

3.1 INTRODUCTION

There is an ongoing debate about whether it is the use of a particularly delivery technology or the design of the instruction that improves learning (cf. Clark, 2001; Kozma, 2001). Traditional methods of delivering instruction are no longer meeting the needs or retaining and attracting learners (Ehrlich, 2002:1). Learners need to relate to the materials presented and see an almost immediate application of knowledge and skills in their area of study. According to Ehrlich (2002:1), an informed decision about how to present the content of the subject matter should be made and this can only be done if a “systematic approach to designing is firmly in place” and it should be “driven by the needs and goals of a particular learning situation”. Designing materials for ESP is no different. According to Siderova (2002:167), ESP materials must fit the specific subject area of particular learners. She emphasises that writing ESP study materials is a difficult and time-consuming task and it must be undertaken only after careful evaluation of the situation and the existing materials.

Rowntree (1994:6) states that most practitioners or educators come to see that “meeting the needs of learners whom we never might see or speak with can demand some rather intense rethinking about what we are trying to do, what is most worth doing and how we will know when we have done it well”. The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, twofold. Firstly, it aims to provide a definition and an overview of the origins of ESP and its characteristics and secondly, the various steps in the designing of ESP study guides are discussed with the aim of suggesting a framework for designing interactive ESP study guides in chapter 6.

3.2 THE ORIGINS OF ESP

From the early 1960's, the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach to language teaching became one of the most prominent areas of English Language Learning and teaching (Anthony, 2004:1). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify three key reasons they believe are common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and a focus on the learner.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:6) note that two key historical periods breathed life into ESP. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an "age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale ... for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English". 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, 1987:7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. According to Duan et al. (2005:2), ESP has experienced several phases of development in linguistics. People normally try to establish the syllabus and curriculum of ESP through register and analysis, (i.e. according to the features of grammar and vocabulary of the language used in a certain speciality). Register analysis focused on the language at sentence level, while discourse analysis shifted attention to the level above the sentence.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step farther. If language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. 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) cite that the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do with a psychology. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became equally paramount as the methods employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking.

3.3 KEY NOTIONS ABOUT ESP

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a way of teaching/learning English for specialised subjects with some specific vocational and educational purpose in mind. There are different needs for different purposes, for example, English for Economics, English for secretaries, English for technicians etc. According to Berner (2004:1), ESP must be seen as an “approach to language learning (not as a product) which is based on learners' needs and directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning.” This approach is furthermore learner-orientated with a conception and preference for communicative competence.

Two key notions of ESP are discussed in this section, namely: a) the distinctions between the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP, and b) three features common to ESP courses.

3.3.1. Absolute and Variable Characteristics of ESP

Stevens (1988:24) defined ESP by identifying its absolute and variable

characteristics:

3.3.1.1 *Absolute characteristics*

ESP consists of English language teaching, which is:

- Designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- Related in content (i.e., in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- Makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and
- Centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;

in contrast with General English.

3.3.1.2 *Variable characteristics*

ESP is not necessarily restricted to the language skills to be learned (e.g., reading only); and is not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. At a 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans (1998:4-5) offered a modified definition of what ESP is:

- 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 for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students; most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

The division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics is very helpful in understanding what ESP is and what it is not. ESP can be seen as an “approach” to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans (1998:8) describes as an “attitude of the mind”. Hutchinson (1987:19) states that “ESP is an approach

to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning".

ESP courses consist of other features such as authentic materials that are used, the purpose-related orientation of the course and the way in which the ESP course enhances self-directed learning. The next section is dedicated to these features in ESP courses.

3.3.2 Features of ESP courses

Robinson (1991:2) states that there are a number of important features that are critical to ESP courses. Firstly, ESP is goal-directed i.e. learners do it for work or career purposes. Secondly, ESP courses are based on a needs-analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that learners have to do through the medium of English (Robinson, 1991:3).

Carter, however, (1983:56) states that there are three other features common to ESP courses that also need to be taken into consideration: a) authentic materials, b) purpose-related orientation, and c) self-direction.

3.3.2.1 *Authentic materials*

In the course of the last ten years, the use of authentic materials has become increasingly popular in learning situations that range from traditional intensive ESL to language training for professionals (Dumitrescu, 2000:1). The field of ESP requires the use of content materials that are not always constructed for the purpose of language learning. Robinson (1991:54) states that authentic materials in language teaching refers to the use of print, audio, video and pictorial material originally produced for a purpose other than the teaching of language. These authentic materials can be used to develop tasks that depart from formulaic language learning and provide a bridge between the linguistic skills of learners and their professional knowledge goals. In order to seek and implement the most useful and relevant materials for ESP study guides, the lecturer needs to select authentic materials that facilitate a sequence of information gathering, processing and presentation (Dumitrescu, 2000:1).

Many instructors may be dissuaded from using authentic materials because

they require an initial investment of time that may not be feasible or realistic for the instructional designer. It is, therefore, important that the instructional designer decides how important the authentic materials are to a particular programme, based on the outcomes of the programme.

3.3.2.2 *Purpose-related orientation*

Purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. The behaviourist trend in language instruction has been to define desired goals independently of the learners and situation, present language in a structured, linear fashion and then attempt to reinforce the content through decontextualised practice (Abdullah, 2002:1). The purpose-related orientation in ESP, on the other hand, supports the constructivist view that language learners develop their understanding of the conventions of language use by engaging in the kinds of language activity found in real life, and not by learning lists of rules. This orientation can be found in language learning tasks as well as problem-based learning (Abdullah, 2002:3).

3.3.2.3 *Self-direction*

In recent years, numerous researchers have shown that learning can be enhanced if students are encouraged to employ self-regulated learning processes as they go about acquiring new skills (Kitsantas et al., 2004:269). Methods used to promote self-regulated learning have included asking learners to focus on process goals (Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 1998; Schunk & Shwartz, 1993) and encouraging learners to evaluate their own work (Boekaertz, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000).

Self-regulated learning requires that learners use either a process goal or an outcome goal for themselves. According to Kitsantas et al. (2004:270), a process goal encourages a learner to focus on methods and strategies that can help them master a skill, whereas a learner using an outcome goal is encouraged to concentrate on the desired outcome. In a study by Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1999) they examined student acquisition of writing revision skills. Two groups of learners were selected. The one group was encouraged to use a process goal orientation approach and the other group

an outcome goal orientation approach. They found that participants in the process goal orientation approach outperformed participants in the outcome goal approach. Learner self-evaluation involves having learners compare their performance against a standard or norm and adjust their learning activities depending on their informed perceptions of the quality of their work. Studies on the effect of self-evaluation during learning have shown that learners who engage in such activities outperform learners who are not encouraged to do so (cf. Schunk & Ertmer, 1999).

Self-direction is characteristic of ESP courses in that the "... point of including self-direction... is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" (Carter, 1983:134). A philosophy of self-activity implies "responsibility, self-discipline, individuality, effort and effective utilisation of time" (Jorrison et al., 1990:45). Abdullah (2001:1) states that self-directed learning (SDL) views learners as responsible owners and managers of their own learning process. He furthermore notes that "SDL integrates self-management (management of the context, including the social setting, resources, and actions) with self-monitoring (the process whereby learners monitor, evaluate and regulate their cognitive strategies)". When learners take on a self-directed learning project, they gain more than new skills or knowledge. They may also develop motivation, independence, discipline, and confidence (Morrison, 2002:1).

SDL implies that learners' study independently, under indirect didactical supervision of the lecturer and this provides the learners with control over their own learning and gives meaning to their own learning experiences (Jorrison et al., 1990:44). In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. Carter (1983) also adds that there must be a systematic attempt by lecturers to teach the learners how to learn by teaching them about learning strategies. Stern (1992:261) notes that, "the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques." All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks.

When learners are encouraged to become self-directed learners the emphasis shifts from the institution to the learners. Self-regulated independent language learners take responsibility for what they learn. These skills have to be built on the processes and basic knowledge of learning and once established, the language learner can work effectively and successfully with study material, lecturers and other learners.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is “an approach and not a product” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and focuses on the learners and their purposes for English. Learners in the ESP classroom are generally aware of the purposes for which they need to use English but the study guide should inculcate and, therefore, make the learners aware of the purposes of them studying ESP. Having already orientated their education towards a specific field, these learners see their English training as complementing their subject area and the study guide should, therefore, complement the learners’ field of expertise. As most ESP learners are adult learners, the study guide will have to enhance self-directed learning as these learners follow busy career schedules. The ESP lecturers’ task is to assist the learners on how to approach and consider the texts/materials in the study guide in order to become independent and efficient learners within their occupational environment which in this case, is the field of law.

The next section in this chapter is dedicated to these aspects that are important in the designing of ESP instructional materials (e.g. study guide).

3.4 DESIGNING ESP INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Instruction is a systematic process in which teacher, learners, materials and the learning environment are crucial to a successful learning experience. Several models use a systems approach for the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of instruction (e.g., Gerlach & Ely, 1980; Hannafin & Peck, 1987; Knirk & Gustafson 1986; Kemp, 1994). Designing ESP study materials generally entails analysing the learners, developing and stating instructional objectives/outcomes, designing instructional strategies, selecting and/or developing instructional media and materials, developing the learning materials, assessing learning, and evaluating the design process for

feedback and revision if necessary. In this section the focus is on planning ESP instructional materials (e.g., study guides), preparing the ESP instructional materials (e.g., study guides) and writing the ESP instructional materials (e.g., study guides) (cf. Baker, 2002; Chen, 2005; Moore et al., 2005; Rooney, 2002; Rowntree, 2005).

3.4.1 Planning ESP instructional materials

The need to plan effective instruction is imperative for a successful ESP course. This section addresses various aspects, such as conducting a needs analysis, determining the outcomes of the course, choosing the relevant media, outlining the content, planning ways in which learners can be supported, and considering the materials that already exist, which form part of the planning process of ESP study guides (cf. Kavaliauskiene, 2006; Shabaan, 2006; Weddel, 1997; Young, 2005).

3.4.1.1 Perform a needs analysis

There are many ways in which ESP learners can differ and it could be fatal if these learners are regarded as a homogeneous mass. It is, therefore, important that a needs analysis be conducted in order to plan the ESP learning materials effectively. When individual learners in a programme are supported, more needs to be known about the learners.

According to Young (2005:1), a need can be seen as a problem that can be solved. Weddel et al. (1997:2) state that a needs analysis for learners of English is a tool that examines, from the perspective of the learner, what kinds of English and literacy skills the learner already believes he or she has; the literacy contexts in which the learner lives and works; what the learner wants and needs to know to function in those contexts; what the learner expects to gain from the instructional programme; and what might need to be done in the native language. Robinson (1991:7) describes needs as objectives and states that needs are also what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language. Needs also refer to what the learners themselves would like to gain from the language course. This implies that learners may have personal aims in addition to the requirements of their studies or jobs (Robinson, 1991:8).

Research (cf. Burnaby, 1989; Savage, 1993; Wrigley & Guth, 1992) indicates that a needs analysis is a continual process that takes place throughout the instructional programme, therefore influencing student placement, materials selection, curriculum design, and teaching approaches. The necessity of a needs analysis in educational planning is well established in the literature (cf. Kaufmann, 1979; Witkin, 1984; Moseley & Heaney, 1994). A needs analysis furthermore assures a flexible, responsive ESP curriculum rather than a fixed, linear curriculum determined ahead by lecturers. Information is provided to the lecturer and learner about what the learner brings to the ESP course (if done at the beginning), what has been accomplished (if during the course), and what the learner wants and needs to know next (Weddel et al., 1997:3).

3.4.1.2 Determine the aims (critical outcomes) and objectives (learning outcomes)

The aims (critical outcomes) are the overall goals for student learning and the objectives (learning outcomes) are more specific, setting out what learners should be able to do, understand and value after completing their study. For the purpose of this study the term “learning outcomes” is used. Well-designed outcomes can provide a basis for later construction of assessment items. These outcomes make the course more transparent and thus empower the learner in making a decision whether to take the course or not. According to Rowntree (1992:56), openly stated objectives (outcomes) enable learners to monitor their own progress and make assessment less of an unknown quantity. Learners, as active participants, have a sense of ownership as to the learning outcomes and because learners have become active learners, they will put forth the effort if they believe in the relevance of the material and if it has meaning to them.

Outcomes might also act as motivators, setting out the skills or information that the learner is about to acquire. They also act in Ausubel’s (1963) terms, as advance organisers, allowing the learners to “make sense” of the new material (in relation to what they already know) because the outcomes inform the learners where they are heading with the course. The most commonly used classification scheme for performance objectives (outcomes) was first described in 1956 by Benjamin Bloom. These performance objectives make

tangible a vision of what learners should know, do or feel at the end of a planned instructional experience (Rothwell et al., 1998:160) (cf. Figure 3.1).

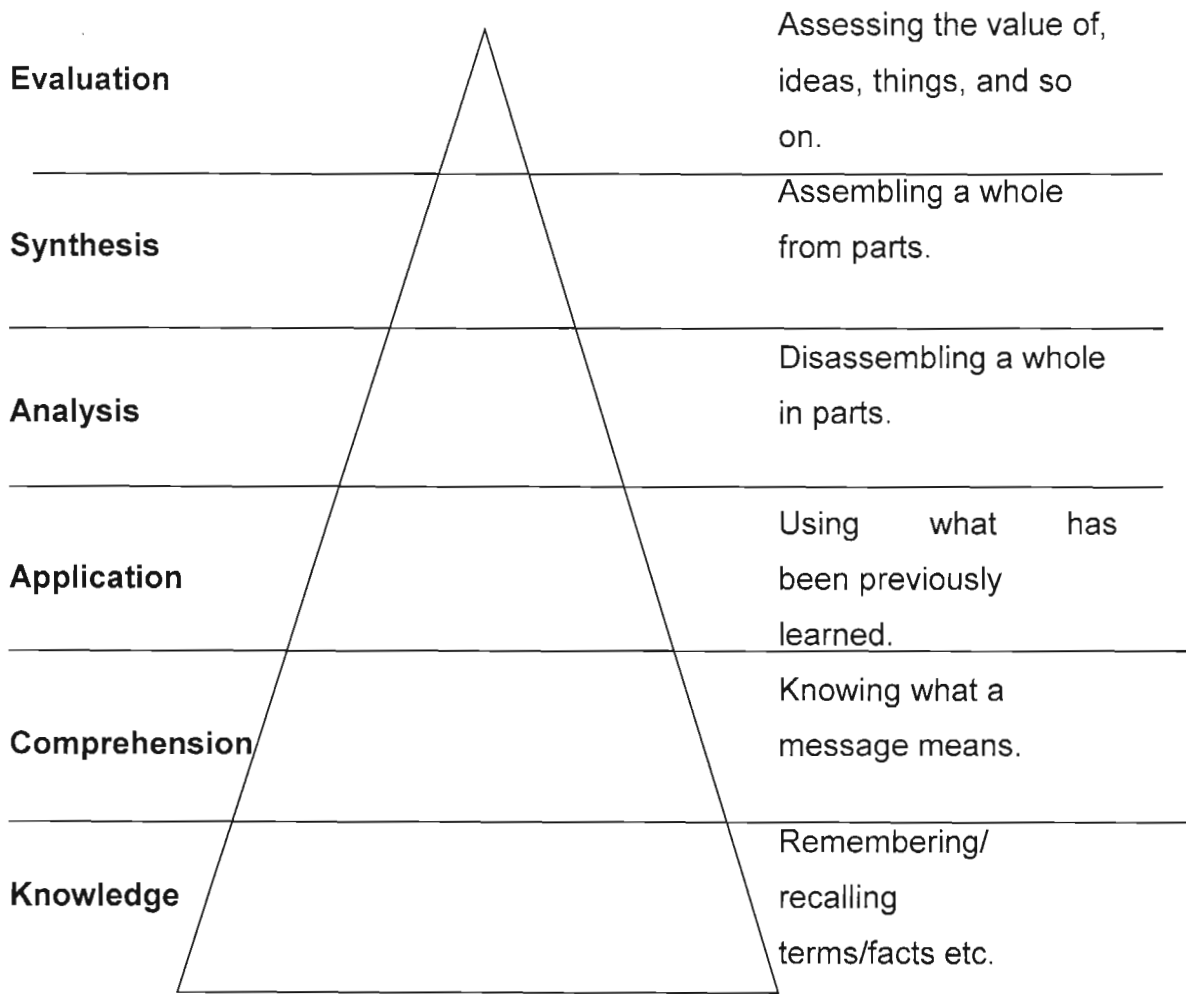


Figure 3.1 Levels of objectives in the cognitive domain
(Rothwell et al., 1998:160).

The performance component of an objective (outcome) describes what a learner will be doing when demonstrating mastery of the outcome at the end of a planned instructional experience. This instructional activity is an activity or behaviour to be learned during instruction and then demonstrated afterwards. A statement of performance always begins with a verb and the choice of verb is typically linked to the type of task to be learned. Examples of these verbs are provided in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Examples of verbs associated with objectives in the cognitive domain

Knowledge	Comprehension	Application
Name	Recognise	Prepare
Define	Report	Solve
Memorise	Identify	Interpret
Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
Categorise	Arrange	Appraise
Contrast	Write	Evaluate
Question	Compose	Assess

Rothwell et al. (1998:163).

According to George (1998:3), the course outcomes will be determined by the course profile of the learners. It is, therefore, essential that the learners be profiled first by means of a needs analysis before the outcomes of the course can be determined. Clearly stated outcomes will assist instructional designers, educators and learners with course development and management by guiding the course content and structure, planning activities and tasks, assessment procedures and mastering the outcomes stated. Clearly stated outcomes will aid learners by informing them of what to expect from the course, what knowledge they can expect to acquire, what skills they will be able to acquire and in which way the assessment will be conducted.

3.4.1.3 Incorporation of media

According to Rothwell et al. (1998:223), instructional media ranges from simple to complex. He distinguishes simple from complex by stating that a medium that does not require much advance preparation is considered as simple and one requiring much preparation is considered complex in nature.

Rowntree (2005:10) divides media into two categories. The first category he calls transmission media, which includes lectures, books, videos, multimedia packages and web pages, as examples. The second category he calls two-way interaction media, which includes seminars, workshops, telephone

conversations, written comments on a learner's assignments and computer conferencing.

Rowntree (1992:98) states that a mistake lecturers designing instruction often make when selecting media is to "decide on the medium before they've thought about the message." The most appropriate media is not necessarily the first one that comes to mind. The media selection models (cf. Heinich, Molenda, & Russell, 1985; Reiser & Gagne, 1983; Romiszowski, 1974) give an outline for selecting a medium for a course. The main steps in most of these media selection models are as follows:

- i. Identify the media attributes required by the instructional outcomes or learning activities.
- ii. Identify the student characteristics which suggest or preclude certain media.
- iii. Identify characteristics of the learning environment which favour or preclude certain media.
- iv. Identify economic or organisational factors which may affect the feasibility of certain media.

Moore and Kearsley (1996) suggest that a combination of media should be used. They state that, "no single medium is likely to address all the learning requirements across a full course or program, the needs of different learners, or the variations in learning environments" (Moore & Kearsley, 1996:98). Rowntree (1992:103) supports this by noting that different media have different strengths and that one medium cannot provide everything that a learner needs in a course or learning programme. McNabb (1994) remarks that more experimental studies are needed in the area of media selection, where researchers can compare the effectiveness of different technologies, which deliver similar content to similar audiences.

3.4.1.4 Record an outline of the content

Outlining the content is an essential part of the instructional design process and it should be performed because it provides useful information for organising instruction in order to guide information. Rowntree (2005:8)

suggests two lines of approach in thinking about content – the one subject-centred and the other learner-centred. He tabularises it as follows (cf. Table 3.2):

Table 3.2: Two methods of approaching content in instructional materials

Subject-centred	Learner-centred
1. Review your own knowledge of the proposed subject – by personal brainstorming, making lists, diagrams etc.	Ask prospective learners what topics/issues they would like to address.
2. Discuss the subject-area with experts – e.g. through interviews, group brainstorming etc.	Discuss with prospective learners their existing understanding and feelings about the key concepts of the subject-area.
3. Read existing materials pitched at what you regard as your learners' level.	Analyse the knowledge, skills and attitudes displayed by expert performers, or at least by acceptable competent performers.
4. Read more advanced materials pitched at what you regard as your learners' level.	Recall or enquire where previous learners have had difficulties or fallen into error in the subject.
5. Review films, video and audiotapes, and articles in newspapers and popular magazines.	Think of learning activities that learners logically must (or just usefully could) engage in.
6. Browse the World Wide Web.	Consider how learners' development or attainments, as a result of the learning might be assessed.
7. Analyse other courses and packages on similar subjects.	Study other people's reports of learners' work on related courses in previous years.
8. Study any relevant exam syllabus and question papers from the past.	Establish and analyse the course's aims and specific learning objectives.
9. Examine documents (books or	Expect individual learners (e.g., in a

other source material) around which the learning could or must be organised.	project-based course) to decide their own content.
10. Identify and analyse the key concepts and principles of the subject.	Expect group sharing of views/experience (e.g., online) to generate worthwhile content.

