

A GENERATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR ESP COURSES

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Summary

The majority of business today is conducted in English (Griffin, 2003:4). Furthermore, research has shown that an “inability to communicate” and “poor communication skills” are frequently stated as reasons by employers as to why certain employees are not hired (Steinberg, 1995:44). This has put pressure on course developers in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to produce suitable materials that would aid in the acquisition of English as a second language and empower students and employees.

However, the rapid development in the field of ESP course design has led to certain concerns and Robinson (1991:34) states that a “common fear in literature is that course designers are reinventing the wheel”. The same concern was raised as early as 1978 by Munby (1978:1-2). The aims of this study were, therefore, to design a generative, user-friendly framework for ESP courses and to apply this framework in the design of two ESP courses.

Firstly, a survey of the literature was done and existing frameworks were analysed and their advantages and disadvantages were discussed. This led to the development and description of criteria for a new user friendly, generative framework.

A three-dimensional, generative framework was then designed. After two needs analyses have been conducted, the outlines of two ESP courses (an ESP course for pre-service Engineering students as well as an ESP pre-service course for teacher trainees) were then designed in order to test the framework. These course outlines consisted of the following elements: outcomes, tasks, texts, language focus, suggestions for techniques and classroom procedures, and assessment methods.

It is hoped that the development of the Generative Framework will contribute to the complicated and tedious process of developing effective ESP courses. The aim of the study was to aid course designers by providing a solid theoretical foundation for each course that is still relevant to the special requirements of communicating through the medium of English within a specific situation.

Furthermore, it is hoped that the steps recommended as part of the framework will save the course designer time without overlooking the needs that were identified as part of the needs analysis.

Opsomming:

Die meerderheid van besighede word vandag in Engels bestuur (Griffin, 2003:4). Navorsing het vervolgens getoon dat 'n "onvermoë om te kommunikeer" en "swak kommunikasie- vermoëns" as redes deur werkgewers aangevoer word waarom sekere werknemers nie in diens geneem word nie. (Steinberg, 1995:44). Dit het druk geplaas op kursusontwikkelaars in die veld van Engels vir Spesifieke Doeleindes (ESD) om geskikte materiaal te voorsien, wat sal bydrae tot die verwerwing van Engels as tweede taal en om studente en werknemers te bemagtig.

Nietemin het die vinnige ontwikkeling in die veld van ESD kursusontwikkeling gelei tot sekere kommer en Robinson (1991:34) verklaar dat 'n "algemene kommer in die veld van letterkunde is dat die kursusontwikkelaars die wiel wou herontwerp". Dieselfde vrees is so vroeg soos 1978 deur Munby (1978:1-2) geopper. Die doel van hierdie studie was dus om 'n effektiewe, gebruikersvriendelike raamwerk vir ESD kursusse te ontwerp en om hierdie raamwerk in die ontwerp van twee ESD kursusse aan te wend.

Daar is eerstens 'n literêre ondersoek gedoen en bestaande raamwerke is geanaliseer en hulle voor- en nadele is bespreek. Dit het tot die ontwikkeling en beskrywing van kriteria vir 'n nuwe gebruikersvriendelike, bruikbare raamwerk gelei.

'n Drie-dimensionele bruikbare raamwerk is toe ontwerp. Nadat twee behoeftebepalings (analises) uitgevoer is, is die oorsig van twee ESD kursusse ('n ESD kursus vir voorpraktiserende Ingenieursstudente sowel as 'n ESD kursus vir onderwysleerders) ontwerp met die oog daarop om die raamwerk te toets. Hierdie kursusoorlig bestaan uit die volgende elemente: uitkomst, opdragte, tekste, taalgerigtheid, voorstelle vir tegnieke en klaskamerprosedures en assesseringsmetodes.

Daar word gehoop dat die ontwikkeling van die Bruikbare Raamwerk sal bydra tot die ingewikkelde en voortdurende proses van die ontwikkeling van effektiewe ESD kursusse. Die doelwit van die studie was om kursusontwerpers behulpzaam

te wees deur 'n soliede teoretiese grondslag vir elke kursus te voorsien wat steeds relevant is met betrekking tot die spesiale vereistes van kommunikasie deur medium van Engels binne 'n spesifieke situasie. Daar word voorts gehoop dat die aanbevole stappe, as deel van die raamwerk, die kursusontwerper tyd sal bespaar, sonder om die behoeftes mis te kyk wat met die behoeftebepaling geïdentifiseer is.

Abbreviations

BICS:	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CBI:	Content-Based Instruction
CEF:	Common European Framework
CLT:	Communicative Language Teaching
CRT:	Criterion-Referenced Testing
CNP:	Communication Needs Processor
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL:	English Foreign Language
EGP:	English for General Purposes
ELT:	English Language Teaching
EOP:	English for Occupational Purposes
ESL:	English Second Language
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
EST:	English for Science and Technology
OBE:	Outcomes Based Education
PSA:	Present Situation Analysis
SILL:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
TOEFL:	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TGG:	Transformational-Generative Linguistics
TPR:	Total Physical Response
TSA:	Target Situation Analysis

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 *Problem Defined*

"Over 80% of business today is conducted in English, whether it be between native speakers and a foreigner, or between foreigners who use English as their common language." (Griffin, 2003:4). This has put pressure on course developers to produce suitable materials that would aid in the acquisition of English as a second language and empower students and employees. Tarone and Yule (1989:3) noticed this pressure among teachers of English as a second or foreign language as well: "In a sense, then, the source of dissatisfaction among language teachers is their own intuitive awareness that there is not one fixed methodology which will work with all students, and that there is no one set of materials which will guarantee successful learning for all."

As long ago as 1978, Munby (1978:3) summarised the reasons for the need for different English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in the following points:

- The spread of higher and further education and together with this the need to gain access to the required knowledge that is available either exclusively or most readily, in English is given as the first reason. An example of this is English for Science and Technology (EST).
- It has been observed in countries where there is a change in the status of English from the medium to subject that the standards of English are considered to be dropping in quite a number of cases.
- The obvious attraction to the client or learner of custom-built courses in the English that will enable him to do his job or pursue his studies, in contrast with a General English course or general literary English of which the irrelevance becomes apparent sooner or later.

Robinson (1991:22) states the main reason for the development of ESP and the distinction between ESP and English for General Purposes (EGP): "One important reason for the development of ESP was the realisation by those involved in teaching English as a foreign language that, while students might be acquiring some knowledge of English usage through EGP classes, they had not actually learned to use the language in the specialised contexts of work or study."

These reasons have certain implications for course design. One of them is that general English courses are not necessarily relevant to the content and discourse needs of the learners. According to Steinberg (1995:44), a survey in the Endicott report asked 170 American businesses to state the main reasons why certain employees were not hired. The most frequent reasons given were “inability to communicate” and “poor communication skills”.

Robinson (1991:34) states another implication of the rapid development of ESP courses: “A common fear in literature is that course designers are reinventing the wheel”. The same concern is raised by Munby (1978:1-2): “What *system* (if any) is being used to arrive at the specification of the English deemed appropriate for different purposes? If it does not exist, there is clearly a need for a model that takes account of all the potentially significant variables and systematically applies them to achieve an appropriate specification.”

Munby’s (1978:33) well-known “Communication Needs Processor” (CNP) was an attempt at just such a system or model. In the CNP he takes “account of the variables that affect communication needs by organising them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other” (Munby, 1978:32). These parameters can be divided into two broad groups, namely those that process non-linguistic data, or the “a priori parameters” (e.g. purposive domain, setting, interaction and instrumentality) and those that provide the data in the first place or the a posteriori parameters (e.g. dialect, communicative event, communicative key and target level) (Munby, 1978:32).

According to Robinson (1991:8-9), Munby’s model is the “best known framework for a TSA (*Target Situation Analysis*)”. Robinson (1991:9) summarises this type of situation analysis in the following way: “The TSA may thus pinpoint the stage at which ‘good enough’ competence for the job is reached”, but unlike the “present situation analysis” it does not seek to determine “what the students are like at the start of their language course”. Master (2005:101) also adds that the present situation analysis became more prominent in the early 1990s “after it had been made clear ... that the views of the students (clients or subjects) being taught

ESP comprised an essential element of the needs analysis". This part of the needs analysis was not taken into consideration in Munby's analysis.

Another criticism of Munby's CNP is that it is too complicated. Course designers do not usually have the time to put the whole process into practice as there are a number of factors to be taken into consideration as part of the parameters. Furthermore, he doesn't make any allowance for the process to be amended as the model is being implemented (Coffey, 1985:83).

Another drawback of Munby's CNP is that it was written in the 1970s at the start of the movement away from the grammatical syllabus to the communicative syllabus. Since then, the communicative syllabus has evolved and new instruction methods (such as content-based instruction) have been developed, and it has therefore become dated.

A need, therefore, exists for a generative framework for ESP courses that addresses specific target situation and present situation needs and that involves all the stakeholders (including the students) in the needs analysis. Furthermore, the framework should be user-friendly and should allow the course designer access to relevant theories and approaches in ESP.

Designing a generative framework for an ESP course, with the aid of a comprehensive needs analysis, would ensure that the relevant language outcomes are built into the course, and it would empower students and employees to study and communicate effectively or perform their jobs optimally within their specific context.

However, the framework will also need a vehicle of implementation or application. Munby (1978:4) states that his CNP model "does not deal with materials production and so no more of an indication is given of the implementational constraints on the syllabus specification." Richards and Rodgers (2001:24) call this vehicle of implementation "a design for an instructional system". This is "the level of method analysis in which we consider (a) what the objectives of a method are; (b) how language content is selected and organized within the method.; (c)

the types of learning tasks and teaching activities the method advocates; (d) the roles of learners; (e) the roles of teachers; (f) the role of instructional materials.”

Munby (1978:25) chose a functional design for this purpose. In light of new developments in course design since the 1970s, however, Content-Based Instruction (CBI) might be a more viable instructional system for this specific purpose. According to Brinton et al. (1989:1), CBI can be defined as “the integration of particular content with language teaching aims”, and Eskey (1997:133) states that a “basic premise of CBI is that people do not learn languages and then use them, but that people learn languages *by* using them.”

An ESP course is per definition content-based. In the Table 1-1, the characteristics of ESP courses as summarised by Robinson (1991:2-5) are mirrored against Brinton’s (2003:1) summary of the rationale for CBI.

Robinson’s summary of the characteristics of ESP courses	Brinton’s summary of the rationale for CBI
It is goal directed.	It takes into account the eventual uses the learners will make of the second or foreign language.
It is based on a needs analysis	It reflects the interests and needs of the learners.
The students are more likely to be adults than children.	It provides pedagogical accommodation to learner proficiency levels and skills.
The relevant and meaningful activities the students engage in are more important than the inclusion of specialist language.	It offers optimal conditions for second language acquisition by exposing learners to meaningful, cognitively demanding language.

Table 1-1: Comparison of CBI and ESP

It is, therefore, clear that CBI is a well-suited instructional system for ESP courses. According to Master and Brinton (1998:vii-viii), it “joins the other types of syllabi recognized in the field, namely, the grammatical, the notional-functional, the rhetorical, and the task-based syllabus” and “there is no ‘boundary’ between ESP and CBI”.

The following questions arise from the above-mentioned issues:

- What should a generative framework for ESP courses look like without making the process of course design too complicated?
- What method or design should be used to implement the framework in an actual ESP course?
- What would an ESP course outline designed in this manner look like?

1.2 Aims of the study

The aims of the thesis are to:

- Design a generative, user-friendly framework for ESP courses.
- Select a suitable method or design for the implementation of the framework.
- Design outlines of ESP courses for final year Engineering and Teaching students at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus in order to test the validity of the framework.

1.3 Method of Research

A survey of the literature was done and the following data bases were consulted: RSAT (Repertoire of South African journals), ERIC (Educational Database), the university's library catalogue, as well as Nexus (the HSRC Database). The focus of the survey included topics such as course design, situation analysis, needs analysis, English for specific purposes (ESP), and Content-Based Instruction (CBI).

A framework was then designed. Firstly, the criteria for the generative framework were determined and then the framework itself was presented.

Lecturers from the Engineering and Education Faculties at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University as well as practising professionals in the field were asked to complete questionnaires. These courses were chosen, because they are offered at a campus where the medium of instruction for full-time students is Afrikaans. These students struggle to make the transition to a working environment where English is the main mode of communication. This formed part of the needs analysis for the design of the outlines for the two

different ESP courses. These outlines were described in terms of 8 credit semester courses.

The data were collected, systematically analysed and then organised according to the framework that has been designed. The generative framework was then used to design the outlines of the courses, which consisted of descriptions of the following elements: outcomes, tasks, texts, language focus, suggestions for techniques and classroom procedures, and assessment methods.

1.4 Programme of Study

Chapter 2 discusses aspects related to course design in general. This includes the levels of course design as well as the elements of course design. Furthermore, the development of course design models is discussed and the relevance and effectiveness of a spiral course design are indicated. This is also the course design model that was integrated into the Generative Framework.

Chapter 3 deals with theoretical developments within the fields of English Second Language (ESL) and specifically ESP course design. The importance and relevance of different approaches and the methods that were developed from them are discussed. All of these developments influence the three dimensions of ESP courses, namely language, content and pedagogy and it is, therefore important for the course designer to be well-grounded in the theory.

In Chapter 4, two other frameworks for course design are discussed. These are Munby's (1978) Communication Needs Processor (CNP) and the Council of Europe's (2001) Common European Framework. These models are discussed in order to indicate their valuable contributions to ESP course design, but also to indicate their limitations and a need for a more user-friendly and generative framework for ESP courses.

Chapter 5 provides a complete discussion and explanation of the proposed Generative Framework for ESP courses, centring around the three dimensions of ESP course design and indicating how the theory (discussed in the previous chapters) can be integrated with practice (as indicated by the needs analysis).

Chapter 6 focuses on the methodology employed in conducting the needs analyses for two different courses in order to test the Generative Framework. The collected data are also presented and discussed.

In Chapter 7 the outlines for two ESP courses (one for pre-service engineering students and the other for pre-service teacher trainees) are discussed. The outlines contain outcomes, descriptions of tasks, lists of texts and materials required, the language focus of each contact session, suggestions for techniques and classroom procedures as well as assessment tasks and procedures.

Chapter 8 contains a conclusion, implications for ESP course design as well as recommendations for future research.

2. COURSE DESIGN

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the different aspects of course design are discussed. Firstly, the different levels of course design are illustrated in order to indicate that these levels are not hierarchic, but that they develop concentrically from the general level of polity determination on the outer rim to the very specific level at which decisions about methods within the teaching-learning situation are made. Secondly, different elements of course design are identified, with specific reference to Bell (1981) and how these elements situate course design within the field of Applied Linguistics. Lastly, different models for course design are discussed in order to indicate the progression from linear models to circular models.

2.2 Levels of Course Design: Moving from the General to the Specific

Figure 2-1 is an illustration of the three levels of course design as proposed by Rodgers (1989:24) and an additional level as proposed by Van der Walt (1985:78). These levels will now be discussed.

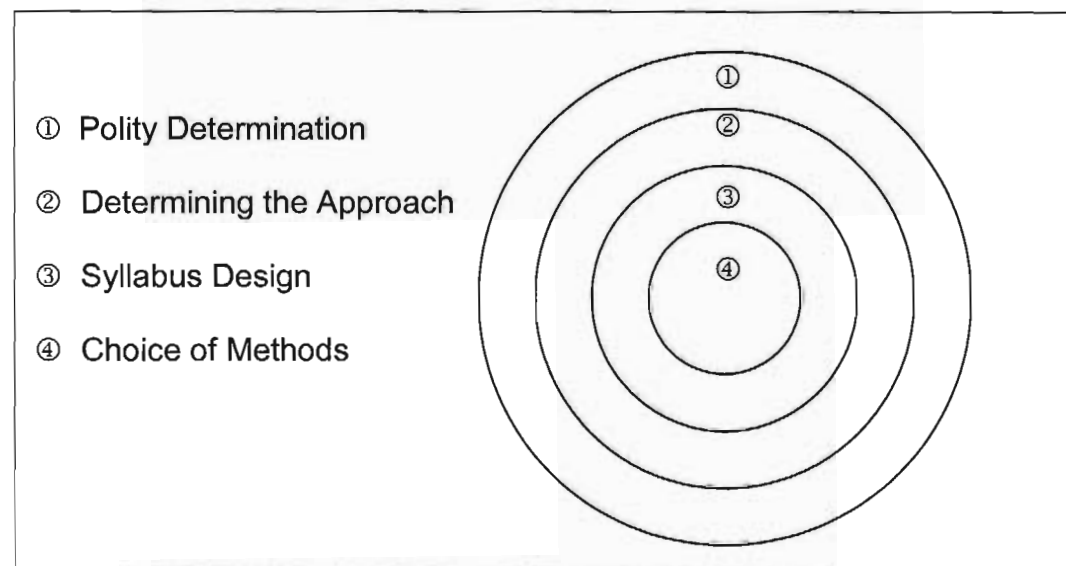


Figure 2-1: Summary of the four levels of course design

2.2.1 Polity Determination

This level is represented in the outer rim of the concentric circle. According to Rodgers (1989:29), the term “polity determination” is defined in a twofold manner, namely the analysis of the existing socio-political context, and the development of strategies to optimise the probable success and effectiveness of the programme within that specific context. Polity, therefore, refers to the specific form of political organisation, or the management of public affairs.

This level of polity determination is similar to what Bell (1981:25) identifies as the top level of his hierarchy of planning levels, namely the political level. As the guidelines provided by this level are often politically or institutionally motivated, they may “need a great deal of reformulating before they can form the basis of a set of goals for the teaching of the language” (Bell, 1981:26).

Polity determination encapsulates all the other levels and is often overlooked in the planning process. According to Rodgers (1989:24), “examination of and planning within the relevant political context is critical to the success of any educational program and ... program failures are often attributable to shortcomings” in this sort of planning.

The four main factors included in Rodgers’s (1989:31) polity planning can be described as:

- knowledge factors (e.g. the subject area, the knowledge base and outcomes)
- learner factors (e.g. teachability, motivation, and attainment expectations)
- instructional factors (e.g. curriculum design, teacher retraining possibilities, target schools and competing programmes), and
- management factors (e.g. development time, development team and development resources)

Within the context of ESP, the knowledge factors would include more than one subject area as the knowledge base consists of language as well as the students’ specialist disciplines (Robinson, 1991:18). Another aspect critical to ESP is that it “is normally goal directed” (Robinson, 1991:2). Students, therefore, study

English for study or work purposes, which is an indication that certain outcomes (identified by Rodgers (1989:31) as a knowledge factor) are already implied before the course is even designed.

The learner factors are indicated by Robinson (1991:2-3) as characteristic of, but not necessarily criterial to, ESP. According to Robinson (1991:3), students of ESP are usually adults, rather than children, as they are “in tertiary education or are experienced members of the workforce”. In terms of attainment expectations, Robinson (1991:3) also indicates that it “is often assumed that ESP students will not be beginners but will have already studied English for General Purposes (EGP) for some years”.

The management factors of ESP course design are stated by Robinson (1991:3) as a characteristic of ESP. She states that “there is usually a very clearly specified time period for the course. This means that objectives should be closely specified and their realisation related to the time available. This implies collaboration and negotiation among all those involved with the course: organisers, teachers, sponsors and students.”

2.2.2 Determining the Approach

In Richards and Rodgers’s (2001:19) summary of Anthony’s (1963) three different levels of conceptualisation and organization for course design, they define an approach as “the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified.” Even though this is still a very general level at which decisions are made, it is more specific than the previous level of Polity Determination.

Bell (1981:26-27) identifies linguistic and psychological levels that correspond with this level of determining the approach. He identifies different specialists involved in the decision-making at the approach level. On the linguistic level the “pure linguist” would focus on the nature of language, while the “applied linguist” would focus on the nature of language learning and the “sociolinguist” would focus on the pragmatics of language and language learning. On the psychological level, the “psychologist” would focus on learning theories in

general, while the “psycholinguist” (like the applied linguist) would focus on the nature of language learning. All the data supplied by these different fields of study would determine the approach taken.

The approach to course design would, therefore, be determined by the course designer and/or the other stakeholders' view of language and their theory of language learning. Throughout the years, various views of languages and various theories on language learning have developed. These are discussed in Section 3.4.

However, according to the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEF) (Council of Europe, 2001:139), at present there is “no sufficiently strong research-based consensus on how learners learn for the Framework to base itself on any one learning theory.” It should be noted that there is “considerable variation among learners of different ages, types and backgrounds as to which of these elements [approaches] they respond to most fruitfully, and among teachers, course-writers, etc. as to the balance of elements provided in courses according to the importance they attach to production vs. reception, accuracy vs. fluency, etc.” (Council of Europe, 2001:140) A generative framework should, therefore provide the course designer with information on different views of language and different theories of language learning (cf. Sections 3.4.1- 3.4.4).

The CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:141) states that it is the responsibility of course designers to “make concrete, detailed decisions on the selection and ordering of texts, activities, vocabulary and grammar to be presented to the learner ... Their products greatly influence the learning/teaching process and must inevitably be based on strong assumptions (rarely stated and often unexamined, even unconscious) as to the nature of the learning process.” This brings us to a more specific level of course design, namely the syllabus.

2.2.3 Syllabus Design

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:25), the term syllabus has traditionally been used “to refer to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method” and they also adopt a traditional view themselves. This view of

syllabus is reiterated by Corder (1973:296): "It [the syllabus] ... must specify what components or learning items must be available, or learned by a certain time; what is the most efficient sequence in which they are learned; what items can be learned 'simultaneously'; what items are available from stock, i.e. already known; and the whole process is determined by considerations of how long it takes to produce or learn, a component or item."

Wilkins (1976:5) agrees with this traditional view and states that a syllabus is used "to refer to the linguistic content of language teaching and the principles that underlie the selection of that content."

Wilkins (1976:26) adds that the syllabus "is not concerned with methodology, although inevitably it will be expected that the approach to classroom teaching will be consistent with the view of language embodied in the syllabus". This brings us to another view of a syllabus that also gives an indication of or specifies methods.

Some definitions of syllabi also include methods and some even add assessment. Stevens (1977:25) has formulated such a definition: The syllabus "is the document in which is listed, ideally, the items to be taught, in a particular course, to a particular set of defined learners, on a given number of occasions per week or day, in a given sequence, with the aim of achieving stated interim and final goals or objectives, and (usually) according to particular teaching techniques for each and every item."

Robinson (1991:1) identifies three realms of knowledge in ESP, namely language, (field-specific) content and pedagogy. It would, therefore, seem that the view of a syllabus which includes more than linguistic content would be well-suited for ESP course design. However, in keeping these different realms separate while planning the course, and only integrating them in the final outline of the course, the course designer will be able to maintain a greater degree of specificity for each of the realms. Richards and Rodgers (2001:25) also add that the linguistic content and, therefore, the syllabus for ESP courses can be "readily identified" and it would therefore be easier to integrate the field-specific content and pedagogy at a later stage of the course planning.

For purposes of this study, a traditional view of a syllabus will be maintained and, therefore, the term syllabus is defined as the linguistic content chosen according to the views determined by the approach.

2.2.4 Choice of Methods within the Teaching-Learning Situation

The choice of methods brings us to the centre of the concentric circle as this is the most specific level of planning in course design. According to the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:141), teachers “have to make minute-to-minute decisions about classroom activities, which they can prepare in outline beforehand, but must adjust flexibly in the light of pupil/student responses. They are expected to monitor the progress of pupils/students and find ways of recognising, analysing and overcoming their learning problems, as well as developing their individual learning abilities.”

According to Van der Walt (1985:78), the teaching-learning situation refers to what takes place in the classroom between the teacher and the learners. As the teacher is professionally trained, he has the liberty to interpret the syllabus and adapt it to the classroom situation in order to implement it effectively.

The teaching methods include “detailed instructions for the classroom and/or individual tasks and activities to be undertaken by learners in response to the materials presented” (Council of Europe, 2001:141).

Richards and Rodgers (2001:30) refer to this level as procedure. They define it as “the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method.” The procedure, therefore, “focuses on the ... presentation, practice, and feedback phases of teaching” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:30).

It is, therefore clear that the teacher plays an important part on this level of course planning and ultimately has to make the decisions based on the needs of the students at a given time during the lesson. A generative framework can, therefore, make suggestions with regard to methods to be used, but the teacher will have to use and adapt methods as he/she sees fit.

2.3 Elements of Course Design

Now that the different levels of course design have been discussed, it is important to indicate how these levels play into the different elements involved in designing a course and where the process of course design is placed within the field of Applied Linguistics. Bell (1981:29) created such a model and called it “The Genesis of an Approach in Applied Linguistics” as can be seen in Fig. 2-4. Section C in Bell’s model correlates with the level of polity determination (cf. Section 2.2.1) as it considers how administrative, pedagogical, sociological and political issues play a part in formulating the Approach. The “Linguistic inputs” and “Psychological inputs” identified in the model correlate with the view of language and theories of language learning which also play a part in determining the approach (cf. Section 2.2.2).

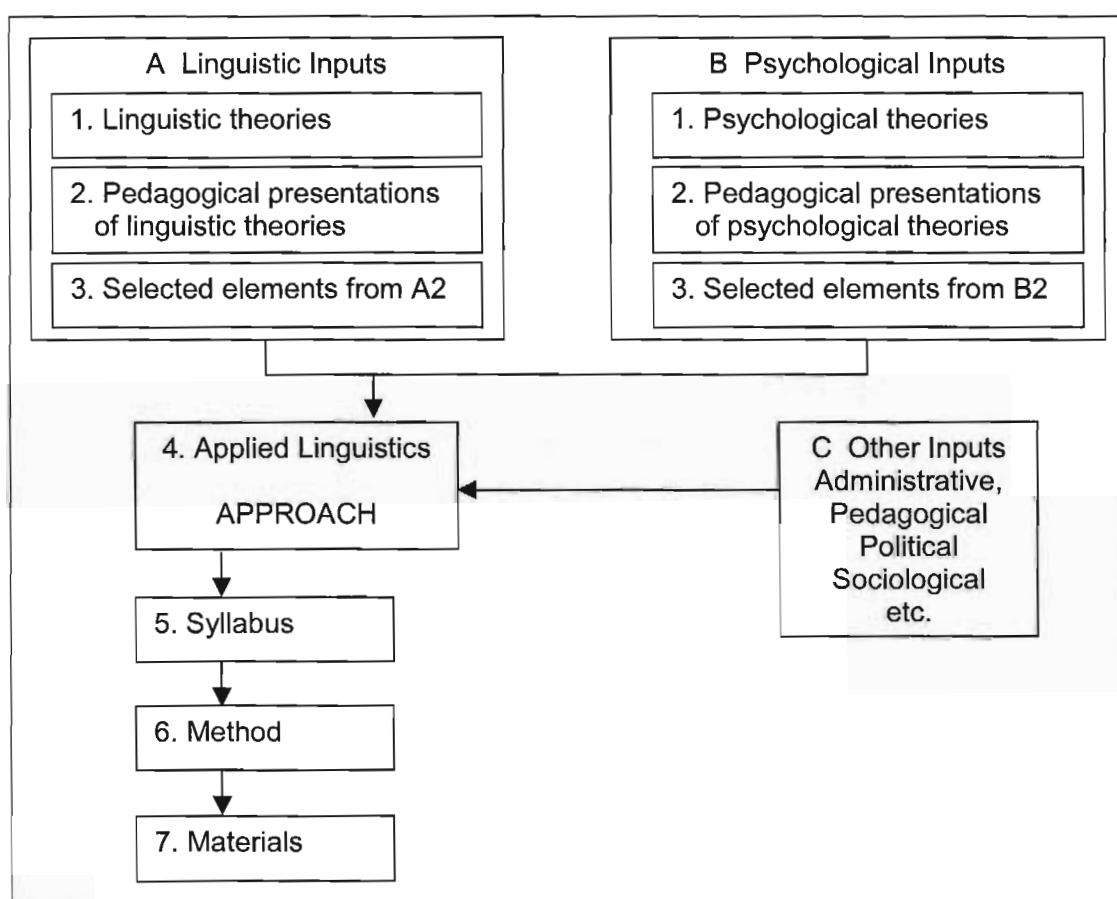


Figure 2-2 The Genesis of an Approach in Applied Linguistics by Bell (1981:29)

Steps 1-4 in Fig. 2-2 can thus still be seen in terms of the more general levels of course design. Bell (1981:36) then developed another model (cf. Fig. 2-3) to

elaborate upon the elements involved on the more specific levels of course design.

In Bell's (1981:36) model (cf. Fig. 2-3), which he calls "Language syllabus design: a first approximation", he identifies error analysis (i.e. knowledge of the students) and needs analysis (i.e. knowledge of the context) as an element of course design. These two steps lead to the specification of skills and levels within the syllabus and this will influence the decisions made on the most specific level of course design, namely the selection of teaching strategies (or methods), the development of teaching materials and the evaluation of the students.

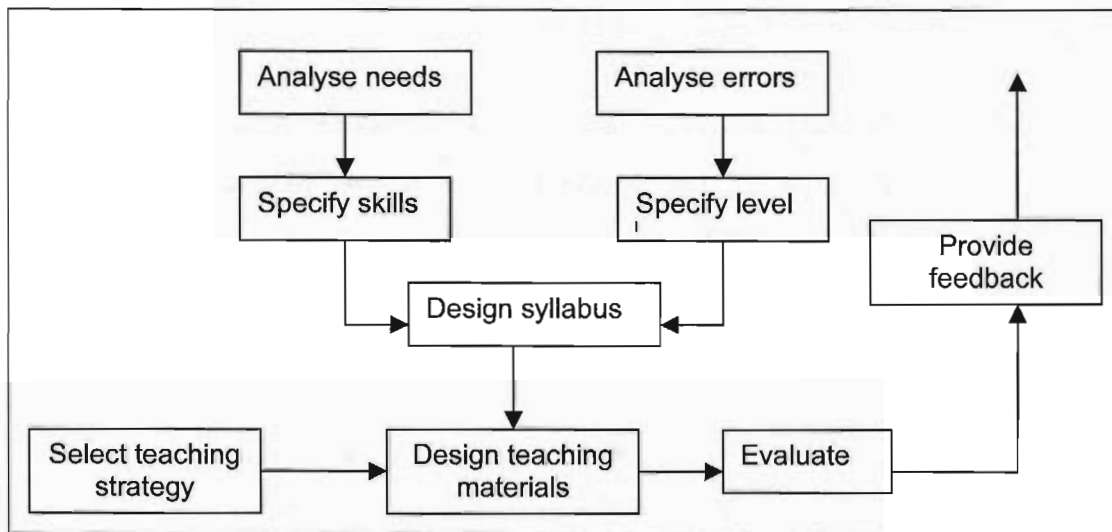


Figure 2-3: Language syllabus design: a first approximation by Bell (1981:36)

According to Van der Walt (1981:23-24), there is a "general agreement" that the elements of a course should include at least the following:

- a needs analysis;
- the aims and objectives;
- the selection and organisation of content;
- the selection and organisation of learning activities, and
- evaluation.

In Fig. 2-2 and 2-3, the different levels of course design are elaborated in terms of the elements of course design involved on the different levels, varying from the general to the specific. However, these elements of course design are closely related and can be described in terms of chronological steps that need to be

taken when designing a course. This brings us to different models of course design.

2.4 Models of Course Design

Traditionally, the course design process is defined in terms of the “conventional model”, which is based on the hypothetico-deductive paradigm (Rodgers, 1989:27). It is prescriptive and rule-driven and defines a linear sequence of events.

An example of such a linear model is that of Tyler’s (1970:1) (first published in 1949), which lists the following fundamental questions to be answered in order when designing a course. These are:

- What should be the educational objectives of the curriculum?
- What learning experiences should be developed to enable students to achieve the objectives?
- How should the learning experiences be organised?
- How can it be determined if the objectives are achieved?

The linear model, however, is formal and quantitative and does not take all the levels of planning (cf Section 2.2) into consideration. Furthermore, this linear model does not give an indication of the interrelatedness of the different components of course design. For example, there should be some correlation between the formulation of the objectives and the evaluative measures, but this is not indicated in the linear model.

Slattery (1995:18) indicates that a paradigm shift from the modern era to the postmodern one has also influenced the models for course design. Slattery’s explanation of the paradigm shift can be summarized in the following manner: “The modern era can be described as an era of capitalist industrial-based economy, relying on scientific technology, social progress and rational thought, while the postmodern era is characterized by fast-changing and cyclical concepts of time, sundry cultures, many genres of expressions, and educators who are committed to a new concept of syllabus design that will complement the social and cultural milieu of the new era” (Cronjé, 2001:11).

The theoretical model for course design has changed from a linear model to a circular one, in which the different steps are interdependent. This implies that, if one aspect changes, it will automatically have an effect on the other aspects.

Examples of earlier circular models are those of Nicholls and Nicholls (1978:21) and Wheeler (1979:31). An illustration of the model proposed by Nicholls and Nicholls (1978:21) can be seen in Fig. 2.4.

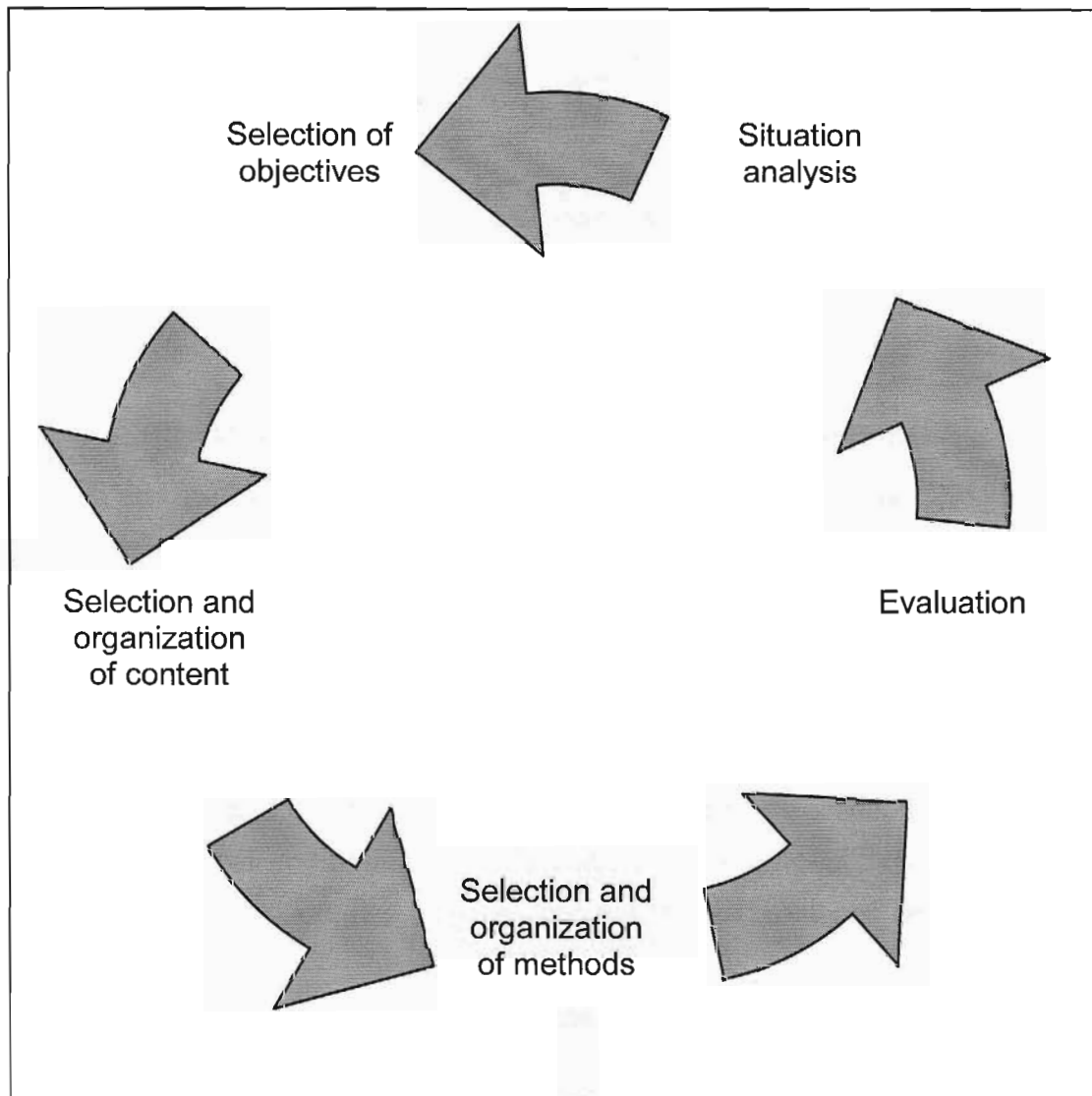


Figure 2-4: Circular course design model by Nicholls & Nicholls (1978:21)

The circular models progressed to spiral models, as a spiral model “not only uses the circular design, but also indicates the progression of the learning act” (De Villiers, 1997:2). Examples of these models can be found in Kruger (1978: 11) and Malan and Du Toit (1991:7). A more recent example of such a spiral model is that of Graves (2000:3) (cf Fig. 2-5).

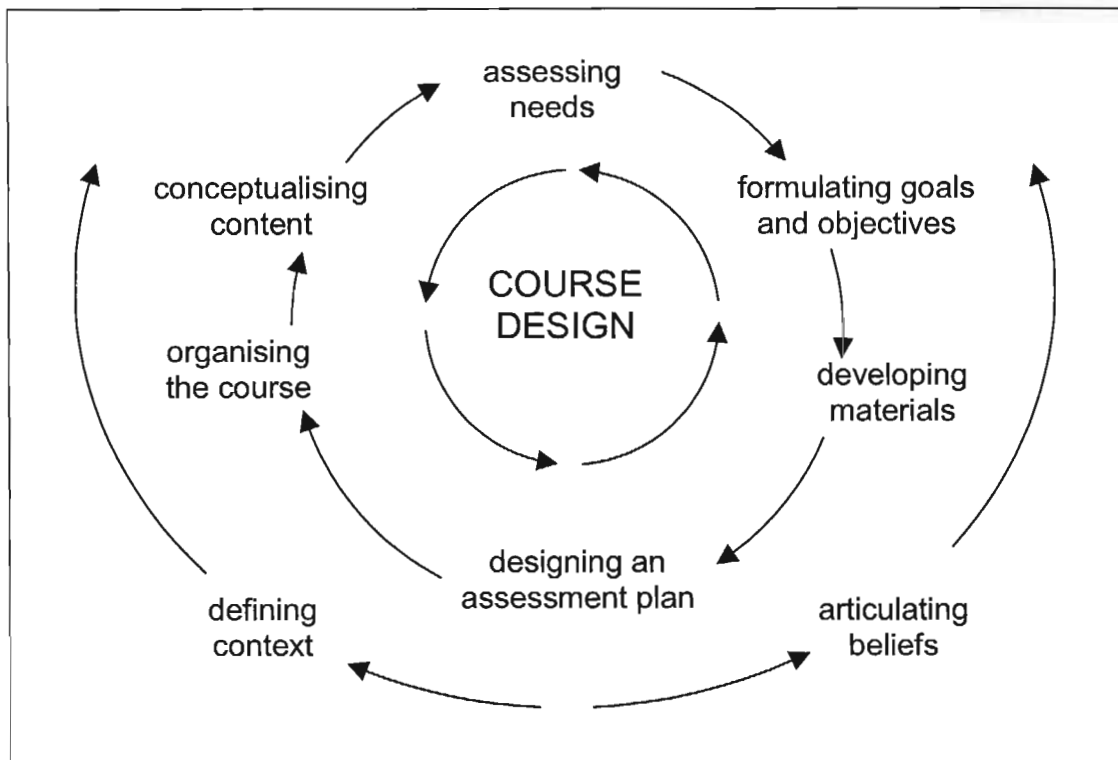


Figure 2-5: A Framework for Course Development Processes by Graves (2000:3)

Graves (2000:3) indicates that the aim of the flow chart is to capture two aspects of course design. The first is that there is no hierarchy in the process and no prescribed sequence in the accomplishment of the different tasks.

According to Graves (2000:3), there is no hierarchy, as “articulating beliefs and defining one’s context are on the bottom of the chart to serve as the foundation for the other processes.” The course designer can therefore begin at any point in the framework as long as it correlates with his/her stated or implied beliefs and understandings and knowledge of the context and the students.

The second aspect that is emphasised through Fig. 2-5 is that Graves takes a systems approach to course design. Graves (2000:4) explains the systems approach to course design in the following manner: “This means that the components are interrelated and each of the processes influences and is influenced by the other in some way ... If you are clear and articulate about content, it will be easier to write objectives. If you change the content, the objectives will need to change to reflect the changes to the content, as will the materials and the assessment plan.”

However, when one considers the elements identified in the linear and circular models, there still seems to be a logical flow from certain elements to others. For example, it would seem more logical to first organise the course and then to decide on the types of learning materials to be developed.

Another logical step that has come to the fore within Outcomes Based Education and the Constructivist paradigm is the fact that the objectives or outcomes can now directly precede the design of the assessment plan. Brown and Hudson (2002:29) have also changed the order of the elements in their model, so that the evaluative measures or as they phrase it, "testing" is placed just after the formulation of the objectives.

In view of the above-mentioned comments, the model proposed by Graves (2000:4) has been modified in Figure 2-6. The steps of Articulating Beliefs and Defining the Context have been moved to the top of the model in order to indicate their importance as the first steps in the process of course design. Articulating Beliefs is closely related to the more general level of course design, namely the level of approach, while Defining Context will be determined by political, pedagogical and field-specific factors within the field of ESP. Furthermore, the different elements of course design in the spiral have been moved to indicate the logical flow as identified by other linear and circular models. Lastly the step concerning assessment has been placed directly after the formulation of outcomes in order to emphasise the importance of the connection between outcomes and assessment.

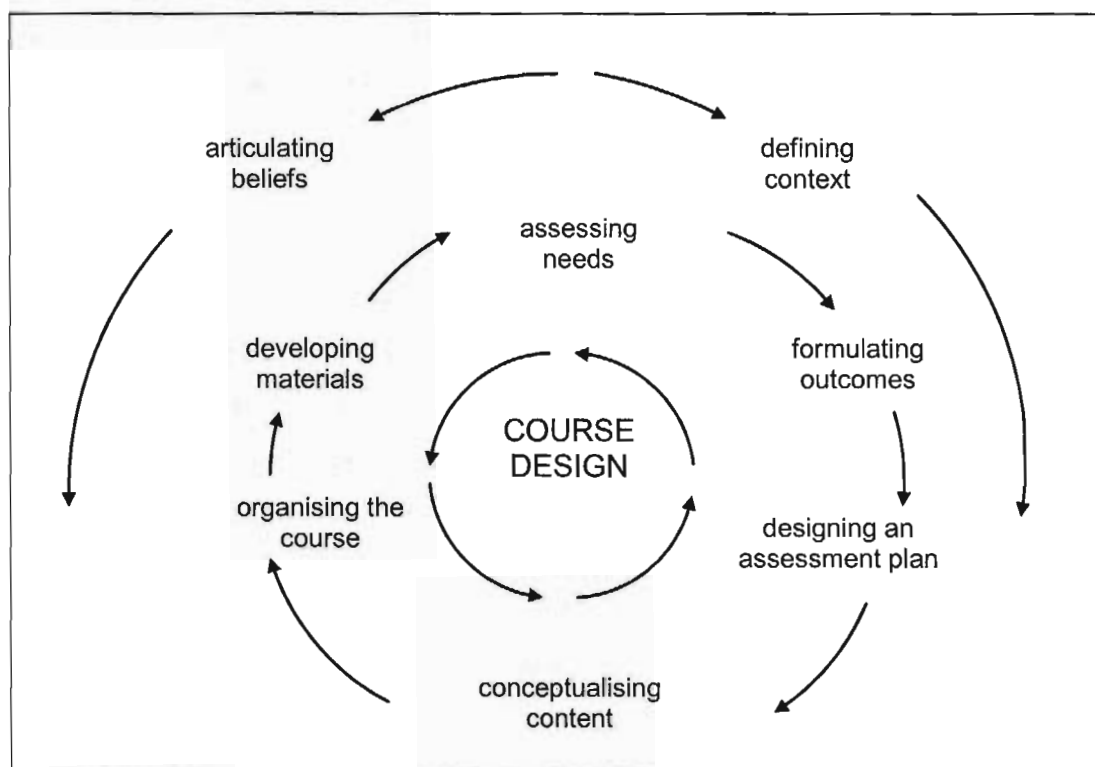


Figure 2-6: Modified Model for Course Design

This course design model will play a crucial role in the application of the Generative Framework discussed in Chapters 5 and 7.

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter the different levels and elements of course design were discussed. Furthermore, different models of course design were considered and compared. A combined model of course design that includes all the possible variables and views related to course design was created in order to aid in the application of a generative framework for ESP courses. This is necessary as different course designers with learners from different backgrounds will have to be able to use the same framework to reflect on their different views on language, language learning, content, methods as well as the teaching-learning situation.

3. THEORETICAL BASES OF ESP COURSES

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a brief overview of the development of the theory regarding ESP and EFL course design is given and the theoretical bases of ESP courses are discussed. This is an important part of this study, as each development and theory has added value to the field and needs to be taken into consideration when specifying the different elements of ESP course design.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:1), the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) “has generally been seen as a separate activity within English Language Teaching (ELT), and ESP research as an identifiable component of applied linguistics research.” ESP is usually contrasted with English for General Purposes (EGP). An EGP course would typically be an English course taught in primary and secondary schools to learners from different backgrounds and of different proficiency levels who want to acquire a general proficiency. (This type of proficiency can also be associated with the notion of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) as defined by Cummins (1984, 1989).) The first two broad categories in ELT can thus then be identified as ESP and EGP.

Robinson (1991:22) states the main reason for the development of ESP: “One important reason for the development of ESP was the realisation by those involved in teaching English as a foreign language that, while students might be acquiring some knowledge of English usage through EGP classes, they had not actually learned to use the language in the specialised contexts of work or study.”

3.2 Definitions and Characteristics of ESP

In his early definition, Strevens (1988) distinguishes between four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics of ESP. The absolute characteristics determine that ESP courses are:

- designed to meet specific needs of the learners;

- related to particular disciplines, occupations and activities in terms of their content (e.g. topics and themes);
- centred on appropriate language use (e.g. activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and analysis of the discourse);
- in contrast with English for General Purposes (EGP).

The variable characteristics are that ESP courses may:

- be restricted (in terms of the four basic skills of learning);
- not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson (1991:2-3) distinguishes between features that are “criterial” to ESP courses (similar to Strevens’s (1988) “absolute characteristics”) and other features that “may be seen as characteristics rather than criteria since they do not always apply” (similar to Strevens’s (1988) “variable characteristics”). The criterial features are that ESP courses are:

- goal directed, which implies that students study English not because they are interested in the language or its culture as such, but because they need it for study or work purposes;
- based on a needs analysis, which aims at specifying as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English.

According to Robinson (1991:3), the other characteristics of ESP courses are:

- there is usually a specified time period for the course;
- the students are more likely to be adults than children;
- written as though they consist of identical students, which implies that all students are involved in the same kind of work or specialist areas.

It can be concluded from the above-mentioned criteria and characteristics that ESP draws its course elements from several approaches, syllabi and teaching methodologies in ELT. It is important for the ESP course designer to be aware of all the theoretical developments in the field of ELT. The aim of this chapter is therefore to seek “practical applications for the theories and models of language provided by the linguist and ... to weigh the insights of the academics in order to

choose from among them those which seem most revealing and useful" (Bell, 1981:14).

3.3 Categories of ESP

Robinson (1991:2-4) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:6) discuss two versions of the "ESP family tree", as can be seen in Figures 3-1 and 3-2. The first figure (3-1) is Robinson's adaptation of the categories identified by Stevens (1977) (Robinson, 1991:3).

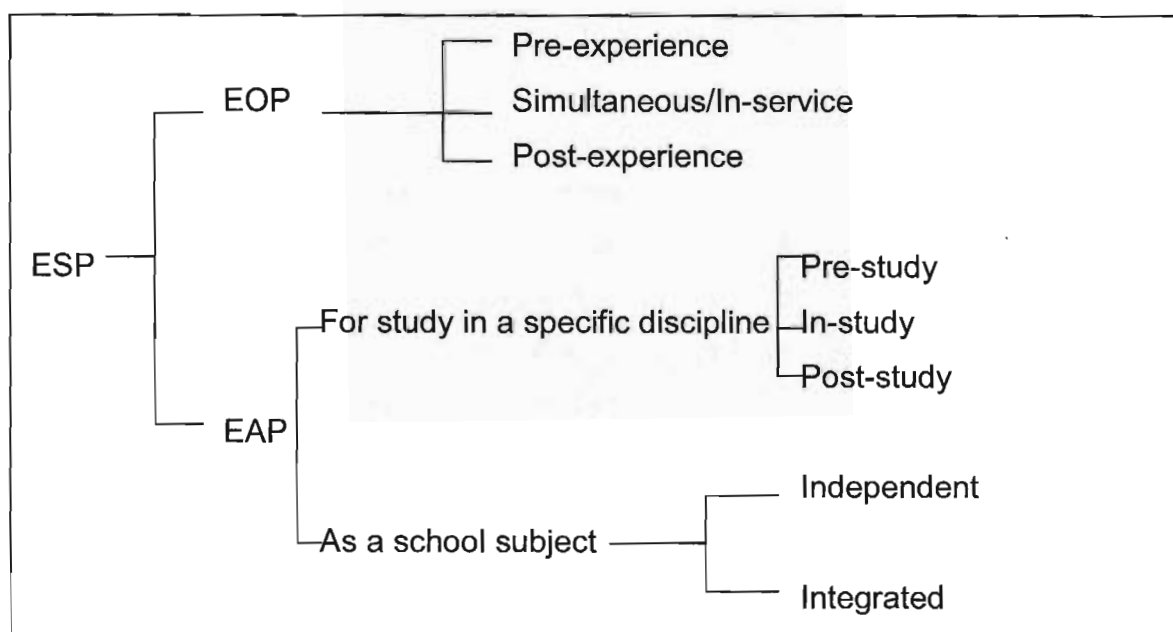


Figure 3-1: The ESP 'family tree'

In Fig. 3-1, the first distinction is between English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). EOP as well as EAP are divided into aspects which indicate whether the learners need English for pre-, in- or post-service or study. This distinction is important as it will determine "the degree of specificity that is appropriate to the course" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:6). In a pre-experience or pre-study course, the students will probably not be totally familiar with the content of the actual discipline, and therefore the course content will have to be more general. However, an ESP course that runs parallel to or follows the course of study "will provide the opportunity for specific or integrated work" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:6).

Secondly, Fig. 3-1 also addresses certain distinctions within English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The focus can either be on the language needed within a specific discipline or in learning school subjects via the medium of a second or foreign language.

In Fig. 3-2 (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:6), the distinction in ESP courses is also based on the discipline or professional area the course is related to, i.e. whether it is English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Within the field of EAP, the language within different fields of study has been identified and specified (e.g. English for Academic Medical Purposes).

Furthermore, there is also a distinction in EOP between English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:7) explain the two categories of English for Vocational Purposes in the following way: "Vocational English ... is concerned with the language of training for specific trades or occupations, and Pre-Vocational English ... is concerned with finding a job and interview skills."

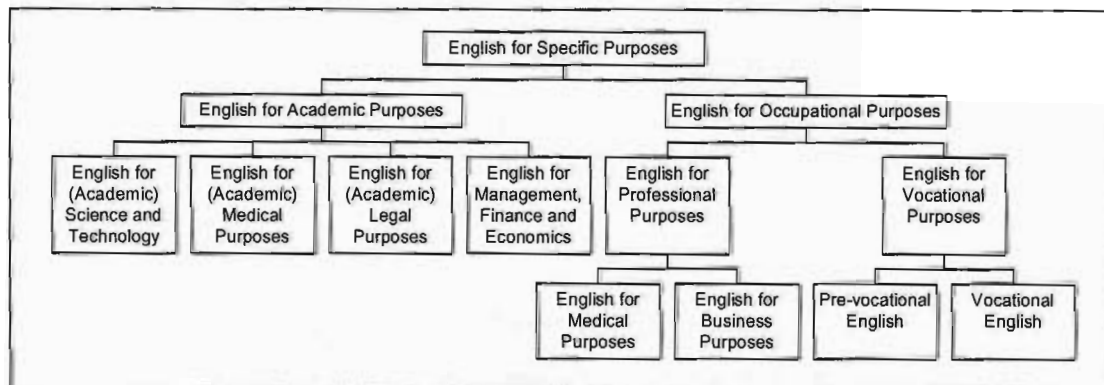


Figure 3-2: ESP classification by professional area

The different categories of ESP provided in both Fig. 3-1 and 3-2 can be used very effectively in the development of ESP courses. They will aid in determining the target audience and the context as well as inform the overall goals of the course.

3.4 Theoretical Approaches to ESP Course Design

In this section, the development of different approaches in terms of view of language and theories of language learning in the history of English Language

Teaching (ELT) are discussed. The development of these theories remain relevant to ESP course design today. These approaches have progressed from a formalist view of language to a more functionalist view. In each sub-section an approach is defined and described in terms of the view of language and the language learning theories associated with it. Furthermore, syllabi and methods that developed from a specific approach are discussed. The final sub-section then summarises all the theoretical aspects relevant to ESP.

3.4.1 Formalist Approach

A View of Language

Bell (1981: 92-111) divides the Formalist Approach into Structuralism and Transformational-Generative Linguistics (TGG) as “both theories see the essential nature of language as *form* and *structure* in a *context-free closed system*.”

Richards and Rodgers (2001:20) state that the theory behind Structuralism is that “language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning.” Language is, therefore regarded by structuralists as a system with different elements such as phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:53), this approach to language regards expertise in linguistics “as a necessary and sufficient foundation for expertise in language teaching”. Contrastive analysis, which involves “systematic comparisons of English with other languages with a view to solving fundamental problems of foreign language learning” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:52) also plays an important role in Structuralism as the reasoning behind it is that problems in language learning are caused by conflict in the structural systems of the native language and the second or foreign language.

TGG also follows a Formalist approach as it views language as a system “with rules of great abstractness and intricacy” (Chomsky, 1966:153). Richards and Rodgers (2001:66) state that Chomsky’s theory of TGG proposed that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of the mind and from how humans process experience through language”. According to Tomalin (2003:1236), Chomsky is concerned with the “task of combining various existing

theories and techniques in order to develop a more 'mechanical' approach to linguistic analysis". The theory of TGG was developed further by Chomsky in his Principles and Parameters model in the 1980s where the main focus was "upon the task of improving the basic framework of generative grammar so that it could account for a larger number of grammatical utterances" (Tomalin, 2003:1251). There has been yet another shift in emphasis on TGG since the early 1990s with Chomsky's Minimalist Program, where the "main intention of this ambitious programme is to reduce the essential machinery of grammar to an absolute minimum" (Tomalin, 2003:1251).

Even though it is clear that Structuralism and TGG imply different theories of language learning (to be discussed in the next section), both these approaches regard form as the most important aspect of language.

B Language Learning Theory

B.1 Behaviourism

According to Bell (1981:99), Structural Linguistics provides the language teacher with a "more precise and objective" description of language and it links language learning theory with Behaviourist psychology. According to Anderson (2005:9), Behaviourism views learning "as the formation of good habits with positive reinforcement". Richards and Rodgers (2001:56-57) explain Behaviourism in the following way: "To the behaviourist, the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviors. The occurrence of these behaviors is dependent on three crucial elements in learning: a *stimulus*, which serves to elicit behaviour; a *response* triggered by a stimulus; and *reinforcement*, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate ... and encourages the repetition ... of the response in the future." They depict this concept by means of Fig. 3-3.

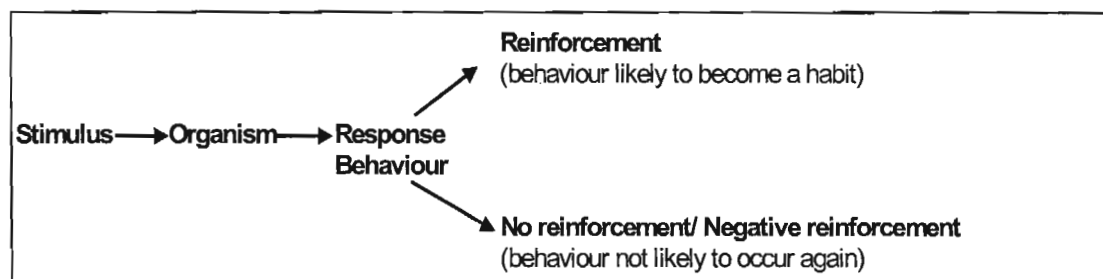


Figure 3-3 Representation of Behaviourism by Richards and Rodgers (2001:57)

Bell (1981:95-96) identifies 3 axioms “on which the applications of structuralist linguistics rested”:

- Learning is mechanistic and therefore needs both a psychological and physiological explanation.
- Learning is the formation of habits, taught by means of stimulus-response chains.
- Habit formation within language learning entails the repetition and drilling of sentence patterns.

Teaching procedures and techniques suggested by this language learning theory are those typically used within the Audiolingual Syllabus (cf. Section 3.4.1C.I).

B.II Mentalism

Quirke (2005) explains that Transformational-Generative Linguistics became prevalent after Chomsky introduced his early works on first languages and universal grammars. Richards and Rodgers (2001:66) explain Chomsky’s view of language learning in the following manner: “Chomsky argued that ... much of human language use is not imitated behaviour but is created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but ‘generated’ from the learner’s underlying ‘competence’”. This view was a reaction against Behaviourism and this theory signified the “re-emergence of grammar in the classroom and more emphasis on the guided discovery of rules” (Quirke, 2005).

Another contribution of the Formalist Approach is that it changed the attitude of teachers to errors (Quirke, 2005). Errors were no longer regarded as taboo as they were an indication of the learning process and a natural way to test hypotheses.

Mentalism implied that learning was not a habit, and learners would only master a language if they use their mental and processing skills to make sense of the language themselves with the help and guidance of a teacher.

C Examples of Different Methods and Techniques

C.I Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method is an example of the combination of a Structural view of language and a Behaviourist view of language learning, and it is still used in certain classrooms today.

C.I.i Objectives

Brooks (1964:111,113) identifies two types of objectives for the Audiolingual syllabus, namely short-range objectives and long-range objectives. The short-range objectives consist of training in the following:

- listening comprehension;
- accurate pronunciation;
- recognition of speech symbols as graphic signs on a printed page;
- the ability to produce these symbols in writing.

According to Brooks (1964:113), the long-range objectives “must be language as the native speaker uses it ... There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist.”

C.I.ii Language Selection and Organisation

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:59), “dialogues and drills form the basis of audiolingual classroom practices” as “specific grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises.” The main organising factors of the Audiolingual Method are the “key items of phonology, morphology and syntax of the language arranged according to their order or presentation” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:59). These components are usually indicated by means of a contrastive analysis between the native and the target languages.

The four language skills are also taught in a specific order so that oral proficiency is emphasised. Therefore, listening and speaking will be taught first and then students are taught to read and write what they have already learned orally.

C.I.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Richards and Rodgers (2001:60-62) summarize the different kinds of drills that are used for the Audiolingual Method. These are:

- repetition;
- inflection (one word in an utterance appears in another form when repeated);
- replacement (one word in an utterance is replaced by another);
- restatement (rephrasing an utterance and addressing it to someone else);
- completion (an utterance is completed by adding one word);
- transposition (change in word order is necessary when one word is added);
- expansion (an added word takes a certain place in sequence);
- contraction (a single word is used for a phrase or clause);
- transformation (sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, mood, voice modality etc.);
- integration (separate utterances are integrated into one);
- rejoinder (making an appropriate rejoinder to a given utterance);
- restoration (using a sequence of words with a minimum of changes and additions to restore the sentence to its original form).

C.II Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (TPR) was developed by James Asher and it views successful second language learning as a parallel to children's first language learning. It draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning theory and humanistic pedagogy. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:73), "Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves gamelike movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning." The assumption is that speech directed to young first language learners primarily consists of commands which children respond to physically before they produce responses.

C.II.i Objectives

The main objectives of TPR are to “produce learners who are capable of uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:75) and to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level.

C.II.ii Language Selection and Organisation

The TPR syllabus is grammar-based and verbs in their imperative form are central to the syllabus. Role plays focus on everyday situations e.g. at the restaurant etc. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:73), the language learning theory supporting TPR can be linked to the “trace theory” of memory in psychology, which holds that “the more often or more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled.”

C.II.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

The following techniques and classroom procedures are associated with TPR:

- Imperative drills (e.g. wash your hands/your hair/your face or pick up the knife and spoon and put them in the cup)
- Drills used to elicit responses from learners.
- Conversational dialogues only introduced after 120 hours of imperative drills.
- Initially the teacher's voice, actions and gestures may be sufficient for classroom activities.
- Later common classroom objects may be used e.g. books, cups, stationary, furniture.
- Later pictures, word charts, flash cards etc. that focus on specific situations outside the classroom can be used.

C.III Silent Way

This method was designed by Caleb Cattegno and “grew out of Cattegno's previous experience as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:81).

C.III.i Objectives

Richards and Rodgers (2001:81) summarise the three learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work as follows:

- Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
- Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
- Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

From these underlying hypotheses, it can clearly be seen that Gattegno had a mentalist view of language learning.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:83), the "general objective of the Silent Way is to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language.

C.III.ii Language Selection and Organisation

Richards and Rodgers (2001:82) comment on the language selection and organisation in the following manner: "By looking at the material chosen and the sequence in which it is presented in a Silent Way classroom, it is clear that the Silent Way takes a structural approach to the organization of language to be taught. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching, and the teacher focuses on propositional meaning, rather than communicative value. Students are presented with the structural patterns of the target language and learn the grammar rules of the language largely through inductive processes."

Gattegno also emphasises the importance of "functional vocabulary" which "deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language, many of which may not have direct equivalents in the learner's native language" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:82).

Although Gattegno does not provide details on the exact selection and arrangement of grammatical items, Richards and Rodgers (2001:84) note that "language items are introduced according to their grammatical complexity, their relationship to what has been taught previously, and the ease with which items can be presented visually."

C.III.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Richards and Rodgers (2001:85) explain the techniques and procedures in a Silent Way classroom as follows:

- Teaching: A new language item is presented once, using nonverbal cues to get across the meaning.
- Testing: The new language item is elicited from the student and the student production of the item is shaped.
- Getting out of the way: The teacher monitors the learners' interactions with each other silently.

In order to perform the above-mentioned techniques and procedures successfully, the teacher relies heavily upon materials. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:86), these materials "consist mainly of a set of colored rods, color-coded pronunciation and vocabulary wall charts, a pointer and reading/writing exercises, all of which are used to illustrate the relationships between sound and meaning in the target language. The materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively, in promoting language learning by direct association."

C.IV Cognitive Code Method

This method is based on a Mentalist view of language learning. According to Ellis (1990:40), the Cognitive Code Method represents an attempt "to incorporate ... ideas provided by generative linguistics and L1 [first language] acquisition researchers". This method was a reaction against Audiolingualism and the "major difference from audiolingualism lay in the recognition that language learners needed opportunities to use the language innovatively and creatively" (Ellis, 1990:38).

C.IV.i Objectives

According to Ellis (1990:38), the "principal assumption of Cognitive Code learning theory was that perception and awareness of second language rules preceded the use of these rules". The objectives are, therefore, firstly to make learners aware of the formal language rules and then to guide them to apply these rules in communication.

C.IV.ii Language Selection and Organisation

Ellis (1990:40) states that, within this method, there are “uncertainties about what to teach and when to teach it” as there were various suggestions. One of these suggestions was that the syllabus should follow the natural acquisition process as observed in first languages. However, some proponents of this method (e.g. Chastain (1971:91)) were not “certain that a L2 [second language] should be learnt in the same manner as the L1 [first language]”. Jakobovits (1970:23) suggested that utterances, which are “grammatically progressive at each stage but which fall short of having the complexity of well-formed sentences” should be used. According to Ellis (1990:40), the Cognitive Code Method “maintained the view that classroom learning could be externally manipulated ... by presenting and practising discrete linguistic features” and it also introduced “the important idea that there were constraints to do with the nature of language learning which had to be taken into account if instruction directed at specific items was to work”.

C.IV.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Ellis (1990:39) describes the techniques and classroom procedures of the Cognitive Code Method as follows:

The rejection of stimulus-response association as the basis of language learning led to a reconsideration of the role of practice. Jakobovitz (1968) and Chastain (1971) rejected mechanical practice as a means of forming grammatical rules. According to them new grammatical forms were not acquired through imitation and not stamped in through practice. The starting point was ‘concept attainment’, which resulted from verbalizing grammatical relations. Practice was useful, however, once a grammatical concept had been acquired. Jakobovitz recommended transformation exercises on that grounds that these dealt with deep structure and, except for pronunciation, rejected pattern drills which only dealt with surface structure. Chastain emphasized the importance of providing opportunities for the learner to create language in ‘language-demanding situations’. These opportunities needed to be ‘linguistically unique’.

From this description the following techniques and classroom procedures for the Cognitive Code Method can be identified:

- verbalisation of grammar rules;
- transformation exercises;
- pattern drills for pronunciation;

- providing contextualised input within “language-demanding situations”.

The common denominator in all of the above methods, techniques and classroom procedures is that planning for English Language Teaching revolves around the structures of a language.

D Implications for ESP Course Design

Even though there was criticism directed at the Formalist Approaches which led to the development of Functionalist Approaches (cf. Section 3.4.2), these approaches made a valuable contribution to English Language Teaching and some of the techniques and classroom procedures are still applied today.

D.1 Selection of Language Content

The Formalist Approaches regard the register of texts for specific purposes as a combination of frequently occurring words (vocabulary or lexis) and grammatical forms (grammar or syntax). As these approaches view language as a system of structures, ESP is not viewed as a separate system with separate rules and structures, but rather with an emphasis on and an increased frequency of certain structures or rules. Certain structures and vocabulary which are used more frequently within a specific field are identified and an ESP course is designed with these structures as the central organising factor.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:19) summarise this component in the following manner in terms of English for Science and Technology (EST): “The assumption was that, while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of General English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently. Thus, the predominant tense is the present simple, and the passive voice is used much more frequently than in General English, but not more frequently than the active voice. This research also points to the importance of *semi- or sub-technical vocabulary* such as ‘consists of’, ‘contains’, ‘enables’, ‘acts as’ that is more likely to occur in scientific, technical or academic writing than in general contexts.”

D.II *Selection of Methods and Techniques*

There are certain techniques and classroom procedures derived from the Audiolingual Method that are still being used effectively in classrooms today. According to Quirke (2005), rote learning and memorization still have a place in English language learning, especially in learning, for example, the irregular past tenses. The use and effectiveness of dictation should also not be underestimated.

Substitution tables and drilling are techniques which can still be found within teaching situations today. Other classroom procedures derived from the Audiolingual Method that are still used effectively today are hidden drills, reducing dialogues, the use of realia and pronunciation work for language labs (Quirke, 2005).

Another aspect of the application of structural methods in the classroom is the issue of formal instruction. According to Ellis (1994:613), teachers “use formal instruction because they want to develop learners’ general proficiency, to improve the accuracy with which they use specific features, and to help them acquire new linguistic features”. Even though the pendulum has swung from inductive to deductive methods of instruction, there are benefits to formal instruction. Ellis (1994:659) summarises these in the following manner: “Formal instruction results in increased accuracy and accelerates progress through developmental sequences. Also, its effects are, at least in some cases, durable. Formal instruction is best seen as facilitating natural language development rather than offering an alternative mode of learning”. This means that there is still a place for formal instruction in courses today.

D.III *ESP Materials*

ESP materials that were designed according to this approach would typically start with a long reading passage, especially designed with the focus on register. This would then lead to several language exercises, starting with the semi-technical vocabulary and moving to other grammar exercises. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:21), A.J. Herbert’s *The Structure of Technical English* was the “first significant ESP (EST) textbook”. The purpose of this book (according to a description on the back cover) was to train students “in the special structures and

linguistic conventions of the English used in technical and scientific writing so that they may be able to follow the current literature in English in their particular subject."

Although the term register has been a useful term, especially in the field of stylistics and as a basis of research in ESP, Robinson (1991:20), states that the "problem with register...is that it can lead to reification; that is, a register of the language is identified and described, and then referred to as a discrete set of linguistic choices, seen as quite separate from the rest of the language."

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:22) also recognise a similar theoretical objection: "the concentration on a restricted range of grammar and vocabulary was an insufficient basis for a textbook on English for Science and Technology and ... this concentration on *form* needed to be replaced by a concentration on language *use* and *communication*."

3.4.2 Functionalist Approach

A View of Language

Bell (1981) defines Functionalism as "a view of language as a dynamic, open system by means of which members of a community exchange information". Quirke (2005) states that the period in which the Functionalist Approach developed "was the decade of research starting in discourse analysis, error analysis, learning vs. acquisition and interlanguage." It is clear from the above definitions that the Functionalist Approach is in stark contrast with the Formalist Approach that views language merely as "a code made up of elements and their relationships with each other" (Bell, 1981:112).

Bell (1981:119) defines the term function by giving three answers to the question "What is language *for*?", namely:

- Language acts as a vehicle to convey ideas and therefore has a "cognitive function".

- Language also has an “indexical” function as it conveys information about the speaker, e.g. his sex, age, social class, level of education and his attitude.
- Language functions as “interaction management” as it refers to the “interaction, the point that has been reached, our desire to gain or concede the floor or our willingness to bring the conversation to a close”.

Other proponents of the view that the nature of language is primarily communicative are Halliday (1970), Widdowson (1978) and Wilkins (1979). According to Halliday (1970:145), “Linguistics ... is concerned ... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus.”

Widdowson (1978) focuses on the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. According to Robinson (1991:20), the term *discourse* can refer to three different concepts:

- It may refer “primarily to spoken interaction, which will be analysed in terms of units of meaning, organized into a hierarchy employing some or all of the terms *act*, *move*, *exchange*, *transaction* and others”.
- The term may also refer to a “stretch of language, either spoken or written, analysis of which will consider aspects of sentence connection, or cohesion.” It has also been suggested that use of the term *text* might be more appropriate in this instance.
- The “third generally used meaning of the term... is employed to cover the consideration of *rhetorical functions* or *communicative purposes*”.

These definitions are similar to what Robinson (1991:20) refers to as “special language” or “technolect”, which can be defined as “a form of language, not an independent language”. She also quotes the definition by Sager, Dungworth and McDonald (1980) to further clarify the concept: “Special languages are semi-autonomous, complex semiotic systems based on and derived from general language; their use presupposes special education and is restricted to communication among specialists in the same or closely related fields” (Robinson, 1991:20). The third definition is similar to what Widdowson 1979:94-

95) terms “grammatical cohesion”, which is “a description of the devices which are used to link sentences together to form text and as such provides the language teacher with an inventory of points he must incorporate into exercises to develop a knowledge of this aspect of language use”.

The Functionalist Approach also regards language as a combination of the four different skills, namely listening and reading (the receptive skills) as well as speaking and writing (the productive skills).

B Language Learning Theory

Within the Functionalist Approach, the learning of language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) “began to be incorporated in its own right, rather than as a mere vehicle to look at grammar or vocabulary, and comprehension tasks were based on real-life tasks” (Anderson, 2005:9). Johnson (1996:38) is in favour of the “convincing argument that a view of language as a skill is persuasive, insightful, and useful for language teachers”. Activities such as practising – or even writing – dialogues and role play came into the classroom repertoire (Anderson, 2005:9). Interaction and communication are therefore regarded as crucial aspects in the process of language learning.

Another language learning theory that reflects a Functionalist Approach is Krashen and Terrell’s (1983) Natural Approach. They argue that “second language learning could be *taught* in the same way as learners had acquired their mother tongue, in other words, the key here is acquisition, an unconscious process, rather than the conscious learning of grammar or vocabulary” (Anderson, 2005:9). Ellis (1990:100) describes Krashen’s input hypothesis in terms of a principal statement and two corollaries. These can be seen in Table 3-1.

Theoretical Bases of ESP Courses

Principal Statement	Learners progress along the natural order by understanding input that contains structures that are a little bit beyond their current level of competence (i.e. $i + 1$).
Corollary 1	Speaking is a result of acquisition, not its cause; it emerges as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.
Corollary 2	If input is understood and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided; the teacher does not need to teach the next structure.

Table 3-1 Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis

In this instance the focus is on the importance of input in the process of language learning.

According to Robinson (1991:24), the "surface realization of scientific discourse in any language, e.g. English, will be a combination of verbal forms unique to the language and non-verbal devices, such as formulae and graphs, etc. which are universal" with regard to different languages. She explains this by means of Widdowson's (1979) "three-way translation" (Fig. 3-4).

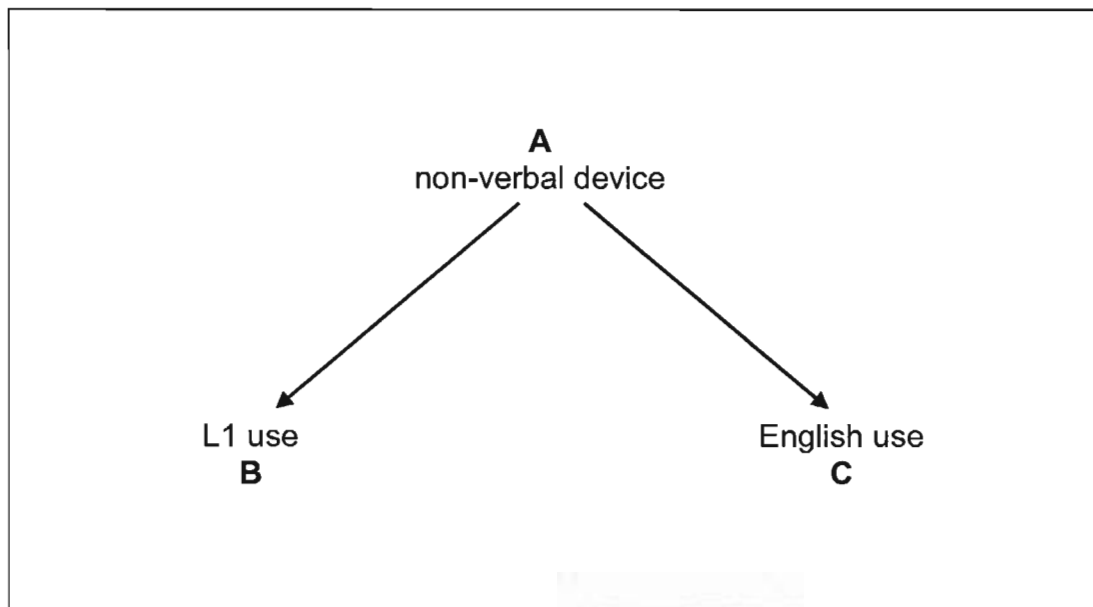


Figure 3-4: Illustration of Widdowson's "three-way translation"

When the student is confronted with the discourse of the specific subject he can "approach the formulation in English by means of both a non-verbal device and the formulation of his own language. The amount of support offered by the non-

verbal device and by the student's own language can vary, and a range of interesting and practical exercises can be produced: in which rather than learning rules the student is performing some of the activities of science" (Robinson, 1991:25). Again, the focus is on the importance of interaction in the language learning process.

Selinker and Douglas (1985:190) suggest that learners' strategies vary according to "discourse domain", i.e. according to the contexts (or field-specific content which is distinct from the language content) and which are important and necessary to the learners: "The important SLA processes, such as language transfer, fossilization, and backsliding, as well as avoidance, and various communication and learning strategies, do not occur globally across IIs (interlanguages), but rather differentially within discourse domains". According to Robinson (1991:23), the "research so far seems to show that some learners are more careful and more concerned to achieve effective communication in the technical domain compared with the life story domain ... while others are perhaps over-concerned in the technical domain and make errors which do not occur in the life story domain". The context and the importance of the learning environment are emphasised through this view of language learning.

Another aspect that came to the fore as part of language learning in the Functionalist Approach is that of needs analysis. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:24), the "growth of needs analysis, a trend that ran parallel with the rise of the skills approach, identified priorities amongst the four skills for a given situation ... The basis of the approach is that, in addition to language work, there is a need to address the thought processes that underpin language use." The focus in this instance is on the learning strategies used to acquire a language.

Robinson (1991:7-8) distinguishes between different definitions of the word *needs*. The "goal-oriented" definition of needs refers to what "learners have to be able to do at the end of the course" and is usually determined by a Target Situation Analysis (TSA) that usually "pinpoint[s] the stage at which 'good enough' competence for the job is reached" (Robinson, 1991:9). The TSA is in contrast with the Present Situation Analysis (PSA), which determines "what the students are like at the start of their language course".

The second definition of the word depicts what society or the user-institution regards as necessary for the learners to learn from English language teaching. The third definition is “process-oriented” and defines needs as “what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language” (Widdowson, 1981:2). The fourth definition of needs “implies that students may have personal aims in addition to ...the requirements of their studies or jobs” (Robinson, 1991:7-8). In the last definition, the term “needs” can be interpreted as “lacks, that is, what the students do not know or cannot do in English” (Robinson, 1991:8).

At this time, Munby designed his framework for needs analysis and course design and “at the time the publication of the model was an indication of the ‘coming-of-age’ of English for Specific Purposes” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:25). Robinson (1991:8-9) regards Munby’s model as the “best known framework for a TSA”. However, a TSA was not regarded as sufficient for designing an ESP course (cf. Sections 5.2.2C).

This led to the development of the learner-centred approach and it was “argued that ESP had concentrated too much on the end product as revealed by Target Situation Analysis... and linguistic analyses of lectures, textbooks and articles, and therefore, too little on the learning skills needed to enable students to reach the desired end behaviour” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:26).

C Examples of Different Methods

Methods developed within this approach are a reaction against the Formalist Approach, which includes Structuralism and TGG. The objection to Structuralism was that it placed too much emphasis on accuracy, which resulted in learners being linguistically competent, but communicatively incompetent. Furthermore, the reaction against TGG was similar in that Chomsky focused on “linguistic competence”¹ only and there was no emphasis on “communicative competence”².

¹ In terms of Chomsky’s (1966) TGG, this type of competence refers to the abstract system of rules which enables a person to understand and produce any of the sentences in his/her language.

² Dell Hymes (1971) coined this term, which refers to a knowledge of the rules of a language as well as the ability to apply the rules within a specific context.

It was also within this Functionalist Approach that “ESP and EAP made their first steps” (Quirke, 2005).

C.I Communicative Language Teaching

A method that developed within the Functionalist Approach is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and this has become the new orthodoxy in language teaching today.

C.I.i Objectives

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:66), CLT has two objectives. The first is to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and the second aim is to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

C.I.ii Language Selection

Richards and Rodgers (2001:163) state that the selection of language for Communicative Language Teaching is influenced by the following aspects:

- The situations in which the students might typically need to use the language (e.g. travel, business etc.).
- The topics they might need to talk about (e.g. education, shopping etc.).
- The functions they need to communicate (e.g. requesting something, agreeing with someone etc.).

C.I.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Communicative Language Teaching has largely concerned itself “with the practical realities of implementation and teaching techniques” (David, 1990:1). The following are characteristics of techniques and classroom procedures from CLT:

- The needs analysis as a necessary step in syllabus design was brought to the fore (Munby, 1978).
- The native language and translation are used when judged necessary (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983).
- The assumption is that the student will learn the language through trial and error and fluency and “acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context” (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983).

- Grammar teaching is seen as a “consciousness-raising” exercise and structures are learnt within specific contexts (Quirke, 2005).
- Teachers provide space in their classrooms for students to take responsibility for their own learning. Teachers therefore portray the role of “learning facilitators” rather than “language judges” and a variety of correctional techniques is used (Quirke, 2005).

C.II Task-Based Method

Ellis (2003:209) summarises the rationale behind the design of the task-based syllabus in the following way: “First and foremost it is premised on the theoretical view that the instruction needs to be compatible with the cognitive processes involved in L2 acquisition. Second, as in the case of Prabhu, the importance of learner ‘engagement’ is emphasized; tasks, as long as they provide a ‘reasonable challenge’, will be cognitively involving and motivating. Third, tasks serve as a suitable unit for specifying learners’ needs and thus for designing specific purpose courses.”

C.II.i Objectives

According to Ellis (2003:229-230), the objectives of the task-based method are formulated in terms of the following:

- Pedagogic focus, which specifies the general or specific purpose of the course.
- Skill focus, which includes reading, writing, listening, speaking and learner training.
- Language focus, which will specify whether the tasks have been designed to focus attention on specific properties of the grammar of the language (“focused tasks”) or whether the form will be focused on incidentally (“unfocused tasks”).

C.II.ii Language Selection

The selection of language content is dependent upon the tasks identified for the specific course. It is, therefore, important to define the term “task”. According to Ellis (1994:595) a task can involve any activity that engages the learner in using the target language communicatively (e.g. with peers) or reflectively (with a text). This will then lead to the acquisition of an outcome other than the overt learning

of language features only. This definition is closely linked to the definition by Nunan (1989:10) who defines task as “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than on form”. De Villiers (1997:111) has summarised the characteristics of a task in the following way: A task is purposeful, interactive, involves a process that utilises and challenges existing knowledge parameters, is contextualised in culture, develops both fluency and accuracy skills, produces measurable outcomes, and contains a verb.

Ellis (2003:238-239) refers to the results of a research project conducted by Johnson (2000) entitled “Capturing expertise in task design for instruction and assessment”. This project asked a group of experienced and less experienced designers to think out loud as they designed a task. Johnson identified three ways in terms of which designers selected the language (cited in Ellis, 2003:239):

- Task function, for example ‘describing a person’. Willis (1996) identified six types of tasks in this category, namely listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks.
- Task genre, for example, information gap. Pica, Kanagy and Falodum (1993) identified five tasks that fall within this category, namely jigsaw tasks, information-gap tasks, problem-solving tasks, decision-making tasks and opinion exchange tasks.
- Task frame, i.e. giving consideration to a cluster of factors such as the participatory organization, skills to be practised, timing and teacher roles. Richards and Rodgers (2001:234) identify eight characteristics of the task frame, namely one-way or two-way communication, convergent or divergent goals for different students, collaborative vs competitive tasks, single or multiple outcomes, concrete or abstract language, simple or complex cognitive processing, simple or complex language demands, and reality-based vs non-reality based tasks.

C.II.iii Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Ellis (2003:243) divides task-based language teaching techniques and classroom procedures into lesson design and participatory structure. The task-based lesson

can be divided into three phases, namely the pre-task phase, the during-task phase and the post-task phase.

During the pre-task phase the students are prepared for the task they will be expected to do. Methodology during this phase could include the following:

- The teacher and the learners perform a similar task together.
- The teacher provides a model of the task while the students observe.
- The learners perform non-task preparation activities which could centre on “reducing the cognitive or the linguistic demands placed on the learner” or they could activate “learners’ content schemata” or provide them with background information needed for the task (Ellis, 2003:246)
- The learners can also be given time for strategic planning, which means they have time during the pre-task phase to plan how they will perform the task.

Ellis (2003:258) identifies the “kinds of processes that the participants in a task performance need to strive for” as part of the during-task phase as:

- Discourse that is essentially ‘conversational’ in nature and can include ‘instructional conversations’ between learner and teacher.
- Discourse that encourages the explicit formulation of messages.
- Opportunities for students to take linguistic risks.
- Occasions where the task participants focus implicitly and/or explicitly on specific linguistic forms.
- Shared goals for the task (including the use of the L1 to establish these)
- Effective scaffolding of the participants’ efforts to communicate in the L2.