(Rowntree, 2005:8-9).

It is important to note that it might be necessary to sometimes use aspects from the left-hand column as well depending on the stated outcomes of the course. The subject matter of the content needs to be aligned with the learning outcomes of the course. It is furthermore essential that the main topics, issues and themes be taken into consideration when outlining the content.

When designing an ESP study guide, another issue to take into consideration is that grammatical functions, acquisition skills, terminology, specific functions of law content are crucial parts of the ESP study guide. In the meantime, general English language content should also be integrated into the study guide since content-related language cannot function without general English language content such as using adverbs and adjectives correctly, subject-verb agreement (concord), using punctuation correctly etc. (Chen, 2006:6). Since the main objective of an ESP course is to help students acquire the linguistic and communicative skills related to their disciplines, a content-based approach is especially useful. Content-based pedagogy promotes synthesising and evaluating, and helps students improve their academic skills by raising their awareness of the concepts of audience and purpose (Kasper 2000:12).

Language learning should not be restricted to only textbook and classroom activities. It is believed that language acquisition would be most effectively facilitated if it could be embedded with the learners' field of study or work. Through appropriate pedagogy for learning, the more the learners are exposed to real world tasks, the better language users they will become. Real world tasks as defined by Nunan (1989:40) are those which "require learners to approximate, in class, the sorts of behaviours required of them in the world

beyond the classroom". Dimkovich-Telebakovich (1998:4) states that functions and meanings of linguistic forms and structures in situations, discourse and various rhetorical patterns as well as terms and phrases, which are characteristic of the given field, or discipline should be learnt in an ESP study guide. These linguistic skills should include listening, hearing understanding, speaking, reading, writing and translating tasks/content that is law related. The following are examples of these linguistic skills:

Listening:

To understand telephone messages and conversations in meetings in law settings.

To understand relevant law jargon and reports.

Speaking:

To communicate effectively with speakers in interviews and court cases.

To respond effectively to telephone messages, interviews, meetings and court cases.

Reading:

To understand a variety of texts, such as court cases, documents, law texts and newspaper articles.

Writing:

To write reports, letters or e-mails.

3.4.1.5 Select learner support

According to Cochrane (2000), a learner's initial perception of an entire course is strongly influenced by the first package of material he/she receives at the beginning of the course. These materials inform the learner about the content, structure and methods of assessment. Once learners have received the materials and start the course they may run into all sorts of anxieties, problems and difficulties. Rowntree (1992:73) notes that learners' concerns will fall into one or more of the following categories:

- Whether the learning is worth the time and effort.
- How other people react to their learning.
- How successful they feel they are at it.

Rowntree (1992) affirms these aspects by mentioning that learners whose self-esteem is low might need a study guide that is support-led rather than product-led. It is due to these reasons that learner support should be planned thoroughly when planning the study guide.

According to McLoughlin (2001:1), the term “scaffolding” or “learning support” “is a metaphor to describe the effective intervention by a peer, adult or competent person in the learning of another person.” Vygotsky’s (1962) “Zone of Proximal Development” introduced this term by stating that it is the actual developmental level of the learner compared with the potential development that can occur with the guidance or collaboration with a more competent person. McLoughlin (2001:1) states that “the appeal of the concept lies in the fact that it directs attention to the need for support in the learning process.”

Martens et al. (1996:77) note that learning materials have to be sufficiently supportive and that an essential part of self-study materials consists of embedded support devices (ESD). In a study of Martens, Valcke, Poelmans and Daal (1996) these embedded support devices consisted of about 40% of the learning materials. 93% of the learners in the study stated that they highly appreciated ESD and only 7% of learners preferred course materials without ESD. They distinguish three subsets of functions of ESD in their study:

- Facilitation of the access to the content (e.g., by means of overviews, content pages, margin texts);
- Facilitation of the processing of the content (e.g., by using advance organisers, activities, tasks, pre-questions); and
- Facilitation of the testing of mastery of the content/objectives, (e.g., by embedding questions, and by providing test items with feedback).

(Martens et al., 1996:78).

ESD, which forms a vital part of learner support in study materials, are designed to evoke certain learning behaviours and as such influence study outcomes.

Research (cf. Jarvela, 1995; Roschelle & Teasley, 1995; Rosenshine & Meister, 1992) has proved that learners progress through developmental changes by attempting successive approximations of the learning task, assisted by peers, more able others or by a tutor or educator. Learning support can be exhibited in the form of dialogue, collaborative tasks, structured questioning and demonstration skills. Harrington et al. (2001:3) mention components of learning support in terms of defining activities that enable students to progress satisfactorily. These are defined as strategies, such as cognitive, affective, metacognitive, and motivational and as skills, for example, informing, advising, counselling, assessing, enabling and feedback. McLoughlin and Oliver (1998) provide scaffolds that are required to foster higher order thinking. These include the encouragement of reflective thinking, provision of social support for dialogue, interaction and extension of ideas and feedback from peers and educators. These support features are depicted in Figure 3.2.

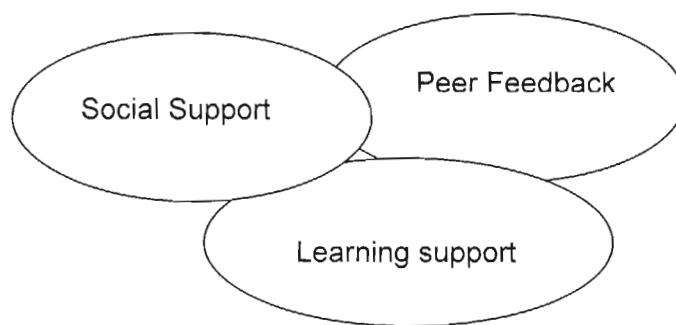


Figure 3.2: Forms of Scaffolding (McLoughlin & Oliver, 1998)

McLoughlin et al., (1998:148) state that support systems that are developed in order to support learner needs help the learner become competent and self-confident in learning, social interactions and self-evaluation. It is, therefore, essential that these learner supports be planned and designed in a principled way in order to ensure that the learners' progress from teacher-directed activity to self-regulated activity is enhanced.

3.4.1.6 Find and utilize existing materials

Instructional materials should not be used solely because they are readily available or have been effective in a traditional classroom setting. When existing instructional materials are appropriate to use, it may be necessary to

secure copyright permissions and arrange or modify the materials in ways in order to meet the stated outcomes (Rothwell et al., 1998:241). Rothwell et al. (1998:240-241) suggests that the following be taken into consideration when considering existing materials:

- a) Can the existing instructional materials be used as they are, with minimal revisions?
- b) What revisions, if any, must be made?
- c) Are the outcomes to be met by learners so unique that they prevent the use of anything except tailor-made materials?

3.4.2 Preparing for writing ESP study guides

Designing and developing ESP study guides is a thorough and complex process aimed at solving particular instructional and learning problems. It is, therefore, necessary that before writing the ESP study guide, proper and thorough preparation be done in order to ensure a successful study guide. In this section various aspects such as weighing up resources and constraints, sequencing ideas, developing ESP activities/tasks, feedback, finding examples etc. are addressed, which are essential in preparing an ESP study guide (cf. Ehrlich, 2002; Fardouly, 2000; George, 1998; Reigeluth, 1999).

3.4.2.1 Assess resources and constraints

According to Ehrlich (2002:6), resources impact all the stages of the design cycle. Print-based materials such as textbooks, journal articles, conference papers and lecture notes are distributed easily. Even resources on the intra- or internet for on-campus students are effortlessly distributed depending on technological constraints such as network problems or over-crowding at computers.

An appropriate textbook is an asset for both the instructional designer and the learners as it saves time. The instructional designer can then design a “wrap-around” style study guide. The “wrap-around” study guide entails that the content of the course is designed around the content of the resources such as the textbook, journal articles etc. Unfortunately, as with any printed text, content may become irrelevant or change with time and the lecturer will have

to revise the study guide on a regular basis (Ehrlich, 2002:7). Another constraint that needs to be taken into consideration is whether the textbook, journal articles etc. are available at the university library or on the intra-or internet.

George (1998:9) states that the lecturer developing the study guide needs to identify reading lists for learners associated with the assessment that will be conducted. Providing students with a list of useful resources, rather than one definite reference for a given purpose can prove to be very helpful for learners. George (1998:9) furthermore notes that long lists of resources that are alphabetically arranged are not particularly helpful for learners. He suggests that some form of guidance be provided for the learners as to which resources will be useful to the specific course in general. Not only are the resources in instructional design important to mention but also the constraints that manifest while producing the instructional materials.

The main constraint in course development is course preparation time. Robinson (1991:4) states that “the main thing is that the course will have to be cobbled together as there isn’t enough time to make up full integrated materials.” Research (cf. Frankel, 1983; Maley 1984; Maley & Grellet, 1980, Rowntree, 1992) indicates other practical constraints such as bureaucratic requirements, length and time of course, availability of tutors, number of learners, cost and copyright law. Frankel (1983) argues that the first stage in course design is to assess existing constraints but this can be problematic so the instructional designer is often left in the dark and has to guess what is required in the instructional materials

3.4.2.2 Sequence ideas

Decisions about sequencing are concerned with how to group and order the content. Reigeluth (1999:428) states that “the content cannot be ordered without creating some kind of groupings to be ordered, and different kinds of sequences require different kinds of groupings.” It is essential that decisions need to be made about what content should be in each grouping. Sequence decisions involve several types of decisions regarding the size of the group of

content, the components of each learning episode, the order of components of each episode, and the order of episodes (Reigeluth, 1999:428-429).

In order to ensure a complete and logical sequence of instruction, there has to be a grouping of related outcomes and a sequencing of teaching activities. There are various types of sequencing strategies that need to be taken into consideration. Rothwell et al. (1998:219) calls the strategies “tactics”. He defines “tactics” as “the ways instructional strategies are implemented.” These are detailed approaches and activities used by an instructional designer to accomplish a strategy. Instructional designers should, therefore, first identify the results they wish to achieve through instruction and then plot how they will achieve those results (Rothwell et al., 1998:219). Jonassen, Garbinger, and Harris (1990:34-38) have identified five key instructional strategies: sequence instruction in a logical order; sequence instruction in learning prerequisite order; sequence instruction in procedural order; sequence instruction according to content organisation and sequence instruction according to story structure. They also suggest a range of instructional tactics for each strategy.

Their results are as follows for the sequencing of instructional events (tactics are underlined) (cf. Table 3.3):

Table 3.3: Sequencing instructional events

- 1.1 Sequence instruction in logical order
 - 1.1.1 deductive sequence
 - 1.1.2 inductive sequence
 - 1.1.3 inductive sequence with practice
- 1.2 Sequence instruction in learning prerequisite order
 - 1.2.1 hierarchical, prerequisite sequence
 - 1.2.2 easy-to-difficult
 - 1.2.3 concrete to abstract
- 1.3 Sequence instruction in procedural order
 - 1.3.1 procedural, job sequence
 - 1.3.2 information processing sequence (path sequencing)
 - 1.3.3 algorithmic presentation

- 1.3.4 procedural elaboration
- 1.4 Sequence instruction according to content organization
 - 1.4.1 general-to-detailed (progressive differentiation)
 - 1.4.2 conceptual elaboration
 - 1.4.3 theoretical elaboration
- 1.5 Sequence instruction according to story structure
 - 1.5.1 narrative sequence

Fardouly (2000:6) lists Gagne's *Nine events of instruction* as a method of sequencing ideas:

- i. **Gain attention** by using an analogy, anecdote, paradox etc.
Display an outline in a visual form so that learners have a framework into which they can organise the content.
- ii. **Inform the learner of the outcomes.**
- iii. **Stimulate recall of prior learning** by designing activities that assists the learners in recalling knowledge or skills that they are already familiar with.
- iv. **Present stimuli with distinctive features** by describing the key points and emphasising distinctive features.
- v. **Guide learning** by presenting the instruction in small steps (chunking) leading from simple to complex.
- vi. **Elicit performance** by involving learners in questioning providing them with reinforcement when necessary.
- vii. **Provide feedback.**
- viii. **Assess performance** through tasks, activities and assignments.
- ix. **Enhance retention and learning transfer** by providing opportunities for learners to apply the outcomes of their knowledge in real-world settings.

Rothwell et al. (1998:220) suggest the following types of instructional sequencing:

- **Chronological sequencing:** The content is arranged by time sequence with the presentation of later events preceded

by a discussion of the earlier ones. Instruction is sequenced from the past to present to future.

- **Whole-to-part sequencing:** Learners are presented with an overarching logic to govern what they should know. In this way they can see how each part relates to a larger conceptual system. Learners are first presented with a complete model or a description of the full complexities of a physical object. Instruction is then organised around parts of the whole.
- **Part-to-whole sequencing:** Learners are presented with each part of a larger object. By the end of the instruction they should be able to conceptualise the entire object.
- **Know-to-unknown sequencing:** Learners are introduced to what they already know and are gradually led into what they do not know.
- **Unknown-to-known:** Learners are deliberately disorientated at the outset of instruction. They are “thrown into the deep end”. The approach indicates how little they know about a subject with which they feel familiar. The aim of this approach is to motivate learners by showing them they need to learn more.
- **Step-by-step sequencing:** Learners are introduced to a task by either the steps in the task itself or the knowledge they must possess to perform competently. The outcomes are sequenced around each “chunk of knowledge” or “specific skill”.
- **Part-to-part-to-part sequencing:** Learners are treated to a relatively shallow introduction to a topic, move on to another topic that is also treated rather superficially and on to other topics in like fashion and eventually back to the original topic for more in-depth discussions. The spiral type of sequencing is used to ensure that learners are introduced to topics on which learning is built.

- **General-to-specific:** Learners are introduced to the same foundation or core subjects and then given the opportunity to specialise.

Reigeluth (1998:431) distinguishes between two basic patterns of sequencing that can be used: topical and spiral. Topical sequencing consists of a topic or task that is taught to whatever depth of understanding or competence, before moving on to the next one. Spiral sequencing consists of the learners mastering a topic or task gradually in several passes. The learner learns the basics of one topic or task, then another, and so on, before he or she returns to learn more about each topic. This pattern continues until the necessary depth and breadth are reached for all of them (Reigeluth, 1998:432) (cf. Figure 3.3).

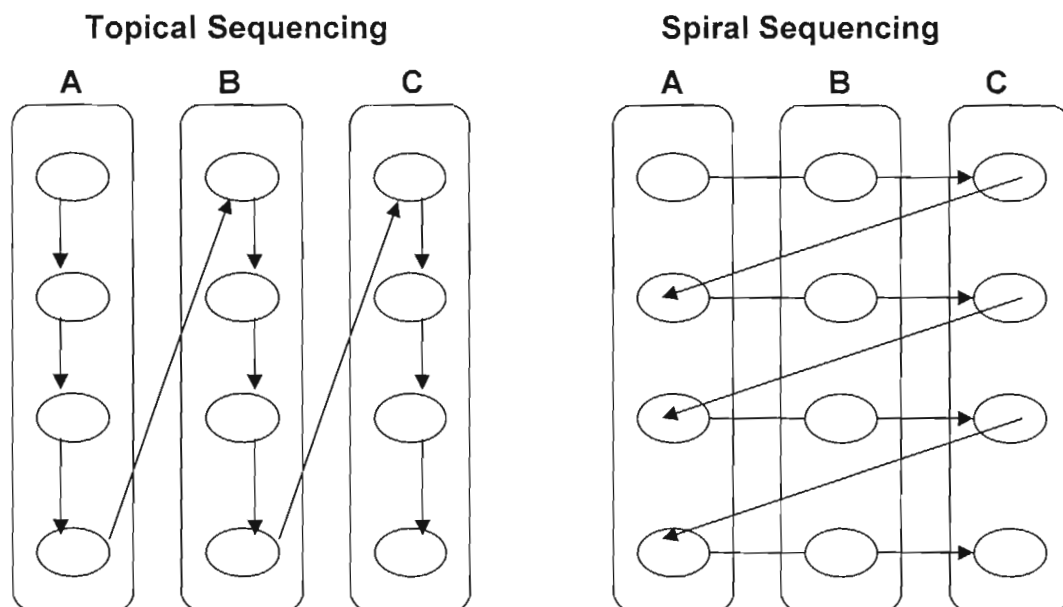


Figure 3.3: Topical and spiral sequencing (Reigeluth & Kim, 1993)

It is important to note that neither topical nor spiral sequencing exists in a pure form but rather depends on the outcomes of the course as well as what the lecturer wants the learners to master.

Sequencing of ideas or concepts is also found in ESP courses. According to Nation (2005:5), the content of language courses consists of language items, ideas, skills, strategies, and tasks that meet the outcomes of the course. The

unit of progression of a course is the content feature that represents movement of progression through the course. These units of progression might be tasks, topics or themes. It is furthermore important to determine what form the syllabus will take for example linear, modular, cyclical, and matrix as this will have a direct influence on how sequencing will take place in the course.

Lecturers of ESL learners who work in multi-level classrooms often find successful grouping, differentiating instruction and materials selection for ESP learning materials (e.g., study guide) challenging. It is not an easy task to find relevant, meaningful materials that can be modified and sequenced to fit the learners' needs in terms of levels and interests. The four sequencing lists provided above supply only a method of sequencing events or ideas that can be employed by the lecturer in the ESP learning materials. It is important to remember that sequencing instruction is individualised so that it can benefit each learner. However, this is also the biggest disadvantage for the lecturer developing ESP learning materials since developing the sequencing in the learning materials to meet the needs of each individual learner would be extremely time-consuming. One of the primary advantages of all the sequencing lists discussed is that they engage the learner in the content at hand. The learner does not passively listen to information presented instead the ESP learning materials, if sequenced properly, prompts the learner by building on prior knowledge and helps to form new knowledge.

Not only is it essential that topics and tasks are sequenced in the ESP study guide, but also that relevant ESP tasks and activities be developed to be incorporated in the instructional process in the study guide.

3.4.2.3 Write ESP activities/tasks

Specific instructional activities should be directed toward providing learners with the necessary skills, knowledge, and experience required to meet the outcomes of the course. According to Lusunzi (1999:3), the "appropriate use of instructional activities in learning situations encourages learning by doing as opposed to the memorisation of facts." The interactivity between the learner and the instruction take the form of the learner being asked questions

or given assignments or a set of procedures to perform and they are then provided with the appropriate responses and helped to work through alternative responses (Schieman, 1990:74). Robinson (1991:39) states that learners should understand the tasks provided in the ESP study guide and what they should do with the tasks. Learners should not act in a mechanical manner when doing the tasks since the basic need of ESP learners is that, using the medium of English, they should successfully perform a work or study task. In the program, language learning develops from the viewing of videos and reading of texts chosen from their relevance to the study of legal issues and not merely as springboards for language exercises. The formal study of syntax, morphology and semantics related to the subjects studied is made within the specific communicative context, and not as an abstract topic per se.

Activities take many different forms. George (1998:8) states that students may be asked to conduct the following types of activities:

- Recall
- Restate
- Apply new concepts
- Answer a short quiz
- Provide examples from their experience
- Summarise a passage
- Interview family or friends
- Undertake a short survey etc.

Activities in interactive learning materials have various purposes. Instructional activities provide immediate feedback on the learners' learning process; they keep the learners interested in the learning process and elicit active participation from the learners (Lusunzi, 1999:3). Robinson (1991:40) states that each task should have a conceptual, a linguistic and a physical aspect. This means that each task has an identified and relevant specific-subject content; is at an identified and manageable linguistic level; and has an identified and appropriate performance requirement. An example of this would be if learners have to write in class, then this is because writing is

required by the task and not just a language practice activity. Rowntree (1992:129) states that activities may be meant to help the learner:

- Remember ideas;
- Understand ideas;
- Make use of ideas;
- Think for themselves;
- Learn by doing;
- Bring their own experience and examples;
- Reflect on their own thoughts and feelings;
- Obtain information that the study guide can not provide;
- Apply their learning to their work or personal life;
- Practise towards important objectives;
- Monitor their own progress;
- Identify their strengths and weaknesses; and
- Keep a record of what they have done.

Alejos Juez, (2007:3) provides an example of law related tasks in a study guide. She states that language learning can develop from the viewing of videos and reading of texts chosen from their relevance to the study of legal issues and not merely as springboards for language exercises. The formal study of syntax, morphology and semantics related to the subjects studied should be made within the specific communicative context, and not as an abstract topic per se. Alejos Juez, (2007:3) states that thematically organized study units, each dealing with an individual subject designed to be both relevant and motivating, constitute the core of the ESP course. In each study unit the broad subject-matter is broken down into sections and subsections, which provides a structured approach to the subject with a great deal of extra-linguistic information and promotes learning by recycling vocabulary and concepts, contributing to produce an overview of the main features of the legal system. The factual contents of each module, e.g. legal principles, traditions, institutions, proceedings and procedure in civil, criminal and administrative courts, etc. are presented through extracts taken from authentic audiovisual and written material (journals, newspapers, books, videos,

movies, documentaries, interviews to prominent personalities, etc.) with the final aim of training students to develop meaningful use of language in context.