The post-task phase might include the following methodology:

- Repeat performance, where the learners repeat the same task. Through this repetition “complexity increases, propositions are expressed more clearly, and they become more fluent” (Ellis, 2003:258).
- Reflecting on the task. According to Ellis (2003:259) reflection of students on the task “may contribute to the development of the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluating, which are seen as important for language learning.

- Focusing on forms. This can be achieved by means of review of learner errors, consciousness-raising tasks, production-practice activities, and noticing activities, where students compare their own exercises with model answers focused on specific language forms.

The communicative function of language is emphasised throughout all the methods within the Functionalist Approach to language. These methods stress the fact that language learning does not take place in a vacuum and that field-specific content or the context in which the target language should be used, should play a determining role in English Language Teaching and course design. This is also an important factor within ESP course design.

D Implications for ESP Course Design

D.1 Register

According to Halliday (1978), the fundamental purpose of register analysis is to uncover the general principles which govern the range of variation in language, i.e. to find out “what situational factors determine what linguistic features”.

Within the Functionalist Approach, Register Analysis plays an important part in ESP course design. According to Robinson (1991:20), “The term most usually employed to cover varieties according to use is ‘register’. Its constituent opponents are ‘field’ (topic), ‘mode’ (whether written or spoken) and ‘tenor’ (or ‘style’)(on a scale from formal to informal).”

Swales (1988:i) also identifies Register Analysis, based on “lexicostatistics”, as a very important component. The register required for a specific situation could therefore be determined by counting the number of times certain words or other grammatical forms occurred within authentic texts in the field.

While Register Analysis “examined the language of specific registers, it offered very little explanation of why certain grammatical patterns are favoured by English of Science and Technology, nor of how sentences are combined to form paragraphs and whole texts or ‘discourses’” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:22). Robinson (1981:20) reports that after the traditional register studies, which were

more “quantitative”, a new “qualitative” approach was needed and this led to discourse analysis within the Functionalist Approach.

D.II *Discourse*

According to Widdowson (1979:93), the term discourse analysis refers to “the investigation into the way sentences are put to communicative use in the performing of social actions, discourse being roughly defined, therefore, as the *use of sentences*.”

Robinson (1981:21) also reports on a study by Candlin and Murphy (1976). In their project of preparing lecture comprehension material for engineering students, they considered both discourse and cohesion: “The study of cohesion, of discourse markers, etc. would seem to be another trend in linguistics and language teaching which has developed alongside ESP and which is very useful to it but which is not uniquely contained by it”.

Robinson (1981:22) quotes Trimble and Trimble (1977) and refers to their technical manuals in order to clarify the definition of discourse: “Thus we find commonly the rhetorical functions of description, definition and classification, and the rhetorical techniques of time order, space order and causality. In addition, manuals have two rhetorical features found less commonly in scientific and technical writing: the interpretation of illustrations and rhetoric of instructions”.

D.III *Selection of Materials and Techniques*

Robinson (1981:23) states that materials based on discourse analysis and CLT “exemplify an interest in connectiveness and in cohesion and also in the structuring (i.e. grammatical structuring) and sequencing of rhetorical functions.” Some materials are “more dynamic” and have a “more obviously activity-based approach” and “Throughout, the words *communication* and *communicative* are used and there is a spill-over into the realm of spoken communication” (Robinson, 1981:23). It is also important that “students feel that they are involved in a communicative activity and not just learning usage” (Robinson, 1981:23). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:23) also find that the “material is clearly derived from a teaching situation; it is entertaining and certainly avoids the laboriousness

and predictability” of materials based on register analysis and there “is also good visual support”.

According to Robinson (1981:25), the materials based on discourse analysis are more appropriate for post-experience courses as attention “is focused on the linguistic realization of what is already known, so that students are inevitably being taught language, although that too they are supposed already to know.” However, in Robinson’s view the majority of ESP students are probably pre-experience or in-service students “with very limited or at least inadequate knowledge of English” (Robinson, 1981:25-26). She also gives another reason for students’ lack of conceptual knowledge of objects, substances, processes and operations in their own language: “Many students at this level do not have much knowledge of science in their own languages because it does not exist in those languages. That is why they are learning science in English” (Robinson, 1981:25).

Materials developed with language skills in mind, usually consist of “general carrier content, and reading or listening passages ... chosen on the basis of general academic interest and authenticity. It was assumed that the skills learnt through the exercises could be transferred to the students’ own specific tasks” (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:24). In these materials, there is a “gradual ‘atomistic’ building up of a set of skills, either through individual, pair or group work” (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:25).

However, similar to the discourse approach, Robinson (1981:25) notes that within “the area of skills, either language skills or study skills, many students lack the required competence in their L1”, and, although certain skills (e.g. reading comprehension) might be regarded as a universal skill that can be transferred from one language to another, there are cases (e.g. in South East Asia and Central America) where “students’ ability to read with comprehension in their mother tongue may be seriously limited” (Mackay & Mountford, 1976:footnote)

Techniques adapted from CLT are used in most language classrooms today. These include the use of correction cards and sheets, authentic reading at low levels and information gap activities.

3.4.3 Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

This approach is a current one and is a further development of the Functionalist Approach. It has been developed since the 1980s in North America and Canada.

Brinton et al. (1989:1) define Content Based Instruction (CBI) as “the integration of particular content with language teaching aims”, and Eskey (1997:133) states that a “basic premise of CBI is that people do not learn languages and then use them, but that people learn languages *by* using them.” Content-based theories integrate form and content as the “meaningful language communication typically combines formal accuracy and relevant content within every utterance or written sentence” (Grabe & Stoller, 1997:7).

CBI is, therefore, a well-suited instructional system for ESP courses. According to Master and Brinton (1998:vii-viii), it “joins the other types of syllabi recognized in the field, namely, the grammatical, the notional-functional, the rhetorical, and the task-based syllabus” and “there is no “boundary” between ESP and CBI”.

A Objectives

According to Met (1999), “models of content/language integration differ in the degree to which outcomes determine priorities”. She has identified certain objectives that could be included to reflect the rationale for the integration of language and content. These are:

- ensuring that non-native students learn the field-specific content;
- providing students with the discourse styles of their field of study;
- enhancing language learning by providing motivating topics to communicate about; and
- enhancing language learning by providing meaningful, purposeful language practice opportunities drawn from a variety of topics.

B Language Selection

According to Brinton (2005), Content-Based teaching can be distinguished by the “concurrent learning of a specific content and related language use skills in a ‘content driven’ curriculum [also referred to as syllabus], i.e., with the selection and sequence of language elements determined by the content”. Therefore, the choice and ordering of content are not determined by language structures, as in

the case of the Formalist Approach, or functions, as in the case of the Functionalist Approach, but the field-specific content provides the context and the starting point for the syllabus.

C Models of CBI

CBI is implemented by means of three distinct models, namely the sheltered, the adjunct and the theme-based model. In sheltered CBI, two teachers (an ESL specialist and a content specialist) work together to help ESL learners study the same content materials as the English first language learners. These teachers can either teach the class together or divide the time between the two of them.

Adjunct CBI classes focus on preparing students for mainstream classes (e.g. in English for Academic Purposes). These classes are usually taught by an ESL specialist and can run before the mainstream classes start or concurrently with them. The adjunct model focuses on learners' acquisition of the target vocabulary and the relevant study skills required for the mainstream classes.

The theme-based model is usually followed within an EFL context where the learners have a low proficiency. According to Davies (2003), this type of class can be taught by an EFL specialist alone or with a content specialist and the "teacher(s) can create a course of study designed to unlock and build on their own students' interests and the content can be chosen from an enormous number of diverse topics."

D Implications for ESP Course Design

As has already been pointed out, an ESP course is per definition content-based. In Table 1-1, the characteristics of ESP courses as summarised by Robinson (1991:2-5) are mirrored against Brinton's (2003:1) summary of the rationale for CBI.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:27), "the learning-centred approach also takes into account the fact that different students learn in different ways. The emphasis on pair or group work and problem solving allows for these differences".

3.4.4 An Eclectic Approach

According to Quirke (2005), course designers in the 21st century “are now in the enviable position of putting everything that has gone before into [their] own workable unit and combining it with the remarkable development in educational learning tools we have seen in the last few years”. The “study of language has moved far beyond the sentence, or even paragraph stage and we need to access the viability of much of the work being done at a discourse level” (Quirke, 2005).

Anderson (2005:9) states that the Eclectic Approach includes “a task, or activity-based lesson; a balanced-activities approach, including different skills and language work, and a variety of activities to foster different learning styles and both acquisition and learning; teaching for communication outside the classroom and bringing real-life subjects, situations and language into lessons; the paramount importance of meaning and the need to contextualise language, and finally, the importance of the learner’s own experiences, ability, personality and learning style in developing motivation and encouraging successful learning”.

ESP teachers have to be aware of all the developments of the past century, so that they can provide the best possible context and environment for the learners to learn in. An example of a design based on an eclectic approach is that of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) (cf. Section 3.4.3). This is well-suited to ESP courses as ESP is, in essence, based on content.

3.5 Theoretical Basis of a Generative Framework for ESP Courses

The different approaches to ESP course design all have merit and are effective within specific contexts. A framework that summarizes all the past theories and highlights the practices that evolved from different approaches would therefore aid the practitioner in planning a course effectively without reinventing the wheel.

According to Robinson (1991:1), ESP draws upon the following “three major realms of knowledge”:

- language,
- content, and

- pedagogy.

Robinson (1991:1) also adds that “changing interpretations of ESP over the years and in different parts of the world represent changing relationships between, and changing fashions in, these three realms of knowledge.”

Several aspects from these three realms have been identified from the development of the different approaches to ESP course design and will now be discussed as part of the theoretical basis of the generative framework (cf. Section 5.2.3).

3.5.1 Language

The components within the realm of language which have been identified as relevant to a generative framework for ESP courses are view of language (cf. Sections 3.4.1A & 3.4.2A), choice of language syllabus, as well as the choice of language content (cf. Sections 3.4.1D.I, 3.4.2D.I, 3.4.2D.II, 3.4.3B & 3.5.1). These three components will determine which aspects of the language will be taught (e.g. vocabulary, grammar structures, sentences, register, discourse) and how it will be taught (e.g. audiolingual method, task-based or content-based methods).

The view of language has developed from the strict Formalist view that language consists of a list of grammatical items, to the Functionalist view where language can be broken down into a list of functions within a specific register. Furthermore, according to Widdowson (1979:23) communication can not take place by merely identifying and producing lists of items or “instance(s) of linguistic usage”, as discourse plays a crucial role in creating and establishing meaning in communication. Widdowson (1984:24) states the importance of discourse in ESP as follows: “What I am suggesting, then, is that the way English is used in science and in other specialist subjects of higher education may be more satisfactorily described not as formally defined varieties of English, but as realizations of universal sets of concepts and methods or procedures which define disciplines or areas of inquiry independently of any particular language. In other words, the ‘special uses’ we have been referring to are the communicative functions of language in a general sense and constitute universes of discourse

which underlie the different textual features which realize them in different languages.” These textual features will now be discussed.

A Grammar

The view of grammar has become more fluid since the days of the Formalist Approach. It is now accepted that the grammar selected for a specific course would have to be appropriate within the target context. Grammar includes language structures on the sentence level and is not limited to the lexis or syntax of a language, but also involves the register within a specific discipline. This focus on the combination of the different aspects of the language has developed as a result of the Functionalist Approach. However, this view of grammar “does not provide teachers with any directions as to how they might move from the sentence to the text” (Widdowson, 1979:94). This brings us to the significance of functions.

B Functions

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:21), functions are “a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function, rather than by elements of structure and grammar.” In CLT, the functions of language have come to the fore. These functions specify how the skills are used within different contexts and link them to phrases on the syntactical level. Comprehensive lists of functions were produced during this period and can be very helpful in specifying the aims of an ESP course more accurately.

C Discourse

Widdowson (1979:99) has a number of suggestions for teaching discourse:

- Exercises should be designed in such a way that learners develop a knowledge of grammatical cohesion.
- Teachers should consider how far they can “select and grade teaching material in terms of communicative acts rather than simply in terms of linguistic structures” (Widdowson, 1979:99).
- Ways should be devised to teach students to use the second/foreign language to “define, classify, generalize, promise, predict, describe, report and so on; to make them aware of how the language is used for the

particular kind of communication they are concerned with” (Widdowson, 1979:99).

In order to achieve the outcomes mentioned above, students need to develop the four different language skills.

D The Four Language Skills

Throughout the different approaches, the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) have not received equal emphasis. The reason for this is the different views of language and how the skills are mastered. This still has not changed. However, the choice of emphasis on skills would now rather depend on the context and the need of the learners and would therefore be determined by the aim of the ESP course. Douglas (2000:38) reiterates this point when he says the following: “the four skills will not be considered to be a part of specific purpose language ability, but rather the means by which that ability is realized in the performance of tasks in actual language use situations”.

3.5.2 Content

Field-specific content became increasingly important as language teaching became more communicative. This includes a clear description of the context in which the language will be used, the creation of that context within the classroom (cf. Sections 3.4.2C & 3.4.3), as well as the selection of field-specific content (cf. Sections 3.4.1D.III & 3.5.2C), which is closely related to the required discourse and discourse domain.

According to Eskey (1997:136), traditionally language syllabus design focused mainly on language and pedagogy and according to him content is the “missing third dimension in syllabus design” and has largely been ignored by the Formalist and Functional Approaches. This implies that any ESP course should be an integration of the students’ “target needs” (what learners need to do in a target situation) and their “learning needs” (what they need to do in order to learn) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

A Target Needs

The target needs of the learners are determined by the target situation. A generative model for ESP course design should therefore provide for different

instruments to gather data from the target situation. This will enable the course designer to identify the target needs. The target needs can be identified by means of authentic data collection with the following instruments:

- questionnaires completed by professionals in the field;
- interviews held with professionals in the field;
- observation of the target situation;
- an analysis of existing case studies in the field;
- available corpora in the field;

B Learning Needs

As has been discussed earlier (cf. Section 3.4.2B), emphasis on the target situation alone, is not an effective strategy for ESP course design. The learners' present situation and the skills they need to progress to the target situation should also be considered. Hyland (2006:18) states that the basis of learning needs "is that students need more than linguistic knowledge to be successful in their studies. Interest in study skills, in fact, emerged from a perceived over-emphasis on linguistic forms". He also states that "there are common reasoning and interpreting processes underlying communication which help us to understand discourse. Rather than focusing on linguistic *form*, it is seen as being more productive to focus on interpretative *strategies* and other competences". An example of an analysis of learning needs is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning by Rebecca Oxford (1990:283-300). Learning needs also play a very important part in English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

C Field-Specific Content

Stoller and Grabe (1997:79) have formulated the "Six T's Approach to Content-Based Instruction", which identifies the following six aspects of ESP course design and they can also be used in course design to stipulate field-specific content related to learning needs:

- Themes, which are seen as the major organisers of a course.
- Texts, which are not only written, but viewed as any "content resources". The choice of texts would be determined by "format appeal, length, coherence, connection to other materials, accessibility, availability and cost" (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:83)

- Topics, which are subdivisions of the themes and explore the content in further detail.
- Threads, which are “linkages across themes [and]... provide natural means for linking themes, for reviewing and recycling important content and language across themes, and for revisiting selected learning strategies.” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:84)
- Tasks, which “are the instructional activities and techniques utilized for content, language, and strategy instruction.” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:85)
- Transitions, which “are explicitly planned actions which provide coherence across topics in a theme unit and across tasks within topics.” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:85)

3.5.3 Pedagogy

The following components of pedagogy have been identified as relevant to a generative framework for ESP courses: view of language learning (cf. Sections 3.4.1B & 3.4.2B), selection of techniques and classroom procedures as well as the creation of learning materials (cf. Sections 3.4.1C, 3.4.2C, & 3.4.3).

A Views of language learning

As has been noted earlier, at present there is “no sufficiently strong research-based consensus on how learners learn for [a] Framework to base itself on any one learning theory” (Council of Europe, 2001:139). Different approaches need to be taken into consideration, as there is “considerable variation among learners of different ages, types and backgrounds as to which of these elements [approaches] they respond to most fruitfully, and among teachers, course-writers, etc. as to the balance of elements provided in courses according to the importance they attach to production vs. reception, accuracy vs. fluency, etc.” (Council of Europe, 2001:140).

The pendulum of grammar teaching has swung from the one extreme of pure inductive methods to pure deductive methods and has slowed its swing to a place where grammar is taught through inductive discovery (e.g. CLT) and grammar teaching is more a process of consciousness raising. According to Gollin (1998:88), the “term ‘inductive’ most obviously applies when a child learns its first

language by inducing the rules from exposure to the language in use”, while language learning is deductive “when a teacher gives an explicit statement of the rule, which the students then apply to examples”. Gollin (1998:88) also indicates that in between these two approaches to teaching “there is a range of techniques, commonly called ‘discovery’ or ‘guided discovery’ techniques, in which explicit focus is combined with inference from examples. These techniques vary according to whether explanation of the rules takes place before or after practice and according to the degree of guidance the students are given in working out the rules” (cf. Section 3.4.1D.II on formal instruction) .

It has also been discovered that the language of structure (vocabulary and prepacked chunks) is learned differently from the language of rules (sentence formation) and different teaching techniques can thus be used. Schmitt (2000:400) explains the psycholinguistic basis for the learning of lexical chunks or phrases in the following manner:

There is a good psycholinguistic basis for believing that the mind stores and processes these chunks as individual wholes. The main reason stems from the structure of the mind itself. It can store vast amounts of knowledge in long-term memory, but is only able to process small amounts of it in real-time, such as when one is speaking. In effect, the mind makes use of a relatively abundant resource (long-term memory) to compensate for a relative lack in another (processing capacity) by storing a number of frequently needed lexical chunks as individual whole units. These can be easily retrieved and used without the need to compose them on-line through word selection and grammatical sequencing. This means there is less demand on cognitive capacity, because the lexical chunks are ‘ready to go’ and require little or no additional processing.

This also implies that, depending on the context, there is still a place in ESP courses for rote learning, dictation, substitution tables, hidden drills and reducing dialogues – contributions from the Structural Approach (cf. Section 3.4.1D.II on formal instruction).

Throughout the development of the different approaches, it has become apparent that it is of little value to learn the four skills if they are not situated within context. The implication for ESP is that certain techniques such as the use of realia,

authentic reading and authentic recordings for the language lab would be very effective techniques and classroom procedures to use.

B Selection of Techniques and Classroom Procedures

Language practitioners are no longer restricted to teach by means of only one set of teaching methods. The development of different teaching methods and techniques throughout these periods now enables the practitioners to choose from a variety of methods in order to create a syllabus that would meet the needs of the learners – the “principled eclecticism” (cf. Section 3.4.4) referred to by Quirke (2005) as part of the Nineties into the 21st Century.

However, the practitioner should be aware of all the available options to adapt certain teaching techniques and to make informed decisions. A generative framework for ESP courses should, therefore, allow the practitioner an overview of these methods and techniques.

C Accuracy vs Fluency

Again the pendulum has swung from the one extreme with a primary focus on accuracy (Formalist Approach) to a focus that is primarily on fluency (CLT within the Functional-Notional Approach). As was the case with grammar teaching, the pendulum has now stabilized at a place where accuracy and fluency can co-exist. The emphasis on either of these aspects, again, would be determined by the specific context and the needs of the learners.

The accuracy-fluency debate is also closely linked with the view on errors. Initially, in Behaviourism (cf. Section 3.4.1B.I), an error was seen as a detriment to language learning that should be avoided at all costs. This view was radically challenged during the development of Mentalism (cf. Section 3.4.1B.II) where errors were seen as a positive and natural part of language learning. This led to the use of, for example, correction cards as a teaching technique. Today, the ESP practitioner can use learners' errors as part of the teaching process and to do baseline assessment as part of the needs analysis (cf. Section 5.2.2C on Deficiency Analysis).

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter an overview of the development of the approaches behind language learning and teaching has been given. The aim of this overview was to extract key aspects that are still relevant to ESP today and which can be used to form the basis of a generative framework for ESP courses.

It was also indicated how these aspects are related to the three major realms of knowledge that determine ESP, namely language, content and pedagogy.

The question that follows now is how these theoretical threads can be pulled through to the levels of data gathering and implementation. This will be shown in the following two chapters. Chapter 4 is a description of other frameworks that have been used for this purpose and Chapter 5 is a description of a new generative framework for ESP courses.

4. FRAMEWORKS FOR COURSE DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

As early as 1978, John Munby asked the question: “what *system* (if any) is being used to arrive at the specification of the English deemed appropriate for different purposes?” (Munby, 1978:1). He aimed to answer this question in his book *Communicative Syllabus Design, a Sociolinguistic Model for Defining the content of purpose-specific language programmes* (Munby, 1978). In this chapter, Munby’s model for the design of ESP courses will be discussed as it is still the most comprehensive attempt at identifying key features of ESP course design.

A later framework, *A Common European Framework of References for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001, henceforth CEF) will also be discussed. It is a broader framework than Munby’s that deals with language for specific purposes in Europe and it “describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively” (Council of Europe, 2001:1). Furthermore, the CEF “is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe” (Council of Europe, 2001:1).

4.2 Munby’s Model

4.2.1 Theoretical Framework of Munby’s Model

Munby’s model was designed after Dell Hymes (1971) challenged Chomsky’s (1965) notion of “linguistic competence” with his own concept of “communicative competence” (cf. footnote Section 3.4.2C). Within this context, he identified three constituents of a theoretical framework, namely sociocultural orientation, a sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge and a discourse level of operation.

A Sociocultural Orientation

According to Munby (1978:23), when designing an ESP course, “one is not dealing with perfect competence in a homogeneous speech community, but with

the reality of differential competence, and relativity of competence, in a heterogeneous speech community.” This has led to the first part of the constituent of sociocultural orientation, namely competence and the community.

Another part is that of contextual appropriacy. Like Hymes (1971), Munby defines “communicative competence” as both grammatical and contextual competence (Munby, 1978:23).

The third part of sociocultural orientation is identified by Munby (1978:24) as communicative needs. These refer, among other things, to the communicative mode and activities as well as the relationship between the student and his/her interlocutors. The communicative needs will determine the selection of speech functions or communicative acts that need to be taught.

B Sociosemantic Basis of Linguistic Knowledge

In the first part of this constituent, Munby (1978:24) follows Halliday (1973) in his emphasis on the “central and metamorphosing role of the semantic options (available to a person) in translating options in behaviour into options in linguistic form.” Munby indicates that the significance of the semantic options does not lie “in attempting to construct such system networks for the diverse social contexts with which our categories of learners are concerned ..., but in the theoretical support it gives to programme designers” (Munby, 1978:24).

The second part of this constituent focuses on the communicative approach. Munby specifically refers to the notional approach of Wilkins (1976) that later came to be known as the communicative approach. In this approach, the course designer “starts from the notional categories which a learner needs to handle (the things we use language for) and then selects, from the sets of linguistic forms for encoding the categories or sub-categories, those that are appropriate to his [the learner’s] level and requirements” (Munby, 1978:25). Munby (1978:25) prefers the communicative approach because of the following reasons:

- This approach is much more relevant to the development of the communicative competence of the learner, and therefore less wasteful than the commonplace grammatical syllabus where one starts from the linguistic forms themselves.

- The communicative syllabus has potentially wide applicability, and is less likely to omit appropriate items than the situational syllabus as not all of a person's language needs are relatable to a situation or setting.

C Discourse level of operation

After discussing the term discourse as it is applied by Sinclair et al. (1972) and Hymes (1974), Munby (1978:26) defines the term discourse as “units of communication, distinct from and generally above the level of the clause, units which are governed by rules of occurrence.” He summarises the implications of this constituent of the model in the following way:

- The selection of communicative units (e.g. speech functions or rhetorical acts) takes place at the level of discourse.
- Rhetorical rules and contextual meaning are as important as grammatical rules and referential meaning.
- There is a need for redefining the dimensions of syllabus specifications to take account of the communicative value of discourse level units.

4.2.2 Munby's Model for Specifying Communicative Competence

Based on the theoretical framework discussed in Section 4.2.1, Munby proposed the model of communicative competence illustrated in Fig. 4-1.

From this model, he developed the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) (cf. Fig 4-2). The CNP with all its elements will now be discussed.



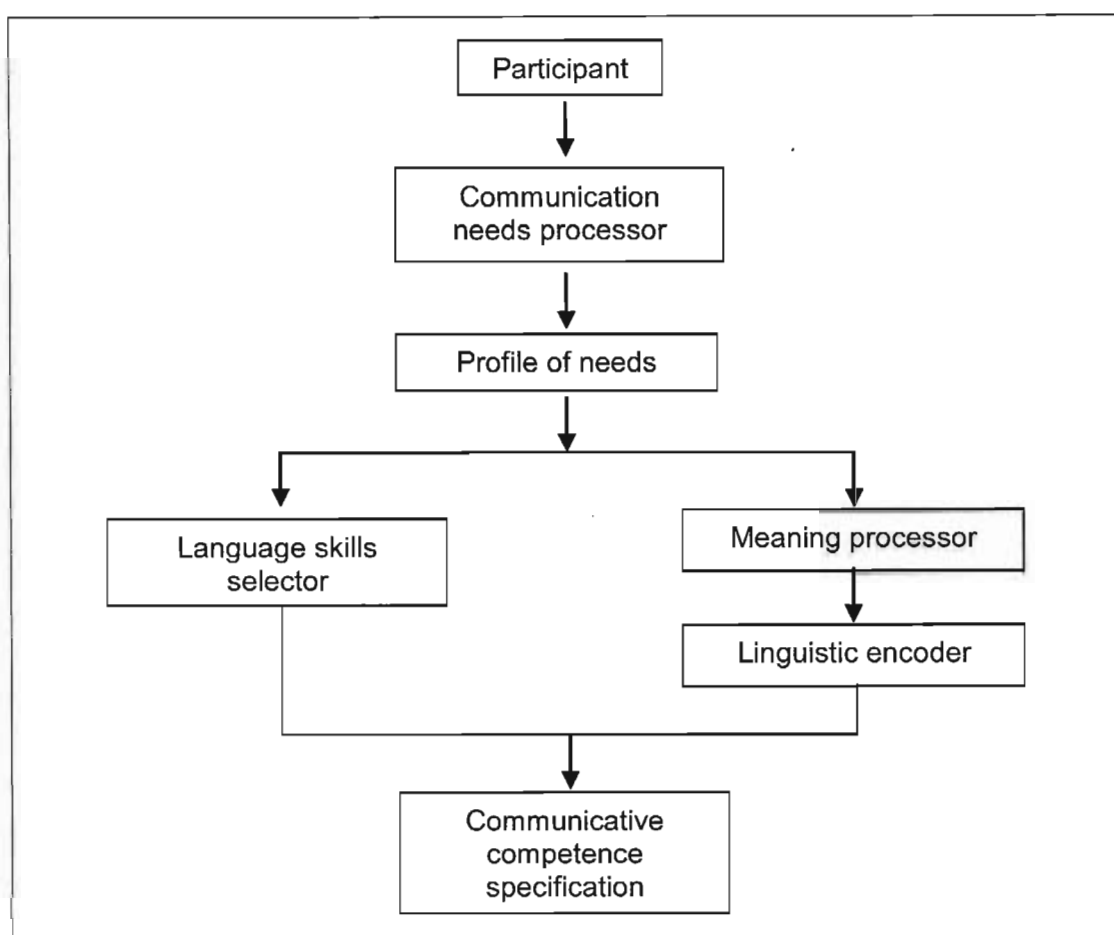


Figure 4-1 Munby's model for specifying communicative competence

A The Communication Needs Processor

In his Communication Needs Processor (CNP), Munby (1978:33-39, 52- 115) identified eight parameters that would inform the learner's needs. The first four parameters are purposive domain, setting, interaction and instrumentality. These are also a priori parameters as they will provide data for the second level of a posteriori parameters, namely dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key. The dynamic relationship between the parameters can clearly be seen in Fig. 4-2.

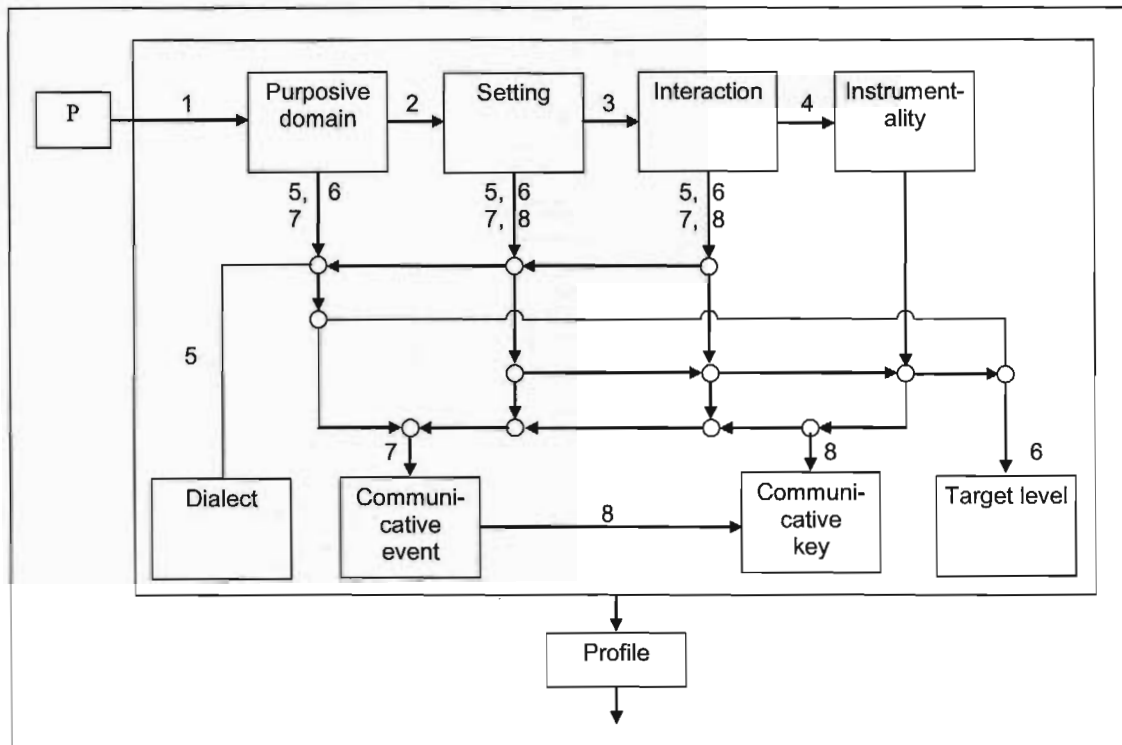


Figure 4-2 Munby's Communication Needs Processor

As can be seen from Fig. 4-2, information gathered in the parameter of the purposive domain will also have an effect on the dialect, target level and communicative event. The a priori parameters of setting and interaction will provide data for all four of the a posteriori parameters, while instrumentality on the upper level will inform the communicative event, communicative key and the target level.

A.I Purposive Domain:

In the purposive domain, the type of ESP is determined. Munby makes use of Strevens's (1977) classification of ESP as discussed in Section 3.3 (cf. Fig. 3-1).

A.II Setting:

Munby (1978:60-66) takes both the physical as well as the psychosocial setting into consideration in his CNP. The physical setting includes questions on the spatial as well as the temporal requirements for the learner of English.

The questions on the spatial setting focus on the following aspects:

- Location, e.g. In what country/town does the learner need to speak English?
- Place, e.g. Does the learner need English for work or for study?
- Extent, e.g. Does the learner need to use English locally/nationally/internationally?

The questions on the temporal physical setting focus on point of time (determined by the question “When is English required most?”), duration and frequency of use.

According to Munby (1978:63), the psychosocial setting “refers to the environment in which the target language will be used.” He identifies 25 different “psychosocial environments” and portrays them in a continuum of opposites, e.g. culturally similar vs culturally different or aggressive/ argumentative vs conciliatory/harmonious.

A.III *Interaction:*

Munby (1978: 67) states that in the interaction parameter the term “role” plays an important part as it has “obvious utility as a reference term for an important conceptual area that sociolinguists have to concern themselves with.” He identifies the following roles relevant to course design:

- The participant’s role in society, e.g. doctor or university student.
- The participant’s role-set, i.e. “the different people that the participant will interact with” in playing out his/her role (Munby, 1978:69).
- The role-set identity, which specifies the size of participation, age, gender and nationality of the people identified in the role-set.
- An inventory of social relationships, e.g. instructor-learner or colleague-colleague.

A.IV *Instrumentality:*

In this parameter, information is gathered on the following three aspects of communication (Munby, 1978: 75 – 81):

- Medium, which indicates whether the language is written or spoken and whether these skills are receptive or productive.

- A selection of 11 modes of communication, e.g. monologue, written to be read or dialogue, written to be spoken.
- The channel used to communicate through, e.g. face-to-face or in print.
- The non-verbal medium. Although Munby (1978:30) states that this part of communication does not fall within the scope of his study, he briefly refers to it by identifying 6 different non-verbal media, e.g. pictorial or mathematical and other scientific symbols.

A.V *Dialect:*

This is the first of the a posteriori parameters and Munby (1978:89 – 91) has identified different variables on which the a priori parameters can provide information:

- The regional dialect, which can be inferred from the information provided by the parameters of setting and interaction and is an indication of the dialect and accent needed for efficient productive and receptive communication.
- The social class, which is indicated through the purposive domain and interaction.

A.VI *Target Level:*

Munby (1978:91- 92) stipulates that “the identification of the target level of command should not be confused with the specification of the particular language behaviours for which English is required.” He further states that the “defining characteristics of level are its dimensions, and the conditions on those dimensions, all as related to verbal medium.” The six dimensions of the target level identified by Munby are: size, complexity, range delicacy, speed and flexibility. For the purpose of identifying these dimensions for a specific learner, he designed his “Target Level Guide” (Munby, 1978:94-95).

A.VII *Communicative Event:*

According to Munby (1978:98), the “subject matter of an event, which is the main generator of lexis, consists of referential vocabulary categories for narrowly defined or highly specific activities” and where “the event is more broadly defined or the activities are of the discoursal type ..., the subject matter consists of

topics.” Therefore, from each of the communicative events identified, different communicative activities as well as subject matter can be derived.

A.VIII Communicative Key:

Munby (1978:102) uses the concept of ‘key’ as defined by Hymes (1974) as “the tone, manner, and spirit in which an act is done”. According to Munby, in “the communicative event parameter, the activities that the participant needs to handle are worked out”, while the communicative key provides information on “the keys that need to be understood or produced for each of those activities.” After extensive research, Munby (1978:103-110) designed his attitudinal-tone index from which the different communicative keys could be selected.

B Language Skills Selection

According to Munby (1978:116), the “customary division of language skill into listening, speaking, reading, and writing ... will not serve here.” He uses the term skill “as a micro-concept, to be distinguished from the macro-concept of an activity, to which its relation is that of enabling factor to resultant activity.” He explains it by means of an example: “One may say that the reader needs to be able to ‘understand relations between parts of a text through the grammatical cohesion device of logical connectors’ (a language skill) in order to be able to read and understand the passage (a communicative activity).” This led to Munby’s “Taxonomy of Language Skills”, which consists of two hundred and sixty skills that he identified and divided into fifty-four groups.

C Sociosemantic Processing and Linguistic Encoding

In some instances, the “needs for a participant is interpreted in terms of the micro-functions, marked for attitudinal-tone, which are required for its realisation. Where the course content specification is to focus on language skills, the micro-functions will appear as parts of certain skills” (Munby, 1978:133). However, in other instances “the course content is to be specified mainly in terms of functions and forms” and this implies the “parts of the profile of needs are converted into units of meaning before being realised, in the Linguistic Encoder, as utterances or text.” Munby (1978:134-139) compiled an “Inventory of Micro-Functions” which was based on work done by Wilkins (1976), Candlin (1976) and Leech and Svartvik (1975).

4.3 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

According to the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:9), a “comprehensive, transparent and coherent frame of reference for language learning, teaching and assessment must relate to a very general view of language use and learning. The approach adopted here, generally speaking, is an action-oriented one in so far as it views users and learners of a language primarily as ‘social agents’, i.e. members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action ... The action-based approach therefore also takes into account the cognitive, emotional and volitional resources and the full range of abilities specific to and applied by the individual as a social agent.”

Unlike Munby's (1978) model, the CEF is a much simpler one and does not discuss as much theory with regard to approach. Furthermore, it is more user-friendly and not as comprehensive in describing certain language features.

The intended uses of the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:6) are stated as follows:

- The planning of language learning programmes in terms of their assumptions regarding prior knowledge, their objectives and their content.
- The planning of language certification in terms of the content syllabus of examination and assessment criteria.
- The planning of self-directed learning, including raising learners' awareness of their present state of knowledge, self-setting of objectives, selection of materials and self-assessment.
- To make learning programmes global, modular, weighted, and partial.

As part of the CEF, a horizontal dimension is described that is “made up of parameters of communicative activity and communicative language competence” (Council of Europe, 2001:16). A vertical dimension has also been developed, which “outlines an ascending series of common reference levels for describing learner proficiency” (Council of Europe, 2001:16). According to the writers, this two-dimensional model “is, of course, a considerable simplification since just the addition of domain, for example, would give a third dimension turning such a grid

into a notional cube. A full diagrammatic representation of the degree of multidimensionality involved would in fact be very challenging, if not impossible.”

4.3.1 Horizontal Dimension of the CEF

The framework provides a fairly detailed scheme of categories for the description of language use and the language user.

A Language Use

The context of language use is discussed in terms of domains, and four domains are identified, namely the personal, the public, the occupational and the educational. Furthermore, the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:46) describes the “external situations” within each domain in terms of the following:

- the *locations* in which, and the *times* at which they occur;
- the *institutions* or *organisations* which control much of what can normally occur;
- the *persons* involved and especially their relevant social roles;
- the *objects* in the environment;
- the *events* that take place;
- the *operations* performed by the persons involved;
- the *texts* encountered within the situation.

Conditions and constraints are also discussed by referring to physical and social conditions as well as time pressures. Furthermore, the learner’s mental context is discussed. According to the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:50), the “external context is filtered and interpreted through the user’s perceptual apparatus; attention mechanisms; long-term experience, affecting memory, association and connotations; practical classification of objects, events, etc.; and linguistic categorisation. These factors influence the user’s *observation* of the context.”

The CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:51) also states that the “need for communication presupposes a ‘communication gap’, which can however be bridged because of the overlap or partial congruence, between the mental context of the user in focus and the mental context of the interlocutor(s).” Therefore, the course designer also needs to keep the interlocutors’ mental context in mind.

Furthermore, a comprehensive description and examples of each of the following aspects of language use are given: communication themes, communicative tasks and purposes, communicative language activities and strategies, communicative language processes, and texts.

B The Language User

The language user's competences are discussed in terms of general competences (such as study skills, attitudes, and motivation), and communicative language competences. These are divided into linguistic competence (including lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences), sociolinguistic competence (consisting of linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences, dialect and accent) and pragmatic competences (which is divided into discourse competence, and functional competence).

4.3.2 Vertical Dimension of the CEF

This dimension on common reference levels of the CEF adopts a "hypertext" branching principle as can be seen in Fig. 4-3.

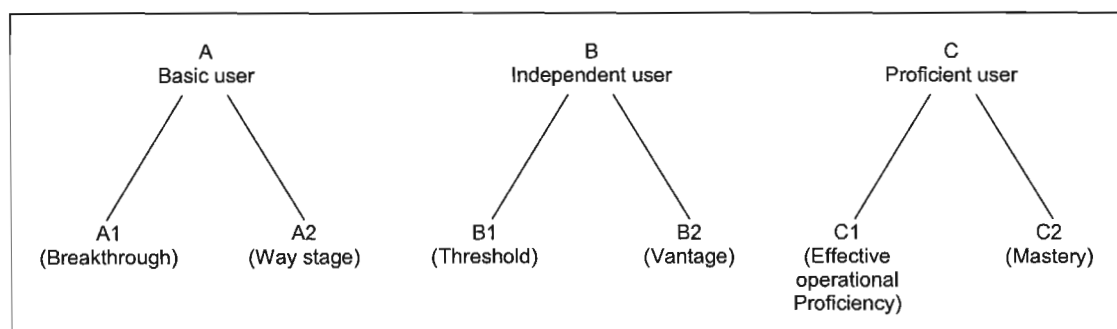


Figure 4-3 "Hypertext" branching principle of the CEF

Three tables are used to introduce the common reference levels. These tables were "summarised from a bank of 'illustrative descriptors' developed and validated for the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:25) by the Swiss National Science Research Council project.³ "The formulations of these descriptors have been mathematically scaled to these levels by analysing the way in which they have

³ The project took place between 1993 and 1996 and its aim was to "develop transparent statements of proficiency of different aspects of the CEF descriptive scheme"(CEF,2001:217). Almost 300 teachers from the German-French-Italian- and Romansch-speaking language regions of Switzerland and 2 800 learners representing approximately 500 classes took part in this survey.

been interpreted in the assessment of large numbers of learners" (Council of Europe, 2001:25). The descriptors can be divided into three main categories, namely communicative activities, strategies and communicative language competences and have been juxtaposed to the scales of descriptors.

There are also three types of scales of language proficiency (Council of Europe, 2001:37-39). These are:

- User-oriented scales that "report typical or likely behaviours of learners at any given level. Statements tend to talk about ***what the learner can do***"
- Assessor-oriented scales that "are typically expressed in terms of aspects of the quality of the performance expected ... Such scales concentrate on ***how well the learner performs***"
- Constructor-oriented scales that "are typically expressed in terms of specific communication tasks the learner might be asked to perform in tests. These types of scales, or lists of specifications, also concentrate on ***what the learner can do***"

4.4 Assessment of the Existing Models

In the following section both the model by Munby as well as the CEF will be discussed in terms of their contribution to ESP course design as well as their shortcomings.

4.4.1 Munby's Model

Munby (1978:2) identified a need in the field of ESP that is still relevant today, namely "the need for a model that takes account of all the potentially significant variables and systematically applies them to achieve an appropriate specification." His model made a direct link between what a learner needs in his target situation and the linguistic features associated with those needs. Munby's model is still the "best known framework for a Target Situation Analysis" (Robinson, 1991:8-9).

Kaur (1990:7) states that most "language content is drawn from inventories or lists which may be word frequency lists, inventories of functions or lists of specific topics. Content can also be specified through a series of checklists which deal

with communicative functions, discourse skills, and study skills.” In this area, Munby has made a major contribution with the following:

- Occupational classification framework
- Inventory of social relationships
- Classification of communicative mode
- Target level guide
- Attitudinal-tone index
- Taxonomy of language skills
- Inventory of micro-functions

However, according to Mead (1982:76), Munby’s model lacks “any rules stating when the syllabus specifications should focus on micro-skills, when on micro-functions, and when on a combination of the two.” Even in illustrative applications that Munby makes himself, this is not clear. Furthermore, Mead (1982:74) is of the opinion that certain categories of items “often duplicate each other” and that the distinctions between others are too minute and subtle for ESL or EFL learners.

In his model, Munby puts forward only the communicative syllabus as the vehicle for implementation of his ESP model. However, one of the characteristics of ESP is that it can be taught through a variety of methods and syllabi (cf. Section 3.4). A generative framework for different ESP courses should be able to accommodate a variety of syllabi and teaching methods and link them to the needs identified in the needs analysis.

Furthermore, West (1994:9) states that another “criticism is that Munby fails to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus.” Munby’s model provides much information on the target situation, but does not indicate the relevance or relations of the data to the actual process of course design. Munby’s model formed part of the British Community Language Teaching (BCLT) movement, and according to David (1990:1), BCLT “focussed its attention on syllabi and cognitive goals rather than on teaching methodology.” The lists and taxonomies provided by Munby could be useful to course designers, but Widdowson (1990:159-160) warns that it “is perfectly possible to treat notions and

functions as items to be learned in the same way as structures, as pieces of knowledge to be put in store without any necessary implication for actual use as natural behaviour ... The notional/functional syllabus only becomes 'communicative' when it is implemented by appropriate methodology". According to Mead (1982:75), Munby "nowhere spells out what he means by the term 'syllabus' and its precise reference is in doubt".

Munby (1978:4) also indicates in his introduction the "model does not deal with materials production." Kaur (1990:5-6) is of a similar opinion and states that, although the CNP "provided complete specifications for a given participant, it completely lacked specifications of the actual language forms that would realise those needs." Mead (1982:75) adds to this in the following comment: "The lack of interest in implementational constraints suggests that the model is intended to function at a more abstract state of educational planning (in which case the relevance of the sections devoted to linguistic encoding must be questioned)".

Another criticism of Munby's model is that it is too complicated (Coffey, 1985:83). According to Dudley-Evans & St John (1998:25), Munby's model is "cumbersome" and "it has had relatively little direct influence on the ESP profession". Often, ESP course designers are performing under very rigid time constraints and this makes the "fully detailed Munby-type investigation quite impractical" (Kaur, 1990:6).

According to West (1994:10), it is "also somewhat strange that Munby should adopt classifications of language in his skills selection process that were derived from social English" whereas it was clearly "demonstrated that ESP functions are related to job-specific tasks". Munby, therefore, used skills identified for English for General Purposes (EGP) to describe needs for a situation where ESP is necessary.

4.4.2 CEF

The CEF is a recent model and it is very practical and simple to follow. The action-oriented approach is easily understandable and very relevant to the European context where the focus is on Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) and not only ESP. According to Fulcher (2005), the "explicit political impetus from

the Council of Ministers for its development was to encourage mobility, understanding and cooperation, and reduce prejudice and discrimination.” It, therefore, had to adopt a very broad approach in order to accommodate the learning of all the European languages.

It seems that the CEF was successful in reaching the above-stated goal, because, according to Verhelst (2005:55), it “has been rather influential through Europe and has been adopted as an important frame of reference in many countries. In the last four years the CEF has been translated into more than 20 different languages.”

Furthermore, the CEF developed a bank of illustrative descriptors that have been mathematically scaled to different levels by “analysing the way in which they have been interpreted in the assessment of large numbers of learners” (Council of Europe, 2001:25). These descriptors could be very useful in the formulation of outcomes of a language course as well as in the assessment of those outcomes.

As part of the CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:37-39), three types of scales of language proficiency were developed. These scales focus on different stakeholders within the whole process of course design, namely the “user” or the learner, the “assessor” or the teacher and the “constructor” or the course designer. These levels and criteria, expressed in terms of competencies, performances and tasks, are quite comprehensive and could provide the course designer with data on outcomes, tasks and assessment.

However, according to Fulcher (2005:29), the CEF has not been designed in consultation with all the stakeholders as “there are no democratic checks and balances in the European institutions” and it can, therefore “be imposed in a top-down fashion” on these institutions.

Fulcher (2005:29) also remarks that the CEF “is intended to be a way of talking, a way of seeing the world, and a way of interpreting tests across borders in a uniquely European way.” This, however, can be very prescriptive as new views and theories on language and language learning develop throughout time. The CEF might, therefore be considered as restrictive in terms of the theoretical basis

that it prescribes. Furthermore, Fulcher (2005:30) adds that language frameworks and models such as the CEF “play a political role, and in the hands of the unelected can represent an undemocratic attempt to ... achieve political aims for which the people of Europe have not given them a mandate.” A generative framework should, therefore allow for different and changing political educational views on language and language learning.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, Munby’s model for ESP course design as well as the CEF developed by the Council of Europe have been discussed.

Munby’s two biggest contributions to ESP course design are the fact that he identified a gap in the field and he developed various lists, taxonomies and classifications of different linguistic features that he linked to the identified needs of the learner.

Although Munby’s model is widely acknowledged, it is not widely used by course designers. This indicates that there are certain constraints that come with such a comprehensive and detailed model.

The CEF is a much simpler and user-friendly model and has contributed in terms of standardising levels of proficiency within Europe as well as being generative in terms of the needs of ESP learners. However, the CEF was not intended only for ESP courses, but also for English for General Purposes (EGP) courses and, therefore, does not focus much on the development of different approaches and methodology within the field of ESP and this might cause course developers to reinvent the wheel.

A new generative framework for ESP courses, will have to address the following challenges without discarding the valuable contributions of Munby’s model and the CEF (cf. Section 4.4):

- It should keep track of the latest theoretical underpinnings in the field of ESP course design.

Frameworks For Course Design

- It should provide the course designer with a choice of or a combination of different syllabi, and not only the communicative syllabus design, to address the specific needs of the learners.
- It should be user-friendly and save the course designer time.
- It should provide guidance on the actual language forms and teaching materials that can be used after the needs have been identified.

5. A GENERATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR ESP COURSES

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a three-dimensional, generative framework for the design of ESP courses is introduced and discussed in three sections. The first section indicates how the first five steps in the modified course design model (i.e. articulating beliefs, defining context, needs analysis, formulation of outcomes, design of an assessment plan) discussed in Chapter 2 (cf. Fig. 2-6) are incorporated into the framework. Secondly, the integration of the three other steps of course design (i.e. conceptualisation of content, organisation of the course and development of materials) (cf. Fig. 2-6) into the framework is discussed. Finally, step-by-step guidelines are given in order to indicate how the framework can be used to design an ESP course.

5.2 Integrating the First Five Steps of Course Design and the Generative Framework

The discussion in Chapters 2-4 are now incorporated into a three-dimensional, generative framework in which all three realms of ESP course design (namely language, content and pedagogy) as well as the circular model for course design (cf. Fig. 2-6) are contained. The framework is, therefore, a larger construct than the model as it indicates an integration of the three realms of course design as well as the spiral course design model. The framework is illustrated in Fig. 5-1.

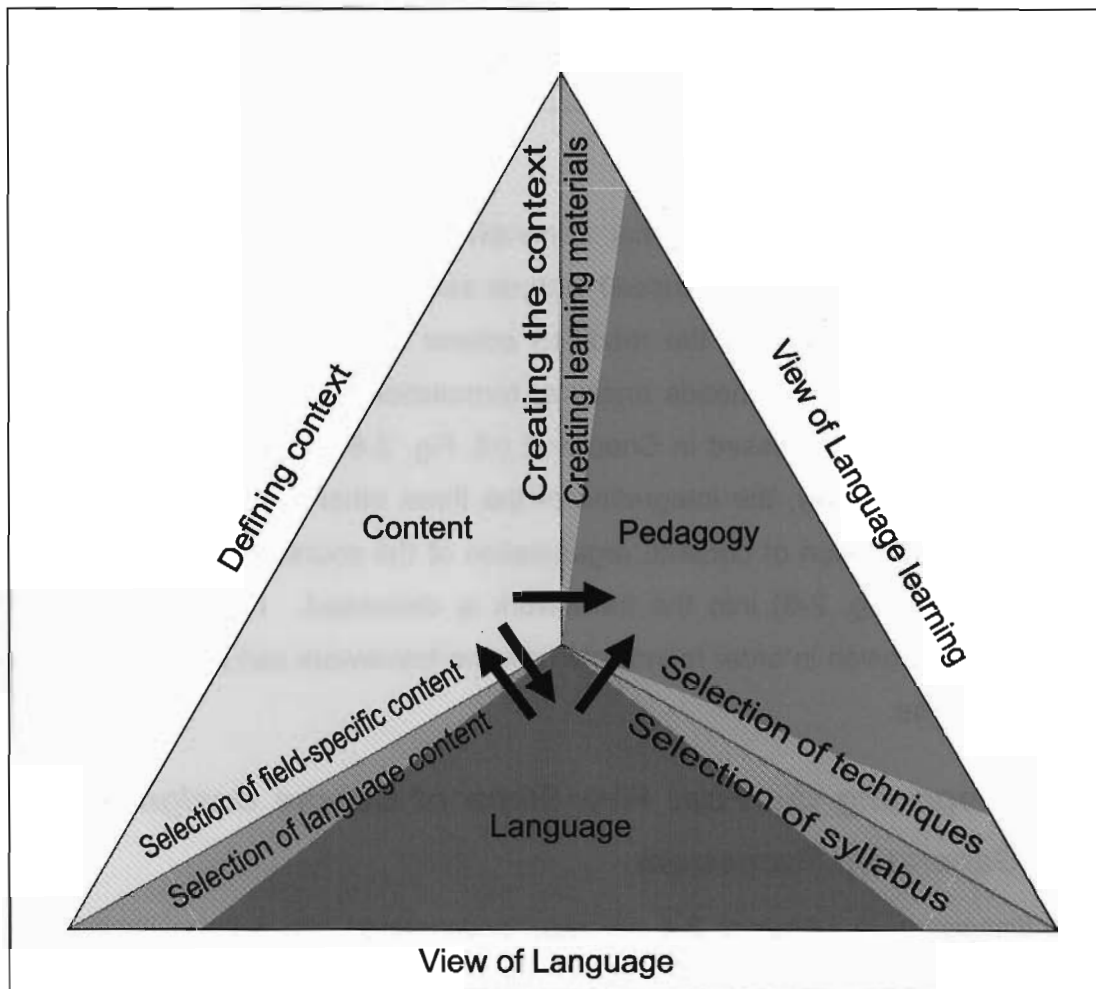


Figure 5-1: Generative framework for ESP courses

5.2.1 A Generative Framework for ESP Courses

The three-dimensional prism (cf. Fig. 5-2) illustrates the Generative Framework for ESP Courses proposed in this study. The prism was chosen because ESP course design is three-dimensional, as it is concerned with language, pedagogy and content. These three dimensions each has a different core (namely, language, content and pedagogy). Each of these cores has one theoretical leg (e.g. for language it is "View of language", while the theoretical leg for content is "Defining context" and "View of language learning" forms the theoretical foundation for pedagogy). Each dimension or triangle also has two legs that overlap or border on each of the other dimensions and these indicate how the three core aspects are interlinked and how they relate to the process of course design. The course designer, therefore, has a comprehensive picture of the

whole process as well as step-by-step instructions on the process of course design.

5.2.2 Integrating the First Five Steps in the Course Design Model with the Framework

A Articulating Beliefs

According to Robinson (1991:7), the identification of needs for a specific group of students “will be influenced by the ideological preconceptions of the analysts. A different group of analysts working with the same group of students, but with different views on teaching and learning, would be highly likely to produce a different set of needs.” It is, therefore, imperative for the course designer to be aware of his/her views on language teaching and learning and to have knowledge of the existing views on language and learning as discussed in Chapter 3. These are represented by two ‘outer sides’ of the prism, labelled as “View of Language” and “View of Language Learning”.

B Determining the Context

After the course designer has explicitly stated his/her underlying beliefs regarding language and language learning, the starting point or core context within which the course will be taught can be defined. The course designer will have to determine whether the central organising factor of the course will be the language (as in the case of a Formalist Approach) or the content (as in the case of a Functionalist Approach or Content-Based Instruction). This means that the context could be created by focusing on language-specific content (e.g. texts which include the grammar, lexis and register required for the course), or field-specific content (which focus on the discourse domain). The central organising factor will also determine the focus of the needs analysis and the instruments that will be used to determine the needs. This aspect is indicated in the model by means of the arrows. Either Language or Content can be the central organising factor of the course, but not Pedagogy.

When the language content is chosen as the central organising factor of the course it will lead to a structural and behavioural syllabus and the incorporation of methods such as the Audiolingual method, Total Physical Response, the Silent

Way or the Cognitive Code Method (cf. Section 3.4.1C.IV). However, when using the field-specific content as the central organising factor of the course, more functionalist syllabi can be used, e.g. Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based method, or Content-Based Instruction (cf. Sections 3.4.2C.I, 3.4.2C.II & 3.4.3).

Widdowson (1984:216) expresses concern about the use of language content and specifically functions (what he terms as “analytic isolates”) as the central organising factor of the course: “But the question now arises as to how such isolates are to be presented so that they are used in the actual communicative process from which they have been abstracted by idealization. For unless they are used *for* communication in the classroom they remain items to be stored as knowledge not essentially different from sentence patterns but with new labels attached”. This implies that the language content will remain a list of items and the students will not be empowered to apply these lists within the required context.

So, even though the Language dimension can be used as the central organising factor of a course, I have chosen the Content dimension as the starting point for both courses that were developed in Chapter 7. This means that the required language content is taught in such a manner “as to preserve its communicative character” (Widdowson, 1984:215). The language elements are, therefore integrated with the content. However, as part of the outline of each lesson within the course a checklist of language items (skills, functions, structures and discourse aspects) is provided under the heading “Language Focus”, so that the teacher can focus on the language as required by means of, for example, formal instruction (cf. Section 3.4.1D.II).

C Needs Analysis

Kuter (1999) remarks that “needs analysts should be cautious in collecting information from various sources due to the multiplicity and diversity of the views on prerequisites for an ESP course.” The needs analysis for the suggested framework is, therefore, discussed in terms of only three sources of information - as distinguished by Richterich and Chancerel (1987) - namely the students

themselves, the students' employers and the academic organisation. West (1994:6) calls this the "needs analysis triangle" (cf. Fig.5-2 below).

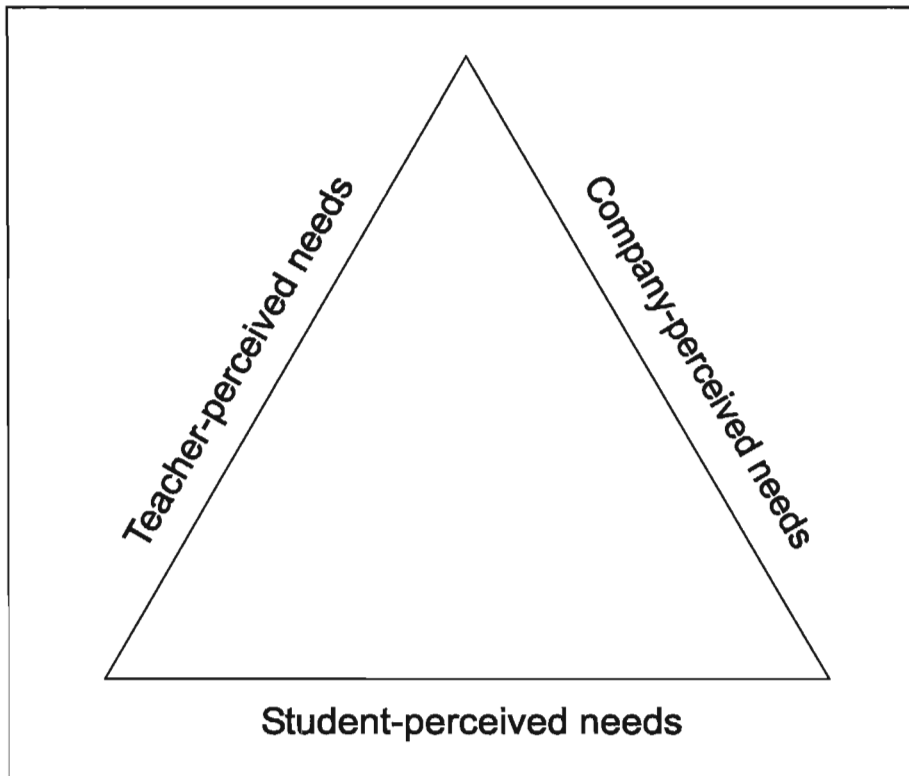


Figure 5-2: Needs analysis triangle by West (1994:6)

Even though it has been a long held view that these three sources are contradictory in nature, Mehrmohammadi (2003:3) is of the opinion that they can be reconciled and that this integration or reconciliation makes the process of course design more effective. This is also the point of departure for a needs analysis as discussed as part of the generative framework.

Furthermore, Robinson (1991:15) states that the course designer should "have some idea of *how*" the data gathered from the needs analysis will be analysed and used. According to Kormos et al. (2002:519), opinions differ to a great extent in terms of "the content of any form of needs analysis" and they add that "there are as many types of needs analysis tools (questionnaires etc). as projects."

In Sections 5.2.2C.I-5.2.2C.III below, the three sources of information are discussed in terms of the different data gathering methods and tools and some indication is given of how the data can be analysed and used. However, as

stated above, the needs analyst should adapt and apply these methods to suit the aims of the needs analysis of the study or the project.

C.1 Student-Perceived Needs

When using the students as a source of information, a Present Situation Analysis (PSA) can be done. According to Robinson (1991:9), the goal of a PSA is “to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses.”

Closely linked to a PSA is a Deficiency Analysis that is usually done in order to determine the learners’ *lacks* and *wants*. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:56), the “target proficiency ... needs to be matched against the existing proficiency of the learners. The gap between the two can be referred to as the learners’ lacks.” West (1994:4) describes *wants* as “needs that are personal and are therefore sometimes referred to as *subjective needs*”. West (1994:4) also adds that a Deficiency Analysis, “which asks learners to identify their own learning priorities, should throw up any such wants.”

In their study “An Academic Writing Needs Assessment of ESL Clinical Investigators”, Wang and Bakken (2004:181) describe their Deficiency Analysis as follows: “At the core of this theory is identification of the discrepancy between current and desired proficiency perceived by self and others as a basis for educational decision making.” They have, therefore, not only used the students’ own perceptions of their needs, but also the ESL researchers’ perspectives of the students’ current and desired proficiency levels.

The students can also provide valuable information for a Strategy Analysis, which is explained by West (1994:11) as the learners’ “preferred learning strategies for progressing from where they are ... to where they want to go.”

West (1994:7-8) identifies the following instruments that can be used to do a PSA, Deficiency Analysis and a Strategy Analysis to provide data on the students:

- Pre-course placement or diagnostic tests, which “estimate the approximate language level of students” (West, 1994:7). Examples of such tests are

the British Cambridge Syndicate's International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the American Educational Test Service's Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). According to West (1994:7), these tests provide "results in the form of a profile, enabling the teacher to diagnose areas of weakness and strength according to skill."

- Entry tests on arrival, which could aid in the identification of the learners' weaknesses and lacks. However, West (1994:7) warns that such "tests function according to their underlying construct of language", for example, "tests of underlying linguistic competence ... may have good predictive validity ... but little diagnostic value, while those covering a broad range of skills ... may have limitations of practicality." Therefore, the course designer should identify the test's underlying assumptions of language and language learning and match the results to these assumptions.
- Questionnaires are "now established as the most common method of needs analysis" (West, 1994:7) and can be used to assess the students' learning priorities. The most important advantage of questionnaires is that of objectivity. However, their rate of return can be as low as 7% (Gardner & Winslow, 1983:74) and it is very difficult to "achieve a balance between asking too many questions and asking too few" (West, 1994:7). Questionnaires can also be used to inform on a Strategy Analysis as they can aid in determining the students' existing learning strategies. Oxford (1990:283-300) has developed a comprehensive questionnaire named Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) "with a diagnostic profile designed to interpret a learner's results in terms of currently-preferred strategies" (West, 1994:11).
- Structured interviews, according to West (1994:8), can "be combined with questionnaires to exploit the advantages of each method." West (1994:7) summarises the advantages of structured interviews as follows: "completeness of coverage and the opportunity to clarify and extend because of the physical presence of the analyst" as well as the "establishment of rapport" with the interviewee.
- Learner diaries. According to O'Brien (1989), these diaries tend to focus on four areas, namely: "course input, tutor performance, learner performance and external factors affecting study (home-related anxiety, food and accommodation, and personal variables)" West (1994:8),

however, warns that diaries “are essentially retrospective, i.e. last year’s diaries are useful when planning next year’s course, and this is an obvious limitation.”

Even though the student-perceived needs might not always correlate with the teacher- or company-perceived needs (cf. 5.2.2C.II & 5.2.2C.III), there are advantages to what Robinson (1991:14) calls a “participatory needs analysis”. These are summarised by Nunan (1988:5) as follows:

- Learners come to have a more realistic idea of what can be achieved in a given course.
- Learning is seen as the gradual accretion of achievable goals.
- Students develop greater sensitivity to their role and responsibilities as language learners.
- Self-evaluation becomes sharper.
- Classroom activities can be seen to relate to learners’ real-life needs.
- Skills development can be seen as a gradual, rather than an all-or-nothing process.

C.II *Teacher-Perceived Needs*

In addition to the learner- and the company-perceived needs (cf. 5.2.2C.III), there are teacher-perceived needs. According to West (1994:6), the teacher is sometimes referred to as the “specialist needs analyst” and “it is the role of this ‘expert’ in applied linguistics which has sometimes been viewed with suspicion as separating the perceived needs from other aspects of learning and teaching.” Hutchinson and Waters (1980) blame this perception of “the separation of needs analysis from pedagogic concerns on elaborate analysis models requiring an expert analysis (e.g. Munby, 1978),” and according to West (1994:6), a feature of later models has been a reaction against sophistication towards simpler models.” Therefore, even though the teacher might not regard him-/herself as an expert in applied linguistics, he/she can still provide valuable input for the needs analysis.

Furthermore, “there is a need for a common language between trainers and trainees ... for a shared terminology for describing objectives which is accessible to both language specialists and non-specialists” (West, 1994:6). Thus, the

students as well as the teachers need to form an integral part of the needs analysis.

Another area of needs analysis in which the teacher can provide valuable data, is a Means Analysis, which investigates the “practicalities and constraints in implementing needs-based language courses” (West, 1994:11). Wu (2001:7) describes this type of analysis as a review of all the external and internal factors that impact on the change situation. According to Wu (2001:7), the external factors may include:

- parental expectations;
- employer requirements, and
- community values.

The internal factors relate to:

- teacher attitudes and skills;
- students’ abilities;
- school expectations, and
- material resources.

According to Frankel (1983:120), “in the real-world of ELT, there has to be a creative synthesis of theoretical principles and practical constraints, and ... where these conflict, as they sometimes do, the latter must take precedence.”

Means Analysis is, therefore, “an attempt to reduce the hit-and-miss nature of many projects and this kind of approach, which is normally discussed in EAP contexts, has parallels with more systematic approaches to EOP and general language course design” (West, 1994:11-12).

The teacher can also provide valuable data for a Deficiency Analysis. West (1994:10) explains that this type of needs analysis takes “account of learners’ present needs/wants as well as the requirements of the target situation.” West (1994:10) illustrates an example of a Deficiency Analysis with three components as developed by Bheiss (1988) in the following manner:

A Generative Framework for ESP Courses

- a list of potential target-situation skills (e.g. reading, writing, listening and speaking) supplied by a specialist informant;
- a *needs questionnaire* using a 0 = unnecessary to 4 = essential scale to establish the target-situation need for each of the sub-skills (e.g. reading manuals, writing memos etc.);
- a *lacks questionnaire* using a 0 = no difficulty to 4 = very difficult scale to establish the present-situation deficiency of each of the sub-skills (e.g. reading manuals, writing memos etc).

These questionnaires are given to students as well as specialist tutors and “the overall needs and lacks of the group are calculated” (West, 1994:10).

The following are instruments that can be used to ascertain teacher-perceived needs:

- Observation schedules. According to Hyland (2006:267), “observation for research purposes involves systematic and conscious recording as a way of seeing .. actions in a new light, often based on prior decisions about what to observe”. Yalden (1987:132) suggests that learners’ performance in the classroom should be observed by means of an error-analysis checklist or an evaluation sheet. West (1994:7) also adds that “informal class or progress tests perform a similar function in providing indicators of present needs or deficiencies.” Kormos et al. (2002:519) state that observation schedules are some of “the most commonly used tools” in needs assessment.
- Questionnaires can be used to determine the teacher’s view of language and language learning as well as the learning strategies the teacher regards as important for the course. Hyland (2006:278) states that the questionnaire is perhaps the most commonly used instrument for collecting needs data “partly because its structured format makes it easy to administer and gives the teacher considerable control in framing issues for large groups and in analysing results”. However, Hyland (2006:278) notes that, with questionnaires, there is “a lack of opportunities for immediate follow-up and clarification”.
- Structured interviews with the teacher can also be very valuable, and when combined with questionnaires, they can provide valuable data with regard to teacher-perceived needs. Hyland (2006:262) states that

“interviews offer more flexibility and greater potential for elaboration and detail” than questionnaires.

- Teacher diaries, in addition to student diaries, “can be a source of needs analysis” (West, 1994:8).. According to Hyland (2006:265), diary studies “offer an alternative, and more straightforward, way of gaining introspective data. They provide a first-person account of writing practices through regular candid entries in a personal journal which is analysed for recurring patterns or important events”. The same limitation is, however, true as for learner diaries, namely that these diaries are retrospective and that the analyst will need diaries from the previous year to plan for a future course.

C.III *Company-Perceived Needs*

The third leg of the triangle (cf. Fig. 5-2) is concerned with the views of the sponsors or companies on what should be taught to prospective employees. According to West (1994:6), “employers and governments have had to formulate or re-evaluate their language-training policies in the light of changing economic or political circumstances, and have commissioned *language audits* from experts in order to determine their needs and the most efficient ways of achieving them.”

The Language Audit is, therefore, closely linked to two steps in the whole process of course design (cf Fig. 2-5), namely the articulation of beliefs and the definition of the context. The language audit uses linguistics, psychological and contextual inputs and converts them into outcomes.

Robinson (1991:10) explains that a Language Audit “is used to plot the role played by a foreign language in a commercial or industrial enterprise.” According to Robinson (1991:10), three steps are taken to determine this role:

- The specific language skills needed to perform the job are identified. The analyst therefore finds “out what tasks or activities people perform in their jobs ... and must then decide what level of language performance is required for these tasks.
- A profile of present ability is established, showing to which extent the students “match up to their job requirements.”

- The analyst indicates how much language training is needed in order “to bridge the gap between the employees’ present ability profile and the company’s target profile.”

The following instruments can be used to determine the company-perceived needs:

- Questionnaires and interviews with management and employees at the company. Hyland (2006:262) states that these two methods “may be used productively in parallel. Interviews may usefully precede questionnaires as exploratory studies for identifying issues and focusing questions more precisely. Alternatively, questionnaires can highlight general issues about what goes on in a context which can be explored later by more in-depth methods”.
- Observation and case studies of employees at the company in order to gather data on their day-to-day activities and the language required for these activities. However, it is important that good relations should first be established between the analyst and the industry staff. The analyst should therefore only make brief visits at convenient times and should explain the purpose of the visits carefully. Hyland (2006:65) indicates that case studies are a type of ethnography “which sets out to give a participant-, or insider-oriented description of individuals’ cultural practices”. Hyland (2006:66) adds that case studies “focus on a holistic explanation of participants’ behaviour and draw on the views of insiders themselves, avoiding any pre-formed interpretations to describe key incidents in functionally relevant terms in relation to the wider social context”.
- Job descriptions of employees. This would provide a good indication of what the company expects from the employee. These tasks can then be analysed in terms of the language needed to perform them.
- Authentic data collection, which “refers to the making of audio or video recordings, for example of real-life business negotiations ..., and to the collection of print material, for instance samples of commercial correspondence” (Robinson, (1991:14) that learners are supposed to read and write. Robinson (1991:14) notes “the importance of making an accurate record of the source of the data and noting such factors as how and for what it was being used and in what kind of situation.”

According to Mehrmohammadi (2003:2), needs assessment “is a critical and complex issue, which comprises the most significant component of the curriculum development process.” He also adds that needs-based “curriculum development is a highly dynamic process”. This means that a needs analysis can never be final within the circular process of course design (cf. Fig. 2-5). The process of needs assessment could, therefore, be a very elaborate and detailed process, but there are usually time constraints on the development of the course. This means that the needs analyst should incorporate the three sources for needs assessment as effectively as the time allows and he/she should also store the data, so that the data can be adapted and referred to within the next round of the circular process of course design.

D Formulation of Outcomes

The data gathered from the different instruments used during the needs analysis will guide the course designer to formulate outcomes for the course. Brown and Hudson (2003:30) define outcomes or objectives as “statements of what we want our students to be able to do by the end of a course or program”. These outcomes are formulated, not only in terms of the language skills that students need to master, but also the outcomes related to content and pedagogy. Douglas (2000:35) has identified and describes three types of outcomes within the field of specific purpose language ability. These are:

- Language knowledge, which includes grammatical knowledge, textual knowledge, functional knowledge and linguistic knowledge. These types of outcomes relate closely to the language dimension in the framework.
- Background knowledge, which includes discourse domains and “frames of reference based on past experience which we use to make sense of current input and make predictions about that which is to come” (Douglas, 2000:35). These outcomes would relate to the content dimension of the framework.
- Strategic competence, which includes self assessment, goal setting, planning and control of execution. These outcomes are related to the dimension of pedagogy within the framework.

The outcomes for an ESP course can, therefore, be formulated in terms of all three of the dimensions in the framework (cf. Fig. 5-1), namely language, content and pedagogy. The number of outcomes specified for each of these dimensions will differ from course to course and will be determined by the focus of the course. This means that, for example, a structural course based on the Audiolingual Method (cf. Section 3.4.1C.1) might have a number of language outcomes specified with a few outcomes related to background knowledge and no outcomes related to strategic competence as the teacher determines the goals and controls the execution. However, when Content-Based Instruction (cf. Section 3.4.3) is followed, there might be a number of outcomes related to background knowledge and the language outcomes will be formulated in terms of the background knowledge. Furthermore, outcomes of strategic competence will also feature as the adjunct model (cf. Section 3.4.3C) not only focuses on learners' acquisition of the target vocabulary but also on the relevant study skills required for the mainstream classes.

E Designing an Assessment Plan

Douglas (2000:19) defines a specific purpose language test in the following way:

A specific purpose language test is one in which test content and methods are derived from an analysis of a specific purpose target language use situation, so that test tasks and content are authentically representative of tasks in the target situation, allowing for an interaction between the test taker's language ability and the specific purpose content knowledge, on the one hand, and the test tasks on the other. Such a test allows us to make inferences about a test taker's capacity to use language in the specific purpose domain.

From this definition, four criteria for ESP assessment can be derived:

- Assessment tasks are closely linked with the outcomes of an ESP course. Brown and Hudson (2002:29) have also changed the order of the elements of course design in their model, so that the assessment plan or as they phrase it, "testing" is placed just after the formulation of the objectives (cf. Fig. 2-6).
- The content and methods of ESP assessment is based on the results of the Needs Analysis.
- Assessment tasks are authentic and should reflect similar tasks within the target situation.

- Students' language ability as well as their knowledge of the specific purpose domain or field-specific content are assessed.

In order to adhere to the above-mentioned criteria, the course designer should consider certain aspects with regard to assessment that will now be discussed.

E.1 Norm-Referenced vs. Criterion-Referenced Assessment

According to Brown and Hudson (2002:2), a norm-referenced test (NRT) can be described as a “test that is primarily designed to disperse the performances of students in a normal distribution based on their general abilities, or proficiencies, for purposes of categorizing the students into levels or comparing students' performances to the performances of the others who formed the normative group”. Initially, this was the way that assessment was done, but then criterion-referenced tests (CRT's) were “developed in educational circles in response to problems, or weaknesses, that were perceived in the pervasive norm-referenced testing of the day” (Brown and Hudson, 2002:6).

CRT's were, therefore, developed when problems were experienced with NRT's. These problems as identified by Brown and Hudson (2002:6) include the following:

- Teaching/testing mismatches.
- Lack of instructional sensitivity.
- Lack of curricular relevance.
- Restriction to the normal distribution.
- Restriction to items that discriminate.

In order to overcome the above-mentioned problems, CRT's were developed. Brown and Hudson (2002:5) define a CRT as “any test that is primarily designed to describe the performances of examinees in terms of the amount that they know of a specific domain of knowledge or set of objectives”. They also explain how CRT's solve the above-mentioned problems (Brown & Hudson, 2002:9-14). It is obvious that language assessment of ESP should be done in terms of CRT's and not NRT's as “a specific domain of knowledge” as well as “a set of objectives” are specified in ESP.

However, CRT's also require very definite proficiency descriptors or assessment standards in order to be effective. Guidelines for the developments of these criteria/descriptors are given in the next section.

E.II Guidelines for Designing Assessment Criteria in CRT

The Common European Framework for References in Language (CEF)(Council of Europe, 2001:205) provides the following guidelines for developing assessment criteria.

- **Positiveness:** It is sometimes more difficult to formulate proficiency on low levels in terms of what learners can do rather than in terms of what they cannot do. However, "if levels of proficiency are to serve as objectives rather than just as an instrument for screening candidates, then positive formulation is desirable" (Council of Europe, 2001:205).
- **Definiteness:** Criteria should describe concrete tasks and/or concrete degrees of skill in performing tasks and should not use vague terms such as "a range of appropriate strategies" (Council of Europe, 2001:206).
- **Clarity:** Criteria should be "written in simple syntax with an explicit, logical structure" (Council of Europe, 2001:206).
- **Brevity:** This is necessary, because criteria that are described in "longer than a two clause sentence cannot realistically be referred to during the assessment process" (Council of Europe, 2001:207).
- **Independence:** The CEF (Council of Europe, 2001:207) states that this is necessary, because then the assessment criteria can be used as independent descriptors on assessment tools such as rubrics. They could, therefore, serve as objectives as well "rather than having meaning only relative to the formulation of other criteria on the scale".

These are very helpful guidelines in formulating assessment criteria from the course outcomes or objectives. According to Brown and Hudson (2002:31), the assessment of the objectives of a course can be done from three different perspectives. These are discussed in the next section.

E.III Different Perspectives of CRTs

CRTs can also be distinguished in terms of the purpose of the test, which is described by Brown and Hudson (2002:31) as "different perspectives of CRT's".

They (Brown & Hudson, 2002:31-32) list the three different perspectives as diagnostic, progress and achievement testing. In terms of diagnostic testing, the following question should be asked: “Do the students need to learn the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives?”. This question can only be answered with the data from a needs analysis. The question “How are the students doing in learning the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives?” is relevant to progress testing. This happens as part of the continuous assessment during the course and will be determined by feedback from the students during the course. The third question that can be asked relates to achievement testing, which takes place at the end of the course. The question is “How much of the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives did the students learn?”

All three of these perspectives are important in the assessment of the ESP course as well as in the assessment of the students as “answering such questions not only makes it possible to study the effectiveness of the course objectives, but also to revise and refine them so they function better in future courses” (Brown & Hudson, 2002:32).

5.2.3 Integrating the Other Steps of Course Design with the Generative Framework for ESP Courses

A The Language Dimension

In an ESP course design, language is one of the core aspects that need to be considered. As has been discussed in Section 3.5.1, there have been different views of language and these views are the foundation for the specification of language content and the language syllabus. It is, therefore important that the course designer explicitly states how these three legs or aspects of the language dimension are defined and specified.

A.1 View of Language

The base of the language dimension is formed by the course designer's view of language. There are a number of views of language which include the Formalist, Functionalist and Eclectic views as discussed in Section 3.4. It will, therefore be a good starting point for the course designer to familiarise him/herself with these

different views and to state his/her own views explicitly, as this view of language will influence the two other legs of the triangle, namely the selection of language content and the selection of language teaching methods, techniques and classroom procedures.

A.II *Selection of Language Content*

The side of the triangle that overlaps with or borders on the dimension of Content, is the selection of language content. The focus here is on the selection and ordering of the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) as well as the language structures and functions and the discourse associated with the specific field. However, these skills, structures, functions and discourse aspects cannot be specified in isolation and that is why this side overlaps with the dimension of content.

The selection of language skills and functions will depend on data gathered from the target situation as well as the present situation. The instruments listed in Sections 5.2.2C.I - 5.2.2C.III can be designed and used to extract this information from the participants in the study.

An example of a questionnaire as well as a structured interview that has been designed for this purpose can be found in Appendix 1. This questionnaire has been designed with the help of Munby's (1978:118-131) "taxonomy of language skills" as well as the list of functions compiled by Wilkins (1976).

A.III *Selection of Syllabus*

The third leg of the Language triangle borders on and overlaps with the Pedagogic dimension and this involves the organisation of the selected language content. As discussed in Section 3.4, the syllabus can follow a formalist, functionalist or eclectic approach in terms of the presentation and organisation of language content. The decision of which type of syllabus will be used will also influence the choice of techniques and this is where the Language dimension interlinks with the Pedagogy dimension. The syllabus is, therefore a specification of the organisation of the language content.

The course designer will, again, have to be aware of the developments in ESP pedagogy as well as the different types of syllabi or methods that already exist. These will depend on the view of language and have been discussed in detail in Section 3.4.

The age of the learners, the available time for a course, the language skills and functions required for the target situation, and the course designer's view of language will form the basis for a decision on the organisation of the course within a specific syllabus.

B Content Dimension

In contrast with EGP (English for General Purposes), which does not focus on or operate within a specific field of expertise, ESP course design needs to take field-specific content into consideration and, therefore, the Content dimension plays an important role in designing an English course for specific purposes.

B.1 Defining Context

The context within which a course is taught is created where the Pedagogy and the Content dimensions meet. Douglas (2000:42-43) clarifies and relates the aspects of context as identified by Hymes (1974) and applies them to Language for Specific Purposes (LSP). These aspects include:

- the physical and temporal settings;
- the participants;
- the outcomes of the course
- form and content
- the channels of communication (e.g. face-to-face or on the telephone)
- the genres

It is, therefore, important for the course designer to create his/her own definition of context by considering the aspects mentioned above. For example, an English course for pre-service engineers at a tertiary institution would differ from an English course for in-service engineers in the field. The pre-service engineers will still be expected to perform certain academic tasks (e.g. listening to lectures and note taking) that might not be regarded as important for the in-service group. Furthermore, pre-service engineers will already be used to an academic class

schedule and therefore classes would have to be presented according to the teaching policy at the university (e.g. outcomes-based teaching and task-based methods). It must also be taken into account that the pre-service students will have access to the resources provided by the university (e.g. library, computer laboratories etc). However, in-service engineers would probably have to attend evening classes and the teaching methodology and types of tasks would therefore differ (e.g. they might be expected to practise language by means of drills and repetition tables or to keep diaries or report on a case study at work).

B.II Creating the Context

Stoller and Grabe (1997:83-86) have proposed a “Six-T’s Approach” that combines course design and content in a coherent manner. These were mentioned in Section 3.5.2C, but will be discussed now in order to indicate how they can be used to integrate the Content and Pedagogy dimensions of the framework. After a needs analysis has been done, the content is organised using the following six words starting with a “t”:

- Themes, which “are the central ideas that organize major curricular units; they are chosen to be appropriate to student needs and interests, institutional expectations, program resources, and teacher abilities and interests” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:83).
- Texts, which “are content resources (written and aural) which drive the basic planning of theme units. Text selection will depend on a number of criteria: Student interest, relevance, and instructional appropriateness ... format appeal, length, coherence, connection to other materials, accessibility, availability, and cost” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:83).
- Topics, which “are subunits of content which explore more specific aspects of the theme ... In general, topics should be organized to generate maximum coherence for the theme unit and to provide opportunities to explore both content and language” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:83).
- Threads, which “are linkages across themes which create greater curricular coherence ... they are abstract concepts (e.g. responsibility, ethics, contrasts, power) that provide natural means for linking themes, for reviewing and recycling important content and language across themes, and for revisiting selected learning strategies” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:84-85).

- Tasks, which “are the instructional activities and techniques utilized for content, language and strategy instruction in language classrooms” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:85). It should be noted here that, in terms of ESP course design, a distinction can be made between general language tasks (e.g. descriptive writing) and field-specific tasks (e.g. describing a specific procedure that needs to be repeated by a colleague).
- Transitions, which “are explicitly planned actions which provide coherence *across* topics in a theme and *across* tasks within topics. Transitions create links across topics and provide constructive entrees for new tasks and topics within a theme unit” (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:85). According to Snow (2005:697) task transitions “might require students to interpret a graph illustrating population trends, create a graph with new data, or write the information contained in the graph into paragraph form”. Transitions, therefore, also refer to interpreting and analysing information so that it can be represented in words or symbolically by making use of discourse aspects as referred to in Section 3.4.2D.II & 3.5.1C.

For purposes of course design, the themes, topics, texts and tasks can be explicitly stated as part of an outline, while transitions will be specified through the tasks and discourse aspects and the threads will be implied through coherence in the themes and topics.