The pedagogical approach to each module follows a similar structure. In all the units authentic material provides students with listening, reading, writing and speaking assignments to be developed in three different stages (Alejos Juez, 2007:4). At the first stage of the instruction process students are given a worksheet that helps them organize notes and ideas for further work. The first task assigned to students is to read an article/text and make a list of essential points. Once this is performed, the next task is to make a vocabulary list of words that are basic for discussion of the topic, and to answer specific questions previously prepared by the teacher to guide discussion (Alejos Juez, 2007:4).

Activities also provide opportunities for practice. They require that the learners apply their new knowledge and skills, but in order for them to do so, the learner first needs to fully understand the knowledge. Activities can reinforce learning by getting the learners to review and assimilate what they have read. Where higher levels of learning outcomes are sought (e.g., problem solving), activities may require the learner to transfer what they have learnt to a different or unique situation.

According to Lusunzi (1999:4), instructional activities should be informed by the outcomes of the course as well as the prerequisites in order for them to facilitate effective learning. The outcomes of the course assist the learners in understanding the scope and relevance of the instructional activities that are assigned to them. Rothwell et al. (1998:252-259) states that there are two general categories of learning activities: individual and group. He expands on this by stating that "almost any experience can be transformed into an individualised learning activity, provided that (1) outcomes are specified in advance, (2) the outcomes can be compared to pre-established performance objectives, and (3) the experience meets certain requirements from the standpoint of the learner or instructor" (Rothwell et al., 1998:253).

Individual learning activities can be prepared by first deciding how much instructor involvement will be necessary during the learning experience. If instructor involvement is necessary, supplement the learner materials with instructor directions in order that learners can be provided with instructor assistance if needed. If instructor support is not needed, contract learning can be used to guide individualised learning activities (Rothwell et al., 1998:254). Contract learning replaces a content plan with a process plan. This in effect means that it will be specified how a learner would acquire a body of content. Knowles (1986:38) states that a learning contract should specify:

- i. The knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values to be acquired by the learner (learning outcomes).
- ii. How these outcomes are to be accomplished (learning resources and strategies).
- iii. The target date for their accomplishment.
- iv. What evidence will be presented to demonstrate that the objectives have been accomplished?
- v. How this evidence will be judged or validated.

Rooney (2002:1) states that since the introduction of communicative language teaching and the belief that language is best learned when it is being used to communicate messages, the communicative task has “ascended to a position of prominence as a unit of organisation ...”. A “task” is defined as an activity in which the learner uses the target language for communicative purposes in order to achieve an outcome (Willis, 1996:23). In ESP materials learners are given tasks reflecting their professional world, such as case-study simulations in law or business. According to Butkiene et al. (2007:1) the idea of including content of a subject under study into a language classroom was introduced in the 1970's by Hutchinson and Waters. They stated that the content of a subject such as Economics should be used for teaching a foreign language. Krashen (1982:23) states that “ the mistake of language teaching was that we first “teach” the skills and only later use them, while the most effective way should be learning and using a the same time.” The appropriate use of technical terms shows that speakers are in command of certain factual

knowledge of their profession or field to which specialised concepts belong. This knowledge makes differences on meaning understandable (Dimkovich-Telebakovich, 1998:4).

“These ESP tasks employ a deep-end teaching strategy and the learners are asked to perform these tasks in order to discover where they lack in the second language arena in relation to the conventions of the discourse community to which they aspire” (Basturkmen, 2002:23). In designing learning tasks and activities for ESP, there is a wide range of operations, role-plays and simulations, case studies, and project work. According to Tubtimtong (1999:4), these ESP tasks should allow for flexible approaches and different routes, media, modes of participation and procedures. They should furthermore allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by the learners.

Group learning activities are associated with experiential instructional methods. According to Nelson (1999:244), education and business have come to recognise the significant learning gains and increased creativity, which develop from learning and working collaboratively in groups or teams. She furthermore notes that a learning environment that is most effective for group learning activities is one that is conducive to collaboration, experimentation, and inquiry and is an environment that encourages an open exchange of ideas and information. It is essential that learners should feel free to voice their opinions, explore new ideas and try a variety of approaches to their work (Nelson, 1999:247). Rothwell et al. (1998:254) mentions various group-learning activities:

- Panel discussions;
- Case studies;
- Action mazes;
- In-basket exercises;
- Role plays;
- Simulations; and
- Critical incident techniques.

In language learning, co-operative groups encourage students to communicate, share insights, test hypotheses, and jointly construct knowledge. Grouping strategies involve peer tutoring or pairing a second language learner with a more English-proficient peer.

3.4.2.4 Give feedback

Rowntree (1992:130) states that feedback informs the learners about the results of their actions. In order for feedback to be most effective, it should be informative. Giving feedback in interactive study materials involves giving one answer, or a range of answers as well as some comment or guidance about the answers. According to Ouellette (2002:8), feedback in the form of grading and coaching is essential to learning. Rowntree (1992:131) suggests various forms of feedback. The instructional designer may give the learners:

- The correct answer if there is one.
- Sample answers if more than one is possible.
- Responses that have been made by other learners.
- The results of a choice they have made.
- Advice as to how they can assess their own answer.
- Questions about what they learned from the activity.
- Sympathy about difficulties they may have had.
- Reassurance about possible errors they may have fallen into.

It is also possible that some activities will provide their own feedback, for example, if learners are given the instructions for creating a power (electrical) surge in a project assigned to them. Their feedback will be in whether there is a power surge or not. This is also relevant for language learning. Learners can be given a task or instructions where they have to compile a questionnaire to obtain feedback from other learners at their tertiary institution. The questionnaire will provide feedback and the learners will either be able to write a report on their findings or give verbal feedback to others in their class.

Other activities may again require that the learner discuss his/her answers with peers or experts in the field of study. This will provide the learner with

comments which will act as feedback. Another example of feedback is language-learning games where learners interact with one another in groups with the help of a language board game. The board game can be developed to test specific linguistic items etc. A “question and answer” type board game will provide immediate feedback. Self-tests, built into the interactive study materials, can also operate as feedback given that the learners can assess themselves taking the outcomes of the specific unit of learning into consideration.

Gonzales-Lloret (2003:90) states that “intervention in the form of feedback has also proved to be effective for language acquisition.” There are two possibilities with regards to feedback in designing ESP study materials: a) feedback provided by another learner in a group activity during the negotiation of meaning; and b) feedback provided by the lecturer/facilitator as a response to written or spoken output. The first type of output is almost impossible to control from the designer’s point of view, since it depends on the participants. The second type of feedback depends solely on the discretion of the lecturer.

In an ESP study guide, the need for quality feedback becomes more paramount because of several factors. First, because the face-to-face contact time has been lessened at the North West University (cf. Chapter 1), receiving written comments from the instructor becomes even more crucial. One of the most important areas where students interact one-on-one with the instructor is when instructors provide individual feedback. Second, the flexibility in the pace of an ESP courses facilitated by an ESP study guide allows students to work ahead (Thurmond et al., 2007:7). Therefore, faculty need to provide timely feedback so that students can maintain their own pace and schedule.

Vrasidas and Mclsaac (1999) focused on interactions among students and between students and instructors in a graduate telecommunications course consisting of seven students and the instructor. The course was structured to include both face-to-face and online sessions. Through observations, tape recordings, and semi-structured interviews, the researchers reported that the qualitative data indicated several major factors influencing interactions. Among the major influencing factors was receiving prompt feedback. When

students perceived that instructors did not respond in a timely manner, they felt discouraged and curtailed their participation. Lack of timely feedback can result in learners' ambiguity about their performance in an ESP course and can contribute to their frustration (Hara & Kling, 1999). Therefore, instructors need to provide students with timely feedback to keep them engaged in the learning.

Similar findings were reported by Soon and colleagues (2000). The researchers obtained course feedback from 60 students on their satisfaction with an Internet distance-learning course. One area that received negative responses from the students included insufficient feedback from professors regarding reports and questions. Thurmond and associates (2002) reported that in examining satisfaction in 120 students enrolled in Web-based courses, one of the strongest predictor variables was timely comments from instructors. Providing more prompt feedback may enhance students' satisfaction (Leong, Ho, & Saromines-Ganne, 2002). The issue of timely feedback is important because students need to know how they are progressing, as well as have an idea on how they can improve their performance in the course (Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996; Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

3.4.2.5 *Look for useful examples*

Perhaps the greatest challenge facing English language lecturers designing materials is creating student-relevant examples. Content is taught by using examples to relate the content to a context understood by the learners. According to Willis (1993:2), the best examples are "transparent", allowing the learners to focus on the content presented. If the examples are irrelevant, learning can be hindered. According to Rowntree (1992:132), examples may take various forms, for example:

- References to things learners already know;
- Anecdotes and stories;
- Case studies;
- Pictures (photographs, diagrams, maps, etc.);
- Audio and video materials;
- Real objects;

- Graphs or charts and tables of figures;
- Calculations showing all the steps to a solution;
- Quotations from other people;
- Examples provided by other learners; and
- Examples learners provide from their own experience.

Byrd et al. (2005:1) define the terms “Exemplification” and “Example” in ESL. Exemplification is “a basic communication strategy used in the negotiation of meaning in many different contexts”, which occur in both spoken and written language. Exemplification plays an integral part in the interactive process between reader and text. Exemplification is, therefore, a communication process through which meaning is clarified by the use of linguistic forms called examples. The *Webster’s Third New International Dictionary* (1993) defines example as “a particular single item, fact, incident, or aspect that may be taken as typical or representative of all of a group or type.” Sweet (1964:130-131) provides a discussion of principles that guide the selection and use of examples in the teaching and learning of grammar:

- i. Examples help tie the individual rule to the language as a whole.
- ii. An example explains, illustrates, and justifies the rule of grammar, which it accompanies.
- iii. An example serves as a pattern to be used in analysing other language samples by the learner in subsequent encounters with the language.
- iv. Rules are not the primary purpose of study – using the language is.
- v. Thus, examples are more important than rules.

Yelon and Massa (1987:15) provide an overview of the characteristics of good examples in materials development. They state that good examples are clear, accurate, attractive, and transferable. “Clarity” means that the example is concrete, brief, written in a language that is understood by the learners, and is presented in a manner that its purposes and meaning are immediately evident. “Accuracy” entails having correct information and it should correspond with the unit of study. “Attractiveness” is defined as interesting.

Sweet (1964:130-133) mentions aspects of good examples that emerge from the unique problems of language learning and teaching:

- i. Lists of prepositions, conjunctions, or other form-words are a waste of space in elementary practical grammar, as they mean nothing to the beginner learner.
- ii. The example must be in the language that is being taught.
- iii. Examples that are made up by the teacher or materials writer is not as good as those collected from a variety of authentic writings.

Examples are powerful tools in instructional materials. Moon (1990) comments that one of the purposes of instructional materials that accompany examples is to clarify the purpose of the example. It is, therefore, essential that much attention be paid to the way in which examples are implemented in instructional materials and much research is still required with regards to this.

3.4.2.6 Identify useful graphics

Research (cf. Benson, 1997; Branton, 1999) indicates that the presence of visual elements in today's teaching and learning is increasing as the integration of images and visual presentations with text in textbooks, instructional manuals, classroom presentations, and computer interfaces broadens. Peoples (1988:66) states that:

Of the total inventory of knowledge you have in your head, 75 percent came to you visually, 13 percent through hearing, and a sum total of 12 percent through smell, taste and touch. In fact, if I show you a pictorial presentation of a key point and say nothing, the comprehension and retention will be 3½ times greater than if I just say the words without a picture. And if I do both – give you the words and the picture – the comprehension and retention will be six times greater than just saying the words.

Wileman (1980:6) states that visualisation is a powerful communication tool for three main reasons: (1) a visual message can be attention-getting, (2) a visual message can be efficient, and (3) a visual message can be effective. It

is for these reasons that the instructional designer should be skilled in using techniques of effective visual communication so that he/she can take full advantage of its power to increase learner comprehension and retention.

Chanlin (1998) reports how lessons with no graphics, still graphics, or animated graphics influence learners with different prior knowledge levels as they attain procedural and descriptive knowledge. He notes that when prior knowledge is low, graphics, either still or animated, are better for learning descriptive facts than lessons with text only. However, learners with a high level of prior knowledge, responded better with the animated form graphics in learning descriptive facts, but responded better with still graphics when learning procedural knowledge.

In another study, Anglin, Towers, and Levie (1996:87) in their research on the use of graphics and pictures in text instruction, reached the following conclusions:

- Static visual illustrations can facilitate the acquisition of knowledge when they are presented with text materials.
- Illustrated visuals used in the context of learning to read are not very helpful.
- Illustrated visuals that contain text-redundant information can facilitate learning.
- Illustrated visuals that are not text-redundant neither help nor hinder learning.
- Illustration variables (cueing) such as size, page position, style, colour, and degree of realism may direct attention but may not act as a significant aid in learning.
- There is a curvilinear relationship between the degree of realism in illustrations and the subsequent learning that takes place.

There are three types of graphics used in instruction:

1. *Representational*: It represents the object and it can be classified from highly concrete (photographs) to highly abstract

(line drawings). As line drawings have all irrelevant information removed, they are often considered better learning aids than realistic visuals.

2. *Analogical*: These show something else and imply similarity. Such graphics can be of value when the learner has no prior knowledge of the concept. Analogical Illustrations can help the learner to move from the known to the unknown.
3. *Arbitrary*: They share no physical similarity with the things they represent, but illustrate logical or conceptual relationships using a variety of visual and spatial means. The most common examples of these are probably charts and graphs.

(Mayer, 1999:154)

Ausubel's (1968) advance organiser model, as discussed in chapter 2, is also useful when the lecturer plans the use of graphics in the instructional material. Research by Mayer (1989) has indicated that an advance organiser can prepare prior knowledge in learners. In one of Mayer's studies, learners were asked to read a text explaining how to use a database system (Mayer, 1983). For some learners, the passage began by comparing radar to a ball bouncing off a wall (advance organiser group), whereas the passage contained no analogy for other learners (no advance organiser). The advance organiser group performed better than the no advance organiser group on tests of retention and transfer. Mayer (1989) concluded that the analogy provided in the advance organiser primed familiar prior knowledge in the learner that could be used to make sense of the rest of the passage. Advance organisers in the form of graphics include spider maps (cf. figure 3.4), series of events chains, continuum scales, compare/contrast matrixes (cf. figure 3.5), problem/solution outlines, network trees, human interaction outlines, fishbone maps and cycles.

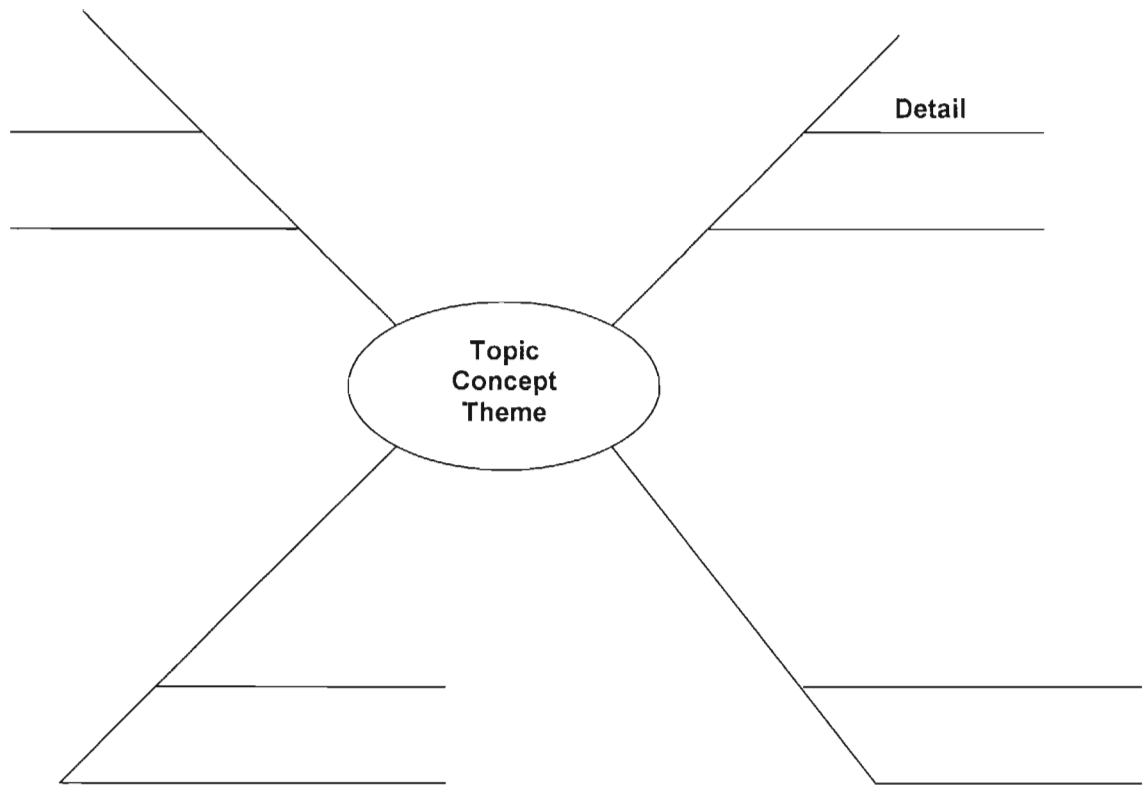


Figure 3.4: An example of a Spider Map

	Name 1	Name 2
Attribute 1		
Attribute 2		
Attribute 3		

Figure 3.5: An example of a Compare/Contrast Matrix

Brandl (2002:5) notes that visual aids have been found effective as advance organisers as they help build background knowledge pertinent to the target text and facilitate the contextualisation of what is being read. Hudson (1982) found that pictorial clues could also increase the comprehension of a reading passage and in particular, with low proficiency readers. The use of visual imagery such as pictures or visual cues to describe or explain Latin words in a law texts, allows for providing concrete images of unfamiliar words and this supports the learning process of new vocabulary (Brandl, 2002:5).

3.4.2.7 Choose access devices

Access devices are implemented to make the content more accessible for the learners using the study guide. These devices include aspects such as the table of contents, icons, numbering, headings, white spaces, and space. Rowntree (1992:133) labels access devices “signals”. These “signals” assist learners in finding their way around the study guide. Rowntree (1992:133-134) lists his signals as:

- **White space**, which makes the study guides less crowded than other texts in order to focus the learners’ attention and avoid intimidating them with a lot of information. Moore and Kearsley (1996:111) state that ample “white space” in the document makes it visually attractive and avoids overloading the learner with too much information at once.
- **Headings**. Big headings are used to break the text up into manageable chunks and to assist learners in obtaining an idea of what each chunk is about. Smaller headings do exactly the same for sub-headings.
- **Bulleted lists** show a number of points, which are related. They also assist in highlighting certain points.
- **Text boxes** are used as a reminder that learners should pay a different kind of attention to what is placed in the box.
- **Icons** are graphic symbols that indicate what sort of material they are dealing with as well as what they are to “do” with the material whether it is to study, do an exercise, listen to an audio text etc.

Misanchuk (1994:2) mentions access devices such as:

- Writing style (e.g. short sentences, avoiding compound sentences, using active voice etc.);
- Focusing on content organisation before developing content,
- Developing a course introduction;
- Staying with a consistent format;
- Using advance organisers;

- Using examples and analogies;
- Including questions; and
- Adding a table of contents and incorporating a glossary of terms.

According to Rowntree (1992:134) icons are signals or access devices that state what sort of material the learner is dealing with and what the learner has “to do” with a given piece of information/task. In a study determining whether learners were positive about the use of icons, Wood (1996) found that learners were overwhelmingly positive about icons. She furthermore noted that icons served as a filtering device by highlighting the points the learners were required to focus on as well as the learning points that could be omitted or be browsed. The icons were found to be useful in planning time allocation and it helped the learners when studying for exams (Woods, 1996:4). Only two criticisms were found in the same study. The first criticism was a degree of confusion about how much of the study guide text was referred to by each icon – there was uncertainty whether an icon referred to a single paragraph or all the following text until the next paragraph. The second criticism was occasional inconsistencies in the use of the icons. The results of this study indicated that if icons are used sensibly, they are powerful tools to assist learners in coping with teaching and learning materials (Woods, 1996:4).

3.4.2.8 Identify the physical format

According to Rothwell et al. (1998:245), “*format* entails the print or audiovisual layout of the instructional material in a given medium.” The most familiar educational format for most learners is print. The core teaching material for most subjects is presented through this medium, typically through a combination of formats such as subject outlines, study guides, selected readings, monographs, laboratory manuals, solution manuals, case studies, workbooks and commercial textbooks. Printed materials consist mostly of text, which is often supplemented by illustrations, diagrams or photographs. Text can present large amounts of verbal information and defined concepts but can be limiting when it comes to the transmission of higher order thinking skills such as problem solving. Moore and Kearsley (1996:79) state that the most common form of print that is used is the study guide.