B.III Selection of Field-Specific Content

The Content side of the triangle overlaps with the Language dimension as the different jobs that need to be performed within the specialist field or within that specific situation are analysed and described in terms of field-specific tasks. If language is used as the central organising feature of the course, the information on the field-specific content will be used to create a context for the selected language items.

If content is regarded as the starting point of the course, these field-specific tasks are then analysed in terms of the vocabulary, grammar structures, language skills and functions that need to be taught in order to perform them. For example, before learners can write technical reports, they should first be able to perform the following tasks:

- Access and read literature on the topic.
- Summarise information from several sources effectively.
- Conduct interviews.
- Analyse data.
- Report data within the formal register of a report.
- Be familiar with the format of a technical report.
- Use the Past Indefinite and Historic Present tense.

Even after tasks have been analysed and students have been taught the vocabulary, language skills and functions, students may still struggle to perform tasks due to inaccessible language and discourse in authentic texts. According to Tang (1997:69), teachers can then basically follow one of two methods to make language more accessible to ESP students: “bring the students’ English proficiency to a level at which they can read expository text in content textbooks, or ... bring the language in the content textbooks to the level of the students.” The course designer will therefore have to decide to follow one or a combination of these methods to aid students in functioning effectively in both the Language and the Content dimensions.

Douglas (2000:89) summarises the findings of Clapham (1996) who performed a study on the relationship between specific purpose background knowledge (e.g. knowledge of the discourse domain) and students’ language ability. These findings reiterate Tang’s (1997:69) point of view that language should be made accessible to students. The findings were that:

- Input must be rich in specific purpose cues as this “will help insure that test takers will engage in an appropriate discourse domain” (Douglas, 2000:89).
- “The more highly specialized test content becomes, the greater the influence of LSP background knowledge in its interaction with language knowledge in the communicative performance” (Douglas, 2000:89). The ESP course designer and teacher could supplement the learners’ background knowledge by providing authentic, relevant and field-specific texts and materials.

- There seems to be a “threshold of language ability required before test takers can make effective use of their LSP background knowledge” (Douglas, 2000:89).

C The Pedagogy Dimension

ESP course design also places a very strong emphasis on teaching. This means that content should not only be specified very clearly for a specific situation, but the teacher should be able to guide the learners effectively to apply this content within their specific fields of expertise. This is why Pedagogy is at the core of the third dimension of the prism.

C.I View of Language Learning

The theory on which this dimension is founded is the course designer's view of language learning. This forms a very important aspect of this dimension and the course designer needs to be aware of existing theories (e.g. the importance of input (cf. Section 3.4.2B), interaction (cf. Section 3.4.2C.II.iii), formal instruction (cf. Section 3.4.1D.II) etc. in the process of language learning) as well as state the view of language learning that the course will be based upon. The different theories on the views of language learning were discussed in Section 3.4.

C.II Selection of Techniques and Classroom Procedures

The learner-perceived needs as well as the teacher-perceived needs play an important role on this side of the triangle. There are a number of language teaching techniques and classroom procedures to choose from (as discussed in Section 3.4). These might be combined in an eclectic approach that includes techniques such as translation, facilitation, drills, use of dialogues, use of realia, dictation, use of substitution tables, and the performance of tasks and role plays (cf. Sections 3.4.1D & 3.4.2D).

However, the choice will also take note of language learning strategies that would be most effective for the students. Rebecca Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (1990:283-300) can be a useful instrument to determine this. This questionnaire points out the lacks or gaps in terms of language learning strategies of the students and can be very helpful to the teacher. The teacher can then combine the necessary strategies with the existing

methodologies to convey the language and field-specific content in the most effective way to the students.

This dimension would also influence the choice of materials and tasks. For example, if the teacher decides to follow a task-based method, the activities will probably be communicative and, therefore the teacher should use authentic materials that will aid in the students' fluency.

C.III *Creating the Learning Materials*

According to Eskey (1997:137), psycholinguists such as Rumelhart (1980) and Smith (1975) have proven that "acquiring new knowledge always entails relating new information to what the learners already know, to the networks of knowledge (now often called *schemata*) of which their cognitive structures are composed." This means that "students learn or acquire a language by using it, not by memorizing rules or doing meaningless drills, and by using it to fulfil real communicative needs" (Eskey, 1997:137). Therefore, it is pedagogically sound to provide meaningful contextualized learning materials.

One way of creating the learning materials is to include authentic, effective and field-specific texts. Stoller and Grabe (1997:84) have identified four types of texts that can link the Pedagogy dimension to the Content dimension and ways in which the teacher and students can create a favourable learning environment. These texts "drive the basic planning of theme units" and can therefore be written or aural" (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:84) (cf. Table 5-1).

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Readings of various genres, videos,

	audiotapes, maps, tables, graphs, software
Instructor-generated content resources	Lectures, worksheets, graphic representations, bulletin board displays
Task-generated content resources	Student freewrites, discussions, problem-solving activities, graphic representations, library searches, debates, surveys, questionnaires
External content resources	Guest speakers, field trips

Table 5-1 Four basic types of texts used in theme units (Stoller & Grabe, 1997:84)

5.3 Step-by-Step Suggestions for Implementing the Framework in Designing an ESP Course

In this section, a step-by-step explanation is given on how to use the framework to design an ESP course.

Even though the chosen model for course design is spiral, it has a definite starting point, namely the articulation of beliefs. This will lead to the choice of the central organising factor of the course (i.e. which of the dimensions of the prism will be used to organise the course – the language or the content?). Then the process of course design starts with needs analysis, which informs the formulation of outcomes and assessment standards. When the outcomes of the course have been established, the course designer can now make decisions related to the conceptualisation and organisation of the course. This will include the choice of the syllabus as well as the teaching methodology. This will then indicate the completion of the first cycle of the process of course design that can then be repeated in order to meet the changing needs of the stakeholders.

5.3.1 Step 1: Articulating Beliefs

Write down the theories underlying the intended course by reflecting upon and formulating answers to the following aspects or questions:

- Formulate a definition of language that would be acceptable to all the stakeholders in the process of course design (e.g. the students, teachers and the company) (cf. Section 3.4).

- Determine which view of language learning (cf. Section 3.4) would be the most effective starting point for this specific ESP course.
- It is important to note that the above definitions may involve a combination of views, i.e. an eclectic approach can be followed. This is likely to be the case in practice in most cases. However, the aspects of each of the approaches that will be incorporated into the course need to be specified clearly.

5.3.2 Step 2: Conducting a Needs Analysis

Conduct a needs analysis and be sure to involve all three parties (teacher, student and company, as discussed in Section 5.4.) in order to create triangulation within your analysis and to collect as much of the relevant data as possible. In terms of the three types of participants and the three dimensions in the framework, the instruments listed in Table 5-2 might be considered.

	Language	Pedagogy	Content
Student-perceived needs	Tests: placement, entry diagnostic Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations	Language learning strategy questionnaire (E.g. SILL by Oxford) Student diaries Observations	Student diaries Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations Corpora
Teacher-perceived needs	Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations	Teacher diaries Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations	Questionnaires Structured interviews
Company-perceived needs	Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations	Observations	Job descriptions Questionnaires Structured interviews Observations Corpora

Table 5-2 Instruments of Data Collection

The research design for the needs analysis can either be qualitative or quantitative or a combination of the two. However, according to Padgett (2004:xxi), “qualitative research has had its most rapid growth in applied fields such as education, nursing, medicine, business and social work.” This means that ESP course design, which is also an applied field within the broader fields of education and linguistics, should be well-suited to a qualitative design. The fact that the course designer will also work within a very specific situation with very specific stakeholders strengthens the idea that qualitative research, specifically in the form of a case study, could be very helpful in the design of a needs assessment project.

5.3.3 Step 3: Specifying Language Content and Field-Specific Content from the Needs Analysis

The results from the Needs Analysis can now be summarised in terms of the language content (e.g. the vocabulary, functions, etc.) as well as the field-specific content (e.g. themes and topics, tasks to be performed in the specific area of expertise etc.) The decision should then be made whether language or content will be the central organising factor of the course. The course designer can either start from a specification of the language content and use the tasks and texts identified as field-specific content to create a context for the language or the course designer can start with the field-specific tasks and break them down into the language needed to perform these tasks.

In either case, the language content can be specified by means of a language checklist listing the skills, structures and discourse aspects (cf. Section 5.2.3A.II), while the field-specific content is specified in terms of themes, topics as well as tasks and texts that the students will engage in the specific field.

5.3.4 Step 4: Formulating Outcomes and Designing an Assessment Plan

The above-mentioned outcomes could be formulated in more general terms in order to give students an idea of what to expect from the course, or they could be formulated in very specific terms for a specific class, within a specific time frame, and including the assessment standards. Brown and Hudson (2003:37-47) have identified three different outcomes in terms of their specificity and formulation. These are:

- Performance objectives, in which “we are actually trying to find out what the students can do with the language. The only necessary requirements for most performance objectives are that they be stated in terms of what the students will be able to do with the language at the end of the course and that the stated performance must be observable in some way or other.” These are, therefore more general objectives that could be phrased in the following manner: By the end of the course, the students should be able to impart and seek factual information by identifying relevant information, asking for information and reporting information.

- Instructional objectives are more specific and will include the following types of descriptions: performance, conditions and criterion level or assessment standard. Brown and Hudson (2003:38) give an example of such an instructional objective: “By the end of the term, the students will be able to distinguish between simple present, simple future, and simple past tenses in regular verbs in a written passage of about 5th grade reading level on an academic topic with 80% accuracy.”
- Experiential objectives, which “by definition describe exactly what it is the teacher wants the students to experience and how that experience will be verified and observed. These objectives do not require intensive assessment and can usually be monitored by means of checklists. An example of a formulation of such an objective is: “By the end of the course, the students will have read five *Scientific American* articles in their major field of study and written a one paragraph summary of each article in lay terms” (Brown & Hudson, 2003:46).

The outcomes should, therefore be formulated in terms of the three dimensions of the framework (language, content and pedagogy) as well as in terms of their specificity and the most effective method of assessment (e.g. an answer key, a rubric or a checklist.)

5.3.5 Step 5: Conceptualising and Organising the Course

The data gathered from the needs analysis can now be organised and conceptualised within a specific syllabus. The course designer should now refer back to the questions answered in Steps 1 and 2 as well as the formulated outcomes and assessment plan and then answer the following questions:

- Which approach (as discussed in Sections 3.4.1, 3.4.2, 3.4.3 & 3.4.4) would be best to follow in terms of the beliefs that were articulated in Step 1 (cf. Section 5.3.1)?
- Which syllabus/methods (cf. Sections 3.4.1C, 3.4.2C & 3.4.3) would be useful in conceptualising and organising the course?
- Which teaching techniques and classroom procedures (cf. Sections 3.4.1C.I.iii, 3.4.1C.II.iii, 3.4.1C.III.iii, 3.4.1C.IV.iii, 3.4.2C.II.iii, 3.4.2C.I.iii & 3.4.3) would be most effective in conveying the specified content to the students?

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- How can the aspects of the “Six-T’s Approach” by Stoller and Grabe (1997) (as discussed in Section 5.2.3B.II) aid in the organisation of the course?

The conceptualisation of the course entails the synthesis and integration of a certain approach with a syllabus and certain techniques and classroom procedures. The conceptualisation will determine the themes, topics, tasks and the language content to be taught. However, the order in which all these aspects will be presented will be determined by the organisation of the course.

The organisation of the course implies grading of the content. Mohan (1986:25) proposed a “Knowledge Framework for Activities” that could be very useful in the grading of the content of an ESP course as it not only deals with “theoretical knowledge” but also with “specific practical knowledge” (Mohan, 1986:40).

These two concepts are defined by Mohan (1986:42) as follows:

...general theoretical knowledge deals with general concepts that are presented through language or through symbolic visuals such as charts, tables, and graphs. It is most easily communicated through expository teaching and learning. On the other hand, specific practical knowledge deals with specific things and events which can be presented through pictures, films, drama, or by direct experience of the things and events themselves. It is most easily communicated through experiential learning and teaching.

Furthermore, the “specific, practical side of the framework divides into description, sequence and choice (decision making)” (Mohan (1986:35). According to Mohan (1986:36), these three aspects can be described in the following way:

- Description answers the questions to Who?, What? and Where? The people, materials, equipment, items and settings are stipulated through description.
- Sequence provides answers to the questions related to processes, procedures or routines.
- Choice considers the conflicts, alternatives, dilemmas and decisions related to the tasks.

A Generative Framework for ESP Courses

The “general, theoretical side of the framework divides into concepts and classification, principles and evaluation” (Mohan, 1986:36). These properties of the general theoretical side is explained by Mohan (1986:36-37) as follows:

- Classification provides an answer to the question: What concepts apply and how are they related to each other?
- Principles are concerned with aspects such as cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques to perform a certain task, rules, norms and strategies.
- Evaluation deals with questions related to values and standards, e.g. What are the typical reasons for choosing one object or course of action over another?

Each specified task in the course outline can, therefore be analysed and organised according to Table 5-3.

TASK			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	<i>What people, materials equipment, items and settings are involved?</i>	<i>What concepts apply and how are they related to each other?</i>	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	<i>What are the processes, procedures and routines?</i>	<i>What principles of cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques, rules, norms, and strategies are involved?</i>	Principles
Choice	<i>What are the choices, conflicts, alternatives and decisions?</i>	<i>What are typical reasons for choosing one object or course of action over another?</i>	Evaluation

Table 5-3 A Knowledge Framework for Activities by Mohan (1986:35)

Each lesson outline within the course, therefore, starts from the specific and practical and then moves to the general and the theoretical. This form of grading is, therefore, well suited to ESP courses as they are developed for students to

enable them to communicate within a specific and practical situation. However, they need the theory and background knowledge in order to do that.

Another form of grading is according to the frequency of use as indicated by the questionnaires from the needs analysis. The language skills, structures, functions and discourse aspects are analysed in terms of their frequency of use (e.g. daily, weekly, monthly or annually). The more frequently the specific skills, structure, function or discourse aspects are required, the more frequently they will be repeated in the different lesson outlines of the course.

The outline of the course should, therefore, include a broad description of the aim of the course together with the general outcomes of the course. These should then be broken down into themes with specific outcomes, methods, texts, topics, tasks (organised according to Table 5-3) and techniques or classroom procedures that are presented in a specific order according to the grading.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter indicated how the three dimensions of ESP interact with a model on course design. This interaction was explained in terms of step-by-step guidelines in order to design an ESP course with the involvement of the specific stakeholders. This now leads to an illustration of how this framework can be adapted to design two different ESP courses.

6. NEEDS ANALYSES FOR TWO DIFFERENT COURSES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is an application of the Generative Framework discussed in Chapter 5 (cf. Fig. 5-1). In this chapter the method of research for the needs analyses for two different ESP courses is discussed. Both sets of needs analysis data have been gathered in terms of student-perceived, company-perceived and teacher-perceived needs. Furthermore, both these analyses can be seen as a combination of a target situation and a present situation analysis (cf. Section 5.2.2C).

This is Step 2 in the process of course design as integrated with the Generative Framework (cf. Section 5.3). Both courses are for fourth year students in two different faculties of the North-West University (NWU), Potchefstroom Campus. The first part of the chapter describes the needs analysis for an ESP course for students at the Faculty of Engineering and the second part of the chapter is a description of a needs analysis performed for students at the Faculty of Education. Each analysis is discussed in terms of the research design, which includes the participants, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis and a description of the results.

6.2 Needs Analysis for Fourth Year Engineering Students

The medium of instruction at the Faculty of Engineering, NWU, Potchefstroom campus, is Afrikaans. A pilot study among alumni of the faculty has indicated that when these graduates enter the workforce, they are required to perform a significant part of their jobs in English. It was, therefore, decided to do a needs analysis and to use the Generative Framework (discussed in Chapter 5) to design an outline of an ESP course for final year graduate students in order to aid in their assimilation into the workforce.

6.2.1 Research Design

The study was primarily qualitative, but quantitative data collected from questionnaires were also used in a process of triangulation.

A Participants

- Twenty-two practising engineers acted as respondents. These practising engineers work for 6 different companies situated in the Gauteng and Northwest Provinces. Their job experience vary between 6 months and more than 15 years and all of them are male.
- The director from one of the schools of Engineering at the Potchefstroom campus of the NWU also took part.
- Five written projects performed in English and completed by five of the current final year students were assessed (two posters, one Powerpoint presentation and two reports).

B Instrumentation

- Questionnaires were developed from a variety of sources, including the lists of skills and functions generated by Munby (1978) and Wilkins (1976) (cf. Appendix 1).
- A structured interview guide (cf. Appendix 1) was designed beforehand in order to address key topics in terms of the English language needs of a practising engineer. The open-ended questions were developed from the literature in the field of ESP (cf. Chapter 3), the generative framework developed as part of this study (cf. Chapter 5), as well as the data gathered from the questionnaires.
- Three rubrics (one for academic posters, another for presentations and another one for technical reports) were designed with the help of the questionnaires, the designed framework and data gathered from the in-depth interviews and a literature survey (cf. Appendix 2).

C Data Collection Procedures

- The questionnaires were re-formatted so that the majority of questions could be selected with the click of a mouse. These were then e-mailed to respondents who agreed to take part in the study. Twenty respondents completed the questionnaires electronically and e-mailed them back.
- In-depth interviews lasting 1-2 hours each were conducted with two engineers at their homes after work. Another in-depth interview was conducted with one of the directors in the Faculty of Engineering. Notes were made during the interviews and they were also consulted after the

interviews to confirm or explain some responses made during the interviews.

- Samples of assignments written in English, which included two academic posters, a powerpoint presentation used during an oral presentation, and two technical reports were collected from lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering. These were assignments completed by current final year Engineering students and they had already been assessed for content by the lecturers.

D Analysis

- The data from the questionnaires were analysed by obtaining the frequencies and medians of options for each question with the help of the SAS statistical programme package (SAS Institute Inc., 2002-2003). The analysis was performed by the Statistical Consultation Service of the Potchefstroom Campus of the NWU. The median indicates that 50% of the respondents chose this option or a more frequent option (e.g. if the median is 3, then 50% of the engineers perform this task either on a monthly, weekly or daily basis) for the indicated task. All the items with a median of 3 and above were discussed as part of the results.
- The notes from the three interviews (two with practising engineers and one with a director in the Faculty of Engineering) were analysed and categorized in terms of their similarities and differences. The results were summarised and incorporated with the results from the data of the open-ended questions on the questionnaires.
- The written assignments by the students were analysed according to the criteria and level descriptors of the designed rubrics. The data were analysed and the similarities and differences were recorded. The data were then compared with the results from the questionnaires and the interviews.

E Results

E.1 Results from the questionnaires

The items on the questionnaire which had a median of 3 or above were listed. A median of 3 would therefore indicate that 50% or more of the respondents applied

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that language skill on a monthly basis, while a median of 4 would indicate that 50% or more of the respondents applied the mentioned skill on a weekly basis and a median of 5 would indicate that 50% or more of respondents applied the specific skill on a daily basis.

The identified items on the questionnaire, with the median and an indication of how often the skill is applied by the respondents, are portrayed in Table 6-1.

Item on questionnaire	Median	How often
<i>Non-verbal communication:</i>		
Illustrations	3.5	monthly/weekly
Charts	3	monthly
Plans	4	weekly
Scientific symbols	4	weekly
<i>Reading texts:</i>		
Articles	4	weekly
Manuals	4	weekly
Books	3.5	monthly/weekly
Internet	5	daily
E-mail	5	daily
Computer texts	5	daily
Instructions	3.5	monthly/weekly
Textbooks	3	monthly
Long passages	3	monthly
Short passages	4	weekly
Formal letters	3	monthly
Brochures	3	monthly
Newsletters	3	monthly

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Notices	3	monthly
Memos	3	monthly
Advertisements	3	monthly
Pictures	3.5	monthly/weekly
Symbols	4	weekly
Technical reports	3	monthly
Graphs	3	monthly
<i>Reasons for reading texts</i>		
Verifying information	4	weekly
Classifying information	3	monthly
Evaluation	3.5	monthly/weekly
Comparison	3.5	monthly/weekly
<i>Writing texts</i>		
Informal letters	3	monthly
Filling in forms	3	monthly
Symbols	3	monthly
Graphs	3	monthly
Technical reports	3	monthly
Notes	4	weekly
E-mails	5	daily
<i>Reasons for writing texts</i>		
Advising	3	monthly
Quoting a source	3	monthly
Quoting a service	3	monthly
Agreeing/Disagreeing	3	monthly
Describing	3	monthly

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Informing	3	monthly
Instructing	3	monthly
Asking for/Giving permission	3	monthly
Questions	3	monthly
Reporting	3	monthly
Suggesting	3	monthly
Verifying	3	monthly
<i>Listening to texts</i>		
Instructions	3	monthly
Directions	3	monthly
Complaints	3	monthly
Suggestions	3	monthly
Announcements	3	monthly
Recommendations	3	monthly
Questions	5	daily
Radio	3	monthly
Telephone	5	daily
Formal meetings	3	monthly
Informal meetings	4	weekly
Formal conversations	4	weekly
Casual conversations	5	daily
<i>Reasons for listening</i>		
Verifying	5	daily
Assessment	4	weekly
Notes	4	weekly
<i>Speaking</i>		

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Suggestions	4	weekly
Instructions	3	monthly
Recommendations	3	monthly
Questions	4	weekly
Formal conversation	3	monthly
Casual conversation	5	daily
Telephone	5	daily
<i>Reasons for speaking</i>		
Classifying	3	monthly
Comparing	4	weekly
Demonstrating	3	monthly
Describing	4	weekly
Greeting	5	daily
Instructing	4	weekly
Asking for/Giving permission	3	monthly
Persuading	3	monthly
Reporting	3	monthly
Suggesting	3	monthly
Verifying	4	weekly

Table 6-1 Responses of Practising Engineers

E.II Results from Interviews

The results from the interviews with the two practising engineers and one of the directors in the Faculty of Engineering are discussed and categorized in terms of three questions. These questions were the main sections on the interview guide and each had sub-sections (cf. Appendix 1).

E.II.i A Day in the Life of an Engineer

The two practising engineers indicated that their days usually started by greeting colleagues in Afrikaans and having meetings about the day's proceedings in Afrikaans. However, the agendas and minutes to these meetings, are recorded in English in accordance with the prescriptions of the companies they work for.

Completing standardised forms on their computers (e.g. purchase requests or document retrievals) also forms an important part of their day. These usually have set formats and they just have to fill in the missing information.

One engineer indicated that he often acted as project manager and the other one indicated that he was a member of a project team. The responsibility of being a project leader entailed management skills, communicating and working in a team, as well as contributing to or writing a project proposal (including a budget), progress report and a final report.

As members of a project team, both engineers indicated that they either had to design, build or fix structures as part of their daily routine. This implied that they had to clearly describe the problem (sometimes in Afrikaans, but mostly in English) and provide a step-by-step description of how they were going to solve the problem. The one engineer indicated that he followed a backward design by first solving the problem practically and then by describing what he did. This task also entailed labelling and describing processes in English.

The engineers also indicated that they communicated daily with service providers and suppliers via e-mail and telephone and in face-to-face situations. This usually took place in English.

E.II.ii Sensitive Issues and Struggles with English

Both engineers stressed the fact that they regarded the spelling of words as extremely important. The one engineer indicated that members of his team were ridiculed by other members when it came to light that they could not spell a word correctly. Spelling was also important as it sometimes had cost implications. The other engineer related an incident where he had to order labels and notices to be attached to new machinery. He did not check the spelling when he sent the

messages through to the sign company and when they arrived, there were spelling errors on most of them. He had to pay for these and order new ones with the correct spelling.

Sentence construction and discourse, however, were not regarded as important by either of the engineers. The one went so far as to say “As long as *what* you want to say [in English] is understood, it doesn't matter *how* you say it”.

The director in the Faculty of Engineering (who had eight years' experience in the field), however, had a different point of view. He identified a list of grammatical, vocabulary and punctuation errors that he had identified as common among the final year Engineering students. These included concord errors, incorrect use of complex sentences, confusing the use of certain words within specific contexts, the incorrect use of tenses and prepositions as well as problems with hyphenation.

Furthermore, the students also struggled with aspects of style and discourse. According to the director, students struggled to express themselves in language that was simple and clear. They also struggled to indicate whether a statement was an opinion and whether it was a proven fact. Students tended to describe results in extreme language (e.g. this is “the best” option), while they could not use the superlative form of descriptive words unless it had been proven. Reports were also supposed to be written in the third person and students struggled with that.

Students were also expected to do an oral presentation of their final year projects, and even though they attended a course on guidelines for effective presentations (in Afrikaans), they still struggled with the correct tone and language to use when presenting in English.

E.II.iii Suggestions and Recommendations for Language Support

Both engineers indicated that they found the spelling and grammar check programmes on their computers invaluable. The feedback and corrections were immediate and they did not feel embarrassed as in the case when an error was pointed out by a colleague or a superior.

The one engineer also indicated that he would consult with a colleague whose mother tongue was English, but he did not do it often as he did not want to waste his colleague's valuable time.

Both engineers and the director indicated that a language reference book specifically for engineers would be helpful. The one engineer indicated that this book should also include explicit English grammar and spelling rules. The director also indicated that the students would benefit from revision of the basic grammar and spelling rules in English.

In the Faculty of Engineering, the book "A Guide to Writing as an Engineer" by Beer and McMurray (1997) is prescribed to the students as a reference. This book addresses and discusses the written language needed by engineers with specific reference to the relevant grammar rules. The students are supposed to use the book as a reference. However, they don't know how to use it and reading through the whole book seems a very daunting task. The director also indicated that students could be supported by guiding them systematically through the book and indicating the relevance of the book to the tasks they were supposed to perform in the fourth year.

E.III Results from the Analysis of Students' Written Work

In the Faculty of Engineering, a process approach to marking was taken for the written assignments. This means the students handed in several drafts before the final drafts were assessed by their Engineering lecturers. The final products, therefore, had very few errors in terms of structure, spelling and grammar. Even though the students used the correct format for each assignment, there were still problems in terms of coherence and cohesion. Furthermore, the students could also have applied more variety when it came to choice of vocabulary and sentence structures.

The following aspects in terms of the language content of an ESP course for engineers became apparent after the analysis:

- A process approach to assessment is very effective as students react to the comments made in order to improve their work.

- A subject specialist as well as a language specialist should be included in the assessment team in order to assess both the language and the content of the assignment.
- Students not only need guidance with regard to the form and structure of the assignments, but they also need to be taught the language (e.g. the correct register, style and discourse for different assignments).
- Even though students had a reference book with examples of the different written assignments, they still struggled to apply the principles given in the reference book to their specific assignments.

E.IV Conclusions

From the results discussed in Section 6.2.1E, the following conclusions can be made:

- Project planning and management is an important task that engineers have to perform. This was also confirmed by the open-ended question on the questionnaire where respondents were asked to suggest important tasks. Thirteen of the 20 respondents commented on some activity related to project planning or project management.
- Engineers have to describe processes and, therefore, they have to be able to discuss the solution to a problem in a step-by-step manner that can be repeated by someone else.
- Engineers emphasise the spelling of words, but they do not regard style or the discourse domain as important in writing or conversation, even though the students have problems with these as part of their communication.
- Another point that was stressed by many of the practising engineers is that an engineer needs to be able to communicate clearly and politely with service providers and suppliers as this saves a lot of time and trouble.
- The engineering students do not necessarily need help with presentation skills, but they do need support in terms of the language to use during a presentation.
- The engineering students need to be guided to use an ESP textbook as a reference book for language support in their jobs.

6.3 Needs Analysis for Fourth Year Teaching Students

The medium of instruction at the Faculty of Education, NWU, Potchefstroom campus, is Afrikaans. During the students' practical teaching session they are deployed to different schools for a period of six weeks during the academic year. It became apparent from reports from the lecturers who assessed the students during practical teaching that they would have to be equipped to teach their subjects through the medium of English as well. This is a result of the political and social changes in South Africa since 1994. According to Evans (1996), the "integration of education departments and the opening of exclusively white schools to all races, has introduced an uncharted territory of multicultural teaching. This has also meant that in many schools where Afrikaans has been the sole the medium of instruction, the governing bodies have decided to introduce dual-medium classes and have included English as a medium of instruction, thereby increasing their school's accessibility to black pupils in particular".

Furthermore, the new political dispensation has also opened doors for students to teach abroad and a number of final year students decide every year to start their teaching careers overseas (especially in England and the Far East) where English is the medium of instruction.

It was, therefore, decided to do a needs analysis and to incorporate the Generative Framework (discussed in Chapter 5) into the design of an outline of an ESP course for final year teaching students in order to prepare them for the demands of the teaching profession in South Africa and internationally.

6.3.1 Research Design

The study was primarily qualitative, but quantitative data collected from questionnaires were also used in a process of triangulation.

A Participants

- Thirteen practising teachers who are alumni of the North-West University were contacted and agreed to provide data for the study. These teachers teach at 5 different schools situated in Gauteng, Mpumalanga and the Northwest. Their job experience vary between 1 year experience and

more than fifteen years' experience. Eleven of the thirteen teachers completed questionnaires and two agreed to participate in structured interviews.

- Nine lecturers from different subject areas in the Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom Campus of the NWU also took part in the study.
- A principal (also an alumnus of the North-West University) of a parallel medium school also agreed to take part.
- Six current fourth year students submitted recordings and samples of written work for the study as well.

B Instrumentation

- Questionnaires were developed from a variety of sources, including the lists of skills and functions generated by Munby (1978) and Wilkins (1976). (These are the same questionnaires used for the practising engineers – cf. Appendix 1.)
- Structured interviews lasting 1-2 hours each were conducted with two practising teachers and a principal. An interview guide was designed beforehand in order to address key topics in terms of the English language needs of a practising teacher (cf. Appendix 1). The open-ended questions were developed from the literature in the field of ESP (cf. Chapter 2), the generative framework developed as part of this study (cf. Chapter 5), as well as the data gathered from the questionnaires.
- Samples of the students' written work were analysed according to a rubric that was designed with the help of the questionnaires, the designed framework and data gathered from the in-depth interviews. (cf. Appendix 4)
- Video recordings of twelve lesson presentations were analysed according to a checklist for English medium of instruction designed by Uys (2006) (cf. Appendix 7).

C Data Collection Procedures

- Hard copies of questionnaires were mailed or taken to schools and the eleven teachers were asked to complete them. They were then collected from the teachers.

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- Electronic copies of the questionnaires were e-mailed to the lecturers in the Faculty of Education. They completed these and e-mailed them back.
- The in-depth interviews lasted between 1 and 2 hours and were conducted with the two teachers and the principal at their homes. Notes were taken during the interviews and these notes were then used to compile a summary of each of the interviews. The teachers were consulted again afterwards to verify the summaries of the reports.
- The students submitted video recordings of lesson presentations and a written portfolio as part of the requirements for obtaining a capital “E” (which certifies that they are able to teach through the medium of English). On the video recordings each of the students presented two lessons through the medium of English and they also read a passage from an English textbook consisting of about 500 words. Their portfolios consisted of written lesson plans and a formal letter addressed to the head of the English Department explaining why it was important to be able to teach through the medium of English.

D Analysis

- The data from the questionnaires were analysed by obtaining the frequencies and medians of options for each question with the help of the SAS statistical programme package (SAS Institute Inc., 2002-2003) performed by the Statistical Consultation Service of the Potchefstroom Campus of the NWU. Options with a median of 3 and above were reported on in the results. The results from the practising teachers were also compared to the results from the lecturers in the Faculty of Education.
- Summaries from the in-depth interviews were compared and analysed. The results were reported in terms of their similarities and differences.
- The students’ written and oral assignments were analysed according to the criteria on the rubrics and the checklist. The results were then compared and the similarities and differences were indicated.

E Results

E.1 Results from the questionnaires

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The items on the questionnaire which had a median of 3 or above were listed. A median of 3 would indicate that 50% or more of the respondents applied that language skill on a monthly basis, while a median of 4 would indicate that 50% or more of the respondents applied the mentioned skill on a weekly basis and a median of 5 would indicate that 50% or more of the respondents applied the specific skill on a daily basis.

The identified items on the questionnaire, with the median and an indication of how often the skill is applied by the respondents, are portrayed in Table 6-2.

Responses from Practising Teachers			Responses from Lecturers in the Faculty of Education		
Item on questionnaire	Median	How often	Item on questionnaire	Median	How often
<i>Non-verbal communication:</i>			<i>Non-verbal communication:</i>		
Illustrations	3	monthly	Illustrations	3	monthly
			Charts	3	monthly
			Plans	3	monthly
			Signs	4	weekly
			Scientific symbols	3	monthly
<i>Reading texts</i>			<i>Reading texts</i>		
Articles	3	monthly	Articles	3	
Manuals	3	monthly	Manuals	4	weekly
Books	4	weekly	Books	5	daily
Internet	4	weekly	Journals	3	monthly
Instructions	3	monthly	Internet	4	weekly
Textbooks	5	daily	E-mail	5	daily
Student scripts	5	daily	Computer texts	4	weekly
Formal letters	3	monthly	Instructions	4	weekly

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Questionnaires	3	monthly	Newspaper	4	weekly
Newsletters	3	monthly	Textbooks	5	daily
Policy documents	3	monthly	Research papers	3	monthly
Notices	3	monthly	Long passages	3	monthly
Memos	3	monthly	Short passages	3	monthly
Pictures	3	monthly	Student scripts	3	monthly
Graphs	3	monthly	Formal letters	3	monthly
			Newsletters	3	monthly
			Summaries	3	monthly
			Policy documents	3	monthly
			Newspapers	4	weekly
			Notices	3	monthly
			Memos	3	monthly
			Advertisements	3	monthly
			Pictures	3	monthly
			Symbols	3	monthly
<i>Reasons for reading</i>			<i>Reason for reading</i>		
Verifying information	3	monthly	Verifying	4	weekly
Evaluation	3	monthly	Classifying	3	monthly
Comparison	3	monthly	Evaluation	3	monthly
			Comparison	3	monthly
<i>Writing texts</i>			<i>Writing texts</i>		
Formal letters	3	monthly	Informal letters	3	monthly
Memos	3	monthly	Notices	3	monthly
Filling in forms	3	monthly	Filling in forms	3	monthly
Lesson plans	4	weekly	Notes	4	weekly

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<i>Reasons for writing</i>		
Assessing	3	monthly
Classifying	3	monthly
Informing	3	monthly
Instructing	4	weekly
Questions	3	monthly
Reporting	3	monthly
<i>Listening texts</i>		
Instructions	4	weekly
Suggestions	3	monthly
Announcements	4	weekly
Questions	4	weekly
Workshops	3	monthly
Telephone	4	weekly
Informal meetings	3	monthly
Casual conversations	4	weekly
<i>Reasons for listening</i>		
Verifying	3	monthly
Assessment	4	weekly
<i>Speaking</i>		
Instructions	4	weekly
Recommendations	3	monthly

Definitions	3	monthly
E-mails	4	weekly
<i>Reasons for writing</i>		
<i>Listening texts</i>		
Speeches	3	monthly
Instructions	3	monthly
Complaints	3	monthly
Suggestions	3	monthly
Announcements	3	monthly
Recommendations	3	monthly
Questions	3	monthly
Television	4	weekly
Telephone	4	weekly
Casual conversations	5	daily
<i>Reasons for listening</i>		
Verifying	3	monthly
Assessment	3	monthly
<i>Speaking</i>		
Announcements	3	monthly
Questions	3	monthly

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Questions	4	weekly	Lectures	4	weekly
Lectures	4	weekly	Casual conversations	4	weekly
Formal conversations	3	monthly	Telephone	4	weekly
Casual conversations	4	weekly			
Telephone	3	monthly			
<i>Reasons for speaking</i>			<i>Reasons for speaking</i>		
Agreeing/Disagreeing	4	weekly	Assessment	3	monthly
Appreciating	3	monthly	Describing	3	monthly
Assessing	4	weekly	Greeting	3	monthly
Classifying	4	weekly	Instructing	4	weekly
Comparing	4	weekly	Asking for/Giving permission	3	monthly
Complimenting	3	monthly	Verifying	3	monthly
Demonstrating	5	daily			
Describing	5	daily			
Greeting	5	daily			
Instructing	5	daily			
Asking for/Giving permission	5	daily			
Persuading	4	weekly			
Reporting	4	weekly			
Suggesting	4	weekly			

Table 6-2: Responses of Practising Teachers and Lecturers

As can be seen from a comparison of the two groups' responses, the lecturers indicated a greater variety in terms of the use of non-verbal devices and they regarded reading as a very important skill for a teacher, while the practising teachers indicated that speaking and the functions associated with this skill were very important in their day-to-day teaching. What was also interesting is that both

groups regarded listening and the functions associated with listening as very important.

E.II Results from Interviews

The results from the interviews with the two teachers and the principal are discussed and categorized in terms of three questions. These questions were the main sections on the interview guide and each had sub-sections (cf. Appendix 1).

E.II.i A Day in the Life of a Teacher

According to both teachers, classroom management is one of the major tasks of a teacher in the course of a day. Classroom management takes up much of the time. This included getting the learners' attention, organising and explaining and repeating their activities and what was expected of them, maintaining discipline and determining whether the learners knew what was going on.

Both teachers taught learners in English (which is a second or third language for both teachers and learners) and they indicated that a significant amount of time during a lesson was spent on introducing and explaining difficult concepts to these learners through the medium of their second or third language. Describing and explaining (sometimes abstract) concepts was a complex and difficult process.

Both teachers also indicated that they were expected to communicate with parents on learners' progress or lack of progress during parent-teacher evenings. During these meetings they got to know the parents better and they discussed possible strategies with the parents who attended on how to help learners to improve in their subjects. Both of them were tutors for a specific class or grade as well, which meant they also had to communicate with the parents if the learners faced disciplinary action for some reason.

Outside the classroom, teachers attended formal and informal meetings and they were also responsible for organising extramural activities. This involved making announcements and communicating with colleagues in other schools. This also involved similar tasks to those described in terms of classroom management as

they were responsible for the learners when they travelled to other schools to compete.

The principal also indicated that he was expected to attend meetings (of different kinds) on a regular basis and that all of his official communication with the Department (e.g. on the telephone, via formal letter or in face-to-face conversations) was in English.

E.II.ii Sensitive Issues and Struggles with Language

Both teachers emphasised that when they first started teaching their respective subjects (Life Orientation and Economic and Management Sciences), they struggled to use the correct subject terminology. However, this problem was solved as they gained more experience.

The one teacher indicated that she did not have much self confidence when it came to the planning and presentation of lessons and she struggled to bring a message across to the learners. She wanted to teach too much content and in the end she had the impression the learners did not learn anything.

Another language problem they faced was that most of the learners in their classes were not native English speakers and they therefore had to incorporate more strategies into their teaching for explaining concepts so that learners would grasp the most important learning content. The one teacher indicated that he aided his ESL Grade 12 learners with the essays they had to write in Business Economics by first identifying the key words of each paragraph, then explaining these key words and then by giving the learners model sentences that they could either adapt or memorise for the exam.

During parent-teacher evenings or disciplinary hearings, the teachers sometimes struggled to use the correct style and tone because of their lack of communication skills in English. This had caused some misunderstandings with parents.

Both teachers also indicated that they were not sure whether their spoken English and pronunciation was up to standard and they would be very self-conscious should an English speaking person observe their lessons.

E.II.iii Suggestions and Recommendations for Language Support

Both teachers indicated that they relied heavily upon well-written subject textbooks in English. The one teacher also recommended that teacher trainees be trained so that they could identify the criteria for a good subject textbook and use these textbooks also to improve their language.

The same teacher also joined Toastmasters (a public speaking society) in her free time in order to brush up on her presentation skills. This teacher found the training and exposure invaluable to her career and she was of the opinion that her lessons were more focused and her presentations more interesting than they had been before. She suggested that student teachers might benefit from such a society as well.

The principal indicated that he relied on the assistance of the teachers in his school who taught English First and Second Language. When he had to write any document in English he asked these teachers to edit and improve the written communication.

E.III *Results from Students' Oral and Written Work*

Six students submitted video recordings and written lesson plans of two lessons they taught in their major subjects through the medium of English. They also submitted a recording or a reading of 500 words from a subject textbook in English. Furthermore, they had to write a formal letter addressed to an English lecturer explaining why it was important for them to teach through the medium of English. The criteria on the rubric and checklist (cf. Appendix 2) were used to discuss and explain the weak and strong points of the students' communication. The following aspects came to the fore in the analysis of the students' work:

- Half of the students did not plan how to explain difficult words and concepts. The lack of these strategies caused them to struggle to explain these concepts to the learners during the actual lesson.
- Two of the students were very nervous and they read their entire lesson plans to the class instead of communicating with the class, by making eye contact and reacting to the learners' responses.
- Four of the students struggled to anticipate possible problems learners might experience with the lesson and they were caught off guard by the

learners when they were asked certain questions. They either ignored the learners' questions or gave them inaccurate explanations.

- Half of the students struggled with effective presentation skills. They did not vary their tone of voice or use body language in order to enhance communication.
- Half of the students struggled to write an engaging introduction to the formal letter that would identify the purpose.
- Students also struggled to use vivid and precise language that is appropriate to the audience. They could not identify and use transitional words and phrases to show relationships among ideas and to create coherence within and between paragraphs.

E.IV Conclusions

The results discussed in Section 6.3.1E led to the following conclusions:

- Teaching students need to be equipped to manage lessons and discipline in their classrooms in English.
- Lesson planning (in English) should be practised and reinforced during training.
- Teaching students need to be able to explain difficult concepts in English to ESL learners.
- There should be some opportunity for training and guidance on actual lesson presentations in English.
- It is important for teachers to use the correct style and tone when communicating sensitive issues (such as details of a disciplinary hearing) to parents.

6.4 Conclusion

In this chapter the needs analyses for two ESP courses were described in terms of the participants, instrumentation and data collection and finally the results were summarised. These results will now be used to design the outlines for the two ESP courses in Chapter 7.