Rowntree (1986) and Laidlaw and Harden (1990) define study guides as “tutorials in print.” Harden et al. (1999:1) describe study guides as “a tutor sitting on a student’s shoulder available twenty-four hours a day” and as “a management tool for students to manage their own learning.” Jorrison and Ferreira (1989:44) define study guides as “an important teaching and learning intervention to structure and organise student learning to effect self study.” It is important that the study guide should attempt to be friendly, encouraging, and supportive as it is a form of teaching (Moore & Kearsley, 1996:80).

Rothwell et al. (1998:245) states that study guides can be formatted in two ways. One way is to set up the format so that the study guide consists of many individualised learner guide sheets that each focus on one lesson within a “series of related learning experiences” (Rothwell et al., 1998:245). This, in essence, entails that the guide begins with a programme description, a statement of programme purpose, terminal performance outcomes, relationships among lessons, equipment and supplies needed to complete instruction, and self-check activities or tests to assess student progress. The second way to format is to aim it at the learners in lecturer-centred, group-paced instruction (Rothwell et al., 1998:249). This means that it should also describe the programme’s purpose, terminal performance outcomes and organisation. It should also, however, contain the programme contents, handouts, activities, tests, space for notes, and other materials.

Peraya (1994), in a study of the ways in which teaching materials are designed in two European Universities, determined that the course units consist of a simple study programme, which tells the learners the steps to follow for studying the reference textbook. This is called a “wrap-around” format of the study guide. These study guides do not only have the function to inform but also to motivate the learner in the form of exercises, recommended readings, and directions for additional work as well as available resources (Peraya, 1994:12). Rowntree (1992:146) suggests that the “wrap-around” format of the study guide contains the following items:

- Study guidance;
- Introductions/overviews;

- Summaries;
- Glossaries;
- Clearer explanations;
- Contrasting viewpoints;
- Alternative examples;
- Illustrations;
- Local case studies;
- Activities (locally relevant ones);
- Feedback on such activities;
- Instructions for practical work; and
- Assignments for discussion with tutor etc.

Moore and Kearsley (1996:109) suggest the study hours the learner is to devote to the subject needs to be determined first. They then suggest that it is important to break the course down into short lesson segments, as this will assist the learner in pacing his/her study everyday.

According to Bonk et al. (1997:46), to promote higher order thinking skills, the ESP study guide must create challenging activities that enable learners to link new information to previously acquired information, acquire meaningful knowledge and use their metacognitive abilities and it is, therefore, important that the instructional strategy influences the quality of learning. The goal of any instructional design process is to promote learning. Therefore, before any ESP study guides are developed, the lecturer designing the ESP study guide should know all the aspects that constitute an instructional design process.

The task of the lecturer designing an ESP study guide is to facilitate learning and SLA in such a manner that learners are able to apply their newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes in a range of situations. The ESP instructional design process provides a procedure and framework for systematically planning, developing and adapting ESP learning materials based on identifiable learner needs and content requirements. As McDonough (1984:38) points out, even with a group that is completely homogeneous in its learning goals, there will not necessarily be homogeneity of wants, demands,

and attitudes to learning. Even when an ESP study guide is tailored as far as possible to the learners' individual requirements, some compromises have to be made. These can, however, work to the learners' advantage. In the first ESP class the learners can be asked to write down their expectations, needs and wants to hand in to the lecturer. Needs are not static but constantly developing and changing, and this must be taken into consideration when planning and developing an ESP study guide. If, for example, after a short exercise on pronunciation, certain learners feel that they need to do more work on the pronunciation of law vocabulary, this can be incorporated into the ESP study guide.

Planning and developing an ESP study guide cannot guarantee that the desired language learning will occur but it can increase the probability that it will occur. The ESP lecturer needs to enable the ESP learner to construct his/her own knowledge and understanding of the world and learn to self-test the viability of his/her understanding. The ESP lecturer designing the ESP study guide should, therefore, take all the aspects of designing an ESP study guide into consideration before attempting to write the study guide

3.4.3 Writing and re-writing the ESP study guide

Once all the components have been gathered and the time frames have been gathered the ESP study guide can be written. The idea is to take the resources that have been gathered, the ESP activities or tasks that have been planned, the support that is necessary for the English language learners and place all of these aspects into a coherent ESP teaching learning experience (George, 1998:10). The most effective writing style is conversational. Moore and Kearsley (1996:109-110) suggest that the first person rather than third person be used when writing study material. Simple and understandable vocabulary should be used. The study guide's function is to substitute normal discussions between a lecturer and a learner in a classroom setting. George (1998:12) suggests that open questions need to be asked, active rather than passive voice structures need to be used, the language needs to be direct (i.e., omit unnecessary words, avoid jargon etc.), keep sentences and paragraphs short and use headings to structure the text.

Once the study guide has been written it is important that it be reviewed as a whole. Sections that are irrelevant or not as clearly written as it should be, should then be re-written. Links between units need to be made in case they have been omitted in order to ensure coherence and integrity.

Developing an ESP study guide is a continuous process and it is essential that a variety of staff with a wide range of expertise are involved in producing the ESP study guide. The study guide needs to be planned effectively and the needs of the learners need to play a central role in planning the study guide. The outcomes that are formulated should be realistic and take the needs of the learners into consideration. The lecturer should select the media that is widely available and best suits the learners' needs. It is essential that tasks are authentic or real-world tasks and that ESP learners will be able to relate to these tasks within their field of expertise. The timing of the course, the lecturers and the facilities available, and the time available for planning should also be considered as important. The development of an ESP study guide should, however, be considered and recognised as innovative and requiring appropriate managerial as well as pedagogical expertise.

3.5 THE ROLE OF THE ESP STUDY GUIDE

The purpose of an ESP study guide is to provide the external conditions for learning but the actual learning and acquisition of English language content and skills remain solely with the learners. The role of the ESP study guide is not to only convey information to the learner but also to provide structure and control as to how the information is presented to and assimilated by the learner in the language learning process (Ellington, 2007:2). Ellington (2007:10) states that the study guide can play various roles. The ESP study guide can:

- Constitute the actual vehicle by which the instruction takes place;
- Be used to structure and/or control or manage the instruction process, with the main instruction being carried out via other media (e.g. books etc.); and
- Be used to support other individualised learning material, by, for example, providing worksheets.

The ESP lecturer's function is to plan the learning experiences in the study guide that results in changing current behaviour, performance and cognition in order to achieve set learning outcomes. Van Wyk (2001:6) states that the development of printed interactive study guides at the North West University was rooted in a desire to develop more independence in undergraduates (cf. Chapter 1). The interactive study guide can serve as a management tool for learners to manage their own learning, helps learners to structure and organise learning, motivate and encourage learners to become independent learners (cf. Chapter 1).

3.6 CONCLUSION

Writing ESP study guides requires considerable expertise in both the field of teaching and learning. It is essential that tertiary institutions plan and present teaching and learning materials carefully in order to maximise the opportunities for learners in order for them to achieve their full potential. It is essential to develop the common core in ESP course design and to find out the core needs of ESP learners and decide on the language features to be included in the study guide.

Flexibility should always be allowed in order for lecturers to deal with potential problems, for example, making a dynamic needs analysis; conducting ongoing assessments; making changes in course design, materials development and methodology adoption to keep strengths and get rid of weaknesses. When developing ESP learning materials, the lecturer should follow the learner's target situation needs and learning needs. Ellis and Johnson (1994:26) state that the lecturer developing ESP study materials should focus on the systems, procedures and products that are at the heart of what learners do in English and to be able to deduce from this knowledge the language needs of each type of learners.

Chapter 4

Method of Research

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to give an outline of the methodology employed in this study. The main aspects addressed in this chapter include the design used in this study, the subjects that participated, the instruments that were used to collect the data, an outline of the data collection procedure followed, a justification of the data analysis techniques utilised in the study, as well as a section highlighting the ethical considerations followed in this study.

4.2 DESIGN

A one-shot cross-sectional survey design was used in this study. In this one-shot cross-sectional design survey the respondents were questioned about a number of topics regarding the ESP study guide at one fixed point in time. The design matched the questions set out in Chapter 1 and the analysis answers the questions that were posed. This was done via a questionnaire and interviews were conducted with the participants in the survey.

4.3 PARTICIPANTS

Two staff members from the Department of English within the School of Languages teaching the ENGL 122 course, participated in the study. One of the staff members is a senior lecturer and has been teaching this course for approximately ten years while the other staff member is a first year lecturer.

All 185 first-year learners enrolled for ENGL 112/122 participated in the study. The learners consisted mostly of full-time on-campus first year learners majoring in law (e.g., B-Juris etc.) at the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). Their ages ranged between 19 and 21 years of age.

4.4 INSTRUMENTATION

The instruments that were used consisted of a questionnaire and interviews that were conducted.

4.4.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire was developed in order to determine lecturers' perceptions of the printed interactive study guides (cf. Appendix B). The questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions.

A second questionnaire was developed in order to determine learners' perceptions of the printed interactive study guides (cf. Appendix A). The questionnaire was given in the mother tongue of the learners (i.e. Afrikaans). The questionnaire contains a mixture of five-point scale responses, where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=uncertain, 4=disagree, and 5=strongly disagree, as well as open-ended questions. The questionnaire was subdivided into categories such as: "structure of study guide"; "administration of study guide" etc. All questionnaires were based on a comprehensive literature survey and have content and face validity.

4.4.2 Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with learners enrolled for the course ENGL 112/122. The learners were randomly grouped into groups of five and ten groups were compiled. These ten interviews were conducted in the course of four weeks with various learners that were enrolled in the ENGL 112/122 course at the end of the first semester of 2002. These semi-structured interviews were conducted with a fairly open framework which allowed for focused, conversational, two-way communication. The interviews started with more general questions or topics about the study guide and then became much more focused. During these interviews learners were able to give a more in depth information on their perceptions of the ENGL 112/122 study guide. The responses were then subjectively grouped according to post-hoc categories similar to the categories used for the questionnaire (cf. Chapter 5).

Semi-structured personal interviews were also conducted with the ENGL 112/122 lecturers of the study guide during the course of this period. Two meetings,

focusing on the ENGL 112/122, were held in the School of Languages at the end of the first semester of 2002. All lecturers involved with the designing and/or teaching the ENGL 112/122 course were asked, by the Director of the School of Languages, to attend the meetings in order to voice their concerns about aspects related to the study guide. These responses were verified against the minutes taken during the meeting to ensure that all responses were taken into consideration during the classification of the lecturers' concerns about the ESP study guide. The interviews were conducted to obtain more in depth information on their perceptions of the study guide. The lecturers' responses were categorised under the following headings:

- Time

The lecturers had to plan and develop the ESP study guide in a set amount of time allocated to them. The lecturers had the opportunity to comment on whether the time allocated to them was appropriate or not and why it was or wasn't (cf. chapter 5).

- Promotion

Lecturers are afforded promotion opportunities for research conducted. Lecturers were asked to comment on whether the development of the study guide interfered with any promotion probabilities.

- Lack of training and support

Lecturers were asked to comment on whether the training received in the writing of the study guide was effective and whether they received enough support from Academic Support Services while they were writing the study guide.

- Administrative concerns

Lecturers were asked to comment about the administrative issues that they encountered while developing and even after developing the study guide.

- Teaching approach in the contact sessions

The lecturers were asked to comment on whether their teaching approach had to change due to the teaching-learning approach in the study guide.

4.5 THE TEACHING-LEARNING CONTEXT

4.5.1 The Course

The ENGL 112/122 course is presented in a full-time and part-time capacity. The full-time course is presented to on-campus learners. The full-time course consists of a fifty-minute class period everyday whereas the part-time course consists of an hour class period once a week after-hours. The study material consists of solely the ENGL 112/122 study guide.

4.5.2 The Study Guide

The development of the ESP study guide is the exclusive responsibility of the lecturer who is considered the content expert. In principle he or she takes on the design, the production and the successive revisions of the printed teaching material. The lecturer is free to delegate these tasks to external authors, whom he or she selects according to their academic competence. Academic Support Services at Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University provided support to writers of study guides with regards to the sequencing, physical layout, access devices, activities, feedback, examples, etc. The content of the study guide consists of the four language skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. These activities in the various study units are applied to various writing, speaking, listening and reading skills required in law, as the participants are in this course are learners of law.

4.5.3 Study guide outline

The content of the course ENGL 112/122 consisted of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking applied to English for learners who major in Law (e.g. B. Juris etc.). The content was structured into units of learning or study units. Every study unit was subdivided into study sections, which made the content manageable and therefore more accessible for the learners. The outline of the study guide is as follows:

Study Unit 1: Let's speak

Study section 1.1: Telephoning

Study section 1.2: Meetings

Study section 1.3: Interviews
Study section 1.4: Negotiating

Study Unit 2: Let's listen

Study section 2.1: Making presentations
Study section 2.2: Pronunciation and spelling

Study Unit 3: Let's read

Study section 3.1: Your reading profile
Study section 3.2: Speed-reading, skimming, scanning and
study-reading
Study section 3.3: Finding the main idea
Study section 3.4: Text-mapping
Study section 3.5: Summarising

Study Unit 4: Let's write

Study section 4.1: Letters
Study section 4.2: Reports
Study section 4.3: Faxes and e-mails

4.5.4 Contact Sessions

Contact sessions with the learners were conducted three times a week. These contact sessions were fifty minutes long for the full-time learners and an hour contact session for the part-time learners. The contact sessions formed part of the normal full-time and part-time on-campus program. The contact sessions moved away from the normal, traditional lecturers where the lecturer was the focus of attention. In the ENGL 112 course the learners were afforded discussions and problem-solving opportunities during the contact sessions. They would, for example, discuss, in groups of four or five, what the attributes of a good presentation are and then share their findings with the rest of the class. The

lecturer acted as a facilitator during the contact sessions and directed the learners wherever direction or assistance was needed.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The questionnaires distributed to the learners were completed in scheduled class periods under the supervision of the researcher. Appointments were made with the lecturers involved in teaching the ENGL122 course so that they could complete the questionnaires. The study guides were analysed by the researcher as well as two independent evaluators within the Academic Services department at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University.

4.7 ANALYSIS

The data was analysed by means of descriptive statistics. Open-ended questions were reported as narratives. The study guide was analysed according to the following post-hoc categories:

- ✓ The outcomes in the study guide;
- ✓ Presentation of the study guides;
- ✓ Embedded support structures in the study guide;
- ✓ Opportunities for self-evaluation (monitoring);
- ✓ Evaluation;
- ✓ Learning styles;
- ✓ Administrative information;
- ✓ Use of primary texts/resources;
- ✓ Relevance of the study guide; and the
- ✓ Effectiveness of contact sessions.

The framework developed by Academic Support Services, North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) (cf. Van der Merwe et al., 2002) was used to analyse the selected interactive study guides in the ESP course. The framework consists of six sections, namely outcomes, activities, subject content, manner and style of presentation, media selection and general. Each section consists of a number of questions, relating to the heading, which was used to analyse the study guide. The response to the question is evaluated on a two-point scale namely,

1=satisfactory, and 2=unsatisfactory. The analysis was reported in tabular form as percentages under every category. The analysis of the lecturers' responses was reported as narratives under the post-hoc categories listed (cf. 4.4.2).

4.8 ETHICAL ASPECTS

The Director of the School of Languages gave permission for the research to be conducted within the School during the first and second semester of 2002. The learners willingly completed the questionnaires and willingly participated in the interviews. All the learners and the lecturers remained anonymous.

4.9 CONCLUSION

The methodological overview provided in this chapter was aimed at providing an accurate description of the various steps undertaken in the research study in order to ensure further replicability, as well as facilitate the discussion of the results in chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Presentation and Discussion of Results

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter represents the analysis and discussion of the data. The main focus of the analysis and discussion is to address the following aspects relevant to the design of the framework, presented in chapter 6:

- An analysis of the literature;
- An analysis of the study guide by Academic Services; and
- Learners' perceptions and concerns with regard to the study guide (cf. Chapter 1)

5.2 AN ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE

An analysis of the literature indicates that there are various theories and principles that are important for language materials design (cf. Chapter 2). The theories that are important for language materials development are behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism and these theories are also essential for the model developed in chapter 6. These learning theories include *Ausubel's* advance organizer model which states that students learn new materials in terms of what they already know, and that advance organizers serve as introductory material which is aimed at bridging the gap between what the student has already learnt to what he needs to learn and assimilate. *Bruner's* discovery learning theory states that a problem-solving approach should be used when teaching new concepts. *Holmberg's* theory of didactic conversation states that materials should be structured in such a way that they resemble a guided conversation (Cf. Chapter 2).

The interactionist theories underpin the interaction hypothesis that suggests that language acquisition occurs in conversations when meaning is negotiated (cf. Chapter 2). Interaction, which is essential for Second Language Acquisition, is further defined by Moore and Kearsley (cf. Chapter 2) maintain that educators should provide three types of interaction in study

guide/materials development: learner-content interaction, learner-instructor interaction and learner-learner interaction. These three types of interaction are essential elements of the model developed in Chapter 6 and are included in the pre-planning phase of the framework under “consider types of interaction” (Chapter 6).

According to interactionist second language acquisition theories that reflect Krashen’s theory (1994) that comprehensible input is critical for second language acquisition, interaction can enhance second language acquisition and fluency. Effective output is necessary as well. An analysis of interactionist SLA theories indicates that interaction is an essential component of ESP study guide development as well as essential for second language acquisition to occur (cf. Chapter 2). Various principles of second language acquisition were also identified as essential to ESP study guide development.

An analysis of the literature (cf. Chapter 2) indicates that there are various principles of second language acquisition (SLA) that are relevant to materials development. The SLA principles incorporate aspects such as that materials should achieve impact, materials should help learners feel at ease, thus lessening anxiety, materials should help learners to develop confidence, what is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful, materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment, materials should encourage self-directed learning etc. (cf. Chapter 2). These aspects are essential to be taken into consideration when developing an ESP study guide/materials. These SLA principles are taken up in the proposed framework in the pre-planning phase (cf. Chapter 6))

The literature also indicated (cf. Chapter 3) that English for Specific Purposes contains absolute and variable characteristics that should be taken into consideration when designing ESP study guides. These characteristics reflect an approach to language teaching that has to be replicated in the teaching-learning approach in the ESP study guide. The features common to ESP courses are also considered to be important to ESP study guide development. These features firstly incorporate authentic materials, which

are considered a key concept within the communicative approach (cf. Chapter 3). Secondly, the purpose-related orientation, which refers to the simulation of communicative tasks, is essential and thirdly, methods should be employed to promote self-directed learning.

An analysis of the literature (cf. Chapter 3) further indicated that writing an ESP study guide can be divided into three phases: planning, preparing for writing and re-writing the study guide. All three phases are crucial for ESP study guide development and carry equal weight.

The planning phase consists of conducting a needs analysis, which is seen as central to ESP (cf. Robinson, 1991; Burnaby, 1989; Savage, 1993). The planning phase further consists of agreeing on aims and objectives for the study guide as well as the units of study within the ESP study guide. The classification scheme for objectives used is Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives (cf. Chapter 3). Media such as books, videos, etc. should be decided on before writing the ESP study guide. The content should then be outlined and learner support planned especially in terms of embedded support devices (cf. Chapter 3). Existing materials should be considered when planning the study guide as they are readily available and have been effective in a traditional classroom setting.

When preparing to write the ESP study guide there are various aspects that need to be considered (cf. Chapter 3). These aspects include weighing up resources such as journals, textbooks, authentic materials etc. that are available for use and constraints such as time, availability of resources etc. Sequencing ideas, developing ESP activities and tasks, giving feedback; finding relevant examples, adding graphics to enhance content or examples, deciding which access devices to use, and considering what the physical format of the study guide will be are also essential when writing the ESP study guide. Writing and re-writing the ESP study guide is the last step in the study guide development process. This includes an evaluation and review process after each step has been included in the writing process (cf. Chapter 3).

5.3 AN ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY GUIDE BY ACADEMIC SUPPORT SERVICES (ASS)

The desire to develop more independence in undergraduate learners at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus) brought about a decision to develop printed interactive study guides for the full-time programmes on- and off-campus (cf. Van Wyk, 2001). One of the reasons being that study guides offer flexibility in on-and off-campus teaching. The use of the materials by on- and off-campus students can reduce the content delivery requirements of lectures, and face-to-face contact time can be used to enhance learning in other ways. All study guides have to be quality assured by the advisors and the quality committee of Academic Support Services (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:6). The development process (or evaluation process) included a number of set criteria that a study guide has to adhere to. This development process was set out by Academic Support Services at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus) (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:6).

The structure of the study guide is considered a main aspect that should be in place. The structure of the study guide includes the hierarchical structure which, in turn, consists of a Study Division, Study Unit, Study Section and Study Part (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:6). The first aspect that Academic Support Services (ASS) assists with in the writing process is the module information. ASS states that the module information should consist of a word of welcome, relevant contact persons (e.g. lecturers, administrative staff etc.), a rationale for studying the specific module, pre-requisites of the module, the prescribed study material, how to study the content of the module (learning strategies), how evaluation/assessment will be conducted, the list of relevant icons and action words used in the study guide should also be included, a module plan, a time and work schedule, module (critical) outcomes, and a table of contents (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:7-23).