7. OUTLINES FOR TWO ESP COURSES

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter the design of the outlines of two ESP courses is discussed. The one is an ESP course for final year Engineering students at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University and the second course is an ESP course for final year teaching students in the Faculty of Education Sciences at the same university. These outlines were developed by following the step-by-step guidelines in the generative framework discussed in Chapter 5. The choice of topics, texts and language content is based on the two needs analyses described in Chapter 6. The data collected from each needs analysis were analysed and categorized and then used in the step-by-step instructions given in Section 5.6.

7.2 An ESP Course for Final Year Engineering Students

The design of the outline for the above-mentioned ESP course will be discussed in terms of the steps for course design as proposed by the Generative Framework in Section 5.6.

7.2.1 Step 1: Articulating Beliefs

In the fourth and final year of their studies, the Engineering students are expected to plan and manage a project in a specific field of Engineering. This is similar to some of the tasks specified by the practising engineers and is, therefore, intended to be a simulation of what they can expect in the field. They are then expected to do a presentation (either in Afrikaans or English) and share the results of their project with the rest of the Faculty. It is therefore important that a view of language and the language learning theory that the course is based on will support this task expected of them in their final year.

A View of Language

The course designer will adopt an eclectic view of language to aid students in performing this task. This view of language places paramount importance on meaning and the need to contextualise language, which would be very suitable for the final year project. It is a requirement of the job of an engineer to be analytical and they view language analytically as well. This means that the

engineers will also probably view language in terms of its different structures (e.g. the importance of spelling and the rules governing spelling as indicated in the results of the needs analysis in Section 6.2.1E). Language is therefore regarded as a system with different elements such as phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items and the engineers have indicated in their responses that they would benefit from a resource book or instruction that explains these rules and aids them in applying these rules.

However, engineers are also expected to communicate within a specific discourse domain and therefore the functionalist or communicative role of language cannot be ignored. According to Halliday (1970:145), "Linguistics ... is concerned ... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus."

B View of Language Learning

The view of language learning related to the above-mentioned view of language is reiterated by Eskey (1997:133) when he says that "people do not learn languages and then use them, but that people learn languages *by* using them". The focus is on the importance of interaction in the language learning process.

The learning of language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) and how they are used to perform "real-life tasks" (Anderson, 2005:9) should also be emphasised and incorporated into the language learning theory that this ESP course is based on. All four skills will not be developed equally, but the emphasis will be on the specific skills needed to perform the tasks specified in the needs analysis.

Furthermore, Krashen's Input Hypothesis (cf. Section 3.4.2B) will also be applied as part of the learning theory of this course. The students will be subjected to input that contains structures that are a little bit beyond their current level of competence (i.e. $i + 1$). The second language is acquired as a result of building competence via comprehensible input (Ellis, 1990:100).

7.2.2 Step 3: Conducting a Needs Analysis

The needs analysis for the ESP course for pre-service Engineering students is described in Section 6.2.

7.2.3 Step 3: Summarising Results from the Needs Analysis

The results from the Needs Analysis can be categorized into two groups, namely data related to field-specific content and data related to language content. The field-specific content will be presented in the form of a list of tasks as specified by the respondents, while the language content will be presented in the form of a table that can be used as a checklist by the teacher in Step 5 (cf. Section 7.2.5).

A Field-Specific Content

The following field-specific tasks were identified from the Needs Analysis:

- Planning and managing a project.
- Problem solving within the workplace.
- Drawing up a maintenance plan.
- Writing technical reports.
- Communicating with suppliers.
- Ordering equipment.
- Giving presentations.
- Reading technical documents.
- Giving explanations and descriptions on e-mail.

B Language Content

The language content is organised in terms of skills, structures, functions and discourse aspects and is presented in Table 7-1 in descending order in terms of the frequency of use as indicated by the respondents (cf. Section 6.2.1E.I). Subject-specific vocabulary and body language, however presented problems as these aspects of communication do not neatly fit into any of the categories that have been used to organise the language content. Therefore, it has been decided to categorise subject-specific vocabulary under structures as these words are used on a sentence level and body language under discourse aspects as body language communicates a message in a different medium.

Language required daily			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading the internet, e-mails and computer texts	Simple and complex sentence structures	Comparing Evaluating Skimming Scanning	Interpreting graphs, charts and symbols Critical reading Identifying main ideas Identifying and writing topic sentences
Writing e-mails	Indefinite tenses Continuous tenses Perfect tenses	Making enquiries Reminding Reporting errors	Identifying and using the correct tone Achieving cohesion Realising importance of audience Stating reason and purpose Identifying and achieving effective paragraph structure (unity, emphasis, coherence, completeness)

Listening during telephone and casual conversations and to questions	Transitional expressions	Listening in order to verify information Paraphrasing Taking notes Listening for details and specific information Asking questions	Identifying and using the correct tone Recognizing context Using body language
Speaking during telephone and casual conversations	Transitional expressions	Greeting people Asking questions Taking a message Paraphrasing	Realising the importance of audience Recognizing context
Language required weekly			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading articles, short passages and manuals	Prefixes & suffixes	Reading in order to verify information Skimming Scanning	Reading plans and documents consisting of scientific symbols Identifying the tone and style of articles and manuals Identifying and utilising cause

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			and effect Critical reading
Making notes	Contractions Conjunctions	Making a summary Verifying information	Achieving coherence Applying the format of a summary
Listening during informal meetings and formal conversations	Vocabulary emphasising a point	Listening while taking notes and listening to assess Agreeing/Disagreeing	Using body language Demonstrating courtesy
Asking questions and making suggestions	Modal verbs Linking words Expressions of quantity Degrees of comparison (adjectives & adverbs)	Asking questions to verify information, to compare, to instruct and to describe	Using body language Applying different ways to ask questions without offending
Language required weekly/monthly			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading instructions, books and	Imperatives	Following instructions	Interpreting illustrations

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advertisements	Phrases for procedures Degrees of comparison	Reading to compare or verify information	Identifying the language used in and for advertisements
Language required monthly			
Reading textbooks, formal letters, brochures, newsletters, notices, memos and technical reports	Adjectives & adverbs that indicate degree of change	Reading to compare and verify information	Identifying and indicating cause and effect
Writing informal letters and technical reports, filling in forms, asking questions in writing	Active & passive voice Indefinite & perfect tenses Conditionals Run-on sentences & fragments Modifiers Quantifiers	Writing to verify information Quoting a source Quoting a service Advising Describing Informing Instructing Asking for/giving permission Agreeing/disagreeing Reporting	Drawing up plans using scientific symbols, charts and graphs Identifying and indicating cause and effect Using the correct tone and register Realising the Importance of audience Achieving coherence and cohesion Applying principles of paragraph structure (unity, emphasis,

			coherence, completeness)
Listening to instructions, directions, complaints suggestions, announcements, recommendations, the radio and during formal meetings	Vocabulary emphasising a point	Listening while taking notes Listening to assess Agreeing/disagreeing Paraphrasing	Using body language Demonstrating courtesy Applying principles of the structure of agendas and minutes of a meeting
Giving instructions, making recommendations and conducting formal conversations	Imperatives Modals	Classifying Demonstrating Giving permission Persuading Reporting Suggesting	Using body language Realising the importance of audience

Table 7-1 Specification of the Language Content for an ESP Course for Engineering Students

According to Brinton (2005), content-based teaching can be distinguished by the “concurrent learning of a specific content and related language use skills in a ‘content driven’ curriculum [also referred to as syllabus], i.e., with the selection and sequence of language elements determined by the content”. Therefore, the choice and ordering of content are not determined by language structures, as in the case of the Formalist Approach, or functions, as in the case of the Functionalist Approach, but the subject content provides the context and the starting point for the syllabus. The arrows in the prism for the Generative Framework therefore will start from the Content dimension and then move to the Language dimension and then the Pedagogy dimension will be specified.

7.2.4 Step 4: Formulating Outcomes and Designing an Assessment Plan

After the data from the needs analysis had been collected, analysed and organised, the main objectives of the course were divided into outcomes and assessment standards. The three different types of outcomes that have been identified by Douglas (2000:35) (i.e. language knowledge, background knowledge and strategic competence – cf. Section 5.2.2D) are specified where relevant. The outcomes are listed in Table 7-2.

Main Objectives	Outcomes	Assessment Standards
<i>By the end of the course, the students should be able to:</i>	<i>By the end of this unit, the students should be able to:</i>	<i>We know this when students can:</i>
plan a project in English.	(Content/Background Knowledge) collect data by reading authentic scientific materials; write a proposal; identify the differences between an oral and a written proposal; plan and present an oral proposal; (Language Knowledge) apply different reading skills for different purposes; avoid run-on sentences and incorrect use of fragments; use the correct modifiers and pronouns in sentences; express numbers and quantities	write and do an oral presentation of a proposal for a project in English.

	correctly; use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively; identify effective use of body language during an oral presentation; write an effective paragraph; persuade an audience with a well-developed argument; use body language effectively during an oral presentation; persuade an audience with a well-developed argument; (Strategic/Pedagogical Outcomes) assess a proposal according to given criteria; conduct themselves in a group; plan and monitor own progress on the project; conduct themselves in a group; plan and monitor own progress on the	

	project.	
manage a project by using English as medium of communication.	(Content Outcomes) gather information from suppliers and service providers regarding the costs of a project; compare and evaluate different quotes; draw up a budget; make enquiries regarding the progress of a project; report errors and failures in processes and products; agree or disagree with suppliers and service providers and colleagues; describe and listen to specific procedures accurately; communicate the progress of a project to peers; discuss problems and solutions during formal and informal meetings; (Language Outcomes)	draw up a budget; communicate with colleagues and suppliers via formal letters, e-mails and the telephone; conduct formal and informal meetings.

	formulate questions; listen for details and specific information; use expressions of quantity effectively; use conditionals correctly; conduct a telephone conversation; make use of transitional expressions; apply principles of paragraph structure; make use of modal verbs; use the indefinite tenses correctly and effectively; describe cause and effect; conduct formal and casual conversations; make an oral and written summary; use active and passive voice effectively; write an agenda and minutes of a meeting; use reported speech effectively; (Pedagogy Outcomes)	

	take responsibility with regard to the finances of a project; extend professional courtesy to suppliers and service providers; function as part of a team on a project; manage time effectively and responsibly during informal meetings; effectively contribute to a formal meeting in a professional capacity.	
report on the results of a completed project.	(Content outcomes) collect data by reading authentic scientific materials; report on the results of a project; write a technical report; identify the differences between an oral presentation and a written report; plan and write a presentation; do an oral presentation; (Language outcomes) apply different reading skills for different	submit a technical report; do an oral presentation on the results of a project.

	purposes; avoid run-on sentences; use correct modifiers and pronouns in sentences; express numbers and quantities correctly; make use of effective transitional expressions; use the indefinite tenses effectively; use reported speech effectively; describe cause and effect; use active and passive voice effectively; use charts, graphs and symbols to convey a message; use adjectives and adverbs correctly; identify and apply effective body language during a presentation; write a coherent paragraph; persuade an audience with a well-developed argument;	

	(Pedagogy outcomes) assess a technical report with given criteria; conduct themselves in a group; convey results in an ethical and responsible manner; react to criticism in a professional manner.	

Table 7-2 Outcomes and Assessment Standards

Outlines for Two ESP Courses

The outcomes and assessment standards listed in Table 7-2 have now been grouped together and categorized in terms of five major assessment tasks and with a specification of how these tasks can be assessed. These are specified in Table 7-3.

Assessment Tasks	Assessment Tools
Submit a complete plan or proposal for a project.	Checklist Rubric
Present a proposal	Rubric (peer assessment)
Conduct a formal meeting.	Observation sheet (peer assessment) Rubric
Compile a portfolio with examples of communication with suppliers via e-mail, formal letter and telephone.	Checklist Rubric
Submit a technical report.	Rubric
Do a presentation.	Observation sheet (peer assessment) Rubric

Table 7-3 Assessment Plan

7.2.5 Step 5: Conceptualising and Organising the Course

Content-Based Instruction, and specifically a combination between the theme-based and the adjunct models (cf. Section 3.4.3C) would be functional in this instance. Within the theme-based model “teacher(s) can create a course of study designed to unlock and build on their own students’ interests and the content can be chosen from an enormous number of diverse topics” (Davies, 2003). This would help with the motivation of the engineering students.

Adjunct CBI classes usually focus on preparing students for mainstream classes (e.g. in English for Academic Purpose). These classes are usually taught by an ESL specialist and can run concurrently with mainstream classes. The adjunct model focuses on learners’ acquisition of the target vocabulary and the relevant

study skills required for the mainstream classes. In this instance, however, the focus will not be on EAP, but on EOP, as learners are taught through the medium of Afrikaans in the mainstream classes. However, this will be an adjunct course as the topics related to an engineering project will run concurrently with the mainstream classes in terms of the timetable.

The conceptualisation and organisation of the ESP course is set out below. An eight credit module at the university typically runs for twelve weeks with two 45 minute contact sessions each week. The outlines for 12 weeks (2 contact sessions per week) are, therefore provided below. Each week's planning consists of the following:

- themes and topics (derived from the field-specific content specified by the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.3A);
- outcomes (derived from the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.4);
- tasks (described and graded in terms of Mohan's model and in terms of the frequency of use indicated by the needs analysis; cf. Section 5.3.5), which are described step-by-step and are chronologically numbered⁴;
- texts (derived from the needs analysis and specified in terms of Grabe and Stoller's classification; cf. Table 5-1);
- language focus (derived from the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.3B);
- an indication of techniques and classroom procedures, and
- suggestions for homework.

It is assumed that the administrative procedures for each class have been dealt with before the lessons start.

⁴ **Description** answers the questions to Who?, What? and Where? The people, materials, equipment, items and settings are stipulated through description. **Sequence** provides answers to the questions related to processes, procedures or routines. **Choice** considers the conflicts, alternatives, dilemmas and decisions related to the tasks. **Concepts and classification** provides an answer to the question: What concepts apply and how are they related to each other? **Principles** are concerned with aspects such as cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques to perform a certain task, rules, norms and strategies. **Evaluation** deals with questions related to values and standards, e.g. What are the typical reasons for choosing one object or course of action over another?

A Week 1

Theme: Planning a project

Topic: Planning a project proposal

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- collect data by reading authentic scientific materials;
- write a proposal;

(Language Outcomes)

- apply different reading skills for different purposes;
- avoid run-on sentences and incorrect use of fragments;
- use the correct modifiers and pronouns in sentences;
- express numbers and quantities correctly;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- assess a proposal according to given criteria;
- conduct themselves in a group.

A.I Contact Session 1:

Studying examples of proposals			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read two examples of written proposals in groups. ⁵	2.Lecturer compiles questions on the two proposals in order to assess students' skimming and scanning skills.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students do a multiple choice	4.Lecturer gives examples of what is	Principles

⁵ Examples of such proposals can be found on www.writing.eng.vt.edu/workbooks/proposal.samples

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	exercise on run-on sentences and fragments where they have to justify their choices.	meant by run-on sentences and fragments.	
Choice	5.Students divide into groups and identify the run-on sentences and fragments in one of the two sample proposals.	6.Lecturer leads a class discussion on how the errors in run-on sentences and fragments in proposals can be rectified in order to improve the language usage in the proposal.	Evaluation

A.II Contact Session 2:

Evaluating proposals			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read a hand-out on proposals as well as a checklist for proposals. ⁶	2.Lecturer discusses the hand-out and the checklist and explains what is meant by modifiers, pronouns and quantifiers.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students do an exercise on modifiers, pronouns and	4.Students divide into groups and identify the errors in terms of	Principles

⁶ Examples can be found on www.writing.eng.vt.edu

Outlines for Two ESP Courses

	countable and uncountable nouns.	modifiers, pronouns and quantifiers in the other sample proposal. Lecturer gives feedback on the identified errors.	
Choice	5. Students assess both proposals by means of the criteria discussed in the checklist. They give feedback during a class discussion.	7. Lecturer leads a class discussion on whether the guidelines of the proposal and the language instruction were useful and how these principles can be applied to students' own project proposals.	Evaluation

A.III *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Hand-out on format and properties of a proposal
Instructor-generated content resources	Questions to practise skimming & scanning
External content resources	Two proposals written by engineers

A.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading proposals and internet articles	Run-on sentences	Comparing	Reading and interpreting visual illustrations and graphs
	Modifiers	Evaluating	
Writing sentences	Quantifiers	Persuading	
		Skimming	

Group discussions		Scanning	

A.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Use of computers and the internet in class.
- Use of realia.

A.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to write an English proposal on their planned projects.
- A rubric based on the criteria of the checklist can be used to assess their proposals.

B Week 2

Theme: Planning a project

Topic: Planning an oral proposal

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify the differences between an oral and a written proposal;
- plan an oral proposal;

(Language Outcomes)

- use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively;
- identify effective use of body language during an oral presentation;
- write an effective paragraph;
- persuade an audience with a well-developed argument;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- plan and monitor own progress on the project;
- conduct themselves in a group.

B.I Contact Session 1:

Watching an oral proposal			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students watch a video recording of an oral proposal. They pay specific attention to the speaker's body language.	2.Lecturer leads a class discussion on the use of body language during the presentation. 3.Students read through a hand-out on the use of body language during an oral proposal ⁷ and lecturer shows certain excerpts from the video again to emphasise certain points.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students discuss which principles of body language would be most suited to their own proposals and make notes on where to use appropriate body language during the different parts of a proposal.	5.Students play a mime game where they portray certain messages in their groups by only using body language.	Principles
Choice	6.Students watch the	7.Each group chooses	Evaluation

⁷ An example of such a hand-out can be found at www.wittcom.com

Outlines for Two ESP Courses

	recording again and discuss how the presenter could have improved the oral proposal by making more effective use of body language.	one section from the recording and present that section again by making use of the suggested body language. 8. Lecturer gives feedback on students' performances.	

B.II Contact Session 2:

Listening to an oral proposal			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1. Students listen to a tape recording of an oral proposal and make a list of all the descriptive words they hear during the proposal (adjectives and adverbs). 2. Students also make notes of the main points of the oral discussion.	2. Students comment on the use of descriptive words and words that made it easier for them to follow the proposal. 3. Lecturer explains the different degrees of comparison and students indicate which degree would be most appropriate to use during a proposal (i.e. rather the positive or the comparative, very rarely the superlative as they need scientific proof to	Concepts and Classification

Outlines for Two ESP Courses

		make such an absolute statement).	
Sequence	4. Students study a hand-out on adjectives and adverbs ⁸ as well as creating structure within a paragraph and complete a written assignment based on the use of these words in the paragraphs of a proposal.	5. Students look at their own written proposals and identify at least 4 adjectives and 4 adverbs from their proposals. They apply the rules in the hand-out to these in order to see whether they were used correctly. They also choose one paragraph from their proposals and analyse that paragraph in terms of unity, emphasis, coherence, completeness) 6. Lecturer assists them while they are working individually.	Principles
Choice	7. Students divide into groups of 4 and choose the best proposal that will have to be re-worked for a group oral presentation.	8. Students give reasons for their choice based on the hand-out on oral proposals and indicate how the written proposal will be changed to become an oral presentation. They also allocate responsibilities	Evaluation

⁸ An example of these rules can be found in many grammar reference books. A useful, concise reference book is the one by Lutrin and Pincus (2004:26-33)

Outlines for Two ESP Courses

		to different group members.	
		9. Lecturer gives feedback on their choices.	

B.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Recording of an oral proposal
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-out on body language and oral proposal Written exercise on paragraph structures, adjectives and adverbs
Task-generated content resources	Proposals written by students

B.IV Language Focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Listening to and reading proposals Doing an oral presentation.	Adjectives & adverbs	Comparing Evaluating Persuading	Using visual illustrations and graphs Body language Persuasive language Coherence in paragraph structure

B.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Use of realia.
- Group work & peer assessment.
- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.

B.VI *Homework:*

- Prepare a group presentation of the chosen proposal.
- The oral proposal will be assessed according to a rubric and the group members will also assess each other based on each member's participation in the project.

C Week 3

Theme: Planning a project

Topic: Presenting an oral proposal

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- do a group oral presentation of a proposal;

(Language Outcomes)

- use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively;
- use body language effectively during an oral presentation;
- persuade an audience with a well-developed argument;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- plan and monitor own progress on the project;
- conduct themselves in a group.

C.I Contact Sessions 1 & 2

(seeing that the presentations and the time taken to assess each presentation will take up more than 45 minutes):

Presenting and evaluating an oral proposal			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students each receive a peer assessment rubric that addresses all the outcomes covered so far. Lecturer explains how to use the rubric during peer assessment.	2. The criteria on the rubric are revised and students make sure they know what each criterium entails (e.g. use of body language and adjectives and adverbs).	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students listen to each group's presentation and assess the groups according to the rubric. The groups are also assessed by the lecturer.	4. Each group has to write a structured paragraph on each group's presentations in which they indicate the weak and strong points of the presentation.	Principles
Choice	5.Students select the best oral proposal. 6.Lecturer leads a class discussion on students' selection.	7.The groups hand in their structured paragraphs with feedback to each of the other groups for assessment by the lecturer.	Evaluation

C.II *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Rubric for an oral proposal that includes all criteria for all the outcomes covered so far
Task-generated content resources	Oral presentations of proposals

C.III *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Doing an oral proposal	Adjectives & adverbs	Assessing	Make use of body language to convey a message
Listening to an oral proposal	Modifiers Pronouns Quantifiers		Use of persuasive language

C.IV *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Use of student-generated realia.
- Reflection & constructive feedback.

C.V *Homework:*

- Students have to find examples of budgets for engineering projects either on the internet, in other proposals or in formal reports. They have to bring these budgets to class next time.

D Week 4

Theme: Managing a project

Topic: Drawing up a budget

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- gather information from suppliers and service providers regarding the costs of a project;
- compare and evaluate different quotes;
- draw up a budget;

(Language Outcomes)

- formulate questions;
- listen for details and specific information;
- use expressions of quantity effectively;
- use conditionals correctly;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- take responsibility with regard to the finances of a project.

D.I Contact Session 1:

Studying examples of budgets			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students take out the examples of budgets they brought. 2.Lecturer leads a class discussion on the importance of budgets within a project.	3.Students make a list of the similarities and differences in the different examples of budgets studied in the groups.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students study a	6.Students perform a	Principles

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	hand-out on expressions of quantity and formulating questions in terms of countable and uncountable nouns. 5.They identify the expressions of quantity in the budgets they brought to class with the help of the lecturer and by referring to the examples on the hand-out.	gap-filling activity where they have to ask and answer questions on the amounts and totals on a given budget.	
Choice	7.Students discuss the following question: Are budgets merely Mathematics or does language play a role in a budget? 8.Lecturer gives feedback on their replies.	8.Lecturer writes all the language structures that have been discussed so far on the board. Students discuss which of the structures on the board might aid in making a budget more effective.	Evaluation

D.II Contact Session 2:

Gathering information for a budget			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students listen to a conversation between an engineer and a supplier where the engineer requests quotations for certain products and services. 2.They also read the follow-up e-mail where the service provider quotes the engineer for the products and the services.	3.Students read a hand-out on telephone etiquette and listening skills and discuss how these guidelines are applicable in their jobs as engineers. 4.Lecturer also discusses the three different types of conditionals and how they are relevant to budget enquiries.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	5.Students do an exercise on conditionals. 6.Lecturer gives feedback on the exercise.	7.Students do a listening comprehension exercise where they have to take notes on the details of a telephone conversation and reply to questions during the conversation. Lecturer gives guidelines on the answers to the questions and indicate that more than one	Principles

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		answer can be correct.	
Choice	8.Students perform a role play in pairs where the one is an engineer and the other is a supplier and they discuss possible services and products for a project.	9.Peer assessment takes place by means of a checklist provided by the lecturer. 10.Lecturer gives feedback on performances and indicate where students can still improve.	Evaluation

D.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Recording of telephone conversation
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on expressions of quantity, formulating questions, telephone etiquette, listening skills and conditionals.
Task-generated content resources	Gap-filling activity, multiple choice exercises, listening comprehension exercise, peer assessment checklist
External content resources	Examples of budgets

Language Focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Listening to and taking part in conversations Reading e-mails	Formulation of questions Quantifiers	Taking notes Asking and replying to questions	Telephone etiquette

	Conditionals	Assessing	

D.IV *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Reflection & constructive feedback.
- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Use of realia.
- Gap-filling exercises.

D.V *Homework:*

- Students have to compile a portfolio in English on all the communication they conducted in order to gather and use information from suppliers for their budgets. The portfolio should consist of at least two quotations per item on the budget. These can be included in the form of e-mails or transcriptions of telephone conversations. They should also have at least one dialogue in their portfolios that is a transcription of a telephone conversation they had with a supplier.

E Week 5

Theme: Managing a project

Topic: Communicating with suppliers and service providers

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- make enquiries regarding the progress of the project;
- report errors and failures in processes and products;
- agree or disagree with suppliers and service providers;
- describe specific procedures accurately;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a telephone conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write and reply to e-mails by applying principles of paragraph structure;
- Make use of modal verbs;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- extend professional courtesy to suppliers and service providers.

E.I Contact Session 1:

Communicating via written communication			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students take out their budget portfolios and lecturer leads a discussion on what types of written communication takes place with service providers (e.g. e-mail, requests for quotation, confirming a process/product, complaining about a service/product etc.)	2.Lecturer introduces functions to students by presenting them with lists of phrases for requesting, enquiry, confirmation etc.) 3.Lecturer discusses and illustrates the function of modal verbs and how they aid in communication.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students read through the list of phrases depicting certain functions and identify the modal verbs in each of the phrases with the help of the lecturer.	5.Students receive a list of scrambled phrases and they have to describe the different situations in which they will use these phrases in written communication. Lecturer gives feedback on their answers	Principles
Choice	6.Students each	8.Students read their	Evaluation

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	receive four different case studies describing situations with service providers or suppliers. 7.They each have to write an e-mail in response to these cases, paying attention to the use of modal verbs and the principles of structured paragraphs.	replies to the rest of the class and the class chooses the best reply to each of the case studies, focusing on the use of appropriate modals and the principles of paragraph structure. 9.Lecturer provides feedback on students' choices.	

E.II Contact Session 2:

Communicating orally			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students listen to two telephone conversations between an engineer and a service provider. The one conversation ends with an unresolved confrontation while the other ends with a solution to the problem.	2.Lecturer revises the use of modals as well as guidelines for telephone etiquette and leads a discussion on how important these aspects are to communicate with service providers and suppliers.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students do an	4.Lecturer gives a hand-	Principles

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	exercise where they listen to dialogues and indicate how they could improve the communication by making use of the correct modals and telephone etiquette. Lecturer gives feedback on their answers.	out on the use of transitional devices during oral communication. She discusses the importance of the use of these devices during oral communication.	
Choice	5. Students perform a listening exercise where they sit back-to-back in pairs. They each have the same number and type of Lego blocks. The one partner then builds a structure and he has to explain to his partner step-by-step how to build this structure without them looking at one another. They make use of transitional devices in the process.	6. Lecturer discusses when it is necessary to use imperatives on the job and when the use of modals would be more effective in communication. Students indicate which they used during the previous exercise and justify their choices.	Evaluation

E.III *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Tape recordings of telephone conversations and dialogues, case studies
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on functions, modal verbs, transitional devices
Task-generated content resources	Budget portfolios Lego block listening activity

E.IV *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Writing and replying to e-mails	Transitional devices	Speaking on the telephone	Creating coherence in communication
Conducting a conversation	Modal verbs	Describing a procedure Listening to instructions Paraphrasing	Telephone etiquette

E.V *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Giving a model before expecting a similar task.
- Use of realia.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Use of imperative drills.

E.VI Homework:

- Students add their list of functions, the case studies as well as the discussed replies in class to their budget portfolios.
- Students each write their own revised replies to the four case studies in e-mail format by paying attention to paragraph structure, the use of modals and imperatives as well as transitional devices.

F Week 6

Theme: Managing a project

Topic: Communicating with colleagues on the project

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- make enquiries regarding the progress of the project;
- report errors and failures in processes and products;
- agree or disagree with colleagues;
- describe and listen to descriptions of specific procedures;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a telephone conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write and reply to e-mails by applying principles of paragraph structure;
- use the indefinite and continuous tenses effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- function as part of a team on a project.

F.I Contact Session 1:

Describing to and enquiring from colleagues			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students regard the written proposals of their projects. Lecturer leads a discussion on how they can improve these projects and how they can solve problems related to these projects. (One solution is to consult with a colleague).	2.Students use their lists of functions and indicate which of the phrases could be used to consult a colleague on a specific problem. Lecturer discusses why the phrases provided by the students would be appropriate or inappropriate.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students work in pairs and they each receive a model dialogue in which one colleague describes a problem to another and they discuss a possible solution. 4.They substitute certain words (modals, adjectives, adverbs etc.) in the dialogue with their own, relating it to one	5.Lecturer revises the list of transitional devices and indicates which of the transitional devices would be useful in describing a problem and suggesting a solution (as they had done in the previous dialogue).	Principles

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	of the problems they experience with their projects and perform that dialogue in pairs. Lecturer gives feedback on their constructed dialogues.		
Choice	6.Students each read five e-mails describing problems experienced by engineers on a certain project. They choose one of the e-mails and reply to it by making suggestions for possible solutions. 7.Students read their replies to their group members and the lecturers circulate and comment on these while they are working in the groups.	7.Lecturer discusses why it is important to use appropriate language when suggesting solutions to a colleague and students indicate which structures, functions, modals etc. they chose in their replies to the e-mail in the previous exercise and justify their choices.	Evaluation

F.II Contact Session 2:

Criticising and disagreeing with colleagues			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students discuss how they feel when they are being criticised or when someone disagrees with them in a rude manner. 2.Lecturer reads with students through dialogues where there is polite disagreement and constructive criticism as well as rude disagreements and unjustified criticism.	3.Lecturer indicates the role that modals played in both instances of the dialogues as well as transitional devices related to cause and effect. 4.Lecturer also discusses the use of the indefinite tense (e.g. this is my project/we welded parts together) vs. the continuous tenses (e.g. we are currently working on the baseline structure).	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	5.Students do an exercise where they have to fill in the correct form of the verb as well as an appropriate transitional device depicting cause and effect based on the context.	6.Lecturer discusses the difference in meaning when different tenses are used. Lecturer stresses the importance of context.	Principles

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Choice	7. Each student chooses one problem that he/she has experienced with his/her project so far. Students work in pairs and write e-mails to their partners describing the problem as accurately as possible. 8. The partners read the e-mails and discuss orally in class how they would reply to these e-mails by keeping in mind that criticism should be constructive and disagreement should be polite.	9. Lecturer guides students while they are discussing their replies in pairs. She makes suggestions in terms of the use of modals, tenses, and transitional devices.	Evaluation

F.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	E-mails with descriptions of problems. Dialogues with disagreements and criticism
Instructor-generated content resources	Substitution dialogues, hand-out on tenses
Task-generated content resources	Project proposals, description of problems with own projects

F.IV *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting a telephone conversation Writing e-mails	Transitional expressions Indefinite tenses Continuous tenses	Making enquiries Reporting errors Agreeing & disagreeing Paraphrasing	Principles of paragraph structure Describing cause and effect

F.V *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Substitution dialogues.
- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Use of realia.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.

F.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to write a written reply in the form of an e-mail to all four of the case studies described in Contact Session 1.
- Students also have to reply to their partner's problem by writing a coherent e-mail and focusing on constructive feedback and polite disagreement where appropriate.

G Week 7

Theme: Managing a project

Topic: Conducting an informal meeting

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- communicate the progress of the project to peers;
- describe and listen to descriptions of specific procedures;
- discuss problems and possible solutions during informal meetings;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a casual conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write a summary and summarise a conversation orally by making use of the principles of paragraph structure;
- use the present and past indefinite tenses effectively;
- use the active and passive voice effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- manage time effectively and responsibly during conversations.

G.I Contact Session 1:

Specifics of informal meetings			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer leads a discussion on informal meetings and the difference between a formal and an informal meeting. Students also discuss whether they think informal meetings are of much value to an engineer.	2.Students read a hand-out on impromptu, one-on-one and informal meetings ⁹ 3.Lecturer revises reading skills and asks questions about the passage to practise students' skimming and scanning.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students are	5.Lecturer guides	Principles

⁹ An example of such a hand-out can be found on www.3mcom/meetingnetwork/readingroom/meetingguide_impromptu

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	provided with a scenario in which they have to consult a colleague informally. They have to think of a way to attract the person's attention without being rude. Lecturer gives feedback on their ideas and refers back to the hand-out read in the previous exercise.	students to identify certain functions implied in the passage that would be necessary for effective communication (e.g. attracting attention, asking for permission, interrupting someone, agreeing/disagreeing etc.)	
Choice	6. In pairs, students write down and perform dialogues of a 5 minute informal meeting.	7. Pairs are assessed by the lecturer by means of a rubric.	Evaluation

G.II Contact Session 2:

Conducting an informal meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1. Students refer to their own projects and write down an outline for an impromptu meeting with a colleague.	2. With the help of the lecturer, students also write down possible phrases (functions) they might want to use as part of the impromptu meeting.	Concepts and Classification

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Sequence	3. Two students conduct a role play of an informal meeting where both have to elicit a solution to their problems from the other. (This means that they will not have the same aim for the meeting, but will have to make use of functions, linking devices, modals etc. to steer the conversation in the direction they would like it to go.)	4. In pairs, students give oral feedback on their impromptu meetings and indicate which of the two succeeded the best at reaching the goal. 5. Lecturer gives her own feedback on the students' meetings by agreeing or disagreeing with their own assessment.	Principles
Choice	6. Each student makes a short summary of the meeting in writing by adhering to the principles for paragraph structure and focusing on the aim of each person during the meeting. They read their paragraphs to the rest of the class.	6. Lecturer discusses the reasons why some impromptu meetings are more effective than others. (i.e. revise the principles of an effective impromptu meeting). 7. Students receive an agenda for the next class as the class will be conducted as a formal meeting.	Evaluation

G.III *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on impromptu meetings and phrases related to functions Questions to assess reading skills Agenda for the formal meeting to be held during the next class Rubric
Task-generated content resources	Scenario created for consulting a colleague Student-generated dialogues Students' own projects

G.IV *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting an informal meeting Writing a summary	Transitional devices Indefinite tenses Continuous tenses	Describing and listening to procedures Paraphrasing	Describing cause and effect

G.V *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Use of realia.
- Use of dialogues.
- Role play.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.

G.VI Homework:

- Students have to anticipate problems and questions that might arise from their projects and that might be addressed by the examiners when they present their projects. They write down these questions and problems with possible replies to these.

H Week 8

Theme: Managing a project

Topic: Conducting a formal meeting

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- communicate the progress of the project to peers;
- describe and listen to descriptions of specific procedures;
- discuss problems and possible solutions during formal meetings;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a formal conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write an agenda and minutes of a meeting;
- use the past indefinite and perfect tenses effectively;
- use reported speech effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- effectively contribute to a formal meeting in a professional capacity.

H.1 Contact Session 1:

Attending a formal meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer welcomes students and hands out role cards with suggestions for phrases to be used during the formal meeting. She explains that the entire class will be conducted in the form of a formal meeting. 2.Lecturer acts as the chairperson and welcomes everyone to the meeting.	3.Lecturer reads through the agenda and explains the course of the formal meeting. Each student should use the agenda as a framework for taking notes on the meeting in order to write the minutes of the meeting at the end for homework. 4.Under matters arising, the lecturer revises the functions practised during the impromptu meetings and indicates how the use of modals can change a phrase that was appropriate in an informal meeting to one that is appropriate in a formal meeting.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.The first point on the agenda under new matters is for everyone to read	6.Lecturer discusses the format of the minutes of a meeting as well as the use of reported speech.	Principles

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	through a hand-out on formal meetings.¹⁰ 5. Lecturer asks students questions about the hand-out focusing on their skimming and scanning skills.	She specifically refers to the use of the past indefinite and past perfect tenses as well as time words. 7. Students then take part in the rest of the meeting by playing the roles assigned to them on the role cards and using the suggested phrases for these roles.	
Choice	8. The final point on the agenda is whether formal meetings are important to engineers and each member of the meeting should argue this point in 1 minute. 9. The lecturer ends the meeting.	10. In groups the students assess the meeting by means of a rubric and indicate where the meeting procedures could have been improved based on the hand-out they studied. 11. Students apply these recommendations to their own formal meetings that will be held during the next contact session. They will divide into groups of 5 and each member has to report on the progress of his/her project. They will also	Evaluation

¹⁰ An example of this can be found on:

www.3m.com/meetingnetwork/readingroom/meetingguide_anatomy

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		have to be prepared to answer questions from the other members on their projects.	

H.II Contact Session 2:

Conducting a formal meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students divide into their groups and give copies of the agenda to each member of the group as well as to the lecturer. 2.Students also indicate who will portray the roles of chairperson and each member will perform the role of secretary as each one will have to write the minutes of the meeting to be held.	3.Students then go through the formal items on the agenda and also report on matters arising from the previous class. 4.Lecturer observes and assesses this part of the meeting by means of a rubric and pays specific attention to the correct use of tone and register in terms of the phrases they learned the previous lesson.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	5.Students then take turns to report back on the progress of their projects. They each get 5 minutes	6.Lecturer observes and assesses this part of the meeting by specifically focusing on students' summarising and	Principles

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	and they may make use of visual aids. Then the other members are allowed 2 questions to the person regarding the progress report or problems identified.	presentation skills as well as questioning techniques and the use of linking devices to give coherence and cohesion to the communication.	
Choice	7. Before the meeting closes, the members of the meeting vote on the best presentation. 8. The chairperson then closes the meeting.	9. Students discuss the experience and indicate what they found easy and what they struggled with. 10. Lecturer gives feedback on the observation and assessment.	Evaluation

H.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-out on formal meetings Questions to assess skimming and scanning skills Rubrics for the meeting held during the 1st contact session and for the meetings held in groups Functions and phrases associated with formal meeting
Task-generated content resources	Agenda

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	Student-generated agendas Role cards

H.IV Language Focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting a formal meeting	Transitional devices Reported speech Past indefinite and perfect tenses	Stating an opinion Agreeing & disagreeing Paraphrasing	Describing cause and effect Procedures of a formal meeting Minutes of a meeting Agenda

H.V Techniques and Classroom Procedures:

- Facilitation.
- Role play.
- Use of realia.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.

H.VI Homework:

- Students have to write the minutes of both meetings held during the two contact sessions.
- Students have to prepare 5 minute presentations for the meeting held during the second contact session.

I Week 9

Theme: Reporting the results of a project

Topic: Planning a technical report

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- collect data by reading authentic scientific materials;

- report the results of the project;

(Language Outcomes)

- apply different reading skills for different purposes;
- avoid run-on sentences and incorrect use of fragments;
- use the correct modifiers and pronouns in sentences;
- express numbers and quantities correctly;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- use the past indefinite tense effectively;
- use reported speech effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- assess a technical report according to given criteria;
- conduct themselves in a group.

1.1 Contact Session 1:

Using and quoting sources in a report			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer gives students examples of engineering reports from different projects. 2.They look at the reports and lecturer guides students to identify the properties	3.Lecturer gives students a hand-out or let them read an extract from their prescribed reference book¹¹ on reports. Students check whether they have identified all the properties in the given reports.	Concepts and Classification

¹¹ A Guide to Writing as Engineer written by Beer and McMurray (1997:125—153)

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	of a report.	4.Students also receive another hand-out on reported speech with an explanation of the change of tenses.	
Sequence	5.Students do an exercise where they have to change direct speech into reported speech by paying attention to the tenses.	6.Students look at their own reports and identify the use of reported speech. They also underline the references to other sources in their reports.	Principles
Choice	7.Students read through the guidelines on writing a report again and indicate which aspects in their report are missing or redundant. They give reasons for their answers. Lecturer guides the discussion.	8.Lecturer discusses the importance of an effective, accurate report and students indicate which of the guidelines they found helpful for this lesson.	Evaluation

1.II Contact Session 2:

Reporting on empirical data			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students are given extracts from engineering reports	2.Lecturer identifies the transitional devices, expressions of quantity	Concepts and Classification

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	focusing on graphics, charts and tables and written interpretations of those.	as well as the use of adjectives and adverbs in these.	
Sequence	3.Students are given a graph, a chart and a table on different topics and they have to write a coherent paragraph for each of those focusing on expression of quantities and the correct and accurate use of adjectives and adverbs.	4.Students swap their paragraphs with a partner and each one analyses the other's paragraphs in terms of the principles of paragraph structure and indicate how their partners can improve on their paragraphs.	Principles
Choice	5.Students now look at their own reports and lecturer guides them to indicate where they can improve on their reporting of empirical data and what language they will use.	6.Students look at a rubric for an engineering report and discuss the criteria. They predict what marks they will get when they make improvements on the reports according to what they have learned in the past two contact sessions.	Evaluation

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I.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Extracts of graphics from engineering reports
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on writing an engineering report and reported speech Multiple choice exercise on reported speech Rubric
Task-generated content resources	Student-generated reports
External content resources	Examples of engineering reports

I.IV Language Focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Writing a report Reading and comparing technical reports	Run-on sentences & fragments Modifiers Pronouns Quantifiers Indefinite, Continuous and Perfect tenses Reported speech	Skimming Scanning Comparing Assessing	Creating coherence in a report Describing cause and effect

I.V Techniques and Classroom Procedures:

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Giving an example before expecting a similar task.

- Use of realia.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.

I.VI Homework:

- Students have to make improvements on their reports as discussed in class.

J Week 10

Theme: Reporting the results of a project

Topic: Writing a technical report

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- write a technical report;

(Language Outcomes)

- avoid run-on sentences and incorrect use of fragments;
- use the correct modifiers and pronouns in sentences;
- express numbers and quantities correctly;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- use the indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses effectively;
- use reported speech effectively;
- use the passive and active voice effectively;
- describe cause and effect;
- use charts, graphs and symbols to convey a message;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- convey results in a responsible and ethical manner.