The study guide should consist of a teaching-learning approach. It can be written as a story line, which inculcates the content, which is planned and placed in systematic order, learning tasks and activities, and assessment that takes the outcomes into consideration (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:23).

Support structures are essential and ASS includes access devices, formulating of learning outcomes, appropriate learning activities, relevant media, self-evaluation and assessment, formulation of tasks, inclusion of learning strategies for all learning styles, incorporating self-directed learning strategies, motivation and learning support throughout the study guide and the aptitude and abilities of the learners (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:24-25). An important aspect highlighted by ASS is that of feedback. Van der Merwe et al. (2002:35) states that it is essential that learners trace their own progress. Some suggestions are made with regard to feedback (Van der Merwe et al., 2002:35):

- The answers should be placed somewhere in the study guide. Either after an exercise or at the end of the study guide.
- The feedback to activities should be given during contact sessions where discussions can be conducted.
- Learners can be directed to other sources where feedback/answers can be found.

Van der Merwe et al. (2002:36) states that tasks/activities in the study guide should fulfil a specific function of learning. These tasks/activities should meet the following criteria. The tasks should:

- Be focused on the learner meeting the outcomes of the study unit/section and the module outcomes;
- Use the relevant action words provided in the module information;
- Formulated in a clear manner and should avoid ambiguity;
- Be clear about the amount of work to be done such as amount of words, scheme of work etc.;
- Have a memorandum either to be given to the learners once a task/s have been completed or it should be used by the lecturer or facilitator;

- Explain how submission of task/s should be executed (e.g. electronically, during contact session, typed etc.)

Van der Merwe et al. (2002:40) state that there are a number of limitations of the interactive study guides developed at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus) (cf. Chapter 1). These limitations include aspects such as sections of learning that are too elaborate, no division made between compulsory prescribed and non-compulsory additional study material, too much study material included or the study material is on a too high or too low standard. Other limitations in study guides cited by ASS are a textbook approach (one-way interaction) where the textbook determines the teaching-learning approach and not the outcomes, learning strategies, tasks to meet outcomes etc. in the study guide. The module outcomes are not formulated in a clear manner and the module outcomes and study unit/section outcomes are repeated. Other limitations is that no effort is made to develop higher order cognitive skills, the study guide consists mainly of “teacher talk”, almost no activities to monitor and/or develop the learners’ comprehension monitoring skills, limited development of self-regulatory abilities, and no evidence of the development of a positive attitude towards learning (cf. Greyling et al. 2002: 117-119; Van der Merwe, 2002:40;).

The ESP study guide that was analysed by ASS proved to have various limitations. The study guide lacked support of language learning strategies within the content and the exercises of the ESP study guide. The study guide did not provide enough feedback to the learners in terms of answers given. During the interviews with the learners, it was confirmed that the lecturer did not provide adequate or any feedback as it was stated would be done in the study guide. Another problem that surfaced in the ESP study guide was that the learners were not encouraged to use other sources/resources to enhance the content of the study guide. Very few or no other sources/resources were mentioned in the ESP study guide. Another aspect that can be highlighted is the fact that some of the self-evaluation and evaluation exercises were not adequately related to the outcomes. The preparation that the learner had to

conduct for the contact sessions were not clearly set out in the study units or study sections.

Not only is the evaluation of Academic Support Services of the ENGL 112 study guide essential but also the perceptions of the learners who use this study guide.

5.4 LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS AND CONCERNS

The data reported in Table 5.1 indicated the learners' point of view with regard to the outcomes presented in the study guide.

Table 5.1: Outcomes

Questions	% Agree	% Uncertain	% Disagree
Clear and logically formulated.	67.50%	20.00%	12.50%
Content and outcomes were related.	67.50%	25.00%	7.50%
Outcomes formulated in clear manner throughout study guide.	62.50%	22.50%	15.00%
Outcomes related to questions in exam paper.	52.50%	35.00%	12.50%
Action words in outcomes helped learners comprehend what was expected from them in completion of tasks.	32.50%	55.00%	12.50%

The results indicated that more than 67% of the learners were of the opinion that the learning outcomes were clearly and logically presented in the study guide (cf. Table 5.1). A total of 20% were uncertain and 12.50% of the learners indicated that they disagreed that the outcomes were clearly and logically formulated. One of the learners indicated that the outcomes made her feel secure and she felt she knew exactly what was expected from her. She stated that "the outcomes were clear and there were no problems understanding them." More than 67% of the learners agreed that the content

and the outcomes in the ESP study guide were related, 25% of them were uncertain and more than 7% of the learners disagreed.

62.5% of the learners agreed that the outcomes were formulated in a clear manner throughout the study guide, 22.5% of the learners were uncertain and 15% of the learners disagreed. A total of 52.5% of the learners agreed that the outcomes related to questions in the exam paper. 35% of the learners were uncertain about whether the outcomes in the study guide related to questions in the exam and 12.5% of the learners disagreed about this. One of the learners expressed that it would have helped if the questions in the study guide were formulated like the exam questions. He indicated that the questions in the study guide “were easy” but the questions in the exam were “difficult to understand and it seemed as if I never worked through anything in the study guide.”

More than 32% of the learners agreed that the action words used in the outcomes helped them comprehend what was expected from them in completion of the tasks given, 55% of the learners were uncertain and more than 12% of them disagreed.

The first three items in Table 5.1 indicated that the learners were positive about the way in which the outcomes were formulated. The learners indicated that the outcomes in the study guide assisted them to study effectively without wasting time. One learner stated that, “I knew exactly what to do after reading the outcomes. The outcomes were specific and I did not waste time with work that I didn’t need to pay attention to.” Must sentence be grammatically incorrect? Most of them indicated in the interviews that they had “no problem” with how the outcomes were formulated. They felt “it made complete sense” to them. The learners indicated that the action words were specific and “on target”. A lot of the learners indicated that they were uncertain whether the action words had any effect at all on their level of comprehension. One learner stated that he didn’t “know what the action words were or why they were there”. During the interviews most of the learners indicated that this was

the same for them and that neither the “lecturer nor the study guide explained the significance of the action words” to them.

There seemed to be an ambiguity with regards to whether the outcomes in the ESP study guide related to the exam paper. One learner indicated that, “what was asked in the exam paper did not seem like the outcomes that were written in the study guide”. Another learner stated that, “the outcomes helped me to study what was relevant for the exam paper”. It is clear from Table 5.1 that most of the learners were satisfied with how the outcomes were formulated in the study guide.

The data in Table 5.2 represent the learners’ perceptions and concerns of the physical presentation of the study guide.

Table 5.2: Presentation of study guide

Questions	% Agree	% Uncertain	% Disagree
Icons presented in best possible place on page.	52.50%	40.00%	7.50%
Learner satisfied with quality of outside page and way in which study guide was bound.	64.10%	17.95%	17.95%

The results indicated that more than 52% of the learners agreed that the icons used in the study guide were placed in the best possible place on the page (cf. Table 5.2). 40% of them were uncertain and 7.50% of the learners disagreed. More than 64% of the learners were satisfied with the quality of the cover page and the way in which the study guide was bound. Almost 18% of the learners were uncertain and more than 17% of the learners disagreed.

Some of the learners indicated during the interviews that they found the icons “distracting and irritating” and one learner indicated that she “hated” them and that she did not understand why they had to even feature in the study guide. Most of the learners indicated that they did not have a “problem” with the icons or where they were placed on the page. Most of the learners were

“happy” with the way in which study guide was bound. One learner stated that it was “compact” and did not become damaged easily because of the outside page that was in laminated form. Overall the learners were very positive about the presentation of the study guide.

The data in Table 5.3 represents the learners’ point of view of the **embedded support structures** in the ESP study guide.

Table 5.3: Embedded support structures in study guide

Questions	% Agree	% Uncertain	% Disagree
Clear instructions given to complete tasks.	40.00%	27.50%	32.50%
Good suggestions were made with regards to application of learning strategies.	47.50%	30.00%	22.50%
Icons were experienced as good guidelines/instructive.	37.50%	22.50%	40.00%
Meanings of icons were comprehended.	62.50%	22.50%	15.00%
Study guide helped learner to master outcomes of module.	52.50%	40.00%	7.50%
Time allocated to study units/sections was sufficient.	67.50%	20.00%	12.50%
Time allocated to module was sufficient.	77.50%	15.00%	7.50%
Explanations in study guide were sufficient. Did not have to study primary texts/textbooks.	55.00%	30.00%	15.00%
Study guide was too elaborate.	48.72%	33.33%	17.95%
Study guide contained enough study tips, which helped to achieve the outcomes.	47.50%	27.50%	25.00%
Icons focused the learner on the	30.78%	33.33%	35.89%

most important aspects of the content.			
Study guide enhanced interaction between learner and content of module.	56.41%	41.03%	2.56%
Study guide was user friendly.	84.62%	7.69%	7.69%

The results indicated that 40% of the learners agreed that clear instructions were given to complete tasks, 27.5% of the learners were uncertain and 32.5% of them disagreed (cf. Table 5.3). One learner indicated that "I would have liked the lecturer to elaborate on the instructions given in the study guide as I sometimes felt insecure because I wasn't too sure what was expected from me." She also expressed that this caused her to lose marks, as she did not hand in some projects, as she did not know exactly what to do and this caused great anxiety. The results indicated that 47.5% of them agreed that good suggestions were made with regards to application of learning strategies. 30% of the learners were uncertain and 22.5% of the learners disagreed that good suggestions were made with regards to the application of learning strategies.

The results revealed that 37.5% of the learners agreed that the icons used in the study guide were experienced as good guidelines. 22.5% of the learners were uncertain and 40% of them disagreed that the icons were experienced as good guidelines (cf. Table 5.3). During the interviews a lot of the learners indicated that the icons were "a frustration" to them as they had to page back to the administrative information to determine the meaning of the icons. One learner also indicated that "the icons were too many and I had to page back to the administrative information on a regular basis to get the meaning of the icons and this wasted my time!" The learner expressed his frustration with the icons wasting his time and that the material was too comprehensive to lose time with looking up the meaning of icons. He furthermore explained that the icons took up too much space on the page and this made the study guide very heavy to carry around as the guide contained many pages. He felt that the icons could be "lessened" and that that would be much less confusing. Only

two of the learners indicated during the interviews that the icons were a good guideline. One learner indicated that she memorised the meanings of the icons because “they appeared in all her study guides anyway”. A total of 62.5% of the learners agreed that they comprehended the meaning of the icons, 22.5% of them were uncertain and 15% of the learners disagreed.

The results indicated that more than 52% of the learners agreed that the study guide helped them master the outcomes, 40% of the learners were uncertain about this and 7.5% of them disagreed (cf. Table 5.3). One learner indicated during the interviews that the study guide was very helpful in mastering the outcomes. He stated that “the outcomes were very clear and the study guide had type of a process in it which helped me to get to doing what they wanted from me in the outcomes. It really helped a huge amount to use the study guide!” More than 67% of the learners agreed that the time allocated to the study units was sufficient, 20% of the learners were uncertain and 12.5% of them disagreed. One learner indicated during the interviews that the time allocation given in the study guide assisted him with planning his study times and he wasted “far less time than in the past”.

The results indicated that more than 77% of the learners agreed that the time allocated to the module was sufficient, 15% of them were uncertain and 7.5% of them disagreed. One learner indicated during the interviews that the work in the study guide was sufficient and that she could keep to deadlines as long as she kept to the time allocated per study unit. She indicated that “The time allocation given made me feel very secure as I knew exactly what was expected from me and on which dates. I loved working like that as I like to pre-plan.” Another learner indicated that it made him feel “anxious” as he was not good at working with time limits. He stated that he would have felt far less “stressed” if there was no time limit given.

The results indicated that 55% of the learners agreed that explanations in the ESP study guide were sufficient and the learners did not have to study the primary texts. 30% of the learners were uncertain about this aspect and only 15% of the learners disagreed. Most of the learners indicated during the

interviews that the explanations were “good”. One learner indicated that the “explanations were excellent and I understood the content well. I did not have to go and look for other resources to explain the work to me”. More than 48% of the learners agreed that the study guide was too elaborate, less than 34% of them were uncertain and more than 18% of them disagreed about this (cf. Table 5.3). One learner indicated that he became “despondent” because some of the sections “were too long to read”.

The results showed that 47.5% of the learners agreed that the study guide contained enough study guidelines in order to achieve the outcomes of the course, 27.5% of the learners were uncertain and 25% of them disagreed (cf. Table 5.3). More than 30% of the learners agreed that the icons focused them on the most important aspects of the content, less than 34% of the learners were uncertain about this and more than 36% of the learners disagreed

The results of the study indicated that more than 56% of the learners agreed that the study guide enhanced interaction between the learner and the content of the ESP module. More than 41% of the learners were uncertain about this and less than 3% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.3). Most of the learners indicated that the study guide was “just like a lecturer in class”. One learner indicated that she felt that she “didn’t even have to go to class because the study guide assisted her in understanding the content. It’s like I pack my lecturer in my bag everyday”. More than 84% of the learners indicated that the study guide was user friendly; less than 8% of them were uncertain and a little more than 7% of them disagreed. Most of the learners responded with “it’s great!” or “easy to access” when asked about the study guide being user-friendly.

Some sections of the embedded support structures in the study guide proved to be problematic. The icons proved to be challenging as the results indicated that half of the learners agreed that the icons were good guidelines for instruction while the other half of the learners were negative about the icons. A lot of the learners indicated during the interviews that the icons were a distraction because they could not remember what they meant. Others

indicated that they just “ignored” them. There were some learners that indicated that they enjoyed having the icons in the study guide as it clearly showed them what they were supposed to do in the study guide. One learner complained that the icons were “too many and took up too much time to try and decipher what was meant by them. I could have used the time better to study what was in the study guide.”

Most of the learners indicated that the embedded support structures, for example, learning strategies, explanations in the content, study tips, interaction provided between the learner and the content, in the ENGL 112/122 study guide were effective. One learner indicated that, “I found the study guide replaced the information that I missed during the lecturers and I did not feel so anxious to try and get other students’ notes before the exam to complete my own. It made me feel quite secure and less stressed”.

All the data in Table 5.4 represents how learners perceived the self-evaluation exercises in the ESP study guide.

Table 5.4: Opportunities for self-evaluation (monitoring)

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Enough self-evaluation exercises provided for self-monitoring to occur at regular intervals.	80.00%	12.50%	7.50%
After working through a study unit there were enough self-evaluation exercises to test if outcomes were mastered.	53.85%	35.90%	10.25%
Feedback was received regularly in order that learner could monitor progress.	32.50%	30.00%	37.50%

The results indicated that 80% of the learners agreed that enough self-evaluation exercises for self-monitoring were included in the guide. More than 12% of them were uncertain and 7.5% of them disagreed that there were enough self-evaluation exercises. More than 53% of the learners indicated

that they agreed that they could evaluate whether they mastered the outcomes with the assistance of self-evaluation exercises (cf. Table 5.4). Less than 40% of them were uncertain and more than 10% disagreed about this. One learner indicated that “I was very happy with the self-evaluation exercises. They helped me to check whether I understood and could actually do the work. It somehow helped me to stress less for tests and even what I would be asked in class.” Another learner indicated that she “couldn’t figure out how some of the questions linked up to the outcomes. It sometimes confused me!” However, the learners indicated that not all the self-evaluation exercises correlated with the outcomes in the study units and study sections in the study guide. One learner indicated during the interviews that, “I felt I was wasting my time doing some of the exercises in the study guide as we were not going to be tested on this during the exams”. Another learner stated this during the interview: “I knew that the exercises were like building blocks to meet the required outcomes. I could see how these exercises fitted into the bigger picture.

The results revealed that 32.5% of the learners agreed that they received feedback on a regular basis. 30% of the learners were uncertain and more than 37% of them disagreed on this. Most of the learners indicated that they were “unhappy” about the feedback given by the study guide as well as by the lecturers as they indicated that the study guide stated that feedback would be given in class by the lecturer and this was not the case in most of the instances. The learners indicated during the interviews that they would prefer having the answers in the back of the study guide so that they can monitor their own progress. Others indicated that regular feedback from the lecturer would alleviate the problem.

The data in Table 5.5 represents learners’ perceptions of the evaluation exercises that were provided in the study guide.

Table 5.5: Evaluation

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Evaluation exercises were related to the outcomes in the study units.	67.50%	17.50%	15.00%
Self-evaluation exercises provided were useful.	61.54%	23.08%	15.38%

The results indicated that more than 67% of the learners agreed that the evaluation exercises were related to the outcomes in the study units. 17.5% of the learners were uncertain and 15% of the learners disagreed about this (cf. Table 5.5). One learner indicated that the tests during the semester “were easy because she tested us on everything we had to do in the study guide. The outcomes really helped a lot.” The self-evaluation exercises proved useful to more than 61% of the learners. 23.08% of the learners were uncertain and more than 15% of the learners disagreed about whether the self-evaluation exercises were useful. Most of the learners indicated that the self-evaluation exercises were very helpful. One of the learners stated that, “the exercises helped me a lot. After evaluating myself I could see where I made mistakes and I could correct them.”

The data in Table 5.6 represents learners’ perceptions of the **learning style support** provided in the study guide.

Table 5.6: Learning Styles

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Graphic representations assisted in learning process.	7.50%	60.00%	32.50%
Although study guide assisted in learning process, learner had to make separate summaries.	47.50%	25.00%	27.50%
Sufficient study support provided in study guide in order for learner to determine if his/her use of learning strategies were effective.	43.59%	30.77%	25.64%

The results indicated that 7.5% of the learners agreed that the graphic representations in the guide assisted them in their learning process, 60% of the learners were uncertain and more than 32% of them disagreed. One learner mentioned that there were “study tips” given throughout the study guide that assisted him while studying. Most of the learners were completely oblivious to the fact that the graphics in the study guide were there to support their learning process. More than 47% of the learners agreed they had to make separate summaries despite the study guide assisting them in the learner process, 25% of the learners were uncertain and more than 27% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.6). One of the learners indicated that the summaries that he had to make “took up too much time. The study guide should have provided summaries to assist us with the studying of the content. Isn’t it why it is called a study guide?”

The results furthermore revealed that almost 44% of the learners agreed that sufficient study support was provided for the learners so that they could determine whether their learning strategies were effective. Less than 31% of the learners were uncertain and 25.64% of them disagreed. One learner remarked that, “it would help if they informed us that the way we learn differs and that we need to recognise these ‘tips’ that support us when studying”.

The data in Table 5.7 represents learners’ perceptions of the administrative information provided in the study guide.

Table 5.7: Administrative Information

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Learner knew exactly where/when/how to contact a lecturer because information was comprehensive in guide.	70.00%	27.50%	2.50%
Time schedule was provided with dates when specific activities had to be completed.	72.50%	12.50%	15.00%
Learner knew exactly how assessment would be conducted.	47.50%	25.00%	27.50%

Pre-requisites stated in module information assisted learner in determining if he/she had necessary knowledge and skills to master outcomes of course.	40.00%	57.50%	2.50%
Learner received necessary study guidelines regarding the use of the guide.	66.67%	25.64%	7.69%

The results in Table 5.7 showed that 70% of the learners agreed that they knew exactly when, where and how to contact a lecturer because the information was presented comprehensively in the study guide. 27.5% of the learners were uncertain about when, where and how to contact a lecturer and less than 3% of them disagreed (cf. Table 5.7). One of the learners stated during an interview that the administrative information “was excellent and I always found the lecturers in their offices during the times stated in the study guide.” Some of the learners indicated during the interviews that they did not really read the administrative information in the study guide as they found it “boring” and “too long”. Other learners stated that they read the administrative information first before accessing the content of the study guide. These learners indicated that the administrative information proved to be very helpful. More than 72% of the learners agreed that a time schedule was provided with dates when the various exercises/activities had to be completed. Less than 13% of the learners were uncertain about this and 15% of the learners disagreed. One learner expressed that the time schedule was very helpful. She stated that she “made a copy of the time schedule and pasted it on her wall and this helped me to keep track of what needed to be done and what not.”

The results furthermore revealed that 47.5% of the learners agreed that they knew exactly how the assessment would be conducted, 25% of them were uncertain and 27.5% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.7). The results indicated that 40% of the learners agreed that the pre-requisites stated in the module information assisted the learners in determining whether they had the

necessary knowledge and skills to master the outcomes of the course. More than 57% of the learners were uncertain about this and less than 3% of them disagreed. One of the learners stated that, "I was not sure whether I would pass this course when I read the pre-requisites and this caused me to be anxious". Another learner stated that, "I didn't know if I had the necessary skills or knowledge when I read the pre-requisites. Some of the things stated were completely foreign to me."

More than 66% of the learners agreed that they received the necessary study guidelines with regards to the use of the study guide, 25.64% of the learners were uncertain and less than 8% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.7). One learner indicated that the "study guidelines were very helpful. When it felt like the work was overwhelming, I referred back to the study guidelines in the administrative information." Another learner indicated that he was not sure what the role of the study guide was, as it was not clearly explained by the lecturer. He expressed that "it sometimes felt as if the lecturer was doing something completely different that what we were supposed to do according to the study guidelines. It would really be very helpful if the role of the study guide was explained properly."

The data in Table 5.8 indicates the learners' perceptions and concerns of the extent to which the textbooks/resources were used in the ESP study guide.

Table 5.8: Use of primary texts/resources

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Textbook/resources were logically integrated in study guide.	43.59%	23.07%	33.34%
Prescribed texts were apt.	17.95%	38.46%	43.59%

The results indicated that more than 43% of the learners agreed that the textbooks/resources were logically integrated in the study guide, less than 24% of the learners were uncertain and 33.34% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.8). Some learners were of the opinion that the resources were apt and fitted in within the context in which they were given. Some of the learners

indicated that they did not favour the resources in the study guide as the study guide did not provide “the full article” as an addendum, but only the title of the article was given and that meant that they had to “search” for the article in the library. One learner indicated that her study was disrupted due to the fact that there was no indication that resources had to be obtained from the library beforehand. She stated that, “I became despondent and frustrated and did not return to study the content in the study guide. It meant that I had to go to the library first.” The results furthermore indicated that 17,95% of the learners agreed that the prescribed texts were apt, less than 39% of the learners were uncertain about this and more than 43% of the learners disagreed about this.

The data in Table 5.9 indicates the learners’ perceptions of the relevance of the ESP study guide.

Table 5.9: Relevance of study guide

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Study guide supported/facilitated learner to study autonomously.	72.50%	17.50%	10.00%
Study guide was an essential part of my learning process.	55.26%	28.95%	15.79%

The results indicated that more than 72% of the learners agreed that the study guide facilitated them in studying autonomously, while 17.5% of them were uncertain and 10% of the learners disagreed (cf. Table 5.9). Most of the learners were positive that the study guide supported or facilitated them to study autonomously. One learner stated that, “I felt that I did not even need the lecturer at all. I could study on my own and not feel stressed about some of the work that I missed in the class. I knew exactly what I needed to study and how to study it. The exercises in the study guide gave me an idea what to expect in the exams.” Some of the learners were of the opinion, however that they would have liked more support from the lecturer in the course, as they felt that some of the content was not explained comprehensively enough. One learner stated that, “I got upset when the lecturer told me to consult the study guide after I asked her to explain a section of the content to me. I knew

that this section was not explained well enough in the study guide. I feel that the study guide cannot and should not replace the lecturer.”

The results furthermore showed that more than 55% of the learners agreed that the study guide was an essential part of their learning process, less than 29% of the learners were uncertain and less than 16% of them disagreed about this. One learner stated that “I would have felt more secure with the lecturer explaining the work that was presented in the study guide to me. There was some of the work that I really needed some assistance with, but the limited contact sessions prevented me from getting the necessary help.”

The data in Table 5.10 indicates the learners’ perceptions and concerns regarding the effectiveness of the ESP contact sessions.

Table 5.10: Effectiveness of contact sessions

Questions	Agree%	Uncertain%	Disagree%
Guide provided enough guidance with regards to learner preparation for contact session.	55.00%	25.00%	20.00%
Due to effectiveness of guide, lecturer could focus more on application/problem-solving during contact session.	47.50%	30.00%	22.50%

The results indicated that 55% of the learners agreed that the study guide provided enough guidance with regards to learner preparation for the contact sessions (cf. Table 5.10). 25% of the learners of the learners were uncertain about this and 20% of them disagreed. Most of the learners stated during the interview that they knew exactly what was expected from them for the contact sessions. One learner stated that, “I did not stress about what to prepare for class as the study guide clearly indicated to me what would be discussed in class. It made me feel secure that I knew what was going to be discussed in class even before the class started. There is nothing as horrible as sitting in class and the lecturer bombarding you with questions that don’t make any

sense or don't relate to what you have studied." Another learner indicated that she would have "liked to have more guidance with regards to what I had to prepare for class. I wasn't very sure which exercises were for class and which I had to prepare for class. I felt confused and that caused me to stress about seeing the lecturer and being asked questions by her." The learner also expressed her concern with "feeling demotivated" and not wanting to attend class because she became anxious "just thinking of being in class."

The results moreover revealed that due to the effectiveness of the study guide, the lecturer could focus more on application or problem-solving during the contact session. 47.5% of the learners agreed with this and 30% of the learners were uncertain. 22.5% of the learners disagreed. One learner stated that,

"I knew exactly what to prepare for class. It helped that the lecturer also highlighted the most important aspects that had to be prepared for the next lesson. The study guide helped a lot because I did not feel insecure when asked a question about the work I had to prepare. I could actually ask the lecturer questions over and above what's in the study guide."

The overall perceptions the learners regarding the ESP study guide was positive as the learners indicated that the outcomes were clearly formulated, the study guide provided enough guidance with regards to the preparation for contact sessions, they were supported sufficiently to study on their own etc. Very few of the learners indicated that the study guide proved to be a hindrance to their study of the content and their acquisition of the necessary language skills. One learner indicated that "I enjoyed learning new language skills. The study guide helped me not to feel under pressure as I could study all these new language skills at my own pace." The learner furthermore expressed that because she could study at her own pace, she did not feel "intimidated" by the group work or the oral sessions she had to prepare for in the contact session. There were, however, certain aspects that proved to be problematic.

The feedback given in the study guide and during the contact sessions were deemed, by the learners, as insufficient or “non-existent” and some of them stated that “study guide did not provide proper feedback either”. One learner indicated that “one of the problems is that I’d like to have quicker and more regular feedback”. This learner expressed her frustration with the lack of immediate feedback from the lecturer or in the study guide. She furthermore expressed that she couldn’t progress with the rest of the material, as she did not know whether the material that she completed was problematic or not as she had not yet received feedback from the lecturer/study guide. Some of the learners indicated that this lack of feedback caused them to become “demotivated” and “negative”.

What also proved to be problematic was the learners’ knowledge of their own individual learning styles as these styles were incorporated into the study guide. It is essential that the lecturer make the learners conscious of the fact that learning style awareness is essential. The learners’ learning styles need to be tested and discussed in the classroom in order to enhance the language learning process. The lecturer developing an ESP study guide needs to take cognisance of these positive and negative aspects that were highlighted by the learners in order to streamline the ESP study guide in order to achieve better language learning results.

5.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY

In the Age of Information learners will have to take more and more responsibility for their own learning processes, which are initiated and controlled by realistic, job-orientated or competency-orientated learning tasks.

The implementation of this type of learning curriculum will affect how lecturers teach and how learners learn and, therefore, how ESP materials are designed. The results of this study indicate that lecturers will have to change their roles from being “transmitters of content” to becoming “coaches of learners’ learning processes”. It is vital that English language learning materials take the character of enhancing learning and not teaching and thus, ESP lecturers will have to develop instructional design skills. However,

lecturers seldom apply instructional design methods. The lecturer should be equipped with the skills that they need in order to develop quality study guides. Training is, therefore, essential in order that language lecturers can be equipped to write effective language materials. This type of training can either be done at an institutional level or within the School of Languages depending on the training needs.

The traditional delivery system for higher education has been a classroom setting with a professor giving a lecture and learners listening and writing notes. Innovations in educational delivery mechanisms have challenged this paradigm. It is essential that language lecturers be trained in current learning technologies and that blended learning technologies be introduced to them in order to enhance the quality of the study guide or to change the interface of the learning materials from paper to compact disk or the internet etc. It is essential, though, that institutions research formats and methodologies of learning thoroughly before adopting any of them. This entails again that lecturers be trained thoroughly before any learning technology be adopted.

Action research should be conducted while planning and writing the study guide in order to ensure consistent feedback. This will require a team approach to writing the study guide. The team could include a language learning specialist, an information technology specialist and a person who can assist in finding resources. It is also crucial that the study guide, which is developed by this team, evaluate the study guide at regular intervals in order to assess whether the study guide is user-friendly and meets all the necessary needs and requirements.

In this study there are three features that impact the framework developed in Chapter 6 and they are the literature study, the Academic Support Services' analysis of the ESP study guide and the perceptions of the learners who used the ESP study guide. The literature indicates that a thorough knowledge of various theories related to language learning materials development such as learning theories, Second Language Acquisition Principles, and interactionist theories are essential for ESP study guide development (cf. Chapter 2). The

literature furthermore indicates that there are various phases and aspects related to these phases that have to be taken into consideration when developing ESP study guides. These phases include “planning the study guide, preparing for writing the study guide” and “writing and re-writing the study guide”. The phases included aspects such as using authentic materials, conducting a needs analysis etc. (cf. Chapter 3). All the aspects highlighted in the literature study were incorporated into the framework in chapter 6 in phases 1, 2 and 3, especially in the pre-planning and planning phases (cf. Chapter 6). The learners indicated within the various categories in the results and during the interviews that ESP study guide played a vital role in their learning process. The learners as well as Academic Support Services also highlighted various limitations with regards to the ESP study guide such as timely feedback etc. These limitations are addressed in the framework in Chapter 6 in the pre-planning and planning phases of the framework (cf. Chapter 6).

5.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed at investigating, analysing and interpreting the data that was collected. The discussion was descriptive with explanations and speculations. The results indicated that the learners found the ESP study guide very useful and that it played an important role in the language learning process.

The learners indicated that the study guide assisted them in their learning process and that they could use the study guide to study autonomously. However, learners indicated that the feedback received was not sufficient and on time. Lecturers will therefore have to cognisance of this as it may prove to be an obstacle in the language learning process of the learners.

The literature analysis clearly indicates that there are essential elements that contribute to the writing of a successful ESP study guide and these elements are divided into various phases and implemented in the framework in Chapter 6 (cf. Chapter 2, 3, & 6). Academic Support Services analysed the ESP study guide according to a set of criteria and various limitations were highlighted

which, in most parts, correlated with the results of the learners' perceptions. For study guides to be effective, the lecturer and the learners using the guides have to be aware that the guides are an important aid for self-directed learning in an integrated curriculum. The results clearly indicate that the ESP study was successful in doing so but still needs to be developed in the future in a careful and considered way by teams who have resources, capacity, support and expertise.

Chapter 6

A Framework for Developing Interactive ESP Study Guides

6.1 INTRODUCTION

An instructional design framework gives structure and meaning to an instructional design problem and it helps to visualize the problem and, to break it down into discrete, manageable units. A framework is judged by how it mediates the designer's intention; how well it can share a workload and how effectively it shifts focus away from itself toward the object of the design activity. An instructional framework prescribes how combinations of instructional strategy components should be integrated to produce a course of instruction (Qureshi, 2006:1). In this chapter a model or framework is proposed for the writing of interactive ESP study guides.

6.2 KEY ASPECTS RELEVANT TO THE PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

An overview of the literature in chapter 2 paid attention to various language theories and principles relevant to designing an ESP study guide. The theories that were highlighted were the various learning theories such as behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism (cf. Chapter 2) as well as second language acquisition theories where the interactionist theories were elaborated on. The literature (cf. Ellis, 2005; Krashen, 1985; Pica, 1994) indicates that interaction, negotiation, input, output are essential elements of second language acquisition. The results showed (cf. Chapter 5) that more than 70% of the learners indicated that the ESP study guide helped them to study autonomously i.e. the interaction between the content (the learning process) and the learner was sufficient. These learning and second language acquisition theories are applied in the first phase called "Pre-planning the study guide" of the proposed framework under step 3 (cf. Figure 6.2).

Chapter 3 provided an overview of the origins of English for Specific Purposes (ESP); its key notions as well as the features of ESP courses (cf. Chapter 3).

The features of ESP courses include authentic materials, the purpose-related orientation and self-direction (cf. Abdullah, 2002; Dumitrescu, 2000; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 1998). The designing of instructional materials was also addressed in Chapter 3. An overview of the literature (cf. Chapter 3) indicated that designing language-learning materials consists, firstly, of planning instructional materials, secondly, preparing to write the instructional materials and thirdly, writing and re-writing the instructional materials. The first phase of designing learning materials consists of conducting a needs analysis, agreeing on aims and objectives, choosing your media, outlining the content, planning learner support, considering existing materials etc. (cf. Rowntree, 1992; Rothwell et al., 1998; Cochrane, 2000; Young, 2005). All these aspects are included in the second phase of the framework (cf. Figure 6.3: Phase 2). The interactionist theories, which are also included in chapter 2 and phase 1 of the framework, are also included in phase 2 of the framework with regards to the tasks and the feedback.

The second phase of designing learning materials is preparing to write the learning materials. This phase consists of aspects such as weighing up resources and constraints, sequencing ideas; developing ESP tasks/activities, feedback, finding relevant examples, adding relevant graphics, deciding on access devices, considering the physical format of the learning materials, etc. (cf. Ausubel, 1968; Benson, 1997; Rowntree, 1992; Rothwell et al., 1998; Wileman, 1980). The writing and re-writing phase starts when all the components have been gathered. Once the study guide has been written, it is important that it is reviewed as a whole. The sections that are regarded as irrelevant should then be omitted or rewritten (cf. Chapter 3).

The results of the research (cf. Chapter 5) indicated that the learners' perceptions and concerns of the study guide used in the ESP course were positive and also confirms that the various aspects regarding learning materials design addressed in chapter 2 and chapter 3 are important. The results indicated that the learners were overwhelmingly positive about the outcomes in the study guide. This includes the clarity and formulation of the outcomes, how the content and outcomes are related, how the outcomes were related to the questions in the exam papers etc. The learners'

perceptions and concerns regarding the presentation of the study guide also proved to be positive. More than 60% of the learners indicated that they were positive about the quality of the outside page and the way in which the study guide was bound. In chapter 3 (cf. 3.4.2.8) the importance of the physical format is highlighted as well as in the proposed framework (cf. figure 6.3: Phase 2).

The learner's indicated that the embedded support structures were relevant although some of the learners indicated that the icons proved to be a problem (cf. Table 5.3). The embedded support devices are applied in the proposed framework (cf. Figure 6.3: phase 2) as "step 5: Planning learner support". Over 80% of the learners pointed out that there were enough self-evaluation exercises, however, there was a discrepancy with regards to the feedback given by the lecturers (cf. Chapter 5). Only a third of the learners indicated that they received feedback on a regular basis so they could monitor their progress (cf. Table 5.4). The proposed framework indicates that there should be self-evaluation and evaluation exercises (cf. Figure 6.3: phase 2) when tasks and activities are developed for the study guide.

The results indicated (cf. Chapter 5) that approximately 50% of the learners had to still make summaries and less than 8% of them indicated that the graphic representations assisted them in the learning process (cf. Table 5.6). The results indicated (cf. Table 5.6) that less than 50% agreed that enough tasks/activities were included in the ESP study guide that supported individual learning styles. The framework (cf. Figure 6.3: phase 2) proposes that activities and tasks supporting learners' various learning styles should be included or considered when planning the ESP study guide.

The learners experienced the administrative information provided in the ESP study guide as positive as 70% of them agreed that they knew exactly where, when and how to contact a lecturer. The time schedule also proved to be helpful to the learners with more than 72% of them agreeing that it proved them with deadlines for assignments etc. What proved to be problematic, however, were the pre-requisites to the ESP course. More than 57% of the learners were uncertain whether they required the necessary knowledge and

skills at the entry level of the course i.e. the necessary pre-requisites. A test should be conducted in phase 1, step 1 “Profiling the Learners” (cf. Figure 6.2: Phase 1 – Pre-planning the ESP study guide) of the ESP study guide development process in order to determine whether the learners have the necessary skills and knowledge to complete the ESP course.

The results indicated (cf. Chapter 5) that more than 72% of the learners agreed that the study guide facilitated them in studying autonomously and more than 55% of the learners agreed that the study guide was an essential part of their learning process. The results furthermore indicated that 55% of the learners indicated that the study guide provided them with enough guidance with regards to learner preparation for the contact sessions. The framework (cf. Figure 6.3: Phase 2: Planning the ESP study guide) proposes that the learner’s preparation for each contact session should be included in the advance organisers for each study unit so that the learners can pre-plan for the contact sessions.

An overview of the literature and the results (Cf. Chapter 2, 3 & 5) indicated that there are various theories and principles of SLA as well as various instructional design features that have to be taken into consideration when designing an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) study guide. The results (cf. Chapter 5) showed that some of the aspects that were addressed in the literature chapters (cf. Chapter 2 & 3) were lacking in the ESP study guide that was analysed.

Academic Support Services’ analysis of the study guide indicated that the study guide adhered to most of the aspects proposed although that there were some deficiencies. The feedback in the study guide proved to be problematic as too little feedback was given during the course of the study guide. Another aspect that needed attention were the tasks as a lot of them lent themselves to lecturer preparation and not to learner preparation. This could cause a problem as the lecturer might either not prepare or the learner might not prepare for class. The tasks could also be more law orientated.

The following section attempts to propose a framework for developing an ESP study guide.

6.3 THE PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

The purpose of the proposed framework is to give structure and meaning to an instructional design problem, enabling the ESP lecturer to negotiate his/her design task. Instructional design frameworks have been developed to fit into the numerous theoretical models and philosophical expectations so as to address the needs, desires and expectations of the ESP learners. The framework proposed in this chapter for developing ESP study guides (cf. Figure 6.1) consists of three main phases:

- Phase 1: Pre-planning the ESP study guide
- Phase 2: Planning the ESP study guide
- Phase 3: Writing and re-writing the study guide

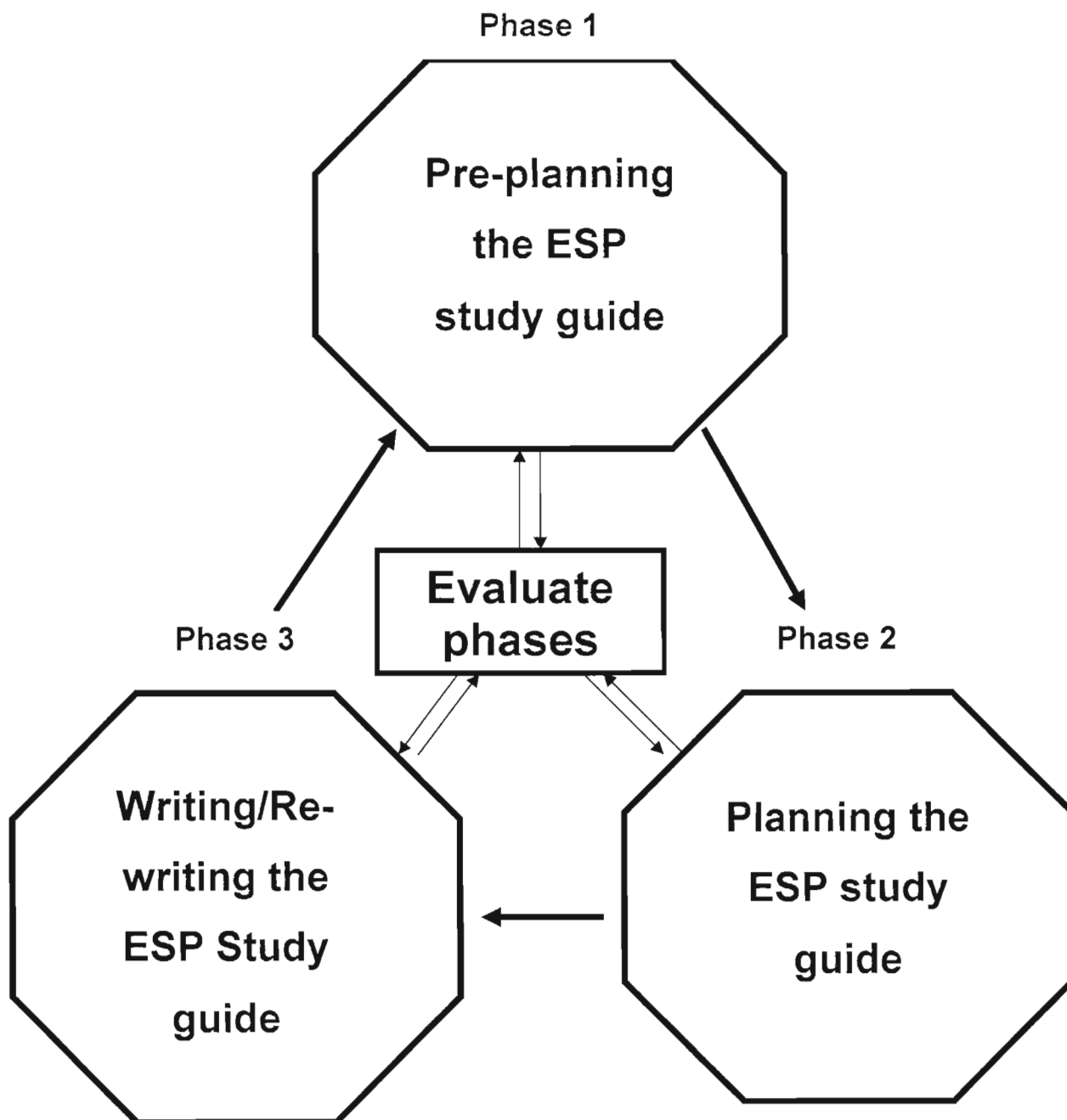


FIGURE 6.1: A framework for developing an ESP study guide

These three phases are evaluated after every phase by the lecturer writing the study guide, to determine every phase's appropriateness and effectiveness. Each phase is then subdivided into various steps (cf. Figures 6.2-6.3). Each of these phases and their various steps are now discussed.