J.I Contact Session 1 & 2

(as this will take up more than a 45 minute period):

Writing and assessing a report			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students study two examples of engineering reports. The one contains only the body of a report while the other is accompanied by a letter of transmittal, covers and label, title page, table of contents, list of figures, executive summary and an introduction.	2.Lecturer discusses which report is more reader friendly and why. 3.Students look at their own reports and indicate which aspects are still missing from theirs. 4.Lecturer refers to the section in their prescribed reference books on writing an engineering report ¹² while they scan through their own reports.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	5.Students make a list of all the important aspects related to format of a report. Lecturer guides a discussion on these aspects. 6.Lecturer then	7.During a class discussion, the lecturer and the students generate their own rubric for engineering reports based on the format and language criteria they have identified.	Principles

¹² A Guide to Writing as Engineer written by Beer and McMurray (1997:125—153)

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	makes a list of all the important language aspects of a report (e.g. coherent paragraphs, quantifiers, modifiers, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs etc.)		
Choice	8. Students divide into pairs and assess one another's reports based on the generated rubric. They also hand in a copy to the lecturer to be marked.	9. Students give feedback to one another and justify the choices made based on the rubric. They then compare the assessment made by the lecturer and the lecturer guides a discussion on the feedback.	Evaluation

J.II Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Example of the body of a report
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-out on writing an engineering report
Task-generated content resources	Student-generated rubric
External content resources	Example of an entire engineering report

J.III *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Writing a technical report	Run-on sentences Modifiers Quantifiers Transitional devices Indefinite, perfect and continuous tenses Active & passive voice	Comparing Assessing Justifying Paraphrasing	Describing cause and effect Making use of charts, graphs and symbols to convey a message

J.IV *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Use of realia.
- Providing an example before expecting a similar task.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.

J.V *Homework:*

- Make changes to the report based on the peer and lecturer assessment and submit the final report for assessment by the lecturer.
- The lecturer will use the same student-generated rubric to assess the report.

K Week 11

Theme: Reporting the results of a project

Topic: Planning a presentation

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify the differences between a presentation and a written report;
- plan a presentation;

(Language Outcomes)

- use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively;
- identify effective use of body language during a presentation;
- write an effective paragraph;
- persuade an audience with a well-developed argument;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- react to criticism in a professional manner;
- convey results in a responsible and ethical manner.

K.I Contact Session1:

Using the language of a presentation			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students watch a video recording of a 10 minute presentation.	2.Lecturer compares the structure and language of the oral presentation with a written proposal by drawing up a table of differences and similarities between the two.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students watch the recording again and	4.Lecturer provides a hand-out with phrases	Principles

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	make a list of all the transitional devices used in the speech. Lecturer asks guiding questions (e.g. how does the speaker introduce the topic, formulate each point of the argument, introduce and explain the visuals, answer questions, conclude the argument?) to help students identify these transitional devices.	that could be used during each part of the presentation and explains how these phrases can be used. These also include the use of adjectives and adverbs as well as asking and answering questions.	
Choice	5.Students make use of a substitution table to practise these phrases within different parts of the presentation. 6.Students indicate which of the phrases, adjectives and adverbs, questions and answers could be used to convert their own written proposals into oral proposals.	7.Students divide into groups and give feedback by indicating the reasons for their choices of phrases, descriptive words and formulation of questions and answers. Lecturer guides this discussion.	Evaluation

K.II Contact Session 2:

Using body language during a presentation			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students watch three video recordings of presentations – the one presentation is only a written report that is read by the speaker without much use of body language, the other is an oral presentation with effective use of body language while the speaker makes use of excessive body language in the third.	2.Lecturer makes a list of the body language that aided the second speaker in bringing his message across during each part of the presentation.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students do a gap-filling oral exercise where they have to elicit information from one another by making use of body language in the process (e.g. the body language that is used with transitional	4.Students read through a hand-out on body language during a presentation. Lecturer discusses the hand-out with them and they indicate how they can apply these guidelines to their own presentations.	Principles

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	devices, descriptive words, quantifiers, questions etc.)		
Choice	5.Students look at their own written presentations and indicate the body language that could be used effectively with them. Lecturer guides them individually while they are working.	6.Students design a rubric for an oral presentation with the help of the lecturer by formulating criteria based on this week's two contact sessions. 7.Lecturer explains how these rubrics will be used by the students to assess their own oral presentations during the next two contact sessions.	Evaluation

K.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Visual recording of a presentation that is only read with no effective use of body language
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs: functions and phrases used during presentations and effective body language during presentations
Task-generated content resources	Substitution table for phrases used during presentations Gap-filling exercise

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External content resources	Recordings of oral presentations by engineers

K.IV *Language Focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Planning a presentation Watching a presentation	Adjectives & adverbs	Comparing Persuading	Making use of effective body language to convey a message Principles of paragraph structure Format of a presentation

K.V *Techniques and Classroom Procedures:*

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Use of realia.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Use of substitution tables.
- Use of gap-filling exercises.

K.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to convert their own written reports into a 10 minute presentation by applying the knowledge and principles covered during the contact sessions.
- Prepare a 10 minute presentation with effective use of body language in order to do this presentation during the next two contact sessions.

L Week 12

Theme: Reporting the results of a project

Topic: Doing a presentation

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- do an oral presentation;

(Language Outcomes)

- use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively;
- use body language effectively;
- persuade an audience with a well-developed argument;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- react to criticism in a professional manner;
- convey results in a responsible and ethical manner.

L.I Contact Sessions 1&2

(as this task will take more than 45 minutes):

Doing an oral presentation of the results of a project			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students get a chance to scan their own presentations and ask final questions before they present. They also get a chance to set up the equipment that will be used during the presentation.	2.Lecturer revises the rubric and each student receives a rubric in order to be able to assess his/her peers during the presentation.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students take turns	4.After each	Principles

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	to do their presentations.	presentation, the class is allowed to ask the speaker two questions in order to give each presenter a chance to answer questions as well.	
Choice	5.Students assess their peers by means of the rubric that was designed during the previous week. 6.The lecturer also assesses the presentations with the same rubric and calculates the mark by taking the average between the peer assessment and the teacher assessment.	7.Lecturer gives feedback after all of the presentations have been done and touches on the weak and strong points of the students by referring to the outcomes of the course and to what degree the students have achieved these outcomes.	Evaluation

L.II Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Audio-visual equipment used for presentations. Questionnaire for feedback on the course
Task-generated content resources	Oral presentations by students Rubric

L.III Language Focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Doing an oral presentation Listening to an oral presentation	Adjectives & adverbs	Persuading Assessing	Making use of effective body language to convey a message

L.IV Techniques and Classroom Procedures:

- Facilitation.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Use of peer assessment.
- Use of student-generated assessment tool.

L.V Homework:

- Students have to reflect on the whole course and complete a questionnaire on the effectiveness of the course.

7.3 An ESP Course for Final Year Teaching Students

The design of the above ESP course will be discussed in terms of the steps for course design of the generative framework.

7.3.1 Step 1: Articulating Beliefs

The Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University follows the principle of Outcomes Based Education, which is prescribed by the National Department of Education. This means that learning should involve the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values. The view of language and language learning theories this ESP course is based on, should therefore support this system prescribed by the National Department of Education.

A View of Language

An Eclectic Approach which involves both Structural and Functional views to language would be a suitable starting point for the course. A Structuralist view, which states that “language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:20), could be helpful as teachers need to break down and analyse not only subject content, but also the language of the subject in order to explain concepts to learners.

Furthermore, the Functionalist view regards language as a combination of the four different skills, namely listening and reading (the receptive skills) as well as reading and writing (the productive skills), which are important for teachers as these four skills are applied on a daily basis in the classroom as the needs analysis (cf. Section 6.3.1E) has shown.

B View of Language Learning

The view that language is learned through interaction would be well suited to this ESP course. The students receive their training in Afrikaans and according to Robinson (1981:25), when the students are confronted with the discourse within a specific field, they can “approach the formulation in English by means of both non-verbal devices and the formulation of their mother tongue. The amount of support offered by the non-verbal device and by the student’s own language can vary, and rather than learning rules, students are performing some of the activities in a specific field of expertise”. The focus is on the importance of interaction in the language learning process.

7.3.2 Step 2: Conducting a Needs Analysis

The needs analysis conducted for this specific course is described in Section 6.3.

7.3.3 Step 3: Summarising Results from the Needs Analysis

The results from the Needs Analysis can be categorized into two groups, namely data related to field-specific content and data related to linguistic content. The field-specific content will be presented in the form of a list of tasks as specified by the respondents, while the language content will be presented in the form of a table that can be used as a checklist by the teacher in Step 5 (cf. Section 7.3.5).

A Field-Specific Content

The following field-specific tasks were identified from the Needs Analysis:

- Lesson planning.
- Lesson presentation.
- Explaining subject-related topics and terminology.
- Classroom management.
- Assessment-related activities (e.g. setting and marking assignments, tests, exam papers etc.).
- Attending and conducting meetings with colleagues and parents.

B Language Content

The language content is organised in terms of skills, structures, functions and discourse aspects and is presented in Table 7-2 in descending order in terms of the frequency of use as indicated by the respondents. Subject-specific vocabulary and body language, however presented problems as these aspects of communication do not neatly fit into any of the categories that have been used to organise the language content. Therefore, it has been decided to categorise subject-specific vocabulary under structures as these words are used on a sentence level and body language under discourse aspects as body language communicates a message in a different medium.

Language required daily			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading textbooks and students scripts	Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Skimming Scanning Critical reading	The language and organisation of textbooks Conventions of marking student scripts Topic sentences Main ideas in paragraphs
Writing on the blackboard and on transparencies	Adjectives & adverbs Degrees of comparison Imperatives Transitional devices Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Using a dictionary/thesaurus Writing instructions Writing descriptions Describing a sequence	Use of visual organisers Coherence Cohesion Format of a summary
Listening to questions	Transitional expressions	Listening in order to verify	Tone

		information Listening for details and specific information Asking questions Paraphrasing	Recognizing context Body language
Giving instructions and asking questions	Imperatives Modal verbs Linking words Expressions of quantity Degrees of comparison (adjectives & adverbs)	Greeting Demonstrating Describing Giving permission Asking questions to verify information, to compare, to instruct and to describe	Body language Different ways to ask questions without offending
Language required weekly			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading books and websites on the internet	Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Comparing Evaluating Skimming	Interpreting graphs, charts, symbols Simplifying and adapting

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		Scanning Critical reading	materials for the classroom Topic sentences Main ideas in paragraphs
Writing out lesson plans	Imperative Questions Prefixes & suffixes Subject-specific concepts and vocabulary	Instructing Analysing Describing Formulating outcomes	Using language that would invite questions and evoke active participation from the learners Visual organisers
Listening to questions, announcements, instructions and telephone conversations	Transitional expressions	Listening to assess Listening in order to verify information Taking notes Listening for details and specific information Asking questions Paraphrasing	Tone Recognizing context Body language
Giving lectures, and conducting casual conversations	Imperatives Degrees of comparison Subject-specific concepts &	Agreeing/disagreeing Assessing Classifying	Tone Recognizing context

	vocabulary	Comparing Persuading Reporting Suggesting	Body language
Language required monthly			
Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading articles, manuals, journals, formal letters, questionnaires, newsletters, policy documents, notices and answer keys	Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Skimming Scanning Critical reading	Interpreting and making use of illustrations, charts, scientific symbols, pictures and graphs Topic sentences Main ideas in paragraphs
Writing formal letters, asking questions in writing, designing answer keys and filling in forms	Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Assessing Classifying Informing Reporting	Tone Cohesion Importance of audience Stating reason and purpose Paragraph structure (unity, emphasis, coherence,

			completeness)
Listening to information, suggestions and recommendations during workshops and informal meetings	Vocabulary emphasising a point Modals	Listening while taking notes Listening to assess Agreeing/Disagreeing	Body language Courtesy
Speaking on the telephone, making recommendations and conducting formal conversations	Imperatives Modals	Appreciating Complimenting Classifying Demonstrating Giving permission Persuading Reporting Suggesting	Tone Body language Importance of audience

Table 7-4 Specification of the Language Content for an ESP Course for Teaching Students

The tasks can now be identified and formulated by matching the identified topics and language content and describing them as purposeful, interactive activities that involve a process that utilises and challenges existing knowledge parameters, is contextualised, develops both fluency and accuracy skills, and produces measurable outcomes (De Villiers, 1997:111).

7.3.4 Step 4: Formulating Outcomes and Designing an Assessment Plan

After the data from the needs analysis had been collected, analysed and organised the main objectives of the course were divided into outcomes and assessment standards. The three different types of outcomes that have been identified by Douglas (2000:35) (i.e. language knowledge, background knowledge and strategic competence – cf. Section 5.2.2D) are specified where relevant. The outcomes are listed in Table 7-5.

Main Objectives	Outcomes	Assessment Standards
<i>By the end of the course, the students should be able to:</i>	<i>By the end of this unit, the students should be able to:</i>	<i>We know this when students can:</i>
plan a lesson in their subject or learning area in English.	(Background/Content outcomes) study and compare examples of different lesson plans; identify and formulate outcomes; identify key concepts in a lesson to be explained; identify and use classroom instructions effectively; (Language outcomes) use imperatives correctly; formulation of questions; use pre-and suffixes to infer the meanings of words; apply scaffolding techniques to explain difficult words or concepts;	identify and formulate outcomes for a specific lesson from the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in English; identify key concepts from the lesson to be explained in English; plan several scaffolding techniques to explain difficult concepts in English; plan English phrases in advance to be used in each phase of the lesson; prepare visual aids to aid in their teaching of the lesson.

	(Strategic/Pedagogy outcomes) assess a lesson plan according to given criteria; express an awareness of their own lacks in terms of their own English proficiency.	
present a lesson effectively in English.	(Background/Content outcomes) identify and use classroom instructions associated with the different phases of a lesson; introduce a new topic by relating it to prior knowledge of learners; explain classroom rules; apply scaffolding techniques to explain difficult concepts; communicate the outcomes of a lesson to students; manage group work and individual activities; use different strategies to revise and assess outcomes;	greet students in English; introduce a new topic in English; contextualise a topic in English by linking it to learners' prior knowledge; use body language to aid in communication during the lesson; use English phrases effectively to aid in classroom management; ask well-formulated, open-ended questions and giving constructive feedback to learners in English.

	explain homework to learners; give constructive oral and written feedback to learners; design different assessment tools; (Language outcomes) use the imperative correctly; formulate effective questions; make effective use of modals; paraphrase instructions; use effective body language to manage learners during a lesson; write a friendly letter; use transitional devices effectively; use modals effectively; use adjectives and adverbs effectively; indicate cause and effect; use correct language for positive and negative feedback; appreciate, compliment and encourage learners;	

	(Strategic/Pedagogy outcomes) create a disciplined environment that is conducive to learning; be aware of and be comfortable with their own teaching style and improve on their own teaching practice; be aware of their own learning styles and how to adapt explanations to cater for other learning styles; monitor and assess own lesson presentations; take responsibility for timely and objective feedback to learners.	
communicate effectively with colleagues and parents.	(Background/Content outcomes) conduct casual conversations with colleagues; discuss administrative matters with colleagues; agree or disagree politely with colleagues; conduct formal and informal meetings;	conduct both formal and informal meetings in English; have polite conversations in English with both colleagues and parents; attend and participate in a workshop in English; conduct a conversation in English on the

	communicate learners' progress to parents; conduct a parent-teacher conference; take part in a workshop; give written and oral feedback on the outcomes of a workshop; (Language outcomes) conduct a telephone conversation; conduct formal and informal conversations; make use of transitional devices in communication; use the correct tone and register for a specific audience; make an oral or written summary of a conversation or meeting; write effective paragraphs; use the indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses effectively; describe cause and effect;	telephone with colleagues and parents; write formal letters to the Department of Education as well as to parents.

	use adjectives and adverbs correctly and effectively; write an agenda and minutes of a meeting; use reported speech effectively; write and reply to formal letters; use paraphrasing effectively ; (Strategic/Pedagogy outcomes) function as member of a staff; show respect and extend professional courtesy to parents and learners; react to criticism in a professional manner; function effectively within a group of peers.	

Table 7-5 Outcomes

The outcomes and assessment standards listed in Table 7-5 have now been grouped together and categorized in terms of five major assessment tasks and with a specification of how these tasks can be assessed. These are specified in Table 7-6.

Assessment tasks	Assessment tools
Learners should hand in a complete lesson plan on a topic in their subject fields or learning areas.	Rubric
Learners should present a complete lesson on a topic in their subject fields or learning areas.	Checklist (for peer assessment) Rubric
Learners should conduct a formal meeting in groups.	Checklist (for self assessment) Rubric
Learners should compile a portfolio with examples of different types of communication with colleagues and parents (e.g. recordings of role plays of informal meetings and telephone conversations and written formal letters)	Checklist (for self assessment) Rubric

7.3.5 Step 5: Conceptualising and Organising the Course

The Task-Based method could be very effective in this instance, as the objectives of the task-based method are formulated in terms of a pedagogic focus, which specifies the general or specific purpose of the course, a skill focus, which includes reading, writing, listening, speaking and learner training and a language focus, which will specify whether the tasks have been designed to focus attention on specific properties of the grammar of the language ("focused tasks").

The conceptualisation and organisation of the ESP course is set out below. An eight credit module at the university typically runs for twelve weeks with two 45

minute contact sessions each week. The outlines for 12 weeks (2 contact sessions per week) are, therefore provided below. Each week's planning consists of the following:

- themes and topics (derived from the field-specific content specified by the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.3A);
- outcomes (derived from the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.4);
- tasks (described and graded in terms of Mohan's model¹³ and in terms of the frequency of use indicated by the needs analysis; cf. Section 5.3.5), which are described step-by-step and are chronologically numbered ;
- texts (derived from the needs analysis and specified in terms of Grabe and Stoller's classification; cf. Table 5-1);
- language focus (derived from the needs analysis; cf. Section 7.2.3B);
- an indication of techniques and classroom procedures, and
- suggestions for homework.

It is assumed that the administrative procedures for each class have been dealt with before the lessons start.

A Week 1

Theme: Planning a lesson

Topic: Planning the content

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- study and compare examples of different lesson plans;
- identify and formulate outcomes for a specific lesson from the NCS;
- identify key concepts from the lesson to be explained;

¹³ **Description** answers the questions to Who?, What? and Where? The people, materials, equipment, items and settings are stipulated through description. **Sequence** provides answers to the questions related to processes, procedures or routines. **Choice** considers the conflicts, alternatives, dilemmas and decisions related to the tasks. **Concepts and classification** provides an answer to the question: What concepts apply and how are they related to each other? **Principles** are concerned with aspects such as cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques to perform a certain task, rules, norms and strategies. **Evaluation** deals with questions related to values and standards, e.g. What are the typical reasons for choosing one object or course of action over another?

(Language Outcomes)

- use the imperative correctly;
- formulate effective open-ended and close-ended questions;
- use prefixes and suffixes of words to infer and explain subject-specific concepts and vocabulary;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- assess a lesson plan according to given criteria.

A.I Contact Session 1:

Studying examples of lesson plans			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read through 2 examples of lesson plans.	2.Lecturer compiles general questions on lesson plans (e.g. What are the outcomes?) in order to assess students' skimming and scanning skills.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students work through a checklist for an English medium of instruction lesson ¹⁴ .	4.Lecturer discusses the checklist and uses one of the two sample lessons to explain the criteria of the checklist.	Principles
Choice	5.Students divide into groups and assess the other sample	6.Students discuss the value of the checklist for teachers and lecturer	Evaluation

¹⁴ An example of this can be found in Uys (2006). The teacher may just want to adapt the list to only focus on planning and not on presentation.

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	lesson by means of the checklist	leads a discussion on how students can apply these aspects to their own lesson planning.	

A.II Contact Session 2:

The language of effective lesson plans			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read through examples of lesson plans in their specific subjects or learning areas.	2.Lecturer compiles general questions and leads a discussion on the language usage in the lesson plans (e.g. which types of sentences are used most often – questions, instructions, suggestions, descriptions etc.)	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students do an exercise on the formulation of questions, pre- and suffixes and the use of imperatives.	4.Lecturer gives examples of the formulation of questions, a list of common pre- and suffixes indicating the origins of words ¹⁵ , as well as the use of the imperative in a lesson plan.	Principles

¹⁵ Examples of these can be found in Lutrin & Pincus (2004:46-48)

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Choice	6.Students divide into subject groups and identify the use of questions, imperatives and pre- and suffixes in the planning of lessons in their subjects or learning areas.	7.Students give feedback to the rest of the class on the use of questions, imperatives and pre- and suffixes in their specific subjects or learning areas.	Evaluation

A.III *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Lesson planning checklist
Instructor-generated content resources	Questions to practise skimming & scanning Exercise on formulation of questions, pre- and suffixes and use of the imperative
External content resources	Lesson plans from different subject areas

A.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading texts and lesson plans within their subject areas Speaking about content in their subject fields	Imperatives Questions Pre-and suffixes	Comparing Evaluating Instructing Describing	Lesson plans

A.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Use of realia.

A.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to plan a lesson from their subject areas in English in which they formulate at least 5 questions, use at least 5 imperatives and identify the meanings of at least 3 words on the topic with pre- and suffixes.
- A rubric based on the criteria of the checklist can be used to assess their lesson planning.

B Week 2

Theme: Planning a lesson

Topic: Planning the language

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use classroom instructions effectively as part of their lesson planning;
- identify and formulate language outcomes for a specific lesson from the NCS;

(Language Outcomes)

- use the imperative correctly;
- formulate effective open-ended and close-ended questions;
- apply scaffolding techniques to explain difficult words or concepts;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- express an awareness of their own lacks in terms of English proficiency.

B.I Contact Session 1:

Planning classroom instructions			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read through outlines of lesson plans in their specific subjects or learning areas. However, space is left in the outlines to add classroom instructions, questions, imperatives etc. to the lesson plans	2.Lecturer leads a discussion on what types of phrases could be added to the missing sections in the lesson plans. 3.Lecturer discusses a hand-out on classroom instructions.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students work in groups and add to the given lesson outlines by using the hand-out.	5.Lecturer discusses the importance of planning classroom instructions for English 1 st language speakers and English 2 nd language speakers. Students add to the discussion by indicating which instructions they did not know before they studied the hand-out or which instructions they struggled with during practical teaching.	Principles

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		6.Lecturer indicates how the correct formulation of classroom instructions will aid in classroom management and maintaining discipline.	
Choice	6.Students study their own lesson plans and indicate where they can add classroom instructions.	7.Lecturer leads a discussion of which type of instructions would be used most frequently in different subject areas.	Evaluation

B.II Contact Session 2:

Planning scaffolding techniques			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read through outlines of lesson plans in their specific subjects or learning areas. However, space is left after difficult concepts for them to indicate how these concepts will be explained to learners. 2.Students indicate what they think is still missing in the lesson	3.Lecturer discusses a hand-out on scaffolding techniques.	Concepts and Classification

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	plan.		
Sequence	4.Students work in groups and add to the given lesson outlines by using the hand-out.	5.Lecturer gives practical examples of scaffolding techniques in lessons and leads a discussion on the strong and weak points of each technique.	Principles
Choice	6.Students study their own lesson plans and indicate where they can add scaffolding techniques. They specifically focus on words with pre-and suffixes, describing something or a process and use of visual aids.	7.Students indicate which scaffolding techniques would be effective in their specific subject areas. They also give examples of those. 8.Lecturer discusses the rubric (based on an adaptation of the checklist discussed during Week 1) that will be used to assess the students' written lesson plans.	Evaluation

B.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Rubric
Instructor-generated content resources	Lesson plans from different subject areas with missing sections Hand-outs on classroom instructions and scaffolding techniques

Task-generated content resources	Lesson plans by students

B.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Reading texts and lesson plans within their subject areas	Imperatives Questions Pre-and suffixes	Comparing Evaluating Explaining Instructing	Use of visual aids in explaining difficult concepts Selecting appropriate scaffolding techniques for specific difficult concepts
Improving and adding classroom instructions and scaffolding techniques to their own written lesson plans			

B.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Gap-filling activities.
- Use of realia.

B.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to amend their lesson plans by adding classroom instructions and scaffolding techniques.
- A rubric based on the criteria of the checklist can be used to assess their lesson planning.

C Week 3

Theme: Presenting a lesson

Topic: Classroom management

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use classroom instructions associated with the different phases of a lesson;

(Language Outcomes)

- use the imperative correctly;
- formulate effective open-ended and close-ended questions;
- make effective use of modals;
- distinguish between the use of the indefinite and continuous tenses;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- create a disciplined classroom environment that is conducive to learning.

C.1 Contact Session 1:

Identifying characteristics of a good lesson presentation			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students watch excerpts from video recordings of several lesson presentations (e.g. an introduction, a description, an explanation, a group activity etc.)	2.Lecturer leads a class discussion on the characteristics of a good lesson presentation. 3. Students make a list of these characteristics in groups.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Lecturer explains a hand-out on guidelines for a good	6.Lecturer asks questions to assess students' prior	Principles

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	lesson presentation and students compare the hand-out to the lists they have made in the previous exercise. 5. Students do a gap-filling exercise where they have to formulate open-ended and close-ended questions.	knowledge on the phases of a lesson and students discuss what teacher activities are specifically associated with each phase of the lesson plan.	
Choice	7. Students read certain scenarios of lesson presentations where they are presented with a problem or a challenge (e.g. getting learners involved in an activity/learners who have very little prior knowledge on a topic/a rowdy class etc.) They provide solutions to these problems based on the hand-out and the class discussion.	8. Lecturer gives feedback on the students' suggested solutions.	Evaluation

C.II Contact Session 2:

Practising classroom instructions during lesson presentation			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students give feedback on their interviews with teachers (they had to conduct for homework) on how much time during a lesson is spent on classroom instructions.	2.Lecturer gives a hand-out with a list of scrambled classroom instructions. 3.Students have to unscramble the instructions and indicate where and when they would use these instructions during a lesson.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students are now given a lesson outline and they have to come up with a list of 10 classroom instructions that could possibly be used for each phase of the lesson.	5.Lecturer discusses the formation of the imperative and the present indefinite tense and contrast it with the present continuous tense. Lecturer also indicates how the students can vary the rigidity of the instruction by adding interjections and modal verbs. 6.Students do exercises on the two tenses, use of	Principles

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		the imperative and the use of modals and interjections.	
Choice	7.Learners look at their list of ten instructions and improve them according to the instruction on the formation of imperatives, tenses, interjections and modals.	8.Lecturer leads a class discussion on possible scenarios in terms of when to use the strict imperative and when to soften the imperative with modals and interjections and when to use the continuous tenses in a classroom.	Evaluation

C.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Excerpts from lesson presentations
Instructor-generated content resources	Lesson outlines Handouts on guidelines for good lesson presentations, classroom instructions, use of the imperative, interjections and modals Gap-filling exercise on formulating questions
Task-generated content resources	Scenarios which present problems for lesson presentation Scrambled classroom instructions
External content resources	Interviews with teachers

C.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Formulating clear and effective classroom instructions	Imperatives	Comparing	Changing the tone and style of instructions in terms of their strictness based on the situation in the classroom
Listening to and reading phrases for clear classroom instructions	Questions	Assessing	
	Modals	Monitoring	
	Interjections	Instructing	

C.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Problem-based activities.
- Realia.
- Observation and interaction with teachers from the target situation.

C.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to conduct an interview with a teacher from their subject field or learning area to determine how frequently classroom instructions are used during a typical lesson.
- Students have to plan a lesson from their subject field or learning area and add at least 5 classroom instructions per phase of the lesson to their planning.

D Week 4

Theme: Presenting a lesson

Topic: Introducing a lesson

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use classroom instructions to introduce themselves to a class;
- introduce a new topic in their subject area by relating the topic to prior knowledge;
- explain the classroom rules in English;
- elicit concepts related to prior knowledge by means of scaffolding techniques;

(Language Outcomes)

- write a friendly letter addressed to learners;
- introduce themselves orally;
- paraphrase instructions when necessary;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- improve on their own teaching practice.

D.I Contact Session 1:

Introducing yourself to a new class			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer enters the class with negative body language and without greeting the class and hands out an exercise without giving any instructions on how to do the exercise..	2.Students discuss how they felt when there was no proper introduction or indication of the rules or guidelines for the exercise (i.e. they come to the conclusion that a proper introduction to a class is very important to	Concepts and Classification

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		lesson presentation.)	
Sequence	3.Students read a friendly letter written by a teacher to each pupil in her class. In this letter, she introduces herself and voices her expectations of the class as well as the rules for the class. 4.Lecturer analyses the letter and make a list of the type of information the teacher shares in the friendly letter.	5.Students underline the imperative sentences in the letter as well as the modals used and the lecturer also explains the format of the friendly letter. 6.Students read a hand-out on the importance of first impressions and guidelines for creating a good first impression.	Principles
Choice	6.Each student prepares a 2 minute oral introduction to a new class, keeping the letter and the hand-out in mind.	7.Students do their oral introductions in front of the class and the teacher gives feedback to each of them. 8.Students also receive a rubric to assess the friendly letter (similar to the one they have studied) that they will have to do for homework.	Evaluation

D.II Contact Session 2:

Introducing a new topic			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer indicates that it is not only the teacher who needs an introduction to a lesson, but also the actual topic and new concepts during the lesson that need an introduction each time.	2.Lecturer leads a class discussion on the techniques the students have already learned to elicit learners' prior knowledge and to link their prior knowledge to new concepts or topics. 3.Lecturer gives them a hand-out with functions and phrases related to eliciting prior knowledge (explaining, describing, asking questions, paraphrasing defining etc.)	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Students divide into subject groups and each group receives a subject-related topic or concept that they have to introduce to the rest of the class. Each group gets a turn to do this.	4.Students discuss the problems they experienced with the previous activity. 5.Lecturer hands out an outline for introducing a difficult concept (e.g. activity to link this to prior knowledge, scaffolding	Principles

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		techniques to explain this concept, techniques to assess whether the teacher can continue with the rest of the lesson)	
Choice	6.Students now take the same concept they had in the previous activity and use the outline to improve their explanation of the concept or topic.	7.Groups get a chance to explain the same concept to the rest of the class again and the class has to assess whether the first or second explanation was the best. They have to give reasons for their decision.	Evaluation

D.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Friendly letter of introduction
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on creating a good first impression and functions and phrases related to introducing a new topic or concept Rubric for friendly letter
Task-generated content resources	Exercise on first impressions Outline for introducing new topics and concepts

D.IV Language focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Formulate effective explanations for difficult concepts in class Read about strategies for effective explanations of difficult concepts	Paraphrases Questions Imperatives	Introducing themselves	Format of a friendly letter

D.V Techniques and classroom procedures:

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Reflection on own attempts and constructive feedback.
- Repetition of the same task as part of a process.

D.VI Homework:

- Students have to choose at least three concepts from the existing lesson plan and write out the introduction and explanation for each of these concepts or topics according to the outline for introducing new topics and concepts.

E Week 5

Theme: Presenting a lesson

Topic: The Core Task Phase of a lesson

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use classroom instructions to explain the core tasks included in a lesson;

- identify and explain new subject-related concepts to the learners by means of scaffolding techniques;
- manage group work and individual activities;

(Language Outcomes)

- define, describe and explain difficult concepts;
- paraphrase instructions when necessary;
- use effective body language to manage learners during a lesson;
- use transitional phrases to indicate cause and effect;
- use adjectives and adverbs effectively;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- adapt explanations in order to cater for the different learning styles of the learners.

E.I Contact Session 1:

Language for classroom activities			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students look at examples of activities from the core task phase of different lessons from different subject areas. 2.Lecturer helps students make a list of activities that learners can perform during the core task phase of a lesson based on the given	3.Students take out their list of functions and phrases used during the previous two contact sessions and write down the phrases that could be used during the activities that they have listed. 4.Lecturer also hands out and discusses another list with more functions and phrases related to those functions	Concepts and Classification

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	examples.	(e.g. organising group activities, indicating time limits, monitoring learners, paraphrasing an explanation, asking guiding questions, using transitional devices etc.)	
Sequence	5.Learners divide into groups and each receives a passage based on a topic from their subjects or learning areas. 6.Students describe 3 activities that learners should do as part of the core task phase of a lesson based on that passage. 7.Students use the list they compiled themselves as well as the hand-out on phrases and functions to add instructions for those activities and phrases to guide learners during the activities.	8.A class discussion is also held on which scaffolding techniques to use during the core task phase. 9.Students match the phrases they used with these techniques and add more phrases of their own. 10.Students also receive a hand-out and exercise on paraphrasing, use of transitional phrases indicating cause and effect and the formulation of adjectives and adverbs.	Principles
Choice	11.Each group receives a scenario which describes a	12.Groups present the problem to the class and demonstrate how they	Evaluation

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	problem that learners are experiencing during the core task phase of a lesson in their subject fields or learning areas. They have to plan an activity and the language to use during the activity to solve the problem.	will solve the problem. 13.Lecturer gives feedback on the groups' explanations of activities.	

E.II Contact Session 2:

Body language during classroom activities			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students divide into groups and they each receive a scenario that they have to act out by only using body language (e.g. an overeager learner, a learner who is not interested, a learner who is shy, a learner who does not understand, etc.) 2.The rest of the groups have to guess what the scenario is.	3.Lecturer discusses the importance of body language for the teacher and the learners during class activities and how this can aid in guiding learners toward the outcomes of a lesson. 4.Students receive and read a hand-out on body language for the teacher (describing effective body language to use and how to read the learners' body language)	Concepts and Classification

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		as well as a description of different learning styles.	
Sequence	5. With the help of the lecturer, students refer back to the activities and phrases they identified during the previous lesson and add the body language to these to make them even more effective for learners with different learning styles.	6. Students now refer to the core task phase of their own lesson plans and indicate where and how body language can be effectively used 7. They discuss their suggestions with their group.	Principles
Choice	8. The members of the group choose one activity from the core task phase of one of the members and do a role play (of a classroom situation with teacher and a few learners) to indicate how the teacher will use body language effectively to manage this activity.	9. Peer assessment takes place by means of a rubric and the class appoints the group with the best and most effective use of body language during the core task phase of a lesson. 10. Lecturer gives feedback on the role play.	Evaluation

E.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Descriptions of activities from core task phases of lessons
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs: functions and phrases for core task phase, body language and learning styles, examples of and an exercise on paraphrasing, transitional phrases indicating cause and effect and the formulation of adjectives and adverbs Rubric
Task-generated content resources	Student-generated lesson plans Scenarios with activities and problems as well as for body language
External content resources	Reading passages from textbooks from different subjects or learning areas

E.IV Language focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Formulate effective explanations for difficult concepts by writing them down and then doing them orally	Paraphrases Transitional phrases indicating cause and effect Formulation of adjectives and adverbs	Defining Describing Explaining	Adapting body language and explanations to cater for learners with different learning styles.

E.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Role play.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Problem-based activities.
- Peer assessment.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.

E.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to practise the presentation of the core task phase of their lessons in front of their group members while being assessed by their peers with the same rubric used in class.

F Week 6

Theme: Presenting a lesson

Topic: Consolidating a lesson

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use classroom instructions to consolidate a lesson;
- use different strategies to revise and assess the outcomes of a lesson;
- explain the homework to learners;

(Language Outcomes)

- formulate effective questions;
- use the imperative effectively;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- monitor and assess own impressions of the lesson and indicate how the lesson can be improved.

F.I Contact Session 1:

The language of assessment			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer hands out a badly constructed test on body language. 2.Students read through the test individually.	3.Students refer to their prior knowledge of assessment and indicate how the test can be improved (e.g. correct and precise formulation of questions, mark allocation, contextualisation of questions, relevance to outcomes etc.)	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students receive a hand-out with examples of open- and close-ended questions as well as different types of questions (multiple choice, essay type, matching, cloze exercises etc.)	5.Lecturer reads through the types of questions again and indicate which questions can be stated orally and which would be more effective in written format.	Principles
Choice	6.Students now refer to their own lesson plans and specifically the outcomes stated in their lesson plans	7.Students divide into subject groups and lecturer leads a discussion on which types of assessment	Evaluation

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	and add oral and written assessment (in the form of classroom activities and homework) of these questions to their plans.	would be most suitable for different subjects.	

F.II Contact Session 2:

The language of consolidation			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students are asked to summarise what they have learned so far in the course in 5 sentences. 2.They give feedback and lecturer indicates that they should be able to do this type of summary (or consolidation) at the end of each lesson.	3.Lecturer discusses creative and effective ways of consolidating a lesson (visually, by means of rhyme or rap etc.) 4.Lecturer also gives a hand-out with phrases for summarising or consolidating as well as the properties of a good summary.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	5.In groups, students receive an entire lesson plan in their learning area with only the post-task phase of the lesson	7.Lecturer also discusses a hand-out on phrases for ending a lesson and dismissing a class.	Principles

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	incomplete. 6. In groups, they have to add questions for assessment and homework as well as phrases for consolidation of the lesson.		
Choice	8. Students discuss which of these phrases would be most effective for the age of learners they teach as well as for their subjects. They give reasons for their answers.	9. Each group is asked to prepare to conclude and dismiss this specific class. Each group gets a chance to do this and the lecturer gives feedback. 10. Students also have to add a final section to their lesson plans where they have to reflect on their lessons after they have been presented in order to indicate how the lesson can be improved and which strategies were effective.	Evaluation

F.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Badly constructed test
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on formulation of different types of questions, phrases for summarising, consolidating and

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	dismissing a class
Task-generated content resources	Student-generated lesson plans Lesson plans with post-task phases missing

F.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Consolidating a lesson orally and in writing Assessing learners by means of oral and written questions	Questions Imperatives	Summarising Revising Assessing	Dismissing a class

F.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.

F.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to formulate questions for assessment and a homework assignment as part of the lesson plan.
- They also have to add phrases to the lesson plan to greet and dismiss the class.

G Week 7

Theme: Presenting a lesson

Topic: Giving feedback to learners

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- identify and use phrases to give constructive oral feedback to learners during a lesson;
- apply principles of effective written feedback to learners' written and oral assignments;
- design different assessment tools;

(Language Outcomes)

- use phrases for positive and negative feedback;
- write coherent paragraphs;
- use adjectives and adverbs effectively in the description of criteria on a rubric;
- use the imperative effectively;
- appreciate, compliment and encourage learners;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- take responsibility for timely and objective feedback to learners;

G.I Contact Session 1:

Designing assessment tools			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students read through the section on assessment in their subject's National Curriculum Statement (NCS).	2.From the NCS, students make a list of the assessment types and the assessment tools to be used in their subjects. 3.Lecturer gives learners examples of different assessment tools (e.g. memoranda, rubrics, checklists, assessment	Concepts and Classification

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		grids etc.) and students match the tools with the types of assessment.	
Sequence	4. Students look at the example of a rubric again. Lecturer discusses the use of the imperative as well as the use of descriptive words within the level descriptors. 5. Students do a gap-filling exercise where they have to come up with descriptive words of different degrees to formulate the level descriptors of a rubric.	6. Lecturer makes a list of the properties of effective assessment tools and indicate what role the use of language plays in this process. 7. Students also receive a hand-out on the principles of paragraph structure so that they can write coherent comments to learners as part of their feedback.	Principles
Choice	8. Students divide into groups and choose a homework assignment or an activity during the post-task phase of one of the members' lesson plans and design a rubric for that assignment or activity.	9. The groups swap rubrics and they underline the imperative sentences as well as the adjectives and adverbs in the rubrics. They then write a coherent paragraph of feedback in which they comment on the effectiveness of the imperative and the use of adjectives and adverbs.	Evaluation

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		10.The paragraphs and rubrics are collected by the lecturer for assessment.	

G.II Contact Session 2:

Giving feedback to learners			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students discuss their worst and best experiences related to feedback from teachers on their answers in class as well as for their written assignments.	2.Lecturer discusses a hand-out on guidelines for giving written feedback to learners. 3.Teacher also hands out a list of functions and phrases related to constructive oral feedback in class (e.g. encouraging, complimenting, guiding etc.)	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students watch an excerpt from the movie "Dangerous minds" on oral feedback to learners. Lecturer leads a discussion on this feedback based on the hand-outs and the	5.Lecturer shows another excerpt from the movie but this time the sound is on mute. Based on the body language of the learners and the teacher, the students now have to phrase the feedback that	Principles

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	class discussion.	they regard as appropriate in the situation. Lecturer gives feedback on their suggestions and then plays the excerpt (this time with sound) again.	
Choice	6.Students do an exercise where scenarios are sketched and they have to decide what written feedback would be most appropriate in the situation. Each time they have to justify their answers. Lecturer gives feedback on this assignment.	7.Students each receive a written assignment and an assessment tool in their subject field or learning area. They have to mark the assignment for homework and give written feedback based on the guidelines in the hand-out. Their feedback will be marked according to a rubric.	Evaluation

G.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Excerpts from movie "Dangerous minds" Written assignments and assessment tools from different subject fields and learning areas
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on guidelines for written feedback and functions and phrases for oral feedback as well as principles

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	of paragraph structure Rubric
Task-generated content resources	Gap-filling exercise Student-generated lesson plans Multiple choice exercise with sketches of different scenarios
External content resources	National curriculum statements from different subjects and learning areas and for different phases

G.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Giving written and oral feedback to learners	Imperative Adjectives and adverbs Negation	Commending Recommending Complimenting Encouraging Appreciating	Identifying effective body language for feedback Principles of paragraph structure

G.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Gap-filling exercises.
- Problem-based assignments.

G.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to design assessment tools for all the activities and assignments in their lessons.

- Students have to categorize the oral responses under the following headings: a) Completely correct answers b) Learners are on the right track, but are not there yet c) Answer is completely wrong

H **Week 8**

Theme: Communication outside the classroom

Topic: Communicating with colleagues on a casual level

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- conduct casual conversations with colleagues in the staffroom;
- discuss administrative matters with colleagues;
- discuss problems and possible solutions during informal meetings;

(Language Outcomes)

- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write a summary and summarise a conversation orally by making use of the principles of paragraph structure;
- distinguish between the indefinite and the perfect tenses;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- function as member of a staff.