6.3.1 Phase 1: Pre-planning the ESP study guide

An important part of ESP study guide design is identifying the purpose of each study unit in the study guide, its primary audience and the expectations for learner outcomes and experiences. Pre-planning the ESP study guide also means profiling the learners, pre-planning interaction and communication as well as incorporating learning theories. Pre-planning the ESP study guide consists of various steps (cf. Figure 6.2), namely:

- Step 1: Profiling the learners and conducting a needs analysis
- Step 2: Consider/apply second language acquisition principles
- Step 3: Consider/apply relevant theories

The first in the pre-planning phase when designing the ESP study guide, is profiling the ESP learners and conducting a needs analysis. Profiling the learners is essential, as this will provide the necessary background information on every ESP learner in order to plan the relevant instructional strategies in the ESP study guide. The learners' English language level should also be determined. This includes the learners' English language knowledge and skills. The second part of this step is to analyse the needs of the students. If the needs are clear, the learning outcomes can be expressed clearer. If the learners' needs are not taken into consideration, the ESP study guide and the ESP course will be based on unsuitable or irrelevant material and this may disillusion the learners with the value of instruction or their capacity to learn the language and this may lead to low motivation (Mackay & Mountford, 1978). The needs assessment provides the lecturer with the basis on which to construct new knowledge and by using what the learners know, he/she will explain, exemplify, and conceptualise the knowledge to be conveyed. The lecturer writing the ESP study guide should also consider Academic Support Services' guidelines on how to write study guides throughout the pre-planning phase.

The second is applying second language acquisition principles to the planning of the ESP study guide. As part of the discourse of educational research,

SLA theory has been said to either have a direct or indirect effect on the instructional design of ESP materials. Various principles such as that ESP materials should help learners feel at ease and should help learners develop confidence (cf. Chapter 2) are but a few of the principles that apply to language materials development. SLA research has offered research that language intake is facilitated when language learners are engaged in the negotiation of meaning, as when attempting to find an outcome of a problem-solving task. The various SLA interactionist theories should also be considered when planning the ESP study guide (cf. Chapter 2). This research needs to be taken into consideration when designing and implementing tasks and activities in the ESP study guide.

The third step in this first phase is to apply relevant theories to the ESP study guide when planning. It is essential that learners become active participants in the learning process. When planning the ESP study guide the lecturer should recognise the importance of all three levels of interaction: learner-instructor, learner-content and learner-learner interaction (cf. chapter 2). Interaction strategies that can be employed in the study guide are class discussions, learner presentations, question and answer etc. There should be instructional strategies placed in the ESP study guide that promote interaction that allows learners to develop personal knowledge and construct personal meaning from the information.

The goal of any instructional framework is to promote learning. Therefore, before any ESP study guide can be planned, the lecturer has to know the principles of learning and how learners learn. There are many schools of thought on learning and not one is used exclusively to design ESP study guides. The ESP lecturer must, therefore, be aware of the different approaches to learning in order to select the most appropriate instructional strategies. When the behaviourist, cognitivist and constructivist schools of thought are analysed, it is clear that many aspects overlap. The design of an ESP study guide can include principles from all three learning theories.

Not only is it essential to pre-plan the ESP study guide but also do a proper planning of the ESP study guide. Specially planned and designed ESP

learning materials (e.g. study guide) can contribute remarkably to the success of the ESP course.

6.3.2 Planning the ESP study guide

An instructional framework can be defined as a set of resources and activities which implement interacting, interrelated, structured experiences that are designed to achieve specific educational objectives (Qureshi, 2006:1). All instructional designers agree on the need for effective planning of the design and development process of ESP study guides (cf. Rowntree, 1994, Rothwell et al., 1998). The success of this process largely depends on the preparation and planning of the ESP study guide, with essential elements such as clear indications of what will be done, who will do it and by when.

ESP learners come into a class hoping to achieve something at the end of the day. In learning a language, the ultimate aim is to be able to utilise the language in day-to-day tasks and most importantly to utilise it in a career. The focus of the framework in designing an ESP study guide is on the learner's success in learning that language, thus achieving the outcomes as stipulated in the study guide. Every step, as stipulated in chapter 3 and Figure 6.3, can contribute to the success of the ESP study guide. Research (cf. McCombs & Whisler, 1997) has shown that learning is enhanced in contexts where learners have supportive relationships, have a sense of ownership and control over the learning process, and can learn with and from each other in safe and trusting learning environments. These types of learning environments can only be created if the ESP lecturer plans the study guide satisfactorily and comprehensively. Essential aspects that lecturers should consider when planning an ESP study include the following thirteen steps (cf. Figure 6.3; Chapter 3):

- Step 1: Decide on content
- Step 2: Agree on outcomes
- Step 3: Choose media/physical format
- Step 4: Decide on advance organisers
- Step 5: Plan learner support (scaffolding)
- Step 6: Consider existing materials

- Step 7: Weigh up resources and constraints
- Step 8: Sequence ideas
- Step 9: Develop ESP activities/tasks
- Step 10: Feedback
- Step 11: Find and add examples
- Step 12: Add graphics/visuals
- Step 13: Decide on access devices

These steps are essential for developing an ESP study guide. What is important is that the lecturer developing or writing the ESP study guide should take Academic Support Services' guidelines for writing a study guide into consideration in every step in this phase. The first step that the lecturer designing the ESP study guide should take into consideration, is deciding what *content* will be included in the ESP study guide. In the ENGL 122 study guide the lecturer decided that the four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing will apply to the needs of the learners as they were all students of law and these skills would prove essential for them in their career. The lecturer who developed this study guide decided to commence with speaking skills that are necessary for law students and titled the unit "Let's Interact". The content for this unit included:

Study section 1.1: Telephoning

Study section 1.2: Meetings

Study section 1.3: Interviews

Study section 1.4: Negotiating.

In order to place these aspects in the study guide the lecturer should collect as much potential teaching material as possible and then decide on what content will be appropriate to suit the needs of the ESP learners. The content can only be decided once the learners have been profiled and a needs assessment has been conducted.

Once the content has been decided on, the outcomes that need to be achieved are then stated. These outcomes should assist the learners with acquiring certain language skills and knowledge as well as developing a

positive attitude towards language. These outcomes should be realistic and should be relevant to how the lecturer conceptualises the content of the ESP course (Nunan, 1988). An example from the ENGL 122 study guide would be:

- Explain how to prepare for a telephone call;
- Make an effective and accurate telephone call;
- Ask for repetition; and
- Begin and end a telephone call accurately.

The outcomes in the example above relate to the topic of “Telephoning”. These outcomes are relevant and realistic and can be achieved by the learners

The lecturer then decides on the physical format or media that he/she will use. This could be print-based format or technological format such as Computer Assisted Language Learning or CALL or a combination of both formats. *Varsit-e* has been introduced at the North-West University as a content management system that lecturers can utilise to develop an electronic study guide. Other options include a study guide with technologically enhanced features such as a CD-Rom or a DVD.

Once the format has been decided on, the ESP lecturer can then decide on advance organisers and then plan learner support (scaffolding) in the study guide. It is also essential that the learners be informed of the preparation they need to do in order to participate during the contact session in the form of an advance organiser. The learner support included in the ENGL 122 study guide consists of the content being divided into “chunks” of learning in order that the learners did not feel overwhelmed with enormous amounts of information. The following is an example (telephoning) of support structures employed in the study guide:

Listen to the following recording and list the problems you think occurred.

My thoughts are:

- not checking that you have understood or have been understood correctly
- failing to double-check time and dates
- misunderstandings reflect badly on salesperson's company (Caller)
- speaking too fast

a) In your groups make a list of any other problems you find irritating or have encountered before while being on the phone.

b) Discuss the following question in your groups:
Can we address the abovementioned problems and how?

The learners are given a section to listen to first and are then asked to list any problems they could identify. Feedback is then given on possible problems. The learners are then given an opportunity to do group work which will give them an opportunity to develop speaking skills. Learners will also receive instant feedback from group members. The lecturer has scaffolded this learning process successfully and has managed to apply support structures in the form of group work so that no learner should feel anxious about approaching the subject matter.

The lecturer should then consider existing language learning materials that may be utilised and weigh up resources and constraints. According to Graves (1996:56), in order to select materials, the following issues should be taken into account:

- Effectiveness of achieving the outcomes of the course;
- The appropriateness of the material, so that the learners will feel comfortable; and
- The feasibility of the material so that the material will be in accordance with the learners' capabilities and the course will not be too difficult for them.

All ideas can then be sequenced and the ESP tasks and activities can be developed. These tasks should enhance second language acquisition (cf. Chapter 2) and should therefore take second language acquisition principles into consideration. The following is an example of a language task from the ENGL 122 study guide that forms part of a sequence of tasks on telephoning skills:

Structure of a call

According to Sweeney (1997:34), a call can be structured in the following way:

Beginning

- introduce yourself
- get who you want
- small talk
- state problem/reason for call (making/changing an arrangement/appointment; complaining)

Middle

- ask questions
- get/give information

- confirm information
- requesting help/assistance, etc.

End

- signal end
- thank other person
- small talk
- refer to next contact
- close call
- check that there's nothing else to say.

Task

Listen to the recording of a phone call between Ms. Bangeni, who is requesting assistance on a number of issues, and Mr Pheto.

Discuss the following questions:

- Do you think this phone call followed the abovementioned structure?
- If not, why?
- What improvements would you recommend?

Now, it's your turn to practise!

In pairs: Firstly, **role play** the conversation and secondly, **write out** the conversation in dialogue form.

Caller A: Mr/Ms Moletsane

- Call the Edward Hotel in Durban to confirm your reservations for tomorrow night for three nights: one double and one single room.
- The person staying in the single room (Mr. Littlewood) will require the room for an extra night - is this OK?

- You will be arriving at 11pm, so make sure the rooms are kept for you till then. You will be paying by Diner's Club card (456 9210 2123 4).
- Will you be able to get a meal in the hotel when you arrive?

Reception Manager Edward Hotel

- You are the Reception Manager at the Edward Hotel in Durban.
- Someone will call to confirm his/her reservations. The computer confirms that the caller has a firm reservation for a twin-bedded room and a single room for tomorrow for three nights.
- The Gunston 500 is being held this week and all your single rooms are fully booked for the next ten days. There are one or two doubles available.
- You will only hold reserved rooms till 9pm unless you have confirmed reservations by American Express or Diner's Club.
- Note the caller's name and the name of the person who will occupy the single room. Also find out his/her contact phone number.
- The coffee shop serves meals till 2am.

In this example the learners are first given the information on the structure of a call. The learners are then asked to listen to a phone call between two people and they are then asked to analyse and discuss the telephone conversation. The learners are then afforded the opportunity to role-play a telephone conversation in pairs after the topics are given to them in the study guide. In this example second language acquisition principles such as that language learning materials should help learners develop confidence and what is being taught should be relevant and useful apply. After the tasks are given, there should be feedback.

The results indicated that the learners deemed feedback as very important and that this lacked in the ESP study guide that was evaluated. The learners indicated that feedback should be given on a regular basis (cf. Chapter 5).

Feedback can be applied from three sources. It can be given by the lecturer, peers and the study guide itself. It should be stated in the study guide that the feedback from the lecturer will be given during the contact session or will be placed on a notice board. Feedback should also be given from peers in the form of group activities etc. Feedback in the study guide can either be placed at the back of the study guide as an addendum or directly after an activity in the study guide, depending on the goal of the activity. The lecturer developing the study guide should plan the feedback carefully and revise the feedback given on the activities at regular intervals. The following is an example of a language task and its feedback from the ENGL 122 study guide. This task requires that the law student uses language structures to create questions in formal situations.

Task

Answer the following question:

- How would you ask for repetition of information that you didn't hear properly or didn't understand (Focus on your language use)?

Feedback

I thought of the following:

- Excuse me, the line is rather bad, could you repeat the number please?
- Sorry, I didn't understand that, could you repeat please?
- Sorry, I didn't catch your company's name. Could you spell it please?

In this example the lecturer included immediate feedback after the question.

The following is another example of feedback from the ENGL 122 study guide. In this example of a task, punctuation is required. The law student will have to be able to punctuate texts such as letters, reports etc. in law related environments.

Punctuate the following passage by inserting the necessary capital letters and full stops to make it a series of correctly punctuated sentences;

after a busy day at the office, jenny reached home closing the door behind her, she struggleg to remove her soaking mackintosh as usual her cat, snowball, started to rub against her legs, letting jenny know someone else was hungry in the kitchen the remains of breakfast, cereal bowl, plate, cup, saucer and marmalade pot were just as jenny had left them in her usual morning rush following her customary evening routine jenny filled the kettle with water and plugged it in next she turned on the radio and said as usual to snowball, 'who's for his dinner, then?'

Feedback

Guidelines to the answers will be provided during the contact session.

In this example provided above the lecturer decided that the feedback would be given in the contact session after the task had been completed. Relevant examples should then enhance the instructional process in the ESP study guide. An example of this from the ENGL 122 guide is:

When leaving or taking messages consider the following language structures:

- Can/could you give ... a message?
- Please tell him/her ...
- Can I leave him/her a message?
- Please ask him/her to ring me on ...
- Can I take a message?
- Would you like to leave a message?

Graphics can then be added to improve the learning experience and access devices such as icons, numbering, a holistic table of contents for each unit of learning etc. can then be applied to the ESP study guide (cf. chapter 3).

Planning the ESP study guide meticulously is essential, as stated earlier, for the success of ESP language learning. The ultimate aim of any language course or study guide is the acquisition of certain language skills and knowledge. The learner should ultimately be able to apply these skills and knowledge to the workplace or field of study and this can only be achieved if all the aforementioned aspects are taken into consideration.

The last step in the proposed framework is writing and re-writing the ESP study guide.

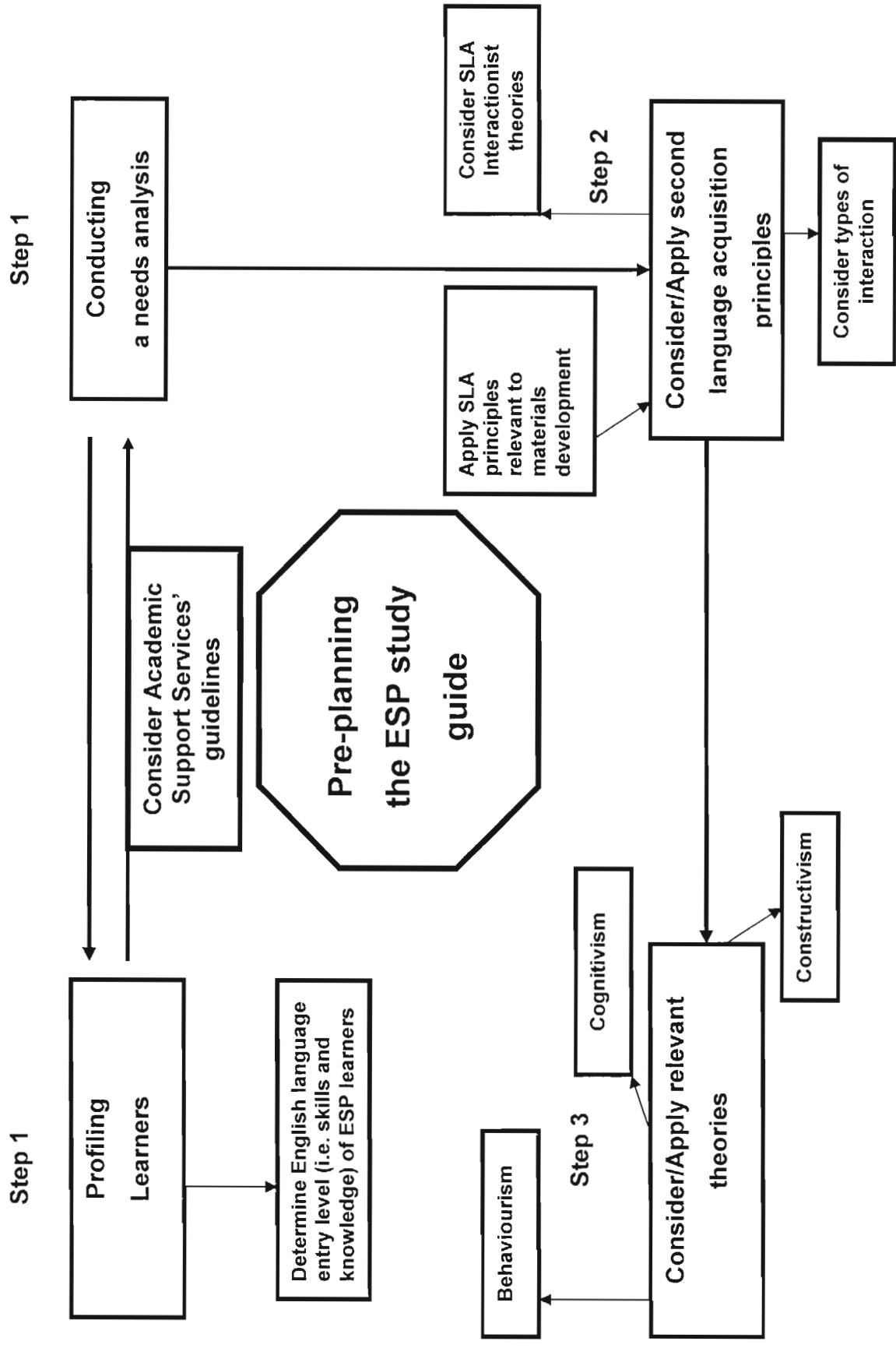


FIGURE 6.2: PHASE 1 – Pre-planning the ESP study guide

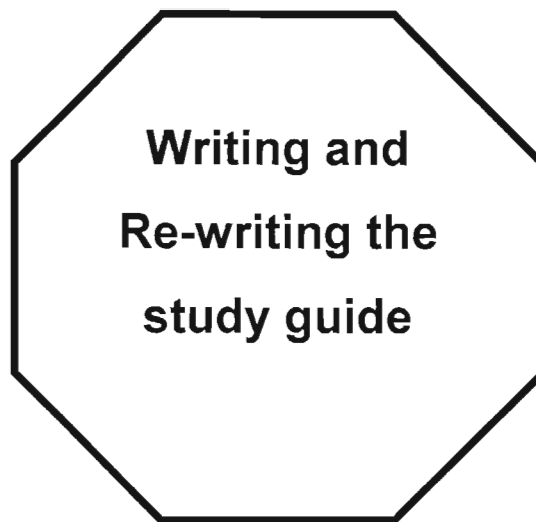


FIGURE 6.4: PHASE 3 Writing and re-writing the study guide

6.3.3 Writing and re-writing the study guide

The final step in this process is writing and re-writing the study guide. The writing of the ESP study guide is dependant on the meticulous planning thereof. A draft (skeleton) of the study guide should be created first. After a draft has been created, that is, the planning of the study guide (cf. Figure 6.2) has been taken into consideration; the lecturer should start with step 1 of the planning phase (cf. Figure 6.3). Once all these steps have been included, the lecturer should read the study guide and test whether all the requirements have been met and specifically, whether all the outcomes can be achieved by the learners. Once this has been done, the study guide should be evaluated in order to determine whether it meets the necessary requirements. This evaluation can be done by the lecturer that wrote the study guide or by another language lecturer. The sections in the study guide that are highlighted during the evaluation that don't meet the necessary requirements should then be re-written until they meet the necessary requirements.

6.4 Conclusion

The framework proposed in this chapter included three phases, which can be used to develop an ESP study guide. They include pre-planning the study guide, planning the study guide and writing/re-writing the study guide. It is possible to shorten the instructional development process and it should be done only after considering the needs of the learner, the requirements of the

content, and the constraints facing both lecturer and learner. Adhering to the framework proposed in this study won't overcome all obstacles to language learning. It will, however, provide a process and procedural framework for addressing the instructional and language learning challenges that will arise. It is, therefore, essential that the planning and presentation of ESP learning materials (e.g. study guide) be given careful consideration as it can maximise the opportunities of language learners to achieve their full potential.

Chapter 7

Conclusion and Recommendations for Further Research

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the main aspects in the literature research and empirical studies, which have been conducted in this study, are discussed. After this has been done, recommendations for further research are made.

The purpose of this study was to:

- Determine what theories and principles, are relevant, and how they relate, to materials development for ESP courses;
- Determine what principles of SLA are relevant, and how they relate, to materials development for ESP courses;
- Determine what the perceptions and concerns of learners are with regard to the structure and usefulness of the interactive study guides used in an ESP course;
- Determine what the implications of the learners' perceptions and concerns are for the design of interactive study guides for an ESP course; and
- Develop a framework, based on reviewed literature, the analysis of the interactive study guides, and the analysis of lecturers' and students' perceptions and concerns of the interactive study guides, that can be used for the design of interactive study guides in ESP courses.

7.2 CONCLUSION

In this section conclusions are made in terms of the literature research and the empirical component of the study.