H.I Contact Session 1:

Agreeing and disagreeing with colleagues			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students discuss how they feel and respond when they are being criticised or	3.Lecturer indicates the role that modals played in both instances of the dialogues as well as	Concepts and Classification

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	when someone disagrees with them in a rude manner. 2. Students listen to recorded conversations between teachers where there is polite agreement and disagreement and constructive criticism as well as rude disagreement and unjustified criticism.	transitional devices related to cause and effect. 4. Lecturer also discusses the use of the indefinite tense (e.g. there is a problem with the timetable/we finished it a week ago) vs. the perfect tense (e.g. we have been working on it since last year/I have had enough).	
Sequence	5. Students do an exercise where they have to fill in the correct form of the verb as well as an appropriate transitional device depicting cause and effect based on the context.	6. Lecturer discusses the difference in meaning when different tenses are used. Lecturer stresses the importance of context.	Principles
Choice	7. Each student chooses one problem that they have experienced during their practical teaching so far. They work in pairs and write a dialogue in which they discuss	8. Some students are selected to perform their dialogues and are assessed by the lecturer by means of a rubric.	Evaluation

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	this problem with a colleague and arrive at a solution that is acceptable to both.		

H.II Contact Session 2:

Specifics of informal meetings			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students discuss what they regard as informal meetings and lecturer leads a discussion on the difference between a formal and an informal meeting. Students also discuss whether they think informal meetings are of much value to a teacher.	2.Students read a hand-out on impromptu, one-on-one and informal meetings ¹⁶ 3.Lecturer revises their reading skills by asking questions about the passage to practise their skimming and scanning.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students are provided with a scenario in which they have to consult a colleague	5.Lecturer identifies certain functions implied in the passage on informal meetings that would be necessary for	Principles

¹⁶ An example of such a hand-out can be found on:

www.3mcom/meetingnetwork/readingroom/meetingguide_impromptu

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	informally. They have to think of a way to attract the person's attention without being rude.	effective communication (e.g. attracting attention, asking for permission, interrupting someone, agreeing/disagreeing etc.)	
Choice	6. In pairs, students write down and perform dialogues of a 5 minute informal meeting based on the guidelines given in the passage.	7. Pairs are assessed by their peers in the group and the best pairs from each group perform their meetings in front of the class. The lecturer leads a discussion in which students have to identify the positive and negative aspects of the meetings that are performed. 8. Lecturer hands out the agenda for the meeting which will be held during the next class.	Evaluation

H.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content resources	Recordings of rude and polite conversations between teachers
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on modals, transitional devices, indefinite tenses, informal meetings Rubric

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	Peer assessment checklists Multiple choice exercise on tenses and transitional devices
Task-generated content resources	Scenarios for informal meetings

H.IV Language focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting an informal meeting Listening to gather information	Indefinite and perfect tenses Transitional devices indicating cause and effect Modals	Summarising Informing Questioning	Coherence and cohesion

H.V Techniques and classroom procedures:

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Problem-based activities.

H.VI Homework:

- Students have to write a dialogue between two teachers during a 10 minute informal meeting. They have to pay attention to the use of modals, transitional devices, and tenses.

I Week 9

Theme: Communication outside the classroom

Topic: Conducting a formal meeting

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- take part in a formal staff meeting;
- discuss problems and possible solutions during formal meetings;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a formal conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write an agenda and minutes of a meeting;
- use the past indefinite tense effectively;
- use reported speech effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- effectively contribute to a formal meeting in a professional capacity.

1.1 Contact Session 1:

Attending a formal meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students are welcomed and handed role cards with suggestions for phrases on these cards. It is explained that the entire class will be conducted in the form of a formal meeting. 2.Lecturer acts as the chairperson and welcomes everyone	3.Lecturer goes through the agenda and explains the course of the formal meeting. Each student is expected to take notes on the meeting in order to write the minutes of the meeting at the end for homework. They use the agenda as a framework for taking notes. 4.Under matters arising,	Concepts and Classification

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	to the meeting.	the lecturer revises the functions practised during the informal meetings and indicates how the use of modals can change a phrase that was appropriate in an informal meeting to one that is appropriate in a formal meeting.	
Sequence	4.The first point on the agenda under new matters is for everyone to read through a hand-out on formal meetings.¹⁷ 5.Lecturer asks students questions about the hand-out focusing on their skimming and scanning skills.	6.Students then take part in the rest of the meeting by playing the roles assigned to them on the role cards and using the suggested phrases for these roles.	Principles
Choice	7.The final point on the agenda is whether formal meetings play an important part in the career of a teacher and each member of the meeting should	9.In groups the students assess the meeting that was held in class by means of a rubric and indicate where the meeting procedures could have been improved.	Evaluation

¹⁷ An example of this can be found on www.3m.com/meetingnetwork/readingroom/meetingguide_anatomy

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	argue this point in 1 minute. 8.The lecturer ends the meeting and also hands out an example of the minutes of a meeting and explains each item on the minutes. 9.Teacher also gives students a hand-out and exercise on the reported speech.	10.Students apply these recommendations to their own formal meetings that will be held during the next contact session. They will divide into groups of 5 and each member has to report on his/her lesson plans and how he/she has adapted them so far, based on the lessons from the previous weeks. They will also have to be prepared to answer questions from the other members on their lessons.	

I.II Contact Session 2:

Conducting a formal meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students divide into their groups and give copies of the agenda to each member of the group as well as to the teacher. 2.Students also	3.Students then go through the formal items on the agenda and also report on matters arising from the previous class. 4.Lecturer observes and assesses this part of the	Concepts and Classification

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	indicate who will portray the roles of chairperson and each member will perform the role of secretary as each one will have to write the minutes of the meeting to be held.	meeting by means of a rubric and pays specific attention to the correct use of tone and register in terms of the phrases they learned the previous lesson.	
Sequence	5. Students then take turns to report back on how they have adapted their lessons so far based on the lessons from the past 8 weeks. They each get 5 minutes and they may make use of visual aids. Then the other members are allowed 2 questions to the person regarding the lesson or problems identified.	6. Lecturer observes and assesses this part of the meeting by specifically focusing on students' summarising and presentation skills as well as questioning techniques and the use of linking devices to give coherence and cohesion to the communication.	Principles
Choice	7. Before the meeting closes, the members of the meeting vote on the best presentation. 8. The chairperson then closes the meeting.	9. Students discuss the experience and indicate what they found easy and what they struggled with. 10. Lecturer gives feedback on the observation and assessment.	Evaluation

I.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-outs on formal meetings and reported speech Questions to assess skimming and scanning skills Rubrics for the meeting held during the 1st contact session and for the meetings held in groups Functions and phrases associated with formal meeting
Task-generated content resources	Agenda Minutes of a meeting Student-generated agendas Role cards Exercise on reported speech

I.IV Language focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting a formal meeting	Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses	Skimming	Format of agenda and minutes of a meeting
Listening and taking notes during a meeting	Reported speech	Scanning	
		Agreeing & disagreeing	Conducting and taking part in a formal meeting
		Informing	

I.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Providing a model before expecting a similar task.
- Role play.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Peer assessment.
- Group work.

I.VI *Homework:*

- Students have to write up the minutes of both meetings held during the contact sessions.

J Week 10

Theme: Communication outside the classroom

Topic: Conducting a parent-teacher meeting

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- communicate learners' progress and behaviour to parents in written and oral mode;
- discuss problems and possible solutions during parent-teacher meetings;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a formal or informal conversation;
- make use of transitional expressions and paraphrases to aid communication;
- write a summary and summarise a conversation orally by making use of the principles of paragraph structure;
- use the past indefinite tense effectively;
- describe cause and effect;
- make effective use of modals;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- show respect and extend professional courtesy to parents and learners.

J.I Contact Session 1:

Preparing for a parent-teacher meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.A practising teacher has a talk with students on his/her experiences with parent-teacher meetings. He/she indicates the topics discussed, reactions of difficult parents and relates funny anecdotes. 2.Students have to take notes and are allowed to ask the teacher questions.	3.Lecturer helps the students compile a list of possible objectives of parent-teacher conferences (e.g. to report progress, to commend a learner, to inform parents of a learner's lack of progress or negative attitude etc.)	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students receive a hand-out on functions and phrases related to their lists. They match the phrases with the objectives they have identified.	5.Lecturer refers back to previous hand-out on informal meetings and discusses the steps in the course of an informal meeting. 6.Lecturer also refers back to students' lists of phrases and functions and indicate which	Principles

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		phrases would go with each of the steps (e.g. how to greet them or attract their attention, informing, describing etc.)	
Choice	7.Students are given a scenario that can have several outcomes, depending on the reaction of the parents to the news of their child's progress. 8.Students each write out one dialogue with a possible outcome and appropriate language used by the teacher.	9.Students read their dialogues to one another in groups and discuss at least three possible outcomes to the scenario. 10.Students write out dialogues for all three scenarios and pay specific attention to functions and appropriate phrases uttered by the teacher. They prepare these for a role play during the next contact session. Lecturer guides students while they are working.	Evaluation

J.II Contact Session 2:

Conducting a parent-teacher meeting			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1. Teacher revises the course of a parent-teacher meeting and students are allowed to ask questions before they do their role plays.	2. Lecturer discusses the criteria and level descriptors on the rubric that will be used to assess the role plays.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3. Students perform their role plays in pairs while the rest of the class watches them.	4. Students assess themselves by means of the rubric and compare their self assessment with that of the lecturer, based on the same rubric.	Principles
Choice	5. The class chooses the best three role plays and indicates why those represent good parent-teacher meetings.	6. A practising teacher assesses the three chosen role plays and comment on their effectiveness in terms of practice.	Evaluation

J.III *Texts:*

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-out on functions and phrases related to parent-teacher conferences
Task-generated content resources	Scenarios with descriptions of parent-teacher conferences Student-generated dialogues Rubric
External content resources	Practising teacher (to talk to students and to assess the 3 best role plays)

J.IV *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Conducting a parent-teacher meeting	Transitional devices Modals Indefinite, continuous and perfect tenses Reported speech	Commending Recommending Agreeing & disagreeing	Indicating cause and effect Effective use of body language

J.V *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Combination of formal instruction and facilitation.
- Role play.
- Use of realia.
- Self assessment & peer assessment.

J.VI Homework:

- Students file the three dialogues with the three different outcomes in their portfolios together with the hand-out on phrases and functions.
- Students have to find out from two practising teachers how often they are expected to attend workshops and what topics the workshops are on.

K Week 11

Theme: Communication outside the classroom

Topic: Taking part in a workshop

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- take part in a workshop based on curriculum-related or subject-related topics;
- formulate and ask questions to clarify difficult concepts during workshops;
- give oral feedback on the outcomes of the workshop;

(Language Outcomes)

- conduct a formal conversation;
- formulate questions;
- use paraphrasing to clarify difficult concepts;
- write a summary and summarise a conversation orally by making use of the principles of paragraph structure;
- use the past indefinite tense effectively;
- use reported speech effectively;
- describe cause and effect;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- function effectively within a group of peers.

K.I Contact Session 1:

Preparing for a workshop			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students report back on how important workshops are to teachers and how often they are expected to attend them.	2.Lecturer gives students a hand-out on participating in a workshop.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.Lecturer reads through the hand-out and indicates how a participant to a workshop can prepare for the workshop beforehand.	4.Lecturer explains the different reading skills (skimming, scanning, critical reading), as well as the formulation of questions again.	Principles
Choice	5.Students are given the topic for the workshop that they will be attending during the next contact session (e.g. challenges and solutions for teaching through the medium of English in South Africa)	7.Students give feedback on their expectations and possible questions. 8.Students have to find two recent articles on the internet on this topic, read through the articles and summarise each one in one paragraph. They should also bring the	Evaluation

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	6.Students make a list of three expectations they have of the workshop and three questions that they might want to ask the presenter.	articles to the workshop.	

K.II Contact Session 2:

Taking part in a workshop			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Lecturer introduces the presenter of the workshop (e.g. an official from the DoE or an academic in the field) to the class.	2.Students give feedback on the articles they read as background to the topic and start an introductory discussion with the presenter.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	3.The workshop is presented and students take notes while participating in the workshop.	4.Students take part in the activities required by the presenter and ask questions based on the topic of the workshop.	Principles
Choice	5.The presenter allows for questions or comments at the end of the workshop and each student should at least ask	6.Students give feedback on their experiences during the workshop and indicate what they struggled with in terms of communicating in	Evaluation

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	one question or make one comment.	English. Lecturer replies to students comments and refers to language that has been covered the past 11 weeks.	

K.III Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Hand-out: participating in workshops
Task-generated content resources	Internet articles on the topic of the workshop Topic and short description of the workshop
External content resources	Guest speaker (presenter of the workshop)

K.IV Language focus:

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Preparing for and participating in a workshop	Questions Paraphrases Indefinite tenses Reported speech	Summarising Clarifying concepts Taking notes	Principles of paragraph structure Describing cause and effect

K.V Techniques and classroom procedures:

- Combination of facilitation and formal instruction.
- Reflection and constructive feedback.
- Group work.
- Use of realia.

K.VI Homework:

- Students have to complete an evaluative questionnaire on the workshop.
- Students finalise their lesson plans for the next contact session.
- Students have to prepare a 20 minute lesson presentation for the next contact session.

L Week 12

Theme: Communication in practice

Topic: Presenting a lesson and compiling a portfolio for reference

Outcomes: By the end of this week, students will be able to:

(Content Outcomes)

- present a lesson in their subject field or learning area through the medium of English;
- communicate with colleagues and parents through the medium of English;
- prepare for and conduct informal and formal meetings;
- prepare for and attend a workshop;

(Language Outcomes)

- prove that they can use their portfolios as reference for different communicative tasks expected of them during their teaching career;

(Pedagogy Outcomes)

- realise the importance of preparation when they conduct themselves through the medium of a second language in their jobs.

L.I Contact Sessions 1 & 2

(as this will take more than 45 minutes and students will each make an individual appointment for this task):

Teaching and communicating through the medium of English			
	Specific, Practical (Action situation)	General, Theoretical (Background knowledge)	
Description	1.Students attend this session individually. They greet the teacher and introduce themselves and give a short explanation of why they think it is important to be able to teach to through the medium of English in South Africa.	2.Students do their 20 minute lesson presentations with their group members acting as learners in their class. 3.Students are assessed by means of the English medium of instruction checklist used during the contact sessions on lesson planning and lesson presentation.	Concepts and Classification
Sequence	4.Students draw an assignment from a hat that describes a scenario that happens inside or outside the classroom and requires an oral response or conversation. They have 3 minutes to prepare (and make use of their portfolios)	6.Students are given a written assignment (e.g. friendly/formal letter, minutes of a meeting, summary, mindmap or visual organiser) and they have 30 minutes to complete this written assignment. They are allowed to make use of their portfolios.	Principles

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	and then they have to respond in terms of a role play with the lecturer as the other party. 5.Students are assessed by means of a rubric.	7.The written assignment is assessed by means of a rubric.	
Choice	8.Students present their portfolios and indicate how they have organised the information and answer questions about the assignments and examples in the portfolio. 9.Portfolios are assessed by means of a checklist.	9.Students receive feedback on their performance and they have a chance to respond to the feedback before the marks for each of the assignments are finalised.	Evaluation

L.II Texts:

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-generated content resources	Rubrics: spoken assignment, written assignment Checklists: EMol¹⁸ and portfolio
Task-generated content resources	Student-generated lesson <i>plans</i> &

¹⁸ This is a checklist that was developed by Uys (2006) for teachers in South Africa who teach through the medium of English.

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	presentations Student-generated portfolios Scenarios which require spoken communication inside and outside the classroom List of written assignments required of teachers inside and outside the classroom

L.III *Language focus:*

Skills	Structures	Functions	Discourse
Presenting a lesson	Indefinite tenses	Explaining	Formats of friendly letter, agenda, minutes, summary
Having formal or informal conversations	Questions	Describing	
	Imperatives	Suggesting	Effective use of body language
Writing formal or informal texts	Modals	Defining	
	Adjectives and adverbs	Agreeing & disagreeing	Effective use of visual aids
	Transitional devices indicating cause and effect	Commending	Principles of paragraph structure
	Reported speech	Recommending	
	Pre-and suffixes		
	Paraphrases		

L.IV *Techniques and classroom procedures:*

- Facilitation.
- Role play.
- Use of reference materials.

- Negotiation of feedback and assessment.

L.V Homework:

- Students complete and evaluative questionnaire on the course.

7.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, the application of the generative framework was illustrated by indicating how an outline for a course for specific purposes can be designed by following the step-by-step instructions. The outlines for two courses were designed with these step-by-step instructions. The two courses were an ESP course for pre-service teaching students and an ESP course for pre-service engineering students. Even though the courses differed in terms of the content, language and pedagogy, the same steps could still be followed to arrive at different end results.

8. CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

The aims of this study were to design a generative, user-friendly framework for ESP courses and to apply this framework in the design of two ESP courses. This chapter discusses the extent to which these aims were achieved and also provides recommendations for further research.

8.2 A Generative Framework for ESP Courses

The Generative Framework that was developed as part of this study has taken into account a number of factors related to ESP course design. It guides the course designer to start from the more general level of polity determination through all the levels up to the very specific teaching-learning situation where decisions are made with regard to methods. Furthermore, the latest spiral model of course design is inherent to the framework.

Two other frameworks for course design namely Munby's (1978) Communication Needs Processor (CNP) and the Common European Framework (CEF) (Council of Europe, 2001) were also discussed in terms of their usefulness for ESP course design. Through this discussion it became apparent that both these frameworks have limitations and that there is room for a more user-friendly, generative framework for ESP courses in particular.

The framework also provides the designer with options in terms of the theoretical foundations of the course as it is based on the three dimensions of ESP courses, namely language, content and pedagogy. Each of these aspects were highlighted in terms of the development of the theory of ESP courses. Different approaches and the methods that developed from them were discussed in order to indicate that the ESP course designer today has a myriad of possibilities in terms of the combination of approaches and methods. This means that the course designer does not have to reinvent the wheel, but that he/she can choose the most effective approaches and methods suited to the specific needs identified.

Finally, the Generative Framework was then applied to the development of two ESP courses, namely an ESP course for pre-service engineers and an ESP course for pre-service teachers at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University.

8.3 The ESP Courses

In the ESP course for pre-service engineering students an eclectic approach was taken. It was a combination of a Formalist Approach which emphasises the importance of the formal instruction of rules and structures in language as well as the Functionalist Approach where communicative competence and an awareness of discourse aspects play an important role. In order to teach the discourse aspects, Krashen's Input Hypothesis was applied. Furthermore, the ESP course was based on a combination of the theme-based and adjunct models of CBI (Content-Based Instruction).

An eclectic approach was also taken for the pre-service teacher trainees, with a combination of the Functionalist and Formalist Approaches. However, the focus of this course was on the importance of interaction and there was a greater emphasis on the development of the four language skills (with listening and speaking receiving more attention). Some formal instruction was also incorporated, but students were made aware of these rules in the course of the development of their communication skills.

Both courses culminated into an outline in which general outcomes for each course as well as specific outcomes for each of the 24 contact sessions were specified. Tasks were specified and graded according to their frequency of use as described by the needs analyses as well as through the use of Mohan's (1986) model which works from the specific action situation to the general background knowledge. Texts were listed in terms of Grabe and Stoller's classification and a language checklist for each contact session indicated the language focus of each task (in terms of skills, structures, functions and discourse aspects). Furthermore, guidelines were given with regard to techniques and classroom procedures as well as for homework.

8.4 Limitations of the Study

The Generative Framework proposed as part of this study has the obvious limitation that it has only been tested on the development of two ESP courses. It will need to be tested on the development of several and varied ESP courses in order to prove whether it is generative enough for a wide application.

Furthermore, I found that in the first stages of the development of each course up to the specification of the outcomes, the whole process seemed very mechanical and not much creativity is required. This is demotivating to the course designer and, if this becomes a mechanical process whereby the course designer does not grasp the importance of a solid theoretical foundation, it can lead to ESP courses that are very similar and still not specific enough.

However, as soon as I started with the organisation and conceptualisation of each of the actual courses, it required much creativity and synthesis skills in order to reach the outcomes in a practical and interesting manner within the classroom. This is time-consuming, but it helps the course designer to focus on the outcomes that were identified from the needs analysis and, therefore the course designer can be sure that the identified needs are addressed.

The visual representation of the framework looks deceptively simple in order to illustrate the whole process of course design in one glance. However, the course designer will have to be well-informed on the theory of ESP course design or will have to be willing to read up on the different theories in order to provide an effective theoretical foundation for the course.

8.5 Future Research

A number of implications for future research can be pointed out:

- The Generative Framework will have to be tested and applied more widely in terms of the fields of ESP as well as in terms of different course designers.
- The designed courses can only really be assessed after they have been implemented as a course can not prove that the outcomes will be achieved. An assessment of the course after it has first been presented

for the twelve weeks will give a better indication of the effectiveness of the Generative Framework.

- The Generative Framework includes the three dimensions of ESP course design (language, content and pedagogy), but places a greater emphasis on language and content in the process of course design. The whole issue of pedagogical outcomes could be further explored and better integrated into the other two dimensions.
- Research into ESP course design can be expected to continue, and with these developments the generative framework will still have to be proven to remain generative enough in order to include future developments. This remains to be seen.

8.6 Conclusion

It is hoped that the development of the Generative Framework will contribute to the complicated and tedious process of developing effective ESP courses. The aim of the study was to aid course designers by providing a solid theoretical foundation for each course that is still relevant to the special requirements of communicating through the medium of English within a specific situation. Furthermore, it is hoped that the steps recommended as part of the framework will save the course designer time without overlooking the needs that were identified as part of the needs analysis.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire
Interview Guide

QUESTIONNAIRE: PROFESSIONALS

This questionnaire must be completed by a professional or lecturer in the field

Information and Instructions

Please do not provide your name on the questionnaire as the information will only be used for research purposes and not to identify anyone.

Please answer the questionnaire on the grounds of your experience in the field.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine the communicative demands on English second language speakers in the field.

Section A: Biographic Information

- 1 What is your current occupation? _____

- 2 In which of the following contexts do you use English in your job? *(Please mark all applicable answers)*

2.1	locally	☐	1
2.2	nationally	☐	2
2.3	internationally	☐	3

- 3 What type of position do you have? *(Please mark the applicable answer)*

3.1	manual worker	☐	1
3.2	administrative assistant	☐	2
3.3	technician	☐	3
3.4	manager/senior administrator	☐	4
3.5	professional practitioner	☐	5
3.6	officer	☐	6
3.7	other	☐	7

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

- 4 How many years experience do you have as a professional in the field? *(Please mark the applicable answer)*

4.1	less than 1 year	☐	1
4.2	1 - 2 years	☐	2
4.3	3 - 5 years	☐	3
4.4	5 - 10 years	☐	4
4.5	More than 10 years	☐	5

- 5 What is your home language? *(Please mark the applicable answer)*

5.1	English		1
5.2	Afrikaans		2
5.3	Sesotho		3
5.4	Setswana		4
5.5	Northern Sotho		5
5.6	Siswati		6
5.7	Tshivenda		7
5.8	IsiZulu		8
5.9	IsiXhosa		9
5.10	IsiNdebele		10
5.1	Xitsonga		11
5.1	Other		12

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

Section B: Communicative demands in the field

Answer the following questions by indicating how often the mentioned aspects apply to a job in your field:

1 = never

2 = a few times a year

3 = a few times a month

4 = a few times a week

5 = daily

- 1 I have to make use of the following NON-VERBAL devices as part of communication in my job:

	1	2	3	4	5	
1.1						1
1.2						2
1.3						3
1.4						4
1.5						5

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

- 2 I have to READ the following texts in English as part of my job:

	1	2	3	4	5	
2.1						1
2.2						2
2.3						3
2.4						4
2.5						5
2.6						6

2.7	computer/internet texts						7
2.8	instructions						8
2.9	newspaper reports						9
2.10	textbooks						10
2.1	research papers						11
2.1	long passages						12
2.1	short passages						13
2.1	scripts						14
2.2	formal letters						15
2.2	applications						16
2.2	questionnaires						17
2.2	brochures						18
2.2	newsletters						19
2.20	summaries						20
2.2	policy documents						21
2.2	laws						22
2.2	curriculum vitae						23
2.2	résumés						24
2.3	informal letters						25
2.3	newspapers						26
2.3	notices						27
2.3	memos						28
2.3	advertisements						29
2.30	pictures						30
2.3	symbols						31
2.3	technical reports						32
2.3	graphs						33
2.3	maps						34
2.4	other						35

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

3 I READ English texts in my job for the following reasons:

		1	2	3	4	5	
3.1	verifying information						1
3.2	classifying information						2
3.3	critical evaluation						3
3.4	comparing facts						4
3.5	proofreading						5
3.6	other						6

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

4 I WRITE the following texts in English as part of my job:

	1	2	3	4	5	
4.1	formal letters					1
4.2	informal letters					2
4.3	public speeches					3
4.4	prescriptions					4
4.5	recommendations					5
4.6	newspaper reports					6
4.7	summaries					7
4.8	paraphrases					8
4.9	articles					9
4.10	notices					10
4.1	memos					11
4.1	curriculum vitae					12
4.1	résumés					13
4.1	filling in forms					14
4.2	brochures					15
4.2	newsletters					16
4.2	advertisements					17
4.2	receipts					18
4.2	invoices					19
4.20	manuals					20
4.2	symbols					21
4.2	charts					22
4.2	maps					23
4.2	graphs					24
4.3	lesson plans					25
4.3	essays					26
4.3	technical reports					27
4.3	research papers					28
4.3	policy documents					29
4.30	laws					30
4.3	notes					31
4.3	dictation					32
4.3	definitions					33
4.3	financial statements					34
4.4	e-mails					35
4.4	homepages					36
4.4	minutes of a meeting					37
4.4	presentations					38
4.4	other					39

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

5 I WRITE English texts in my job for the following reasons:

	1	2	3	4	5	
5.1	advising someone					1
5.2	quoting a source					2
5.3	quoting for a service					3
5.4	agreeing/disagreeing					4

5.5	apologising						5
5.6	appreciating						6
5.7	assessing						7
5.8	classifying						8
5.9	comparing						9
5.10	complaining						10
5.1	complimenting						11
5.1	describing						12
5.1	expressing emotions						13
5.1	greeting						14
5.2	informing						15
5.2	instructing						16
5.2	giving permission						17
5.2	persuading						18
5.2	asking questions						19
5.20	reporting						20
5.2	suggesting						21
5.2	sympathising						22
5.2	verifying facts						23
5.2	other						24

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

6 I LISTEN to the following in English as part of my job:

		1	2	3	4	5	
6.1	speeches						1
6.2	instructions						2
6.3	directions						3
6.4	complaints						4
6.5	suggestions						5
6.6	announcements						6
6.7	recommendations						7
6.8	questions						8
6.9	workshops						9
6.10	seminars						10
6.1	lectures						11
6.1	presentations						12
6.1	the radio						13
6.1	television						14
6.2	negotiations						15
6.2	telephone conversations						16
6.2	dictation						17
6.2	audio recordings						18
6.2	video recordings						19
6.20	formal meetings						20
6.2	informal meetings						21
6.2	formal conversations						22
6.2	casual conversations						23
6.2	other						24

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

7 I LISTEN during different situations in my job for the following reasons:

	1	2	3	4	5	
7.1	sympathising					1
7.2	verifying facts					2
7.3	assessing					3
7.4	taking notes					4
7.5	other					5

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

8 I perform the following SPEAKING tasks in English as part of my job:

	1	2	3	4	5	
8.1	giving speeches					1
8.2	complaining					2
8.3	giving directions					3
8.4	making suggestions					4
8.5	giving instructions					5
8.6	negotiating					6
8.7	making announcements					7
8.8	making recommendations					8
8.9	asking questions					9
8.10	giving lectures					10
8.1	taking part in workshops					11
8.1	attending seminars					12
8.1	making presentations					13
8.1	doing interviews					14
8.2	formal conversations					15
8.2	casual conversations					16
8.2	telephone conversations					17
8.2	communicating on television					18
8.2	communicating on the radio					19
8.20	other					20

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

9 I SPEAK English in my job for the following reasons

	1	2	3	4	5	
9.1	agreeing/disagreeing					1
9.2	apologising					2
9.3	appreciating					3

9.4	assessing						4
9.5	classifying						5
9.6	comparing						6
9.7	complaining						7
9.8	complimenting						8
9.9	demonstrating						9
9.10	describing						10
9.1	expressing emotions						11
9.1	greeting						12
9.1	informing						13
9.1	giving permission						14
9.2	persuading						15
9.2	asking questions						16
9.2	reporting						17
9.2	suggesting						18
9.2	sympathising						19
9.20	verifying facts						20
9.2	other						21

If you marked 'other', please specify: _____

Section C: General Information

- 1 Make a list of the 5 most relevant topics that somebody working in a job in your field should be most familiar with (e.g. "Heat Transfer" or "Human Physiology" etc.):

- 2 Make a list of the 5 most important tasks that you have to perform in English as part of your job: (e.g. "Managing a project" or "Conducting a meeting" etc.)

Interview Guide: Professionals**1. Biographic Information**

- 1.1 What is your current occupation?
- 1.2 What qualifications do you have?
- 1.3 Where do you work?
- 1.4 How many years' experience do you have?
- 1.5 Give a short description of your career history so far.
- 1.6 What is your home language?

2. A day in the life of a ...

- 2.1 What do you like most about your job?
- 2.2 What do you like least about your job?
- 2.3 How often do you use English to communicate as part of your job?
- 2.4 Describe a typical day on the job.
- 2.5 What reading/writing/listening/speaking tasks do you perform often In English as part of your job?
- 2.6 What do you spend most of your time on during the day?
- 2.7 What can't you do without in your job?

3. Sensitive language issues:

- 3.1 What do you struggle with in terms of communicating in English?
- 3.2 What do your colleagues struggle with most in terms of their English communication?
- 3.3 What are you most embarrassed about in terms of your English communication?
- 3.4 What do you regard as a proficient English language speaker?
- 3.5 Which aspects of communication (e.g. reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, spelling etc.) is most important in your job?

4. Suggestions for language support:

- 4.1 What resources do you use at work to aid you in your English communication?
- 4.2 How often do you ask your colleagues for help or support on your English communication?
- 4.3 What would you like to see in an ESP course for someone in your field? What should such a course focus on?

Appendix 2

Criteria Academic Poster
Rubric Power Point Presentation
Rubric Technical Report
EMoI Checklist
Rubric Letter of Application

CRITERIA: ACADEMIC POSTER

(Adapted from the following two websites:

- <http://www.engr.ucr.edu/mesa/scholarcomp/clgexpr/college%20poster%20board%20scoring%20rubric.doc>
- <http://www.iatefl.org/content/newsletter/167.php>)

DISPLAY/BOARD/VISUAL PRESENTATION	Excellent 5	Good 4	Average 3	Fair 2	Poor 1	Missing 0
Accuracy: Graphs properly labelled. Research/sources cited. Student's name displayed clearly and neatly. College/University name prominently displayed						
Layout: Very good use of space, neat, uncluttered, very easy to follow, alignment logical						
Key features well identified (Admissions Requirements, College Expenses/Financial Aid, Majors/Academic Programs, Co-curricular Information, Team Choice)						
Visual Appeal: display space captures and holds attention of passers-by effectively, repetition/contrast of features (e.g. colours, shapes, font) creates an integrated whole						
Creativity: Creative use of visual-tactile material. Information presented/displayed in a creative way						
Variety: Student used a variety of methods to display/communicate information						
Informative: Information presented provides audience with effective overview of highlighted areas						
Comprehensiveness: Provides in depth, concise, unique, and understandable information. Student provided enough information about each topic.						

Rubric: Powerpoint Presentation

(Adapted from the following two websites:

- <http://www.artteacherconnection.com/pages/powerpointtrubric.htm>
- http://www.uen.org/Rubric/rubric.cgi?rubric_id=16)

	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement
Subject knowledge	Subject knowledge is evident throughout the presentation. All information is clear, appropriate, and correct.	Subject knowledge is evident in much of the project. Most information is clear, appropriate and correct.	Some subject knowledge is evident. Some information is confusing, incorrect or flawed.	Subject knowledge is not evident. Information is confusing, incorrect, or flawed.
Flow of presentation	The sequence of information is logical and intuitive. Timing and order of appearance flows smoothly in each slide. All transitions are alike.	The sequence of information is logical. Menus and paths to most information are clear and direct. Sounds are irritating and confusing in a few slides. Timing and order of appearance is not as effective in a few slides.	The sequence of information is somewhat logical. Menus and paths are confusing and flawed. Timing and order of appearance is not consistent on all slides.	The sequence of information is not logical. Menus and paths to information are not evident. Sounds and images are irritating and confusing in most slides.
Grammar, punctuation and spelling	There are no errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation. Bullets are consistent and clear. Information is clear and concise on each slide.	There are no errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation. Most bullets are consistent and clear. Information is clear, but can be more concise on each slide.	There are some errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation. Too much information on two or more slides.	There are many errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation. Bullet format is not consistent or clear. Too much information on many of the slides.
Originality	The project shows significant evidence of originality and inventiveness. The majority of the content and many of the ideas are fresh,	The project shows some evidence of originality and inventiveness.	The work is an extensive collection and rehash of other people's ideas, products, and images. There is little evidence of	The work is a minimal collection or rehash of other people's ideas, products, and images. There is no evidence of new

	original, and inventive.		new thought or inventiveness.	thought.
Technical aspects	Presentation runs perfectly with no technical problems. No error messages.	Project runs adequately with minor technical problems.	Project runs minimally. There are many technical problems when viewing the project.	Project does not run satisfactorily. There are too many technical problems to view the project.

Rubric: Technical Report

(Adapted from the following two websites:

- <http://www.winona.edu/AIR/documents/TechnicalDesignRubric.pdf>
- <http://www.winona.edu/AIR/resourcelinks/writing.doc>)

	Expert	Practitioner	Apprentice	Novice
Identification of the problem	The problem has been shown (not just stated) to exist with supporting factual evidence.	A problem statement has been stated.	The problem statement has weak support.	Problem has not been stated clearly and lacks any supporting evidence.
Research and information gathering	Existing solutions to the problems, including their good and bad points, have been stated.	Existing solutions have been stated. Additional discussion may be warranted in places.	A complete review of existing solutions and research related to this problem is not presented.	Connection between references and what is written is not clear. Little investigation has been done.
Development and execution of a plan	All major points of the project were executed and completed.	Most major project points were accomplished.	Few of the major project points were executed and completed.	None of the major project points were accomplished.
Technical level of project	A significant portion of this project involves technical information outside the scope of the curriculum.	Several technical aspects were new to the student and required research.	This project contains some research but mostly involves technical information taught as part of the curriculum.	This project did not challenge the students to perform much research, as it relied mainly on information taught within the curriculum.
Knowledge of conventions	In addition to meeting the requirements of "Practitioner", the writing is essentially error-free in terms of mechanics. Models the style and format appropriate to that of a report.	While there may be minor errors, the paper follows normal conventions of spelling and grammar throughout and has been carefully proofread. Appropriate conventions for style and format are used consistently throughout the writing sample. Demonstrates thoroughness and competence in documenting sources.	Frequent errors in spelling, grammar, sentence structure and/or other writing conventions distract the reader. Writing does not consistently follow appropriate style and/or format. Source documentation is incomplete.	Writing contains numerous errors in spelling, grammar and/or sentence structure which interfere with comprehension. Style and/or format are inappropriate for the assignment.
Clarity and coherence	In addition to meeting the requirements for a "Practitioner", writing flows smoothly from on idea to another. The writer has taken pains to assist the reader in following the logic of the ideas expressed.	Sentences are structured an words are chosen to communicate ideas clearly. Sequencing of ideas within paragraphs and transitions between paragraphs make the writer's points easy to follow.	Sentence structure and/or word choice sometimes interfere with clarity. Needs to improve sequencing of ideas within paragraphs and transitions between paragraphs to make the writing easy to follow.	Sentence structure, word choice, lack of transitions and/or sequencing of ideas make reading and understanding difficult.
Rhetorical choices	In addition to meeting the requirements for a "Practitioner", the writer's decisions about focus, organisation, style/tone, and content made	The writer has made good decisions about focus, organization, style/tone, and content to communicated clearly and effectively. The	The writer's decision about focus, organisation, style/tone and/or content sometimes interfere with clear, effective communication. The	The writer's decisions about focus, organisation, style/tone, and/or content interfere with communication. The purpose of the writing is

	reading a pleasurable experience. Writing could be used as a model of how to write a report.	purpose and focus of the writing are clear to the reader and the organisation and content achieve the purpose well. Writing follows all requirements for the assignment.	purpose of the writing is not fully achieved. All requirements of the assignment may not be fulfilled.	not achieved. Requirements of the assignment have not been fulfilled.

CRITERIA for English Medium of Instruction (EMol) as defined and designed by Uys(2006)		Yes	No	Comments
Clearly Defined Content Outcomes (Objectives)	Are content objectives explicitly stated (written down, orally explained)?			
	Are the outcomes measurable? (Are relevant verbs used to describe outcomes?)			
	Are the outcomes attainable? (Does educator set realistic expectations?)			
	Are the outcomes appropriate for the grade and educational background of the learners?			
	Are difficult academic concepts or terminology simplified according to the needs of the learners?			
	Are outcomes sequenced from objectives requiring least conceptual knowledge and language skills to objectives requiring most conceptual knowledge and language skills?			
Clearly Defined Language Outcomes (Objectives)	Are language outcomes explicitly stated and communicated to the learners? (Written down/oral explanation etc.)			
	Do language objectives include both content-obligatory language and content-compatible language?			
	Are academic reading and writing skills explained and scaffolded?			
Clearly Defined Task Outcomes (Objectives)	Has the educator identified the language and content knowledge and skills required for completing the learning tasks?			

	Has the educator broken down content and language objectives into a variety of tasks with measurable outcomes?			
	Are tasks and instructions clearly explained?			
	Do tasks promote both language acquisition and conceptual development?			
Meaningful and Appropriate Resources	Has the educator developed his or her own teaching and learning materials to meet the needs of the learners?			
	Has existing material been adapted in order to accommodate the specific academic and linguistic needs of the learners in the classroom?			
	Do resources contribute to clarifying difficult concepts?			
	Are learning support materials in place to aid learners with tasks? i.e.: Sample sentences, vocabulary, additional resources etc.			
Fluent Communication	Does the educator annotate and explain subject material and classroom activities in a clear and understandable way?			
	Does the educator enunciate clearly?			
	Does the educator supply synonyms for technical vocabulary and terminology?			
	Does the educator adapt sentence structures according to the proficiency of the learners?			

	Does the educator clarify vague terminology and ambiguous or metaphorical sentences?			
	Does the educator provide input that is challenging yet understandable to all learners?			
Contextuali-sation	Does the educator introduce strategies for linking prior linguistic and cultural knowledge to new content and language objectives?			
	Does the educator employ visual aids such as graphs, realia, overheads, maps and pictures to bridge the gap between prior knowledge and new knowledge/ the abstract and the concrete?			
	Does the educator make a reading passage accessible to the learners by helping them identify the gist or key concepts?			
	Does the educator adopt presentational skills that promote understanding in learners? e.g. rate of speech, gestures, pauses, facial expressions, register.			
	Does the educator introduce pre-writing and pre-reading activities before actual learning tasks are set?			
Purposeful Interaction	Has the educator designed cooperative learning activities such as group work and interactive tasks?			
	Does the educator provide scaffolding in the form of vocabulary, language structures and examples of how the activity should be completed?			
	Does the educator review key terms?			

Classroom Atmosphere	Has the educator created an atmosphere and opportunities for learners to attain attitude outcomes such as willingness to take part in discussions?			
Assessment	Have the learners been made aware of the criteria for assessment of the learning tasks for this specific lesson?			
	Does the educator use assessment strategies that meet the principles of high quality assessment practices?			
	Does the educator check comprehension of content and language throughout the lesson?			
	Does the educator assess and/or provide feedback on content outcomes throughout the lesson?			
	Does the educator assess and/or provide feedback on language outcomes throughout the lesson? (Supply formal language instruction)			
	Are additional strategies and remedial exercises introduced if language and/or content outcomes are not attained?			
Personal language proficiency	How proficient is the teacher in terms of range, coherence, fluency, interaction, accuracy.			
Presentational skills	Does the teacher use presentational skills such as variance in tone, register, rate of delivery etc			

TOTAL	40		Superior (36-40) Advanced (30-35) Adequate (24-29) Limited (20-23) Minimal (0-19)

Rubric: Letter of Application			
(adapted from http://students.ed.uiuc.edu/catey/letterofaprubric.html)			
Ideas and Content	Weak 1-2	Average 3-4	Strong 5-6
1. Contains an engaging introduction that identifies the purpose.	.	.	.
2. Fulfills the writer's general purpose and specific goals.	.	.	.
3. States ideas clearly and elaborates on them with specific supporting details and examples.	.	.	.
4. Uses vivid, precise language that is appropriate to the audience and the writing type.	.	.	.
5. Includes an effective conclusion.	.	.	.
Structure and Form	.	.	.
6. Includes a well-developed introduction, body, and conclusion.	.	.	.
7. Demonstrates proper and effective paragraphing.	.	.	.
8. Uses a logical, effective organizational strategy consistent with the writing type.	.	.	.
9. Includes transitional words and phrases to show relationships among ideas and maintain coherence within and between paragraphs.	.	.	.
10. Uses a variety of sentence structures.	.	.	.
Grammar, Usage, and Mechanics.	.	.	.
11. Contains no errors in grammar and usage.	.	.	.
12. Contains no errors in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.	.	.	.
Total:	.	.	.
Percentage:	.	.	.