7.2.1 Literature Research/Study

In Chapter 2 theories and principles relevant to the development of ESP learning materials (e.g. study guides) were discussed. The literature has proven that there are various relevant theories that are essential for the development of ESP learning materials (e.g. study guide).

Chapter 2 paid attention to various learning theories e.g. behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism that are important for ESP study guide development. Behaviourism which was the first learning theory that was widely accepted in language learning in which language was seen as a form of behaviour. Behaviourism was soon discarded, as language learning was no longer seen as being acquired by habit formation.

Cognitivist learning perspectives indicate knowledge acquisition is not relevant unless the information is learned and understood in a meaningful way. Ausubel's theory is deemed as important for study guide development as it is concerned with how individuals learn large amounts of meaningful material from verbal/textual presentations in a school setting. Ausubel's main contribution is that of advance organisers which act as a bridge between new learning material and existing related ideas. The use of advance organisers will assist lecturers when developing the ESP study guide as it will provide language learners with a clear, holistic picture of the content and the relationship between different parts of the content.

Constructivism is the third learning theory addressed in chapter 2. It is clear from the research that constructivists believe that learners construct their own reality based upon their perceptions of experiences. An individual's knowledge is therefore viewed as a function of their prior experiences, mental structures, and beliefs that are used to interpret objects and events. Learning is viewed as an interactive, social and contextual process. Constructivists also believe that learners learn to learn as they learn. Bruner's role in the constructivist theory revolves around the concepts of meanings that are created and negotiated within a community (cf. Chapter 2; Bruner, 1990). These concepts or categories help the language learner to incorporate and

assess incoming information to provide the learner with a meaningful map of the world.

Holmberg's *Guided Didactic Conversation* (cf. Chapter 2 from 2.2.2.3.2), takes into consideration that the distance learner is placed in a situation where he/she has much greater chances than the conventional learners by individually selecting what he/she is to partake of and what he can ignore with regard to face-to-face instruction, television programmes, tutorial comments on assignments etc. This an essential aspect to take into consideration by the lecturer when planning an ESP study guide, especially where there is less contact between lecturer and learner.

Another important aspect of materials development is the interactionist theories in second language acquisition. Michael Long's *Interaction Hypothesis* is also deemed as important for second language acquisition to occur in conversations when meaning is negotiated. Other researchers (cf. Pica, 1994; Long, 1985) have found that SLA is facilitated only under certain conditions. Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input theory is deemed as important for SLA acquisition as he theorises that language can only be acquired if the learner understands the message. Swain (1995) in her "comprehensible output hypothesis" asserts that output is also critical for SLA as comprehensible output assists learners in conveying meaning while providing linguistic challenges. These interactionist theories provide essential components that need to be taken into consideration when developing an interactive ESP study guide.

Moore and Kearsley's (1996) three types of interaction: learner-learner, learner-content, and learner-instructor interaction are considered as essential in developing an ESP study guide. Learner-content interaction enhances the probability of knowledge construction and therefore comprehensible input plays a vital role, as learners will not be able to learn what they do not comprehend (cf. Krashen, 1980, 1982; Long, 1983, 1985). Learner-content interaction is made possible through learning activities which promote this type of interaction.

Learner-instructor interaction is the second type of interaction defined by Moore and Kearsley (1996). From the research (cf. Chapter 2) it is clear that learners desire to have learner-instructor interaction as the instructor helps to make linguistic features and content comprehensible. This entails that the study guide provides space for feedback from the language lecturer

Learner-learner interaction is the third major type of interaction, which is intended to promote understanding of the course content and stimulate critical thinking in the ESP study guide. Research (cf. Chapter 2 from 2.2.1.2.3) has proven that interaction is effective amongst second language learners if they have the necessary linguistic skills. Negotiation of meaning may also occur between learners when interacting in the target language. Feedback is only provided when there is a communication difficulty and this can be provided in different forms such as providing the trigger participant with the target language data for attempting a modified version of the utterance.

Chapter 2 paid attention to various principles of second language acquisition that specifically relate to materials development. These principles (cf. Chapter 2 from 2.2.3.1 to 2.2.3.15) address issues such as materials should help learners feel at ease, help learners develop confidence, should not rely too much on controlled practice etc. All these aspects are essential for second language acquisition and, therefore, language learning, and should be considered by the lecturer developing an ESP study guide.

Chapter 3 focussed on the origins and key notions of English for Specific purposes (ESP). Strevens (1988) defines ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics (cf. Chapter 3 from 3.3.1). Three features that are common to ESP courses, namely i) authentic materials, ii) purpose-related orientation and iii) self-direction, are also discussed. Authentic materials have become popular and also an integral part of developing tasks for language learning. In the purpose related orientation language learners develop their understanding of the conventions of language use by engaging in the kinds of language activity found in real life, and not by learning lists of rules. The research (cf. Chapter 3 from 3.3.2.3) has shown that self-directed learning is an essential part of ESP courses as it turns learners into users. The lecturer

developing an ESP course needs to take this into consideration when planning an ESP study guide, as it should empower the language learner to become self-directed in his/her language learning process.

Chapter 3 also focused on all the aspects of the designing of ESP instructional materials. The designing of ESP instructional materials is dependent on three major steps: planning the study guide, preparing to write the study guide and writing and re-writing the study guide. Every step consists of various aspects that are important to consider when designing an ESP study guide (cf. Chapter 3 from 3.4.1).

The planning of the study guide consists of various phases. The needs analysis is the most important aspect as there are needs that need to be met in a language course. The lecturer needs to determine the learners' needs before writing the ESP study guide. The outcomes of the course as well as the outcomes for every study unit in the study guide can then be determined. The media or format e.g. printed, multi-media etc. should then be determined and the outline of the content should be planned. According to the research (cf. Chapter 3), learner support within the study guide should then be planned meticulously and scaffolded throughout the study guide. The last aspect that needs consideration is that the lecturer should consider existing materials that may be useful for tasks etc. in the study guide.

When preparing to write the ESP study guide, the lecturer should weigh up the resources and constraints that may hinder or advantage the learners who are going to use the study guide. These resources and constraints also apply to the writing of the study guide in terms of cost, availability of tutors etc. Ideas and content should then be sequenced to fit the needs of the learners. Research (cf. Chapter 3, 3.4.2.2) indicates that there are many ways in which content can be sequenced (cf. Fardouly, 2000; Rothwell et al., 1998).

Developing ESP activities form an integral part of the study guide. Research indicates that activities provide opportunities for practice and that they require that learners apply their new knowledge and skills. Within the ESP context, communicative language teaching is important to consider and lecturers

should take this into consideration when developing tasks for the study guide. Feedback, either in the study guide or from the lecturer is important as it informs the learners about the results of their actions. The lecturer should therefore, plan the format of the feedback carefully.

Implementing examples in the study guide is essential as it assists the learners in understanding the content and the example relates to a certain context. Once the examples have been planned the lecturer can plan graphics to be used in the study guide. Wileman (1980) introduced three reasons why visualisation is a powerful communication: (1) a visual message can be attention-getting, (2) a visual message can be efficient, and (3) a visual message can be effective. Advance organisers are also effective when the lecturer plans the use of graphics in the study guide (cf. Chapter 2; Chapter 3).

Access devices such as white space, headings, bulleted lists etc. serve to make the content more accessible to the learners using the study guide. Discrepancies were detected with the use of icons as access devices in study materials. Research (cf. Wood, 1996) found that learners were positive about the icons used but that learners found occasional inconsistencies with the use of icons. The researcher also found that some of the learners were positive about the icons used and others found them confusing and distracting. The lecturer developing the study guide should take these criticisms (cf. Chapter 3 from 3.4.2.7) into consideration when planning to write the study guide.

The last stage is writing and re-writing the ESP study guide. The style of writing is important and research proves that a conversational style is the best as learners can then easily access the content. Moore and Kearsley (1996) suggest that first person rather than third person should be used and the vocabulary should be kept as simple as possible. The whole idea is that the study guide should substitute normal discussions between a lecturer and a learner in a classroom setting.

Once all these aspects have been taken into consideration and the study guide has been written, the study guide should be evaluated by another ESP

lecturer and an instructional designer in order to determine whether all the requirements have been met.

7.2.2 Empirical study

The next section is dedicated to the empirical study that was done in order to determine the learners' and the lecturers' perceptions and concerns of the ESP study guide.

7.2.2.1 The learners' perceptions and concerns of the study guide

The following post-hoc categories were used to determine the learners' perceptions and concerns of the ENGL 112/122 study guide:

- ✓ The outcomes in the study guide;
- ✓ Presentation of the study guides;
- ✓ Embedded support structures in the study guide;
- ✓ Opportunities for self-evaluation (monitoring);
- ✓ Evaluation;
- ✓ Learning styles;
- ✓ Administrative information;
- ✓ Use of primary texts/resources;
- ✓ Relevance of the study guide; and the
- ✓ Effectiveness of contact sessions.

The results of Table 1 (cf. Chapter 5) indicate that the learners were of the opinion that the *learning outcomes* were clearly and logically formulated and that these outcomes related to the questions in the exam paper. Research (cf. Chapter 3) indicates that clearly formulated outcomes serve as motivators that set out the skills or information that the learner is about to acquire. What is disturbing is that there was an uncertainty as to the action words that were used in the outcomes. Some learners indicated that these action words were "vague" and sometimes caused confusion.

The *presentation of the study guide* was discussed in Table 2 (cf. Chapter 5). The learners were of the opinion that the study guide was presented in the best possible way and that the quality of the study guide was good. Table 3

(cf. Chapter 5) represents the *embedded support devices* in the study guide. The learners were of the opinion that clear instructions were given to them to complete tasks although some of them were of the opinion that some of the instructions were vague or did not contain everything that was expected from them. The learners indicated that the learning strategies assisted them in with learning the content at hand.

The learners also indicated that the study guide enhanced interaction between them and the content of the module and the study guide was user friendly (cf. Table 2, Chapter 5). The icons proved to be the greatest hindrance as many learners indicated during the interviews that there were too many and it was therefore too difficult to remember what they meant.

The results in Table 4 (cf. chapter 5) indicated that the learners were overwhelmingly positive about the amount of *self-evaluation exercises* in the study guide but what was disturbing was that the learners indicated that there was not enough or any feedback at all. Research (cf. Chapter 2, Chapter 3) indicates that feedback is essential for second language acquisition and effective learning and should not be discarded. The researcher is of the opinion that the lecturer should prepare feedback for activities and add it as an addendum in the study guide or hand it out to the learners during a contact session after the exercises have been completed.

The learners were positive about the *evaluation exercises* given in the study guide (cf. Table 5, Chapter 5). They indicated that the evaluation exercises were related to the outcomes in the study guide and that they found these exercises useful. Very few of the learners were of the opinion that these exercises did not benefit them. Those of them that were negative indicated during the interviews that they found the exercises useful but the feedback was deficient and this caused them to lose interest in the exercises.

The results presented in Table 6 (cf. Chapter 5) indicated that the learners were uncertain about the existence of underlying aspects in the study guide that supported their *learning styles*. The interviews with the learners confirmed this. The researcher is of the opinion that learners need to be

informed about the various learning styles that exist and that learners should be informed that the “study tips” are in the study guide for their use and to assist them in accessing the content. Most of the learners also indicated that they still had to make separate summaries even though the study guide assisted them in learning new content.

The learners were overwhelmingly positive about the *administrative information* in the study guide (cf. Table 7, Chapter 5) although the prerequisites that were required to enter the course were problematic to the learners as very few of them could determine their own level of knowledge and skills. This seemed to cause insecurity and anxiousness with a lot of the learners which should be lessened by the study guide (cf. Chapter 2).

The learners indicated that the primary text or resources was logically integrated in the study guide (cf. Table 8, Chapter 5). No discrepancies were encountered although most of the learners indicated that the *prescribed texts* were not apt. The results in Table 9 (cf. Chapter 5) indicated that the learners were very positive that the *study guide facilitated them to study autonomously*. Very few of the learners indicated that they had a problem using the study guide to study on their own. More than half of the learners indicated that the study guide was an essential part of their learning process. Some of the learners indicated that they were uncertain whether the study guide facilitated them to study on their own.

The results in Table 10 (cf. Chapter 5) indicated that the learners were positive about the effectiveness of the contact sessions. More than half of the learners were positive that the guide provided enough guidance with regards to learner preparation for every contact session. The learners were also very positive that the lecturer could focus more on application or problem-solving during the contact session

It is clear from the empirical study that the learners were positive about the ESP study guide and that it facilitated their study immensely. Most of the learners were of the opinion that the study guide contributed to them studying effectively and some of them indicated that they could not have studied

without the study guide. The lecturer developing the study guide will have to pay attention to various aspects that the learners indicated were limitations in the study guide (e.g., feedback).

7.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY

Developing ESP study materials (e.g., study guide) is a time consuming and meticulous task, which should be undertaken with cautious planning in order to meet the needs of the ESP learners. Lecturers developing the ESP study guide will, therefore, have to change the way they teach as learners, with the assistance of the ESP study guide, will have to change the way they used to learn. Lecturers “teaching/lecturing” in traditional face-to-face contact sessions will have to change their method of teaching/lecturing and become a facilitator. This in turn means that the lecturer will have to become a life-long learner him/herself in order to facilitate discussions, debates etc. during contact sessions.

Traditional methods of delivering education have been challenged and new technological methods have been introduced (e.g., internet, CD-Rom, etc.) in higher education institutions. These changes challenge institutions to change their modes of instructional delivery as well as to research these modes of instructional delivery to determine which of them are the most appropriate for the learners. These changes in instructional delivery methods will require that lecturers be trained at either faculty or institutional level.

Action research is necessary while planning and writing the study guide in order to ensure consistent feedback. This will require a team approach to writing the study guide. The School Director and the lecturers involved in the development of the study guide should determine whom the members of the team should be. The study guide should be evaluated by this team at regular intervals in order to determine whether the study guide meets the needs of the learners and is user-friendly.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A longitudinal study should be conducted to determine whether the language learners' perceptions and concerns change over a period of time or not. The

same longitudinal study should be conducted to determine whether the lecturers' have any perceptions and concerns about developing study guides change over a period of time. Lecturers should be granted incentives for developing the study guide, as it is a time consuming process.

Research should be conducted with regards to models of e-learning or blended-delivery models of learning within the ESP context. This research should be conducted within the School of Languages as well as on an institutional level. Lecturer support and training, whether the mode of delivery is printed or technological, should be researched and implemented in order to assist lecturers in the designing of effective ESP study materials (e.g., study guide).

The results of this study indicated that feedback either from the study guide or the lecturer was a concern for the learners. Research (cf. Chapter 3) indicates that feedback is essential in learning materials but the quality; amount of feedback and the delivery method of the feedback should be researched within the study guide and the language-learning classroom, taking second language acquisition research into consideration. Technology enhanced feedback should also be researched as a viable option.

Research (cf. Chapter 3) indicates that student-relevant examples are essential and very powerful tools in language learning materials but much more research is needed in this field, especially with regards to English for Specific Purposes. The impact of relevant examples on language learning in, for example, English for Business, English for Law, English for Nursing, etc. should be researched. The relationship between second language acquisition and learner-related examples in language learning materials should be investigated.

Although most of the research around interaction has been conducted in the distance education setting, interaction and the quality of interaction between the lecturer and language learners will have to be investigated in the face-to-face contact situation at higher education institutions, as contact time between these two parties are becoming less. This will influence the planning and

writing of ESP study guides, as feedback will have to be adapted and enhanced to ensure that learners do not become anxious or demotivated. Interaction (cf. Chapter 2) influences second language acquisition but much more research is needed with regards to interaction in language learning materials and the influence thereof in second language acquisition.

The framework for the writing of ESP study guides proposed in this study (cf. Chapter 6) should also be applied and further research should be conducted on its effectiveness and appropriateness.

Another recommendation that can be made is that lecturers be afforded study leave to write the study guide, as it will relieve the pressure to conduct research and to teach as well as develop the study guide. This may enhance the quality of the study guide. The development of the study guide should be included as part of the lecturers' professional development path for their careers and this should hold further incentives for the lecturers which should be determined on an institutional level (e.g. monetary).

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

This study was conducted within a relatively short period of time. This may have influenced the results obtained. The fact that this study was done with only one class of learners in a university may also limit the extent to which the results can be generalised to other universities or populations. The framework proposed (cf. Chapter 6) has not been applied and evaluated. Limitations and deficiencies may, therefore, occur within the framework.

7.6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was twofold. It was, firstly, to determine what language learners' perceptions and concerns were of an ESP study guide that was currently in use and secondly to develop a framework for the writing of English for Specific Purposes study material. The results indicated that the learners were very positive about the study guide but that there were certain aspects such as consistent feedback that needed attention. These aspects should be taken into consideration when developing or enhancing the ESP study guide.

The framework developed in this study serves as a guideline for the developing of English for Specific learning materials. The framework consists of three main sections, namely pre-planning the study guide, planning the study guide and writing and re-writing the study guide. These steps should be taken into consideration when developing an effective ESP study guide.

Appendix A

Modulekode: _____

Lees die volgende stellings deeglik en kies die relevante nommer:

1=Stem heelhartig saam 2=stem saam 3=Onseker 4=Verskil
5=verskil heeltemal

1	Die module-uitkomst was duidelik en logies geformuleer.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Die handboek was logies geïntegreer in die studiegids.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Duidelike aanwysings was gegee aangaande die voorbereiding van geskrewe werksopdragte.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Goeie voorstelle was gemaak rondom die toepassing van vakspesifieke leerstrategieë.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Daar was gereeld oefeninge/opdragte/vrae voorsien sodat ek self my vordering deurgaans kan monitor.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Ek het presies geweet wanneer/ waar/ hoe om 'n dosent te kontak, want die inligting is volledig vervat in die studiegids.	1	2	3	4	5
7	'n Tydskedule/werkprogram was voorsien in die studiegids met die datums wanneer spesifieke lesse/aktiwiteite uitgevoer moet/gaan word.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Daar was 'n duidelike uiteensetting voorsien van hoe die evaluering in die module gaan plaasvind.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Die studiegids het my gefasiliteer/ondersteun om op my eie te kan studeer.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Wanneer ek deur 'n leereenheid gewerk het, was daar genoeg self-evalueringsoefeninge sodat ek kan toets of ek die uitkomst bemeester het.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Ek het gereelde terugvoer ontvang sodat ek my vordering kon monitor.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Visuele uitbeeldings in die studiegids het my leerproses vergemaklik.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Ek het die ikone as begeleidend ervaar.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Ek het verstaan wat elke ikoon beteken.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Die leeruitkomst het direk verband gehou met wat ek moes bemeester.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Die ikone was in die mees geskikte posisies op die bladsye geplaas.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Die studiegids het my gehelp om die uitkomst van hierdie module te bemeester.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Die tyd wat toegestaan was aan die leereenheid/gedeelte was voldoende.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Die tyd wat toegestaan was aan die module was voldoende.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Die studiegids het my interaksie met die leerinhoud van die module vergemaklik/verbeter.	1	2	3	4	5

21	Die leeruitkomste was deurgaans duidelik geformuleer	1	2	3	4	5
22	Alle evalueringsaktiwiteite (werkopdragte/toetse/eksamen) het verband gehou met die uitkomste in die leereenhede.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Ek het my studiegids betyds ontvang, m.a.w. voor die aanvang van die klasse.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Aanvullende verduidelikings in die studiegids was so volledig dat ek nie die primêre tekste/ handboek hoef te lees/bestudeer nie.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Die studiegids was onnodig uitgebreid.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Die aksiewerkwoorde het my gehelp om te verstaan wat van my verwag word wanneer ek 'n opdrag/oefening/toets moes voltooi.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Alhoewel die studiegids my leerproses begelei het, moes ek nog steeds op my eie opsom/oefen ens.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Die uitkomste van die module het duidelik verband gehou met die eksamenvraestel.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Die voorvereistes in die module-inligting het my gehelp om te bepaal of ek die nodige voorkennis en vaardighede besit om hierdie module te bemeester.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Ek het die nodige studieriglyne ontvang oor hoe om die studiegids effektief te gebruik.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Die studiegids het genoeg studiewenke bevat en my sodoende gehelp om die leeruitkomste te bereik.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Hierdie studiegids het genoeg leiding gegee rakende wat ek vir die kontakssessie se bespreking en toepassing moes voorberei.	1	2	3	4	5
33	As gevolg van die effektiwiteit van hierdie studiegids kon die dosent meer fokus op toepassing/probleemoplossing tydens die kontakssessie.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Hierdie studiegids was onontbeerlik vir my studie.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Die ikone het my deurgaans gefokus op die belangrike aspekte van die leerinhoud.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Ek was tevrede met die kwaliteit van die buiteblad en wyse waarop die studiegids gebind is.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Die self-evalueringsoefeninge wat aan my voorsien was, was nuttig	1	2	3	4	5
38	Die studiegids was gebruikersvriendelik (maklik bruikbaar)	1	2	3	4	5
39	Die voorgeskrewe handboek was geskik.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Genoeg studieleiding was in die gids verskaf sodat ek kon bepaal of my leerstrategieë effektief was	1	2	3	4	5

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